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ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE.

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IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AMERICA.

FORMING A COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE, OF HUMAN LEARNING IN EVERY PART OF THE WORLD.

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AND ENRICHED

WITH PORTRAITS OF EMINENT AND LEARNED PERSONAGES, IN ALL AGES OF THE WORLD.

TOGETHER WITH

A COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM OF HERALDRY,

FINELY ILLUMINATED, AND ENRICHED WITH THE ARMORIAL BEARINGS OF THE ROYAL FAMILY; OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, NOBILITY; OF THE BARONETS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM; AND OF NUMEROUS DISTINGUISHED FAMILIES, PATRONS OF THIS WORK.

COMPILED, DIGESTED, AND ARRANGED,

BY JOHN WILKES, OF MILLAND HOUSE, IN THE COUNTY OF SUSSEX, ESQUIRE;

ASSISTED BY EMINENT SCHOLARS OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, UNIVERSITIES.

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1810.

Non audiendi sunt homines imperiti, qui humano ingenio majorem, vel inutilem, et rebus gerendis adverſam πολυμαθειαν criminantur. Eſt ſcilicet quædam Scientiarum cognatio et conciliatio; unde et Εγκυκλοπαιδειαν *vocant Græci; ut in unâ perfectus dici nequeat, qui cæteras non attigerit.*—Morhofi Polyhistor, l. i. c. i. s. i.

Those inexperienced perſons, who make it a charge of accuſation againſt variety and extenſive learning, that it exceeds the compaſs of human ability, or is uſeleſs, or that it is an impediment to tranſacting buſineſs, deſerve no attention. For there is between the Sciences a degree of natural and cloſe connexion; from which the Greeks uſe the term "Encyclopædia;" so that no one can be perfect in any one Science, who has not attained to ſome knowledge of the reſt.

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DESCRIPTION OF THE FRONTISPIECE ILLUSTRATIVE OF ENGLAND.

BRITANNIA, IN AN ERECT POSTURE, ATTENDED BY HER TUTELARY LION, FIRMLY GRASPING THE ARMS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, AND GROWLING DEFIANCE AT THE THREE FIGURES WHO APPEAR TO BE THREATENING HER, AS THE DÆMONS OF WAR, SEDITION, AND REBELLION, IS HOLDING OUT THE OLIVE-BRANCH, AS EMBLEMATIC OF PEACE, TO THE FOUR QUARTERS OF THE WORLD, WHO APPEAR IN THEIR PROPER COSTUMES, HUMBLY SUPPLICATING HER PROTECTION. AT A DISTANCE ARE SEEN HER MERCHANT SHIPS SAILING IN SAFETY, AND A FORTRESS WITH THE FLAG OF ENGLAND PROUDLY WAVING IN THE AIR.

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DOD'DER, *ſ.* in botany. See CUSCUTA.

DOD'DERED, *adj.* Overgrown with dodder; covered with ſupercreſcent plants:

The peaſants were enjoin'd
Sere-wood, and firs, and *dodder'd* oaks, to find. *Dryden.*

DOD'DRIDGE (Philip), an eminent Engliſh nonconformiſt divine and tutor, ſon of a reſpectable tradeſman in London, where he was born, in 1702. It was Mr. Doddridge's misfortune to be left an orphan when he was only thirteen years of age, and ſoon afterwards to loſe the whole of the property that was left him, by the miſmanagement of the perſon to whom the care of it was entruſted. In theſe circumſtances, Dr. Samuel Clark liberally furniſhed him with the means of continuing his claſſical ſtudies; and, finding him ſtrongly inclined to the work of the Chriſtian miniſtry, took him into his own houſe, under his perſonal inſtruction, where he was ſupplied with the moſt proper books for improvement, and had the ſentiments of virtue and piety, in which he was early initiated, confirmed and ſtrengthened in his mind. In 1725, he firſt fixed his reſidence at Market-Harborough, for the ſake of enjoying the inſtructive converſation and advice of the learned paſtor of a diſſenting congregation in that town, to whom he was choſen aſſiſtant; and with whom he continued until he opened his academy at Harborough, in the year 1729. He had not entered upon the office of a tutor many months, when a vacancy took place in a conſiderable congregation at Northampton, who had long admired him as a preacher, and who were now urgent with him to accept of the paſtoral charge of their ſociety. He therefore removed with his academy to Northampton, towards the cloſe of the year laſt mentioned. During the twenty-two years in which he ſuſtained the office of a tutor, he had about 200 young men under his care, of whom 120 entered upon the work of the miniſtry. His conduct in that character cannot be too highly commended for diligence, prudence, and conciliating manners; and of the excellent effects of the ſyſtem which he purſued, the many learned and reſpectable men who proceeded from his ſeminary, and who honourably diſtinguiſhed themſelves as miniſters, or in the departments of civil life, bear ample teſtimony. During the courſe of his active life he publiſhed, and prepared for the preſs, a variety of works which entitle him to no ſmall reputation as an author. In 1730, Mr. Doddridge publiſhed, Free Thoughts on the moſt probable Means of reviving the diſſenting Intereſt, in which his politeneſs and candour as a diſputant are pleaſingly exhibited. In 1732 he publiſhed a volume of Sermons on the Education of Children; and in 1735, a volume of Sermons to young Men; both of which were favourably received by the world, and have gone through many editions. In 1736, he publiſhed Ten Sermons on the Power and Grace of Chriſt; and The Evidences of his glorious Goſpel. During the ſame year the univerſity of Aberdeen conferred upon him the degree of doctor in divinity. In 1739, Dr. Doddridge gave to the public the firſt volume of his valuable work, The Family Expoſitor; or, a Paraphraſe and Verſion of the New Teſtament, with critical Notes, and a practical Improvement of each Section. The merits of this work are ſo generally known and acknowledged, that any farther notice of its character is entirely unneceſſary. The ſecond volume made its appearance in 1740. In the following year Dr. Doddridge publiſhed a volume of Practical Diſcourſes upon Regeneration; and, in 1742 and 1743, Three Letters to the Author of a Treatiſe, intitled, Chriſtianity not founded on Argument. In 1743, he publiſhed, The Principles of the Chriſtian Religion, in eaſy Verſe, for the Uſe of Children and Youth; alſo, The Riſe and Progreſs of Religion in the Soul; ſince tranſlated into the Dutch, German, Daniſh, and French, languages. In 1747, Dr. Doddridge publiſhed, Some remarkable Paſſages in the Life of the Hon. Colonel James Gardiner; and in 1748 appeared the third volume of The Family Expoſitor, and alſo the Expoſitory Works, and other remains, of archbiſhop Leighton, which were reviſed by Dr. Doddridge; and, together with his tranſlation of the archbiſhop's Latin Prelections, publiſhed at Edinburgh, in two vols. The laſt of Dr. Doddridge's works, publiſhed during his life-time, was intitled, A plain and ſerious Addreſs to the Maſter of a Family, on the important Subject of Family Religion. Of his grand work, The Family Expoſitor, three volumes were left unpubliſhed at the time of his death. He had, however, finiſhed the copy of the whole; ſo that in 1754 the fourth volume was publiſhed by Mr. Orton, and the fifth and ſixth in the year 1756. In 1755, Mr. Orton likewiſe publiſhed a collection of Dr. Doddridge's Hymns, founded on various Texts in the Holy Scriptures. The laſt work of Dr. Doddridge which was given to the public, was his Courſe of Lectures on the principal Subjects of Pneumatology, Ethics, and Divinity; with References to the moſt conſiderable Authors on each Subject. It appeared in 1763, in one volume quarto, under the care of the reverend Samuel

Clark of Birmingham, the ſon of the doctor's earlieſt benefactor, and at the time of his death his aſſiſtant in the academy. In 1794, a new and improved edition of it, in two volumes octavo, was publiſhed by the late Dr. Kippis, who had been a pupil under Dr. Doddridge. On the decline of his health he was adviſed to take a voyage to Liſbon, where he met with every friendly attention and medical aid. But his caſe was hopeleſs; and he died on the 26th of October, 1751. The character of this great and good man, is thus drawn by his biographer Dr. Kippis: "The prime and leading feature of his ſoul, was that of devotion. The greateſt pains were taken by him to keep up an habitual ſenſe of the Supreme Being; to maintain and increaſe the ardour of religion in his heart; and to furniſh himſelf, by devout exerciſes, for the important labours of his ſtation. Nor was it to his ſecret retirements that his piety was limited: it was manifeſted in every part of the day, and appeared in his uſual intercourſe with men. In the little vacancies of time which occur to the buſieſt of mankind, he was frequently lifting up his ſoul to God. When he lectured on philoſophy, hiſtory, anatomy, or other ſubjects not immediately theological, he would endeavour to graft ſome religious inſtructions upon them, that he might raiſe the minds of his pupils to devotion, as well as to knowledge; and in his viſits to his people, the Chriſtian friend and miniſter were united."

DODECADAC'TYLUS, *ſ.* [from δωδεκα, twelve, and δακτυλος, a finger.] The duodenum, a gut often ſo named, becauſe its length is about the breadth of twelve fingers. At the time this name was given, anatomy conſiſted in the diſſection of brutes; and the length was therefore probably adjudged from the gut of ſome animal, and not of man.

DODE'CAGON, *ſ.* [of δωδεκα, twelve, and γωνια, Gr. a corner.] In geometry, a regular polygon, conſiſting of twelve equal ſides and angles.

DODECAHE'DRON, *ſ.* [of δωδεκαεδρον, Gr.] A geometrical ſolid, bounded by twelve equal and equilateral pentagons. It is one of the five Platonic regular bodies. Its etymology ſignifies "that which has twelve ſeats, or bottoms."

DODECAN'DRIA, *ſ.* [δωδεκα, twelve, and ανηρ, a huſband.] In botany, the name of the eleventh claſs in Linnæus's artificial ſyſtem; comprehending all thoſe plants which have hermaphrodite flowers with from twelve to nineteen ſtamens incluſive. See BOTANY.

DODECAPHAR'MACUM, *ſ.* [from δωδεκα, twelve, and φαρμακον, a medicine.] An ointment conſiſting of twelve ingredients, for which reaſon it is called the ointment of the apoſtles.

DODE'CAS, *ſ.* [ſo called from the number *twelve* prevailing in the ſtamens.] In botany, a genus of the claſs dodecandria, order monogynia, natural order calycanthemæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, turbinate, permanent, half-four-cleft, ſuperior; diviſions ovate, ſpreading. Corolla: petals roundiſh, ſeſſile, inſerted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments twelve, capillary, ſhorter than the calyx, inſerted into the receptacle; antheræ oblong. Piſtillum: germ half-ſuperior; ſtyle filiform, longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma ſimple. Pericarpium: capſule ovate, one-celled, inferior, growing to a patulous calyx, within which the apex is naked and four-valved. Seeds: numerous, oblong, minute.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, five-petalled; calyx, half-four-cleft, bearing the corolla, ſuperior; capſule, one-celled, connate with the calyx.

Dodecas Surinamenſis, or Surinam dodecas, the only ſpecies known: a ſhrub, having the appearance of lycium barbarum, even ſomewhat four-cornered; the branches oppoſite, ſhort; leaves oppoſite, obovate-oblong, or wedge-ſhaped, ſubpetioled, even, obtuſe, quite entire. Native of Surinam. *Linn. Suppl.*

DODECATEMO'RION, or DODECATEMORY, *ſ.* [of δωδεκα, twelve, and μοιρα, Gr. a diviſion.] The twelfth part of a circle; the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, ſo called becauſe every one of them is a twelfth part of the zodiac:

'Tis *dodecatemorion* thus deſcribed:
Thrice ten degrees which every ſign contains,
Let twelve exhauſt that not one part remains;
It follows ſtraight that every twelfth confines
Two whole and one half portion of the ſigns. *Creech.*

DODECATHE'ON, *ſ.* [from δωδεκα, twelve, and θεοι, gods.] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order preciæ, (lyſimachiæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: involuere many-leaved, many-flowered, very ſmall; perianthium one-leafed, half five-cleft, permanent: diviſions reflex, finally longer, permanent. Corolla: one petalled, five-parted; tube ſhorter than the calyx, naked at the throat; border reflex: diviſions very long, lanceolate. Stamina: filaments five, very ſhort, obtuſe, ſeated on the tube; antheræ ſagittate, converging into a beak. Piſtillum: germ conic; ſtyle filiform, longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma obtuſe. Pericarpium: capſule oblong, one-celled, gaping at the tip, (ſubeylindric, opening into five parts. *Gærtner.*) Seeds: very many, ſmall; receptacle free, ſmall.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, rotate, reflex; ſtamina, placed on the tube; capſule, one-celled, oblong.

Dodecatheon Meadia, Virginian cowſlip, or Meadia, is the only known ſpecies. Meadia has a yellow perennial root, from which come out in the ſpring ſeveral long ſmooth leaves, near ſix inches long, and two and a half broad; at firſt ſtanding erect, but afterwards ſpreading on the ground, eſpecially if it be much expoſed to the ſun: from among theſe leaves ariſe two, three, or four, flower-ſtalks, in proportion to the ſtrength of the roots, which riſe eight or nine inches high; they are ſmooth, naked, and terminated by an umbel of flowers, which are purple, inclining to a peach-bloſſom colour. Theſe appear at the end of April or the beginning of May; and the ſeeds ripen in July; ſoon after which the ſtalks and leaves decay, and the roots remain inactive till the following ſpring. Each flower has a long ſlender pedunele, which is recurved, ſo that the flowers hang down. It is a native of Virginia, and other parts of North America, whence it was ſent by Baniſter to biſhop Compton, in whoſe curious garden at Fulham Mr. Miller firſt ſaw it growing in the year 1709; after which this plant was loſt for ſeveral years in England, till it was again obtained from America by Mr. Cateſby, and cultivated in 1744, by Peter Collinſon, eſquire, ſince which it has been propagated in great plenty. Mark Cateſby named it *Meadia*, in honour of Dr. Richard Mead, who was a generous encourager of every branch of ſcience.

Propagation and Culture. This plant is propagated by offſets, which the roots put out pretty freely when they are in a looſe moiſt ſoil and a ſhady ſituation; the beſt time to remove the roots, and take away the offſets, is in Auguſt, after the leaves and ſtalks are decayed, that they may be fixed well in their new ſituation before the froſt comes on. It may alſo be propagated by ſeeds, which the plants generally produce in plenty; theſe ſhould be ſown in the autumn ſoon after they are ripe, either in a ſhady moiſt border, or in pots, which ſhould be placed in the ſhade; in the ſpring the plants will come up, and muſt then be kept clean from weeds, and if the ſeaſon proves dry, they muſt be frequently refreſhed with water; nor ſhould they be expoſed to the ſun, for while the plants are young, they are very impatient of heat. The young plants ſhould not be tranſplanted till their leaves are decayed, then they may be carefully taken up and planted in a ſhady border, where the ſoil is looſe and moiſt, at about eight inches diſtance from each other, which will be room enough for them to grow one year, by which time they will be ſtrong enough to produce flowers, and may then be tranſplanted into ſome ſhady borders in the flower garden, where they will appear very ornamental during the continuance of their flowers. At

the firſt many ſuppoſed this plant to be tender, and planted it in warm ſituations and nurſed it too much, whereby the plants were often killed; but by experience it is found to be ſo hardy, as not to be hurt by the ſevereſt cold of this country; but it will not thrive in a very dry ſoil, or where it is greatly expoſed to the ſun.

To DODGE, *v. n.* [probably corrupted from *dog*; to ſhift, and play ſly tricks, like a dog.] To uſe craft; to deal with tergiverſation; to play mean tricks; to uſe low ſhifts.—If in good offices and due retributions we may not be pinching and niggardly, it argues an earthly and ignoble mind, where we have apparently wronged, to higgle and *dodge* in the amends. *Hale.*—To ſhift place as another approaches:

For he had, any time this ten years full,
Dodg'd with him betwixt Cambridge and the Bull.
Milton.

To play faſt and looſe; to raiſe expectations and diſappoint them.—You know my paſſion for Martha, and what a dance ſhe has led me; ſhe *dodged* with me above thirty years. *Addiſon.*—This word, in all its ſenſes, is low and vulgar.

DOD'KIN, *ſ.* [*duythen*, Dut.] A doitkin or doit; a contemptuous name for a baſe coin. See DOIT.—I would not buy them for a *dodkin*. *Lily's Grammar conſtrued.*

DO'DÓ, *ſ.* in ornithology. See DIDUS.

DODO'ENS (Rembert), in Latin *Dodonæus* a phyſician and eminent botaniſt, born in 1518 at Staveren in Frieſeland. He ſtudied medicine at Louvain, and afterwards viſited the principal univerſities of France and Italy. He became phyſician to the emperors Maximilian II. and Rodolph II. and was a profeſſor at Leyden, where he died in 1585. His botanical works are: 1. *Hiſtoria Frugum*, Antw. 1552, 8vo. 2. *Herbarium Belgicum*, 1553, 1557; the figures of this are moſtly from Fuchs, the hiſtories and enumeration of qualities, brief: this work was tranſlated into French by L'Ecluſe, and into Engliſh by Lyte. 3. *De Stirpium Hiſtoria Comment. imagines*, 8vo. two vols. ſome of the figures of the firſt volume, and one hundred and thirty-three of the ſecond, are by Dodoens, and are ſuperior to thoſe of Fuchs. 4. *Frumentorum, Leguminum, Paluſtrium, & Aquatilium Herbarum Hiſtoria*, 1566, 1569, 8vo. of theſe the figures are for the moſt part new. 5. *Coronariarum Odoratarumque nonull. Herb. Hiſt.* 1568, 8vo. the figures of theſe are ſuperior to all that had hitherto appeared, except thoſe of Geſner. 6. *Purgantium, aliarumque eo facientium, &c. Hiſt.* 1574, 8vo. very valuable for its beautiful plates. 7. *Hiſtoria Vitis, Vinique, &c.* Colon. 1580, 8vo. 8. *Hiſtoriæ Stirpium pemptades vi. ſeu Libr.* xxx. Antw. 1583, folio; this is a collection of all the former. An improved edition of it, after the author's death, was publiſhed by Raphelengius, in Dutch. Dodoens alſo wrote a *Praxis Medica*, and a book of Medical Obſervations.

DODO'NA, anciently a town of Theſprotia in Epirus, or, according to others, in Theſſaly; famous for a celebrated oracle of Jupiter.

DODONÆ'A, *ſ.* [ſo named in honour of *Rembert Dodonæus* or *Dodoens*, profeſſor of medicine, a famous botaniſt of the ſixteenth century; author of *Frugum Hiſtoria*, &c.] In botany, a genus of the claſs octandria, order monogynia, natural order dumoſæ, (terebintaceæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved, flat; leaflets ovate, obtuſe, concave, deciduous. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments eight, very ſhort; antheræ oblong, bowed, converging, length of the calyx. Piſtillum: germ three-ſided, length of the calyx; ſtyle cylindric, three furrowed, upright; ſtigma ſlightly three-cleft, a little acute. Pericarpium: capſule three-furrowed, inflated, three-celled; with large membranaceous corners. Seed: in couples, roundiſh.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, four-leaved; corolla, none; capſule, three-celled, inflated; ſeeds, in couples.

Species. 1. Dodonæa viſcoſa, or broad-leaved dodonæa: leaves oblong. This ſends up ſeveral ſtalks from the root, about the ſize of a man's arm, with ſeveral upright branches, covered with a light brown bark, which frequently ſeparates from the wood, and hangs looſe; leaves ſtiff, varying greatly in ſhape and ſize, ſome being four inches long, and an inch and a half broad; others not three inches long, and a quarter of an inch broad; they are ſpear-ſhaped, entire, and of a light green, growing with their points upward, and have very ſhort foot-ſtalks. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in a ſort of raceme, each ſtanding upon a ſlender foot-ſtalk about an inch long. This upright branched ſhrub, ſays Jacquin, growing about five feet in height, is entirely viſcid and fetid; the younger branches are angular; leaves oblong, with a bluntiſh point, attenuated at the baſe, alternate, with ſcarcely any petiole on tender plants that come out in the firſt months, uſually repand or ſerrate; flowers in racemes, frequently varying much on the ſame branches; the natural number of leaflets in the calyx ſeems to be four; it is ſeldom found with five, and when it has only three, which is frequently the caſe, one of the leaflets is always larger than the reſt, and ſcored with a longitudinal groove; the piſtil is frequently deficient in one third part, and then the capſule has only two cells; ſometimes there are only ſeven ſtamens, and even ſix, but that happens very ſeldom; one ſeed in a cell is frequently abortive, and ſometimes both. According to Gærtner the ſeeds are roundiſh, turgidly lenticular, but very ſharp-edged towards the back, hard, ſmooth, black. Browne ſays that this ſlender ſhrub ſeldom riſes more than ſix or ſeven feet, (ten or twelve, *Sloane*;) both the trunk and branches are very flexile and tapering; the taſte of the whole plant is acerb and bitteriſh. In Jamaica it is called the *ſwitch-ſorrel*. Native of the countries between the tropics. In the Society iſles it is dioecous, in New Zealand hermaphrodite. Introduced in 1690, by Mr. Bentick.

2. Dodonæa anguſtifolia, or narrow-leaved dodonæa: leaves linear. This reſembles the foregoing, but the leaves are lanceolate-linear; the fructification is polygamous. Native of the Cape of Good Hope; flowers from May to Auguſt.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt is a plant propagated by ſeeds, which, if obtained freſh from abroad, will riſe eaſily upon a hot-bed: when the plants are fit to remove, they ſhould be each planted in a ſeparate ſmall pot filled with light loamy earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanners' bark, ſhading them from the ſun till they have taken new root; then they ſhould have free air admitted to them, every day, in proportion to the warmth of the ſeaſon, for they muſt not be drawn up weak, nor ſhould they have too much water. In the autumn the plants muſt be removed into the ſtove, where they ſhould have a temperate warmth in winter, but during that ſeaſon little water ſhould be given them; nor ſhould they have too much heat, for either of theſe will ſoon deſtroy them: as the plants obtain ſtrength, they will become more hardy, and may be ſet abroad in the open air for two or three months in the heat of ſummer, but it ſhould be in a ſheltered ſituation; in winter they muſt be placed in a ſtove, kept to a moderate temperature of warmth, for the plants will not live in a green-houſe here. This was formerly ſhewn for the tea-tree in many of the European gardens, where it many years paſſed for it among thoſe who knew no better. The ſecond ſort is leſs tender, and requires only the protection of a green-houſe or glaſs caſe.

DODO'NIDES, prieſteſſes who gave oracles in the temple of Jupiter in Dodona. According to ſome traditions the temple was originally inhabited by the ſeven daughters of Atlas, who nurſed Bacchus.

DO'DRANS, *ſ.* [*dodrantalis menſura*, Lat.] The ſpace between the end of the thumb and of the little finger, both extended. About nine Paris inches. This meaſure may be called in Engliſh the *long ſpan*, and *ſpithama* the ſhort ſpan.

DODS'LEY,

DODS'LEY (Robert), an author and bookſeller, born in 1703, at Mansfield, of parents in humble life. Without the advantage of a liberal education he acquired a taſte for literature, which brought him into notice, when in the ſtation of footman to a lady of faſhion. He at that time publiſhed by ſubſcription a collection of poems, under the title of The Muſe in Livery. His next performance was a dramatic piece called The Toyſhop, intended as a civil ſatire upon the prevailing follies of the time. This was ſhewn in manuſcript to Pope, who took the author under his protection; and by his influence it was brought upon the ſtage in 1735, where it met with ſucceſs. The profits which occurred from this and the former were by Dodſley prudently applied to ſettling himſelf in buſineſs. He opened a bookſeller's ſhop in Pall-Mall, which, through his own good conduct, and the encouragement of his patrons, ſoon roſe to diſtinction; and in a courſe of years, Dodſley became one of the moſt conſiderable perſons of his trade in the metropolis. Proceeding at the ſame time in his career as an author, he wrote the farce of The King and the Miller of Mansfield, with a ſequel to it, entitled, Sir John Cockle at Court. Theſe productions are leſs diſtinguiſhed by humour than by a vein of moral and ſentimental ſatire. His next work was in proſe, and obtained great celebrity; it was The Economy of Human Life, in a ſtyle intended to reſemble that of the Scriptures and other oriental writings. One book of a poem, in blank verſe, on the ſubject of Public Virtue, and an ode, entitled Melpomene, next exerciſed his poetical pen. In 1758 he ventured to riſe to tragedy, and compoſed Cleone, the fable of which is ſaid to have been ſuggeſted by a French work, the Legend of St. Genevieve. Though Garrick expreſſed a mean opinion of the play, and it was in conſequence taken to Covent Garden, it long drew full audiences, which was in part attributed to Mrs. Bellamy's acting of the heroine. An attempt to revive it by Mrs. Siddons did not ſucceed, owing, it is ſaid, to the exceſs of pathos which it acquired from her unequalled performance in ſcenes of maternal diſtreſs. In 1760 Dodſley publiſhed his Select Fables of Eſop and other Fabuliſts, in three books, of which the laſt contains original fables. He prefixed a ſenſible and ingenious Eſſay on Fable. He publiſhed, in 1774, A Collection of Plays by old Authors, in 12 vols. 12mo. of which a much-improved edition was given by Mr. Reid, in 1780. The Collection of Poems by different eminent Hands, 6 vols. 12mo. which bears his name, has reſcued from oblivion ſeveral pieces of merit, and may be reckoned one of the moſt valuable publications of the kind. He died upon a viſit at Durham, in 1764. His works have been ſince collected, in two volumes octavo. Dr. Anderſon, in his Britiſh Poets, ſpeaks of Dodſley in the following words: "His character was very amiable and reſpectable. As a tradeſman, he preſerved the greateſt integrity; as a writer, the moſt becoming humility. Mindful of the early encouragement which his own talents met with, he was ever ready to give the ſame opportunity of advancement to thoſe of others; and on many occaſions he was not only the publiſher, but the patron of genius. There was no circumſtance by which he was more diſtinguiſhed, than by the grateful remembrance which he retained, and always expreſſed, towards the memory of thoſe to whom he owed the obligation of being firſt taken notice of in life. Modeſt, ſenſible, and humane; he retained the virtues which firſt brought him into notice, after he had obtained wealth ſufficient to ſatisfy every wiſh which could ariſe from the poſſeſſion of it. He was a generous friend, an encourager of men of genius, and acquired the eſteem and reſpect of of all who were acquainted with him. It was his happineſs to paſs the greateſt part of his life in intimacy with men of the brighteſt abilities, whoſe names will be revered by poſterity; by moſt of whom he was loved as much for the virtues of his heart, as he was admired on account of his writings."

DOD'WELL (Henry), a learned controverſial writer, born at Dublin, but of Engliſh extraction, in 1641. He wrote an incredible number of religious tracts: but his ſervices were ſo little acknowledged, that biſhop Burnet and others accuſe him of doing more hurt than good to the cauſe of Chriſtianity, by his indiſcreet love of paradoxes and novelties, and thus expoſing himſelf to the ſcoffs of unbelievers. His pamphlet on the Immortality of the Soul, gave riſe to the well-known controverſy between Mr. Collins and Dr. Clark on that ſubject. He died in 1711.

DOE, *ſ.* [ðа, Sax. *daa*, Dan. *dama*, Lat.] A ſhe deer; the female of a buck.—Bucks have horns, *does* none. *Bacon.*

The fearful *doe*
And flying ſtag amidſt the greyhounds go. *Dryden.*

DOE, *ſ.* [from *to do.*] A feat; what one has to do; what one can perform:

No ſooner he does peep into
The world, but he has done his *doe*. *Hudibras.*

DOE'BELN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Leipſic, on the Mulda; with manufactures of cloth and hats: thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Leipſic.

DO'EG, [דֹּאֵג Heb. careful.] The chief herdſman of king Saul. A man's name.

DO'EL, a town of Flanders, on the Scheldt, oppoſite Lillo.

DO'EN, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Bulgaria, on the Danube: fifty-ſix miles north-north-eaſt of Siliſtria.

DO'ER, *ſ.* One that does any thing good or bad:

So foul a thing, O! thou injuſtice art,
That tort'reſt both the *doer* and diſtreſt. *Daniel.*

Actor; agent.—Sith thus far we open the things that have been done, let not the principal *doers* themſelves be forgotten. *Hooker.*—Performer.—One judgeth the prize to the beſt *doer*, of which they are no leſs glad than great princes are of triumphs. *Sidney.*—An active, or buſy, or valiant, perſon:

Fear not, my lord, we will not ſtand to prate;
Talkers are no good *doers*: be aſſur'd,
We go to uſe our hands, and not our tongues. *Shakeſp.*

One that habitually performs or practiſes.—Be *doers* of the word, and not hearers only. *Common Prayer.*

DOES. The third perſon from *do*, for *doth.*—Though lending to foreigners, upon uſe, doth not at all alter the balance of trade between thoſe countries, yet it *does* alter the exchange between thoſe countries. *Locke.*

DO'ESBURG, a town of the Dutch States, in the county of Zutphen, rich and populous. The Hollanders made themſelves maſters of it in 1570; but, in the year 1583, the citizens called in the prince of Parma to their aid, and drove the Dutch away; but the earl of Leiceſter took it again in 1586, being the firſt conqueſt achieved by the Engliſh forces ſent by queen Elizabeth to the aſſiſtance of the States General. Francis de Mendoza, admiral of Arragon, retook it in 1598, but it ſoon after ſurrendered to prince Maurice of Naſſau, who conſiderably augmented the fortifications. The biſhop of Munſter took it in 1672, but relinquiſhed it ſoon after. Like the other towns of the province, it opened its gates to the French in 1672, who demoliſhed the fortifications, and abandoned it in 1674. It is eight miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Zutphen, and nine north-eaſt of Arnham. Lat. 52. 4. N. lon. 23. 34. E. Ferro.

DO'FAR, a town of Arabia, in the country of Hadramaut, on the weſt coaſt of the gulf to which it gives name: 180 miles ſouth-weſt of Haſſek, and 120 miles north of Cape Fartak.

To DOFF, *v. a.* [from *do off.*] To put off dreſs.—Alcides *doffs* the lion's tawny hide. *Rowe.*

You

You have deceiv'd our truſt,
And made us *doff* our eaſy robes of peace,
To cruſh our old limbs in ungentle ſteel. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſtrip; to diveſt of any thing:

Why art thou troubled, Herod? what vain fear
Thy blood-revolving breaſt doth move?
Heav'n's king, who *doffs* himſelf our fleſh to wear,
Comes not to rule in wrath, but ſerve in love. *Craſhaw.*

To put away; to get rid of:

Your eye in Scotland
Would create ſoldiers, and make women fight,
To *doff* their dire diſtreſſes. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſhift off; to delay; to refer to another time; to put off.—Every day thou *doff'ſt* me with ſome device, Iago; and rather keep'ſt from me all conveniency, than ſupplieſt me with the leaſt advantage of hope. *Shakeſpeare.*

Away, I will not have to do with you.—
—Canſt thou ſo *doff* me? *Shakeſpeare.*

This word is in all its ſenſes obſoletc, and ſcarcely uſed except by ruſtics; yet it is a pure and commodious word.

DOF'FIR, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twelve miles ſouth of Chamir.

DO'FRE, a town of Norway: thirty-ſix miles eaſt of Romſdael.

DOG, *ſ.* [*dogghe*, Dut. *canis*, Lat.] That domeſtic animal which is ſo ſubſervient to man, and no leſs remarkable for its fidelity and ſagacity, than for the variety of its ſpecies; compriſing the maſtiff, the ſpaniel, the pointer, the bulldog, the greyhound, the hound, the terrier, the cur, with many others. The larger ſort are uſed as a guard; the leſs for ſport:

Such ſmiling rogues as theſe ſooth every paſſion:
Renege, affirm, and turn their halcyon beaks
With ev'ry gale and vary of their maſters,
As knowing nought, like *dogs*, but following. *Shakeſpeare.*

A conſtellation called Sirius, or Canicula, riſing and ſetting with the ſun during the canicular days, or dog-days.—Among the ſouthern conſtellations, two there are who bear the name of the *dog*; the one in ſixteen degrees latitude, containing on the left thigh a ſtar of the firſt magnitude, uſually called Procyon, or Anticanus. *Brown.*

It parts the twins and crab, the *dog* divides,
And Argo's keel that broke the frothy tides. *Creech.*

An andiron. A reproachful name for a man.—Beware of *dogs*, beware of evil workers. *Phil.* ii. 2.—It is uſed as the term for the male of ſeveral genera of animals: as, the *dog* fox, the *dog* otter, &c.—If ever I thank any man, I'll thank you; but that they call compliments is like the encounter of two *dog* apes. *Shakeſpeare.*

The ſame ill taſte of ſenſe will ſerve to join
Dog foxes in the yoke, and ſheer the ſwine. *Dryden.*

Dog is a particle added to any thing, to mark degeneracy; as, *dog* roſe, &c.

To give or ſend to the DOGS; to throw away. *To go to the* DOGS; to be ruined, deſtroyed, or devoured:

Had whole Colepeper's wealth been hops and hogs,
Could he himſelf have ſent it to the *dogs?* *Pope.*

Naturaliſts have uſually aſſigned the gift of ſuperior intelligence, among brute creatures, to the horſe, the elephant, and the dog; but without diſparagement to the noble inſtincts and wonderful docility of the two former animals, we might juſtly give pre-eminence to the latter. The amazing ſagacity of the dog, his gratitude, his unſhaken fidelity, that acute ſenſe of ſhame which often betrays his faults, and that conſciouſneſs of good deſert with which he comes to claim the reward of his ſervices, are circumſtances of ſelf-conviction, of thought, or intelligence, very nearly reſembling that which we obſerve in the human character. Theſe qualities, together with his great utility for various purpoſes, have rendered him the early attendant and common favourite of man. Every anecdote therefore that tends to elucidate the nature and powers of this animal, muſt be particularly intereſting to the lovers of natural hiſtory. Thoſe that follow are completely authentic, which is, perhaps, one of the firſt recommendations to anecdotes of this nature.

M. la Valéc, in his Journey through the Departments of France, publiſhed in 1792, gives the following curious account of the manner in which the country people, in the neighbourhood of Peronne and Doulens, had trained their dogs to elude the vigilance of the officers of the revenue. At night, theſe animals were laden, each with a parcel of goods proportioned to its ſize; except one alone, who was their leader, went without any burden. A crack of a whip was the ſignal for them to ſet out. The leader travelled at a little diſtance before the reſt; and, if he perceived the traces of any ſtranger, he returned to the other dogs; theſe either took a different way, or, if the danger was preſſing, concealed themſelves behind the hedges, and lay cloſe till the patrol had paſſed. When they arrived at the habitation of their maſter's aſſociate, they hid themſelves in the neighbouring fields and hedges, while their leader went to the houſe, and ſcratched at the door, or barked, till he was admitted, when he lay quietly down, as at home: by this the ſmuggler knew that the caravan was come; and, if the coaſt was clear, he went out, when he gave a loud whiſtle, and the dogs came running to him from their ſeveral hiding-places!

Peltier, in his Annals of Paris, No. 164, for December 1798, records the following anecdote: At the beginning of the revolution, a dog went daily to the parade before the palace of the Thuilleries, thruſt himſelf between the legs of the muſicians, marched with them, halted with them, and, after the parade, diſappeared until the next morning; when he reſumed this occupation. The conſtant recurrence of this dog, and the pleaſure which he ſeemed to take in the muſic, made him a favourite with the band, who nick-named him *Parade*. One gave him food to-day, another to-morrow; and he underſtood, by a ſlight ſignal, and a word or two, whom he was to follow for his dinner: after which, faithful to his independence, the dog always withdrew, in ſpite of any careſſes or threats. Sometimes he went to the Opera, ſometimes to the Comedie Italienne, and ſometimes to the Théatre Feydeau; in each of which houſes, he found his way to the orcheſtra, and would lie down ſilently in one corner of it until the performance was over. "I know not (ſays Peltier) whether this dog be now alive: but I know many muſicians to whom his name, his figure, and the ſingularity of his habits, are perfectly familiar."

In Petit's Campaign of Italy, under the Chief Conſul Bonaparte, publiſhed in 1800, we have the following anecdote, which places this animal in the moſt engaging light: "In traverſing the Alps over the mountain Great St. Bernard, many people periſh among the almoſt inacceſſible rocks, whoſe ſummits are covered with eternal ſnow. At the time we croſſed them, the chapel of the monaſtery of St. Bernard was filled with dead bodies, which the dogs had diſcovered, ſuffocated and benumbed, under the ſnow. With what emotions of pleaſure did I careſs theſe dogs, ſo uſeful to travellers! how can one ſpeak of them without being moved by their charitable inſtinct! Notwithſtanding the paucity of our eatables, there was not a French ſoldier who did not manifeſt an eagerneſs to give them ſome biſcuit, ſome bread, and even a ſhare of their meat. Morning and evening theſe dogs go out on diſcovery; and if, in the midſt of their wandering courſes, the echo of ſome unfortunate creature ready to periſh reaches their attentive ears, they run towards thoſe who call out, expreſs their joy, and ſeem to bid the ſufferer take courage till they have been to procure aſſiſtance; in fact, they haſten back to the convent, and with an air of inquietude and ſadneſs, announce in a very diſcernible manner what they have ſeen. In that

caſe a ſmall baſket is faſtened round the dog's neck, filled with food proper for re-animating life almoſt exhauſted; and, by following the humane meſſenger, an unhappy creature is thus frequently ſnatched from impending deſtruction."

The following anecdote, publiſhed in the Monthly Magazine for April 1802, furniſhes an inſtance, in our own country, of that ſagacity and attachment which ſo juſtly contribute to make the dog our favourite. "Thoſe valleys, or *glens* as they are called, which interſect the Grampian mountains, in Scotland, are chiefly inhabited by ſhepherds. The paſtures, over which each flock is permitted to range, extend many miles in every direction. The ſhepherd never has a view of his whole flock at once, except when they are collected for the purpoſe of ſale or ſhearing. His occupation is to make daily excurſions to the different extremities of his paſtures in ſucceſſion; and to turn back, by means of his dog, any ſtragglers that may be approaching the boundaries of his neighbours. In one of theſe excurſions, a ſhepherd happened to carry along with him one of his children, an infant about three years old. After traverſing his paſtures for ſome time, attended by his dog, the ſhepherd found himſelf under the neceſſity of aſcending a ſummit at ſome diſtance, to have a more extenſive view of his range. As the aſcent was too fatiguing for the child, he left him on a ſmall plain at the bottom, with ſtrict injunctions not to ſtir from it till his return. Scarcely, however, had he gained the ſummit, when the horizon was ſuddenly darkened by one of thoſe impenetrable miſts which frequently obſcure thoſe mountains. The anxious father haſtened back to find his child; but unfortunately miſſed his way in the deſcent. After a fruitleſs ſearch of many hours amongſt the moraſſes and cataracts, he was at length overtaken by night. Still wandering on without knowing whither, he at length came to the verge of the miſt; and, by the light of the moon, diſcovered that he had reached the bottom of his valley, and was now within a ſhort diſtance of his cottage. To renew the ſearch that night was equally fruitleſs and dangerous. He was therefore obliged to return to his cottage, having loſt both his child, and his faithful dog, which had attended him for years. Next morning, by day-break, the ſhepherd, accompanied by a band of his neighbours, ſet out in ſearch of his child; but, after a day ſpent in fruitleſs fatigue, he was compelled by the approach of night to deſcend from the mountain. On returning to his cottage, he found that the dog, which he had loſt the day before, had been home, and on receiving his uſual allowance, a piece of oat-cake, had inſtantly gone off again. For ſeveral ſucceſſive days the ſhepherd renewed the ſearch for his child, and ſtill on returning home at evening diſappointed to his cottage, he found that the dog had been home, and, on receiving his uſual allowance of oat-cake, had inſtantly diſappeared. Struck with this ſingular circumſtance, he remained at home one day; and when the dog as uſual departed with his piece of cake, he reſolved to follow him, and find out the cauſe of his ſtrange procedure. The dog led the way to a cataract, at ſome diſtance from the ſpot where the ſhepherd had left his child. The banks of the cataract, almoſt joined at the top, yet ſeparated by an abyſs of prodigious depth, preſented that appearance which ſo often aſtoniſhes and appals the travellers that frequent the Grampian mountains; and indicates that theſe ſtupendous chaſms were not the ſilent work of time, but the ſudden effect of ſome violent convulſion of nature. Down one of theſe rugged and almoſt perpendicular deſcents, the dog began, without heſitation, to make his way, and at laſt diſappeared into a cave, the mouth of which was nearly upon a level with the torrent. The ſhepherd with difficulty followed; but on entering the cave, what were his emotions, when he beheld his infant eating with much ſatisfaction the cake which the dog had juſt brought him, while the faithful animal ſtood by, eyeing his young charge with the utmoſt complacence! From the ſituation in which the child was found, it appears that he had wandered to the brink of the precipice, and then either fallen or ſcrambled down till he reached the cave; which the dread of the torrent had afterwards prevented him from quitting. The dog, by means of his ſcent, had traced him to the ſpot; and afterwards prevented him from ſtarving by giving up to him his own daily allowance. He appears never to have quitted the child by night or day, except when it was neceſſary to go for its food; and then he was always ſeen running at full ſpeed to and from the cottage.—For the Natural Hiſtory of the Dog, and other ſtriking inſtances of the ſagacity, attachment, and intelligence, of this animal, ſee the article CANIS, vol. iii. p. 715. See alſo HOUND, POINTER, SPANIEL; and the articles GAME, HUNTING, and SHOOTING.

With reſpect to property in dogs, the law takes notice of a greyhound, maſtiff dog, ſpaniel, and tumbler; and trover will lie for them. *Cro. Eliz.* 125. A man hath a property in a maſtiff: and where a maſtiff falls on another dog, the owner of that dog cannot juſtify the killing the maſtiff; unleſs there was no other way to ſave his dog, as that he could not take off the maſtiff, &c. 3 *Salk.* 139. The owner of a dog is bound to muzzle him if miſchievous, but not otherwiſe: and if a man doth keep a dog, that uſeth to bite cattle, &c. if after notice given to him of it, or his knowing the dog is miſchievous, the creature ſhall do any hurt, the maſter ſhall be reſponſible for it. *Cro. Car.* 254. *Stra.* 1264. By 10 Geo. III. c. 18, if any perſon ſhall ſteal any dog or dogs, they ſhall be liable to forfeit for the firſt offence from thirty to twenty pounds, or be committed to gaol, for from twelve to ſix months, at the diſcretion of two juſtices; for the ſecond offence to forfeit from fifty to thirty pounds, or be impriſoned for from eighteen to twelve months, and alſo whipped. A puniſhment perhaps not too ſevere for notorious dog-ſtealers; but which may afford a dangerous handle for oppreſſion: and Burn, title *Dogs*, ſeems ſeriouſly to doubt whether the ſtatute extends to *bitches*; a queſtion that we believe has never yet been argued in a court of law.

"He who would hang his DOG, firſt gives out that he is mad." When a man is about to do an unhandſome thing by another, he ſeldom fails of finding out ſome plauſible pretence. The Spaniſh ſay, *Quién a ſu pérra quiére aquiàr, rabia le ha de levantar.*

"Hungry DOGS will eat dirty puddings." The Latins ſay, *Jejunus rarò ſtomachus vulgaria temnit.* The French, *Quand on a faim, on trouve toute choſe bonne.* (Hunger makes every thing taſte well.) The Germans ſay, *Wein kaſe und brod nicht ſchmerkt, der iſt nicht, hungrig.* (He who cannot eat bread and cheeſe muſt not be a hungry.) The French ſay likewiſe, *A un affamé tout eſt bon.* (To a hungry man every thing is reliſhable.) The proverbs all ſufficiently explain themſelves.

"He who has a mind to beat his DOG, will eaſily find a ſtick." This proverb is generally applied to ſuch perſons who out of prejudice and ill deſign, ſeek occaſion of blame and ſcandal againſt other perſons, and aggravate the moſt pardonable offences into flagrant crimes: it ſeems to be borrowed of the Latin; *Qui vult cædere canem, facile invenit fuſtem.* The Greeks ſay, Μικρα προφασις εστι τω πραξαι κακως; and the French, *A petite achoiſon, le loup prend le mouton.* The Latins ſay likewiſe, *Malefacere qui vult, numquam non cauſam inveniet.* We ſay alſo to the ſame purpoſe, *To him that wills, ways will not be wanting.*

To DOG, *v. a.* To hunt, as a dog, inſidiouſly and indefatigably.—I have been purſued, *dogged*, and way-laid, through ſeveral nations. *Pope.*—Hate *dogs* their riſe, and inſult mocks their fall. *Vanity of Human Wiſhes.*

I, his deſpiteful Juno, ſent him forth
From courtly friends, with camping foes to live,
Where death and danger *dog* the heels of worth. *Shakeſp.*

DOG's-BANE, *ſ.* in botany. See APOCYNUM.

DOG's-

DOG's-BERRY, *ſ.* in botany. See CORNUS.

DOG-BOLT, *ſ.* Of this word the meaning is uncertain, unleſs it be, that when meal or flour is ſifted or bolted to a certain degree, the coarſer part is called *dog-bolt*, or flour for dogs. *Johnſon.*

His only ſolace was, that now
His *dog-bolt* fortune was ſo low,
That either it muſt quickly end,
Or turn about again, and mend. *Hudibras.*

DOG-CHEAP, *adj.* Cheap as dogs meat; cheap as the offal bought for dogs.—Good ſtore of harlots, ſay you, and *dog-cheap? Dryden.*

DOG-DAYS, *ſ.* Certain days in July and Auguſt, commonly from the 24th of the firſt to the 28th of the latter, ſo called from the ſtar *Canis*, or dog-ſtar, which then riſes and ſets with the ſun, and greatly increaſes the heat, and is vulgarly reputed unwholeſome.—Nor was it more in his power to be without promotion and titles, than for a healthy man to ſit in the ſun, in the brighteſt *dog-days*, and remain without warmth. *Clarendon.*

DOG-DRAW, *ſ.* The manifeſt deprehenſion of an offender againſt veniſon in a foreſt, when he is found drawing after a deer, by the ſcent of a hound led in his hand: or where a perſon hath wounded a deer, and is caught with a dog drawing after him to recover the ſame. See the article GAME.

DOG's-EAR, *ſ.* The creaſe of a leaf in a book by being thumbed, or turned down.—Books of a lighter digeſtion have the *dog's ears. M. of Halifax.*

Under a tea-cup he might lie
Or creas'd like *dog's-ears* in a folio. *Gray's Long Story.*

DOG-FISH, *ſ.* Another name for a ſhark.—It is part of the jaw of a ſhark, or *dog-fiſh. Woodward.*

DOG-FLY, *ſ.* A fly which infeſts dogs:

Thump-buckler Mars began,
And at Minerva with a lance of braſs he headlong ran;
Theſe vile words uſhering his blows, Thou *dog-fly* what's the cauſe
Thou makeſt gods fight thus? *Chapman.*

DOG's-GRASS, *ſ.* in botany. See TRITICUM.

DOG's-HEAD, a cape on the weſt coaſt of Ireland, in the county of Galway. Lat. 53. 34. N. lon. 10. 8. W. Greenwich.

DOG-HEARTED, *adj.* Cruel; pitileſs; malicious:

His unkindneſs,
That ſtript her from his benediction, turn'd her
To foreign caſualties, gave her dear rights
To his *dog-hearted* daughters. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOG-HOLE, *ſ.* A vile hole; a mean habitation:

But, could you be content to bid adieu
To the dear playhouſe, and the players too,
Sweet country ſeats are purchas'd ev'ry where,
With lands and gardens, at leſs price than here
You hire a darkſome *dog-hole* by the year. *Dryden.*

DOG-HOUSE, *ſ.* A kennel for dogs.—Not only thoſe curs at the *dog-houſe*, but thoſe within the walls, are to ſerve in their places at their ſeveral huntings. *Overbury.*

DOG ISLAND, one of the ſmaller Virgin Iſlands, near the north-weſt coaſt of Virgin Gorda, and eaſt of Tortula.

DOG-KENNEL, *ſ.* A hut or houſe for dogs. See KENNEL.—A certain nobleman, beginning with a *dog-kennel*, never lived to finiſh the palace he had contrived. *Dryden.*

DOG's-MEAT, *ſ.* Refuſe; vile ſtuff; offal like the fleſh ſold to feed dogs.—His reverence bought of me the flower of all the market; theſe are but *dog's-meat* to 'em. *Dryden.*

DOG's-MERCURY, *ſ.* in botany. See MERCURIALIS.

DOG-ROSE, *ſ.* The flower of the hip. See ROSA.—Of the rough or hairy excreſcence, thoſe on the briar, or *dog-roſe*, are a good inſtance. *Derham.*

DOG-SLEEP, *ſ.* Pretended ſleep.—Juvenal mentions a drowſy huſband, who raiſed an eſtate by ſnoring; but then he is repreſented to have ſlept what the common people call *dog-ſleep. Addiſon.*

DOG-STAR, *ſ.* [*canicula*, Lat.] The ſtar which gives the name to the dog-days:

All ſhun the raging *dog-ſtar's* ſultry heat,
And from the half-unpeopled town retreat. *Addiſon.*

DOG's-TAIL GRASS, *ſ.* in botany. See CYNOSURUS.

DOG-TEETH, *ſ.* The teeth in the human head next to the grinders; the eye-teeth.—The beſt inſtruments for dividing of herbs are inciſor-teeth; for cracking of hard ſubſtances, as bones and nuts, grinders, or mill-teeth; for dividing of fleſh, ſharp-pointed or *dog-teeth. Arbuthnot.*

DOG's-TOOTH, *ſ.* in botany. See ERYTHRONIUM.

DOG-TRICK, *ſ.* An ill turn; ſurly or brutal treatment.—Learn better manners, or I ſhall ſerve you a *dog-trick*; I'll make you know your rider. *Dryden.*

DOG-TROT, *ſ.* A gentle trot like that of a dog:

This ſaid, they both advanc'd, and rode
A *dog-trot* through the bawling crowd. *Hudibras.*

DOG-WEARY, *adj.* Tired as a dog; exceſſively weary:

Oh, maſter, maſter, I have watch'd ſo long,
That I'm *dog-weary*. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOG-WHIP, *ſ.* A whip for whipping dogs with.—Let him blood with a *dog-whip. Beaumont and Fletcher.*

DOG-WOOD, *ſ.* in botany. See CORNUS.

DOGA'DO, that part of the Venetian States in which is the capital; it extends from the mouth of the Liſonzo to that of the Adige, between the country of Friuli, the Paduan, and the Poleſin-de-Rovigno, including the canals of Venice and the canals of Marano. The dogado of Venice is now properly the ſecond diviſion of Maritime Auſtria, the city itſelf with its lacunes and iſle forming the firſt.

DOGE, *ſ.* The chief magiſtrate in the republics of Venice and Genoa. The word properly ſignifies *duke*, being formed from the Latin *dux*; as *dogate*, and *dogado*, from *ducatus*, duchy. See the articles GENOA and VENICE.

DOG'GED, *adj.* Sullen; ſour; moroſe; ill-humoured; gloomy.—I'll fill theſe *dogged* ſpies with falſe reports. *Shakeſpeare.*

Few miles on horſeback had they jogged,
But fortune unto them turn'd *dogged*. *Hudibras.*

DOG'GEDLY, *adv.* Sullenly; gloomily; ſourly; moroſely.

DOG'GEDNESS, *ſ.* Gloom of mind; ſullenneſs; moroſeneſs.

DOG'GER, *ſ.* A fiſhing-veſſel, generally employed in the herring fiſhery; equipped with two maſts, and ſomewhat reſembling a ketch.

DOG'GER-BANK, a very extenſive ſand-bank in the German Ocean, between the coaſt of England and Germany.

DOG'GER-MEN, fiſhermen that belong to dogger-ſhips. 25 *Hen.* VIII. c. 2.

DOG'GEREL, *adj.* Looſed from the meaſures or rules of regular poetry; vile; deſpicable; mean: *uſed of verſes.*—It is a diſpute among the critics, whether burleſque poetry runs beſt in heroic verſe, like that of the Diſpenſary: or in *doggerel*, like that of Hudibras. *Addiſon.*

Then haſten Og and Doeg to rehearſe,
Two fools that crutch their feeble ſenſe on verſe;
Who by my muſe to all ſucceeding times
Shall live, in ſpite of their own *dogg'rel* rhymes. *Dryden.*

DOG'GEREL, *ſ.* Mean, deſpicable, worthleſs, verſes:

The hand and head were never loſt of thoſe
Who dealt in *dogg'rel*, or who pin'd in proſe. *Dryden.*

DOG'GESS, *ſ.* A bitch; a woman in contempt. *Clariſſa.*

DOG'GISH,

DOG'GISH, *adj.* Churliſh; brutal.

DO'GIEL (Matthew), a learned eccleſiaſtic of Lithuania, taught rhetoric, poetry, hiſtory, and philoſophy, in different ſchools, with great applauſe, and afterwards became rector at Wilda, where he eſtabliſhed a printing-office, which, in regard to works in the Latin language, excelled, according to the teſtimony of Janozki, all the printing-houſes in Poland. He was afterwards confeſſor to count Scipio de Campo, marſhal of the court in Lithuania, and ſuperintendant of the education of his ſon, whom, after his father's death, he accompanied to Leipſic, Straſburgh, and Paris, and with whom he afterwards reſided as chaplain. The period of his death is not known. His works are, 1. *Codex Diplomaticus Regni Poloniæ, & Magni Ducatus Lithuaniæ*, &c. &c. The plan of this important and extenſive work was formed by the author at Paris, and he afterwards carried it into execution under the patronage of Zaluſki, prince Jablonowſki, and other eminent men; and for that purpoſe he obtained acceſs to the archives of the kingdom at Cracow. According to the original plan it was to conſiſt of eight volumes in folio; but three only appeared, which were publiſhed at Wilda. 2. *Limites Regni Poloniæ & Magni Ducatus Lithuaniæ, ex Originalibus & Exemplis authendicis*, Wilda, 1758, 2 vols. quarto. 3. *Diſſertatio de Jure Regni Poloniæ in Sileſiam.*

DOGLIA'NI, a mountain of Boſnia: twelve miles north of Serajo.

DOG'MA, *ſ.* [from δοκεω, Gr. to ſuppoſe.] Eſtabliſhed principle; doctrinal notion.—Our poet was a ſtoic philoſopher, and all his moral ſentences are drawn from the *dogmas* of that ſect. *Dryden.*—The Latin plural is alſo uſed.—In ſuch a hiſtory what would be of the greateſt moment is not ſo much a minute detail of the *dogmata* of each ſect, as a juſt delineation of the ſpirit of the ſect. *Reid.*—[In canon law.] *Dogma* is that determination which conſiſts in, and has a relation to, ſome caſuiſtical point of doctrine, or ſome doctrinal part of the Chriſtian faith. *Ayliffe.*

DOGMA'TIC, or DOGMATICAL, *adj.* Authoritative; magiſterial; poſitive; in the manner of a philoſopher laying down the firſt principles of a ſect.—Learning gives us a diſcovery of our ignorance, and keeps us from being peremptory and *dogmatical* in our determinations. *Collier.*

DOGMA'TICALLY, *adv.* Magiſterially; poſitively.—I ſhall not preſume to interpoſe *dogmatically* in a controverſy, which I look never to ſee decided. *South.*

DOGMA'TICALNESS, *ſ.* The quality of being dogmatical; magiſterialneſs; mock authority.

DOG'MATISM, *ſ.* Dogmatical aſſertions.—They will not now alter it from a pious implicit faith in the *dogmatiſm* of philoſophers. *Burke.*

DOG'MATIST, *ſ.* [*dogmatiſte*, Fr.] A magiſterial teacher; a poſitive aſſerter; a bold advancer of principles.—A *dogmatiſt* in religion is not a great way off from a bigot, and is in high danger of growing up to be a bloody perſecutor. *Watts.*

DOG'MATISTS, or DOGMATICI, *ſ. pl.* A ſect of ancient phyſicians, of which Hippocrates was the firſt. They are alſo called *logici*; logicians, from their uſing the rules of logic in ſubjects of their profeſſion. They laid down definitions and diviſions; reducing diſeaſes to certain genera, and thoſe genera to ſpecies, and furniſhing remedies for them all; ſuppoſing principles, drawing concluſions, and applying thoſe principles and concluſions to particular diſeaſes under conſideration: in which ſenſe, the dogmatiſts ſtand contradiſtinguiſhed from empirics.

To DOG'MATIZE, *v. n.* To aſſert poſitively; to advance without diſtruſt; to teach magiſterially:

Theſe, with the pride of *dogmatizing* ſchools,
Impos'd on nature arbitrary rules;
Forc'd her their vain inventions to obey,
And move as learned frenzy trac'd the way. *Blackmore.*

DOG'MATIZER, *ſ.* An aſſerter; a magiſterial teacher; a bold advancer of opinions.—Such opinions, being not entered into the confeſſions of our church, are not properly chargeable either on papiſts or proteſtants, but on particular *dogmatizers* of both parties. *Hammond.*

DOGRIB'BED, *adj.* Ribbed like a dog; lean or bare of fleſh on the back and ribs.

DOGRIB'BED INDIANS, a tribe which inhabit round lake Edlande, in the north-weſt part of North America. They are often at war with the Arathapeſcow Indians. Both theſe tribes are among the moſt ſavage of the human race. They trade with the Hudſon-bay company's ſettlements. Edlande lake lies north of the Arathapeſcow ſea, or lake, and near the arctic circle.

DOGS (Iſle of), in the county of Middleſex, oppoſite Greenwich. Here Togodumnus, brother of Caractacus, was killed in a battle with the Romans, in the year 46.

DOGS. *ſ.* Irons uſed inſtead of a grate, for conſuming wood, and ſimilar fuel.

DOHALIZ', a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigingratz: four miles north-weſt of Konigingratz.

DOH'NA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and margraviate of Meiſſen, on the Muglitz, containing about one hundred houſes: nine miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Dreſden.

DOIAGO'I, an iſland of Ruſſia, in the Frozen Sea, at the entrance of the Straits of Vagatſkoi. Lat. 70. 5. N. lon. 75. E. Ferro.

DO'JAR, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: forty-four miles eaſt of Chamir.

DOI'LY, *ſ.* A woollen ſtuff; ſo called, it is ſuppoſed, from the name of the firſt maker.—We ſhould be as weary of one ſet of acquaintance, though never ſo good, as we are of one ſuit, though never ſo fine: a fool and a *doily* ſtuff, would now and then find days of grace, and be worn for variety. *Congreve.*—Linen made into a ſmall napkin.

DO'INGS, *ſ.* [from *to do*. This word has hardly any ſingular.] Things done; events; tranſactions:

I have but kill'd a fly.—
—But how if that fly had a father and mother?
How would he hang his ſlender gilded wings,
And buz lamented *doings* in the air! *Shakeſpeare.*

Feats; actions: good or bad:

If I'm traduc'd by tongues which neither know
My faculties nor perſon, yet will be
The chronicles of my *doing*, let me ſay
'Tis but the face of place, and the rough brake
That virtue muſt go through. *Shakeſpeare.*

Behaviour: conduct:

Never the earth on his round ſhoulders bare
A maid train'd up from high or low degree,
That in her *doings* better could compare
Mirth with reſpect, few words with curteſy. *Sidney.*

Conduct; diſpenſation.—Dangerous it were for the feeble brains of man to wade far into the *doings* of the Moſt High. *Hooker.*—Stir; buſtle; tumult.—Shall there be then, in the mean while, no *doings*? *Hooker.*—Feſtivity; merriment: as, jolly *doings*. This word is now only uſed in a ludicrous ſenſe, or in low mean language.—After ſuch miraculous *doings*, we are not yet in a condition of bringing France to our terms. *Swift.*

DOI'RON, a river of Savoy, which joins the Iſere near Mouſtiers, in the Tarentaiſe.

DOIT, *ſ.* [*duyt*, Dut. *doyght*, Erſe.] A ſmall piece of baſe money, prohibited by ſtat. 3 Hen. V. c. 1.—When they will not give a *doit* to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to ſee a dead Indian. *Shakeſpeare.*

In Anna's wars a ſoldier, poor and old,
Had dearly earn'd a little purſe of gold;
Tir'd with a tedious march, one luckleſs night
He ſlept, poor dog! and loſt it to a *doit*. *Pope.*

DO'KOWICHE,

DO'KOWICHE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Belcz: twenty-eight miles north-weſt of Belcz.

DOL, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, ſituated in a marſhy country, about a league from the ſea; before the revolution, the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Tours: the air is unhealthy, and the town thinly inhabited; it contains about 1200 houſes: ſix poſts north of Rennes, and twenty-ſeven weſt of Paris. Lat. 48. 33. N. lon. 15. 54. E. Ferro.

DOLABEL'LA (P. Corn.), a Roman, who married the daughter of Cicero. During the civil wars he warmly eſpouſed the intereſt of Julius Cæſar, whom he accompanied at the famous battles at Pharſalia, Africa, and Munda. He was made conſul by his patron, though Marc Antony, his colleague, oppoſed it. After the death of Julius Cæſar, he received the government of Syria as his province. Caſſius oppoſed his views, and Dolabella, for violence, and for the aſſaſſination of Trebonius, one of Cæſar's murderers, was declared an enemy to the republic of Rome. He was beſieged by Caſſius in Laodicea; and, when he ſaw that all was loſt, he killed himſelf in the twenty-ſeventh year of his age. He was of a ſmall ſtature, which gave occaſion to his father-in-law to aſk him, "Who had tied him ſo cleverly to his ſword?" The family of the Dolabellæ diſtinguiſhed themſelves at Rome, and one of them, L. Corn. conquered Luſitania, before Chriſt 69 years.

DOLALYC'ZE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: twelve miles north-north-eaſt of Novogrodek.

DO'LAN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigingratz: four miles weſt of Gitſchin.

DO'LANOVA, a river of Ruſſian Siberia, which runs into the Oka: twelve miles ſouth of Bratſkoi.

DOL'CE (Carlino), an admired painter, born at Florence in 1616, and ſtudied under Vignali. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his execution as early as his eleventh year. The ſtile of painting which he cultivated was the ſoft, tender, and highly-finiſhed, in which laſt quality he equalled the maſters of the Dutch and Flemiſh ſchool. His touch was extremely neat, his colouring tranſparent, his management of the chiaro-ſcuro very maſterly, ſo that his figures have a wonderful delicacy and relief. He is charged with the uncommon fault of beſtowing too much labour on his pictures; and his carnations are ſaid to have the appearance of ivory more than of fleſh. He chiefly painted divine ſubjects, to which he ſometimes gave a moſt celeſtial air and beauty. His pieces are few, and are found in particular collections. It is ſaid, that he was ſo chagrined on comparing his own ſlow manner of working with the rapidity of Luca Giordano, that it cauſed his death, which, however, did not take place till his ſeventieth year, in 1686.

DOL'CE (Ludovico), a very copious Italian writer, born at Venice in 1508. He was an hiſtorian, orator, poet, grammarian, philoſopher, editor, tranſlator, compiler, and commentator. He wrote in a pure, eaſy, and elegant, ſtile, and poſſeſſed equal facility in verſe and proſe. He was a great tranſlator from the ancients, and publiſhed verſions of Horace's Satires and Epiſtles, Ovid's Metamorphoſes, parts of Catullus, the tragedies of Seneca, ſome of thoſe of Euripides, ſeveral pieces of Cicero, Pliny's Letters, &c. He likewiſe compoſed ſome tragedies, of which his Marianna was acted with great applauſe before a noble audience, in the palace of Sebaſtian Erizzo; and was afterwards to have been repreſented in that of the duke of Ferrara, but the concourſe was ſo great as to prevent the acting. His heroic poems, in *ottava rima*, intitled *L'Achille e l'Enea*, are a ſingular work, conſiſting, in great part, of tranſlations from the Iliad and Eneid, with additions and retrenchments according to his fancy, ſo as to be neither two tranſlations, nor two new poems. His dialogue on painting, intitled *L'Aretino*, 1557, 8vo. is conſiderably eſteemed. Of his biographical works the principal is, A Life of the emperor Charles V. 1561, 4to. Dolce died about 1568.

DOL'CE AQUA, a town of Piedmont, in the county of Nice, ſituated on the Navia, the capital of a marquiſate, defended with a ſtrong caſtle and fortreſs. The land produces excellent wine, figs, almonds, filberts, apples, citrons, lemons, melons, legumes of all ſorts, and excellent oil: ſixteen miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Nice, and three and a half north-eaſt of Vintimiglia.

DOLE, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Jura, ſituated on the north ſide of the Doubs, containing between 9000 and 10,000 inhabitants. It was once a ſtrong place, but the fortifications were deſtroyed by Louis XIV. twenty-five miles north of Lons le Saunier, and twenty-three weſt-ſouth-weſt of Beſançon.

DOLE, *ſ.* [from *deal*; dælan, Sax.] The act of diſtribution or dealing.—The perſonal fruition in any man cannot reach to feel great riches: there is a cuſtody of them, or a power of *dole* and donative of them, or a fame of them, but no ſolid uſe to the owner. *Bacon.*

At her general *dole*,
Each receives his ancient ſoul. *Cleaveland.*

Any thing dealt out or diſtributed:

Let us, that are unhurt and whole,
Fall on, and happy man be's *dole*. *Hudibras.*

Proviſions or money diſtributed in charity:

They had ſuch firm dependence on the day,
That need grew pamper'd, and forgot to pray;
So ſure the *dole*, ſo ready at their call,
They ſtood prepar'd to ſee the manna fall. *Dryden.*

Blows dealt out:

What if his eye-ſight, for to Iſrael's God
Nothing is hard, by miracle reſtor'd,
He now be dealing *dole* among his foes,
And over heaps of ſlaughter'd walk his way? *Milton.*

[From *dolor.*] Grief; ſorrow; miſery, *Obſolete.*—Yonder they lie; the poor old man, their father, making ſuch pitiful *dole* over them, that all beholders take his part with weeping. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DOLE, *v. a.* To deal; to diſtribute.

DOLE, *ſ.* Void ſpace left in tillage.

DOLE-FISH, *ſ.* Fiſh which the fiſhermen in the North Seas uſually receive for their allowance.

DOLE-ME'ADOW, *ſ.* One wherein divers perſons have a ſhare.

DO'LEFUL, *adj.* Sorrowful; diſmal; expreſſing grief; querulous:

Juſt then the hero caſt a *doleful* cry,
And in thoſe ardent flames began to fry:
The blind contagion rag'd within his veins. *Dryden.*

Melancholy; afflicted; feeling grief; ſorrowful:

How oft my *doleful* ſire cry'd to me, Tarry, ſon,
When firſt he ſpy'd my love. *Sidney.*

Diſmal; impreſſing ſorrow; dolorific.—It watereth the heart to the end it may fructify; maketh the virtuous, in trouble, full of magnanimity and courage; ſerveth as a moſt approved remedy againſt all *doleful* and heavy accidents, which befal men in this preſent life. *Hooker.*

Happy the mortal man, who now at laſt
Has through this *doleful* vale of mis'ry paſt;
Who to his deſtin'd ſtage has carried on
The tedious load, and laid his burden down. *Prior.*

DO'LEFULLY, *adv.* In a doleful manner; ſorrowfully; diſmally; querulouſly.

DO'LEFULNESS, *ſ.* Sorrow; melancholy. Querulouſneſs. Diſmalneſs.

DO'LESOME, *adj.* Melancholy; gloomy; diſmal; ſorrowful; doleful:

Hell-ward bending o'er the beach deſcry
The *doleſome* paſſage to th' infernal ſky. *Pope.*

DO'LESOMELY, *adv.* In a doleſome manner.

DO'LESOMENESS, *ſ.* Gloom; melancholy; diſmalneſs.

DO'LET (Stephen), a learned Frenchman, born at Orleans, about the year 1509. By ſome writers he is ſaid to have been a natural ſon of Francis I. but the report, for chronological as well as other reaſons, wants probability. By his labours the intereſts of literature were much benefited; the ſtudy of the Latin language in particular, in Ciceronian purity, was conſiderably promoted in France, and his native tongue improved and poliſhed. But he appears to have avowed lax notions reſpecting religion, and to have excited the hatred of the monks in that ſuperſtitious age, by expoſing and ridiculing their impoſtures. The conſequence was, that he was more than once arreſted and thrown into priſon; whence he was delivered, and preſerved for a time from a ſeverer fate, by the great intereſt which men of learning and rank exerted in his behalf. But his enemies, who were watchful to take advantage againſt him, obtained an order for his being again impriſoned, in 1544. After eſcaping from confinement, and taking refuge in Piedmont, he appears in a ſhort time to have returned into France; and was again arreſted, and ſent to Paris; where he was abandoned to the fury of the inquiſitors. In their unjuſt and mercileſs court he was convicted of atheiſm, and condemned to be burnt; which ſentence was carried into execution in 1546, when he was only thirty-ſeven years of age. The following are the titles of the moſt curious or important of his numerous works: 1. *Stephani Doleti Orationes duæ in Tholoſanos, &c.* 8vo. 2. *Dialogus de Imitatione Ciceroniana adverſus Deſiderium Eraſmum, &c.* 4to. 1535. 3. *Commentariorum Linguæ Latinæ, Tomi duo,* folio, 1536, 1538. 4. *De Re Navali Liber, &c.* 4to. 1537. 5. *Stephani Doleti Galli Aurelii Carminum, Libri quatuor,* 4to. 1538. 6. *Genethliacum Claudii Doleti, Stephani Filii, Liber Vitæ communi in primis utilis & neceſſarius, Autore Patre,* 4to. 1539. 7. *Formulæ Latinarum Locutionum Illuſtriorum, in tres Partes diviſæ, &c.* folio, 1539. 8. *Franciſci Valeſii, Gallorum Regis, Fatorum, Libri tres, Carminibus Latinis conſcripti,* 4to. 1539. 9. *Obſervationes in Terentii Andriam & Eunuchum,* 8vo. 1540. 10. *Liber de Imitatione Ciceroniana, adverſus Floridum Sabinum, &c.* 4to. 1540.

DOLGA'IA, a bay of Ruſſian Lapland, in the White Sea. Lat. 73. 25. N. lon. 38. E. Ferro.

DOLGANO'VA, a town of Ruſſian Siberia: thirty-two miles north-north-eaſt of Nertſchinſk.

DOLG'BOTE, *ſ.* [from the Sax. ꝺolg, a wound, and bote, a recompence.] A recompence for a wound or ſear.

DOL'GELLY, or DOLGETH, the chief and largeſt town of the county of Merioneth, in North Wales. It is ten miles eaſt of the port of Barmouth, forty ſouth of Caernarvon, thirty-five from Montgomery, and 205 from London. It is ſituated on the river Avon, at the bottom of that romantic hill called Kader-Iris, well known as one of the loftieſt mountains in Wales, and on a good road leading from Shrewſbury to Caernarvon and Holyhead. As it is ſurrounded with mountains, they are commonly called its walls: it has a ſteeple that grows in it, and its bell hangs in a yew-tree. About five miles from the town is the cataract of Dol y Myllyn, which falls thirty-five feet into a large baſon, and from thence twenty feet more, with a loud and awful roar. The markets are on Tueſdays and Saturdays; and there are ſeven fairs in the year. The tide flows within a mile of the town. Here is a large manufacture of what is called webbing, white plains, or Welſh flannel, chiefly for exportation.

DOLGENSE'E, a lake of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and Ucker Mark of Brandenburg, a little to the north of Templin.

DOLHINO'W, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: eighty miles eaſt of Wilna.

DOLIC'ZA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia: twenty-ſix miles north-weſt of Kaminiec.

DO'LICHOS, *ſ.* [from δολιχος, Gr. long, the pod or legume being generally lengthened out.] In botany, a genus of the claſs diadelphia, order decandria, natural order papilionaceæ, or leguminoſæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, very ſhort, four-toothed, equal; the ſuperior tooth emarginate. Corolla: papilionaceous; ſtandard roundiſh, large, emarginate, the whole reflex; two ealluſes oblong, parallel and longitudinal, growing to the ſtandard beneath towards the baſe, compreſſing the wings, not hollowed on the back; wings ovate, obtuſe, length of the keel; keel lunulate, compreſſed, beneath converging cloſely, length of the wings aſcending at the tip. Stamina: filaments diadelphous, (ſimple and nine-cleft,) the ſimple one curved at the baſe; Antheræ ſimple. Piſtillum: germ linear, compreſſed; ſtyle aſcending; ſtigma bearded, running on inwardly from the middle to the tip of the ſtyle, which on the fore part is callous, obtuſe. Pericarpium: legume acuminate, large, oblong, two-valved, two-celled. Seeds: ſeveral, elliptic, uſually compreſſed.—*Eſſential Character.* Two parallel oblong calluſes at the baſe of the ſtandard, compreſſing the wings underneath.

Species. I. Twining. 1. Dolichos Benghalenſis, or Bengal dolichos: ſhrubby, legumes ending in long dagger points. This is perennial, with a ſtem ſomewhat roughiſh to the touch, and ſcadent, as well as producing ſeveral branches; leaves roundiſh-ovate, ending in a point, furniſhed with a briſtle; ſtipules lanceolate; peduncles racemoſe, four or five inches long; flowers ſeated on very ſhort peduncles, uncertain as to number; ſnow-white, and lightly odorous. Legume oblong, pointed, compreſſed, firſt green, afterwards growing pale; ſeeds few, roundiſh-oblong, compreſſed, brown, with deeper coloured points, and with a long, protuberant, ſnow-white, hilum.

2. Dolichos lablab, or black-ſeeded dolichos: legumes ovate-ſabre-ſhaped; ſeeds ovate, with a bowed eye towards one end. Stems and branches round, ſcabrous backward. Dolichos enſiformis of Thunberg approaches nearer to this than to the dolichos enſiformis of Linnæus, from which it is certainly different. Alpinus ſays that this grows wild in Egypt. Haſſelquiſt, however, is certain that it does not grow wild in Lower Egypt, but is only cultivated there in gardens. The Egyptians call it *ful Frangi*, or European bean: hence we might conjecture that the Europeans firſt brought it into Egypt. The inhabitants make pleaſant arbours of it; they not only ſupport it with trellis-work, but faſten it with twine, by which means the leaves form an excellent covering, and an agreeable ſhade. Cultivated in 1714 by the ducheſs of Beaufort.

3. Dolichos Sinenſis, or Chineſe dolichos: legumes pendulous, cylindric, torulofe; peduncles erect, many-flowered. Stem annual, long, round, ſlender, twining, ſomewhat branched. Native of India, Amboyna, China, and Cochin-china.

4. Dolichos uncinatus, or hook-podded dolichos: legumes cylindric, hirſute, with a hooked ſubulate claw at the end; peduncles many-flowered; ſtem rough with hairs. This is removed by Browne and Swartz to a new genus, under the name of *teramnus*, becauſe it wants the calluſes at the baſe of the ſtandard in the corolla, and differs in other reſpects. See TERAMNUS. It is a native of Jamaica.

5. Dolichos luteolus, or yelloviſh dolichos: legumes in ſeveral cylindric heads; ſeeds rounded. Stem rather angular, branches round; a ſcandent plant; branches three or four cubits long. Native of the Society Iſles.

6. Dolichos unguiculatus, or bird's-foot dolichos: legumes in ſubcylindric heads, recurved, and concave at the

the tip. An annual ſmooth plant, with climbing ſtem; ſeed whitiſh, with a ſnow-white hilum. Native of the Weſt Indies. Loureiro ſays, it is a native of China, whence it was brought into Portugal.

7. Dolichos Tranquebaricus, or Tranquebar dolichos: legumes few, in cylindric heads, with a ſtraight dagger point. Extremely like dolichos unguiculatus, but flowers at a different time of the year, and is more climbing. The whole plant is very ſmooth; the vexillum, or ſtandard of the flowers, is pale yellow behind, and bluiſh red in front; the wings more blue, and the keel white. The legume differs from that of the unguiculatus merely in being ſlenderer.

8. Dolichos enſiformis, or horſe-bean: legumes gladiate, three-keeled at the back; ſeeds arilled. This is a native of Jamaica, and is diſtinguiſhed by its large falcated legume and white ſeeds, with a ſaffron-coloured hile. The ſtem is three or four feet high; the ſhoots run much farther; the legumes are between ten and fourteen inches in length, and generally contain ten or eleven ſeeds.

9. Dolichos tetragonolobus, or quadrangular dolichos: legumes quadrangular-membranaceous. Stem herbaceous, round, ſlender, ſcandent, long, branching; flowers pale blue, on long, lateral, few-flowered, peduncles; ſeeds about eight. Native of the Eaſt Indies, China, and Cochin-china.

10. Dolichos ſeſquipedalis, or long-podded dolichos: legumes ſubcylindric, even, very long. Appearance of a phaſeolus; ſtandard of the flower pale above, reddiſh within; legume more than a foot and a half in length, roundiſh, with a little obtuſe gibbous hook at the end. Native of the Weſt Indies.

11. Dolichos altiſſimus, or tall dolichos: legumes racemed, rough-haired, equal; ſeeds ſurrounded with a ſcar; leaves ſmooth on both ſides. This climbs the higheſt trees, whence hang elegant wreaths of flowers in cloſe racemes, on peduncles frequently more than twelve feet in length. Native of the iſland of Martinico.

12. Dolichos pruriens, or horſe-eye bean: legumes in racemes; valves ſomewhat keeled, rough-haired; peduncles by threes. Common in all parts of the Weſt Indies, and riſing to the top of the talleſt trees, or ſpreading wide among lower buſhes. A decoction of the roots is reckoned a powerful diuretic, and cleanſer of the kidneys. A vinous infuſion of the pods (twelve to a quart) is ſaid to be a certain remedy for the dropſy: the doſe half a pint, when made in beer. In the Windward Iſlands they make a ſyrup of the pods, which is ſaid to be very effectual againſt worms. Native of both Indies, according to Linnæus; and of Cochin-china, according to Loureiro.

13. Dolichos urens, or cow-itch dolichos: legumes in racemes, with furrows tranverſely lanceolate; the ſeeds ſurrounded with a ſcar. Stems round; proper peduncles one-flowered, in threes, placed cloſely at the end of the raceme, and hence forming a very elegant pendulous wreath of about eighteen flowers; theſe have no ſcent, are about two inches long, have a ferruginous calyx, and a yellow corolla, with the lower edge of the wings red. The ſeeds, from their reſemblance to an eye, are called by the French *yeux bourrique*, or aſs's eye; in our Weſt-India iſlands, for the ſame reaſon, they have the name of *ox-eye bean*. This alſo climbs to the top of the talleſt trees, throwing down its long ſlender flower-ſtalks to a moderate diſtance from the axils of the upper ribs, from whence they generally riſe: theſe are not above the thickneſs of a common packthread, but ſeldom under four or five feet in length, and bear the flowers in cluſters at their extremities. Jacquin, however, thinks it probable, that by this deſcription Browne may have confounded this ſpecies with the altiſſimus. Native of the Weſt Indies. This and the foregoing are perennial and ſhrubby; the ſurface alſo of the legumes are covered with prurient hairs.

14. Dolichos minimus, or ſmall dolichos: legumes in racemes, compreſſed, with four ſeeds in them; leaves rhomb-ſhaped. This climbs three or four feet in height, and has numerous branches. Browne calls it ſmall fetid dolichos; in Curaçoa it has the name of *vrattekruyt*, or wart-herb, the leaves bruiſed with ſalt being reputed to cure warts. Native of Jamaica; and, according to Jacquin, of all the Caribbee iſlands.

15. Dolichos lineatus, or lineated dolichos: legumes in racemes, oblong, three keeled. It differs from dolichos enſiformis in the leaves being ovate-oblong, not gibbous; obtuſe, not acute; thick, and marked with lines, not three-nerved; in having the legumes ſtraight at the back and oblong, not ſcymitar-ſhaped and curled. Native of Japan. Thunberg aſcribes the *reedſu* of Kæmpf. Amoen. 5. 836. to this ſpecies. See N° 32.

16. Dolichos Capenſis, or Cape dolichos: peduncles with one or two flowers; legumes elliptic, compreſſed; leaves ſmooth. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

17. Dolichos ſcarabæoides, or ſilvery-leaved dolichos: leaves ovate, tomentoſe; flowers ſolitary; ſeeds two-horned. Flowers ſingle from the axis. The ſeeds have two proceſſes like the antennæ of a beetle, whence the name. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

18. Dolichos incurvus, or crooked dolichos: legumes ſolitary, incurved, three-keeled. It differs from dolichos enſiformis in having the flowers ſolitary from the axils; the leaves oblong, and not gibbous on one ſide; the legumes bent in, not ſcymitar-ſhaped, and bent back; and the peduncle bending round: from dolichos lineatus, in the leaves being broad at the baſe, gradually acuminate, three-nerved, thinner; the legume inflex, enſiform, acuminate, waved, ſolitary. Native of Japan.

19. Dolichos bulboſus, or bulbous dolichos: leaves ſmooth, many-angled, toothed. Stem perennial, ſuffruticoſe, long, round, ſmooth, branched, without any ſtipules. The root conſiſts of roundiſh, tailed, juicy, white tubers in bundles: theſe are eaten both raw and dreſſed, but not the ſeeds. Native of both Indies.

20. Dolichos trilobus, or trilobated dolichos: lateral leaflets gibbous on the outſide, the middle one three-lobed. The root is compoſed of a few long tubers in bundles, they are two feet long, ſubcylindric, fibroſe-fleſhy, of a pale colour, and eatable when boiled; but not the legumes. Loureiro doubts whether this be the plant of Plukenet and Burman, ſince theſe authors make no mention of the remarkable large tubers. Native of the Eaſt Indies; cultivated in China and Cochin-china.

21. Dolichos ariſtatus, or bearded dolichos: peduncles two-flowered, axillary; legumes linear, compreſſed, ending in a ſtraight awn. Native of America.

22. Dolichos filiformis, or cat's-claw dolichos: leaflets linear, obtuſe, mucronate, ſmooth, pubeſcent underneath. This grows among buſhes, but ſeldom ſtretches above three or four feet in length. It is uſed as a purgative ingredient in diet-drinks, and is ſaid to anſwer well in hydropic caſes. Native of Jamaica, where it is called cat's-claws.

23. Dolichos purpureus, or purple dolichos: ſtem ſmooth; petiole pubeſcent; wings of the corolla ſpreading. Native of both Indies; cultivated in China and Cochin-china. Loureiro has another ſort, which he calls dolichos albus, and is not very different from this, only more tender and ſapid. It is the cacara alba of Rumphius. The ſtem is ſmooth and white; the leaflets three-cornered-rounded, pubeſcent, ſoft, pale, on ſmooth petioles; ſtipules in pairs, acute, ſhort; flowers white, in ſhort ſubterminating racemes, with a very wide reflex ſtandard; legumes ſmooth, but tubercled on the back, and beaked. This is alſo cultivated in China and Cochin-china.

24. Dolichos regularis, or uniform dolichos: leaves ovate, obtuſe; peduncles many-flowered; petals equal in ſize and form. Native of Virginia.

25. Dolichos lignoſus, or woody dolichos: ſtem perennial;

rennial; peduncles forming a head; legumes ſtiff and ſtraight, linear. Root woody, perennial; flowers nodding a little, roſe-coloured with a purpliſh keel; ſeeds black. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

26. Dolichos polyſtachios, or many-ſpiked dolichos: ſtem perennial; racemes very long; pedicels in pairs; legumes acuminate, compreſſed. Stem becoming ſhrubby, often round, ſmooth, very long. Native of Japan, where it is frequently cultivated for arbours; alſo of Virginia.

27. Dolichos reticulatus, or netted-leaved dolichos: leaves ovate, acute, wrinkled, netted, villoſe; racemes few-flowered. Native of New South Wales. Introduced in 1781 by ſir Joſeph Banks, bart. Shrubby.

28. Dolichos luteus, or yellow dolichos: twining; flowers in a ſort of ſpike; legumes ſubcylindric, ſmooth; leaves roundiſh-rhombed, obtuſe, entire, ſmooth. Native of Jamaica.

29. Dolichos montanus, or mountain dolichos: ſtem ſhrubby, climbing; leaflets ovate-rhombed; five filaments with oblong antheræ; and five alternate, roundiſh. Native of the mountain woods of Cochin-china. This ſpecies is very nearly allied to dolichos bulboſus and trilobus, eſpecially in the tuberous root; linear legumes divided between the ſeeds; ſtyles and ſtigmas not pubeſcent. Had not Linnæus ranged theſe under dolichos, Loureiro would have ſuppoſed that all three belonged to another genus.

30. Dolichos haſtatus, or ſpear-leaved dolichos: ſtem procumbent; leaves ſubhaſtate; peduncles many-flowered, erect. Stem annual, long, round, branched; ſeeds ovate, pale, eſculent. Cultivated on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa.

31. Dolichos rotundifolius, or round-leaved dolichos: legumes racemed, compreſſed, ſomewhat hairy, ſword-ſhaped; leaflets oval-roundiſh, ſmooth. Dolichos altiſſimus differs from this in having the ealyxes and wings villoſe at the baſe.

II. Erect. 32. Dolichos enſiformis, or ſeymitar-podded dolichos: ſtem ſuberect; legumes ſcymitar-ſhaped, three-keeled; ſeeds arilled. Native of China and Cochin-china; cultivated for arbours, not for food. There is a variety, with legumes twice as long, and flatter, with blunter leaves, and other minute differences. Here are two ſpecies, this and N° 8. bearing the ſame name. They are, however, different; that probably from the Weſt, this from the Eaſt, Indies.

33. Dolichos ſoja, or ſoja dolichos: ſtems flexuoſe; racemes axillary, erect; legumes pendulous, hiſpid, containing about two ſeeds. Stem round at the bottom and ſmooth; above, ſtriated, very hirſute, a foot and more in height. Native of the Eaſt Indies, Ceylon, Japan, &c. The ſeeds, which are uſually called *miſo*, in Japan, are put into ſoups, and are the moſt common diſh there, inſomuch that the Japaneſe frequently eat them three times a day. The ſoja of the Japaneſe, which is preferred to the kitjap of the Chineſe, is prepared from theſe ſeeds, and is uſed in almoſt all their diſhes, inſtead of common ſalt. The Chineſe alſo have a favourite diſh made of theſe ſeeds, called *teu hu*, or *taú hu*, which looks like curd; and, though inſipid in itſelf, yet with proper ſeaſoning is agreeable and wholeſome.

34. Dolichos catiang, or Indian dolichos: legumes double, linear, ſomewhat erect. Stem annual, a foot and a half high, roundiſh, rugged, branched. There are ſeveral varieties, differing in the colour of the flower and ſeed, all which are much cultivated for food. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

35. Dolichos biflorus, or two-flowered dolichos: ſtem perennial, even; peduncles two-flowered; legumes erect. Stem ſuffruticoſe, a foot and a half high, erect, branched, hairy. Native of India and China.

36. Dolichos repens, or ſea-ſide dolichos: ſtem creeping; leaves pubeſcent, ovate; flowers racemed, in pairs; legumes linear, columnar. Common by the ſea-ſide in Jamaica. The root is a ſtrong purgative.

37. Dolichos roſeus, or roſe-coloured dolichos: ſtem creeping, aſcending; leaflets roundiſh, ſhining; flowers in racemes; legumes three-keeled at the back. Native of Jamaica.

38. Dolichos fabæformis, or bean-ſhaped dolichos: ſtem erect, angular; leaves villoſe, glaucous; legumes ſtiff and ſtraight, ſubquadrangular. Root annual; ſtem ſimple, with lines running down from the petiole, villoſe, rugged, herbaceous, a foot high, the thickneſs of a quill. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

Propagation and Culture. Moſt of the ſpecies, coming from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, are tender, and ſeldom perfect their ſeeds in England. Being moſtly annual plants, they are frequently loſt in our ſtoves, and recovered again as the ſeeds are ſent over. The 12th and 13th are ſometimes preſerved in botanic gardens, eſpecially the latter, whoſe pods are cloſely covered with ſtinging hairs, commonly known by the title of *cow-itch*; but theſe are too tender to thrive in the open air in this country, ſo that whoever is deſirous to have the plants, ſhould ſow their ſeeds in a hot-bed in March; and, when the plants are come up, they ſhould be each planted in a ſeparate pot, and plunged into the hot-bed again, being careful to ſhade them till they have taken root; after which they muſt have freſh air every day admitted to them, in proportion to the warmth of the ſeaſon; and, when the plants are too tall to remain in the hot-bed, they ſhould be removed into the bark-ſtove, where, if they are allowed room to run, they will flower and perfect their ſeeds. Several ſpecies are cultivated in warm countries for the table, but in England ſeldom perfect their ſeeds; and, were they to thrive here as well as in the warm countries, they would be little eſteemed, becauſe we have much better ſorts in our gardens already; for the ſcarlet flowering kidney bean is preferable to all of them for eating, and deſerves our care to cultivate it more than any other. See GLYCINE TRILOBA.

DOLICHU'ROUS, *adj.* in poetry, having a ſyllable too much at the end. *Scott.*

DO'LIMAN, *ſ.* A long kind of veſt worn by the Turks. *Scott.*

DOLIOCAR'PUS, *ſ.* in botany; a genus of the claſs polyandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved; leaflets oblong-rounded, concave, unequal, coloured, permanent. Corolla: petals three, roundiſh, concave, plaited. Stamina: filaments very many, inſerted into the receptacle, capillary; antheræ compreſſed. Piſtillum: germ globular; ſtyle long, incurved; ſtigma compreſſed, flat, ſubbifid. Pericarpium: berry globular, one-celled, crowned with the ſtyle. Seeds: two, arilled, oblong-rounded, flat on one ſide, convex on the other.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, five-leaved; corolla, three-petalled, plaited; ſtigma ſubbifid; berry globular, crowned with the ſtyle, one-celled, two-ſeeded.

Species. 1. Doliocarpus Rolandri, or Rolander's doliocarpus: ſtem ſtiff and ſtraight; leaves ovate-lanceolate, toothed; flowers terminating. This grows to a ſhrub; ſtem and branches upright; leaves hanging; of an oval-lanceolate ſhape, and dentated.

2. Doliocarpus major, or great doliocarpus: ſtem ſcandent; leaves ovate, toothed; peduncles lateral, one-flowered. The flowers are aromatic, but rather nauſeous; the berries of this plant are pernicious; ſtem ſlender and flexuoſe; branches at right angles; leaves ſpreading.

3. Doliocarpus calinea, or calinea doliocarpus: ſtem ſcandent; leaves ovate, quite entire; flowers axillary, in bundles. A ſhrub, with ſeveral knotty ſpreading twigs, ſcattering over the neighbouring trees; the branches are garniſhed with alternate, oval, ſhining green, leaves terminating in a point; the largeſt four inches long. The

flowers ſpring from the boſoms of the leaves on the branches, and are arranged alternately in little heaps. The corolla conſiſts of three white petals, which are large and rounded. Native of Guiana.

DOLL, *ſ.* A contraction of Dorothy.—*Doll* Tearſheet. *Shakeſpeare.*—A little girl's puppet or baby.

DOLL's POINT, a cape on the ſouth coaſt of the iſland of Jamaica, between Weſt Harbour and Peake Bay.

DOL'LAR, *ſ.* [*daler*, Dut.] A Dutch and German coin of different value, from about two ſhillings and ſixpence to four and ſixpence:

He diſburs'd
Ten thouſand *dollars* for our gen'ral uſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOL'LART BAY, a large bay or lake of Germany, in Eaſt Frieſeland, formed by an inundation of the ſea, in the year 1277, which at the ſame time is ſaid to have deſtroyed thirty-three villages: ſixteen miles weſt of Groningen, and ſix ſouth-weſt of Emden.

DOL'LENDORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Blankenheim: three miles ſouth-eaſt of Blankenheim.

DOL'LEREN, a river of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine, which runs into the Ille, about two miles north of Mulhauſen.

DOLL'STADT, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Oberland: ſix miles north-weſt of Preuſchmark.

DOL'MAR, a mountain of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and county of Henneberg: five miles ſouth of Schmalkalden.

DOLMATOV', a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Ekaterinburg, on the Iſet: eighty miles ſouth-eaſt of Ekaterinburg.

DOLMAYRAC', a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne: three leagues north of Agen.

DOLN'STEIN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Aichſtat, on the Altmuhl: ſix miles weſt of Aichſtat.

DOLO, in Maritime Auſtria, a market town, well built, and ſituated on the Brenta and Brentone, which ſeparate above this place. Acroſs the latter the government has of late cauſed a remarkable ſtone bridge to be built by the architect Thomas Tomanza. The firſt ſluices are conſtructed on the ſpot where the Brenta ſeparates from the Brentone, and on both ſides of the river ſtand the moſt ſplendid palaces and gardens, to which the moſt opulent of the nobles reſort in the ſummer ſeaſon. The number of the inhabitants amounts to 3000, who carry on a good trade.

DO'LON, a Trojan, famous for his ſwiftneſs. Being ſent by Hector to ſpy the Grecian camp by night, he was ſeized by Diomedes and Ulyſſes, to whom he revealed the ſituation, ſchemes, and reſolutions, of his countrymen, with the hopes of eſcaping with his life. He was put to death by Diomedes, as a traitor. *Homer.*

DOLONOS'KOI, a fortreſs of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Kolivan, on the Irkutſch: ſixteen miles weſt of Semipolatnoi.

DOLO'PES, a people of Theſſaly, near mount Pindus. Peleus reigned there and ſent them to the Trojan war under Phœnix. They became maſters of Scyros, and, like the reſt of the ancient Greeks, were fond of migration. *Virgil.*

DOLORI'FIC, *adj.* [*dolorificus*, Lat.] That which cauſes grief or pain.—The pain returned, diſſipating that vapour which obſtructed the nerves, and giving the *dolorific* motion free paſſage again. *Ray.*—This, by the ſoftneſs and rarity of the fluid, is inſenſible, and not *dolorific*. *Arbuthnot.*

DO'LOROUS, *adj.* [from *dolor*, Lat.] Sorrowful; doleful; diſmal; gloomy; impreſſing ſorrow.—We are taught, by his example, that the preſence of *dolorous* and dreadful objects, even in minds moſt perfect, may, as clouds, overcaſt all ſeaſonable joy. *Hooker.*

Through many a dark and dreary vale
They paſs'd, and many a region *dolorous*,
O'er many a frozen, many a fiery alp,
Rocks, caves, lakes, fens, bogs, dens, and ſhades, of death.
Milton.

Painful.—Their diſpatch is quick, and leſs *dolorous* than the paw of the bear, or teeth of the lion. *More.*

DOLOS'ITY, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *doloſus*, deceitful.] Deceitfulneſs. *Scott.*

DO'LOUR, *ſ.* [*dolor*, Lat.] Grief; ſorrow:

I've words too few to take my leave of you,
When the tongue's office ſhould be prodigal,
To breathe th' abundant *dolour* of the heart. *Shakeſpeare.*

Lamentation; complaint. Pain; pang.—A mind fixed and bent upon ſomewhat that is good, doth avert the *dolours* of death. *Bacon.*

DOL'PHIN, *ſ.* in ichthyology. See DELPHINUS, vol. v. p. 684.

DOL'PHIN's ISLAND, an iſland in the Straits of Magellan. Lat. 53. 59. S. lon. 71. 41. W. Greenwich.

DOLPHINET', *ſ.* A ſmall dolphin, a female dolphin:

The lion choſe his mate, the turtle-dove
Her dear, the dolphin his own *dolphinet*. *Spenſer.*

DOLT, *ſ.* [*dol*, Teut.] A heavy ſtupid fellow; a blockhead; a thickſcull; a loggerhead:

Thou haſt not half that power to do me harm,
As I have to be hurt: oh gull, oh *dolt*,
As ignorant as dirt! *Shakeſpeare.*

To DOLT, *v. n.* To waſte time fooliſhly.—Than in theſe trifles to have *dolted* ſo much. *New Cuſtom.*

DOLT'ISH, *adj.* Stupid; mean; dull; blockiſh.—Dametas, the moſt arrant *doltiſh* clown that ever was without the privilege of a bauble. *Sidney.*

DOM'ABLE, *adj.* [*domabilis*, Lat.] Tameable.

DO'MAGE, *ſ.* [from *domare*, Lat.] Subjugation.—Every man naturally endeavours, as far as he dares, to extort a greater value from his contemners by *domage*. *Hobbes.*

DOMA'IN, *ſ.* [*domaine*, Fr. from *dominium*, Lat.] Dominion; empire.—Ocean trembles for his green *domain*. *Thomſon.*

Rome's great emperor, whoſe wide *domain*
Had ample territory, wealth, and pow'r. *Milton.*

Poſſeſſion; eſtate:

A Latian field, with fruitful plains,
And a large portion of the king's *domains*. *Dryden.*

The land about a manſion-houſe occupied by the lord.

DO'MAT (John), an eminent French lawyer, born at Clermont, in 1625. He ſtudied the law at Bourges, and pleaded with great reputation for ſeveral years. About his thirtieth year he obtained the office of king's advocate in the preſidial court of Clermont, which place he occupied for near thirty years. He was entruſted with many important affairs by the province, which he conducted with great ability. Perceiving the confuſion prevailing in the laws, he applied himſelf to the ſyſtematic development of their principles; which produced his work, intitled, *Les Loix Civiles dans leur Ordre naturel*, which appeared in 1694, in 3 vols. 4to. followed, after his death, by three more volumes on public law, &c. It is a performance highly eſteemed for the juſtneſs of its principles, and the clearneſs of its method, and has, perhaps, never been excelled as a ſcientific work. Domat died at Paris in 1696, in circumſtances much inferior to his deſerts. An improved edition of his work, with a ſupplement by M. de Jouy, appeared in 1777, folio.

DOMBA'CA, a ſmall iſland near the coaſt of Ava, in the bay of Bengal. Lat. 17. 32. N. lon. 94. 35. E. Greenwich.

DOM'BES, before the revolution, a principality and ſmall country of France, in Burgundy, about eight leagues

long, and ſeven broad, of which Trevoux was the capital. It is now part of the department of the Ain.

DOMBE'YA, *ſ.* [ſo named in memory of *Joſ. Dombey*, who travelled into Peru, Chili, &c.] In botany, a genus of the claſs dioecia, order monodelphia, natural order coniferæ. The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: ament ovate-cylindric, imbricate, with very many woody ſhort ſcales, each terminated by a lanceolate, acute, coriaceous, leaflet, concave at the bottom, narrower and recurved at the top. Perianthium and corolla: none. Stamina: filaments none, except the amentaceous ſcales; antheræ ten or twelve, heaped about each amentaceous ſcale, linear, grooved, the length of the ſcale, faſtened to the top of it, below the leaflet by the upper extremity, approximating and converging round the ſcale, ſeparating by the lower extremity when the ſcale is broken. II. Female. Calyx: ament large, roundiſh, ovate, cloſely imbricate, with very many germs, reſembling ſcales. Perianthium and corolla: none. Piſtillum: germ each wedge-form-oblong, ſubcompreſſed, contracted at the baſe into a point, with a broad, thick, callous, termination; ſtyle none; ſtigma bivalve, the valves unequal; the inner very ſmall, obtuſe; the outer very large, broad at the baſe, thick, curved inwards above the inner one, terminated by a linear, acute, ſlender, aſcending, ſtrap, almoſt the length of the germ, bent in at a right angle above the germ. Pericarpium: none. Seeds: very many, heaped into a roundiſh ſtrobile, imbricate; each oblong, ſubcylindric, towards the baſe obtuſely four-cornered, with a ſhort broad ſpatulate wing or ſtrap at the top, thickened at the edge, incurved, aſcending; the ſhell coriaceous, coloured, valveleſs; the kernel oblong, ſubangular at the baſe; receptacle naked, villoſe, here and there alveolate.—*Eſſential Character.* Male. Calyx of the ament ſcales terminated by a leaflet; corolla, none; antheræ, ten or twelve, without filaments. Female. Calyx, ament with many germs; corolla, none; ſtigma, bivalve, unequal; ſeeds, many, in a roundiſh ſtrobile.

Dombeya Chilenſis, or Chileſe Dombeya, a ſingle ſpecies: turbinate imbricate leaves, mucronated on one ſide; the branches quaternate and cruciate. This is a tree as yet very little known; a native of Chili, of a reſinous nature, in ſome reſpects allied to protea; and alſo to the pines in ſome particulars of its fructification. The trunk is ſtraight, and of conſiderable height; the wood white, ſolid, and clothed with a kind of double bark. The boughs are covered with very numerous leaves, ſeſſile, oval, very pointed, entire, ſmooth, and coriaceous; a little concave inwards, and convex outwards; they have a ſharp point, and are ranged on the branches in the manner of ſcales. The flowers are male and female, borne on different individuals, and hang in ſeſſile ſolitary catkins from the tops of the branches. See TOURRETTIA.

DOM'BOC, *ſ.* See DOME-BOOK.

DOMBROWAZ', a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lemberg: ſixty miles ſouth-weſt of Lemberg.

DOMBROW'KEN, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Natangen: ten miles eaſt of Nordenberg.

DOME, *ſ.* [*dome*, Fr. from *domus*, Lat.] A building; a houſe; a fabric. A hemiſpherical arch; a cupola. See ARCHITECTURE, vol. ii. p. 88.

Stranger! whoe'er thou art, ſecurely reſt
Affianc'd in my faith, a friendly gueſt;
Approach the *dome*, the ſocial banquet ſhare. *Pope.*

DOME, or DOOM, *ſ.* [from dom, Sax.] A judgment, ſentence, or decree. Several words end in *dom*; as, *kingdom*, *earldom*, *&c.* from whence they may be applied to the juriſdiction of a lord or a king. *Mon. Angl.* tom. i. p. 284.

DOME-BOOK, *ſ.* [Sax. *liber judicialis*] A book compoſed under the direction of Alfred the Great, containing the local cuſtoms of the ſeveral provinces of the kingdom. This book is ſaid to have been extant ſo late as the reign of Edward IV. but it is now loſt. It probably contained the principal maxims of the common law, the penalties for miſdemeanors, and the forms of judicial proceedings. Thus much at leaſt may be collected from the injunction to obſerve it, which is found in the laws of Edward the Elder, ſon of Alfred, c. 1. This book was compiled by Alfred for the uſe of the court-baron, hundred and county-court, the court-leet, and ſheriff's tourn. 1 *Comm.* 64.

DOMENICHI'NO, or DOMENICO ZAMPIERI, a painter of great excellence, born at Bologna in 1581. His extraordinary turn for drawing, cauſed him to be ſent to the ſchool firſt of Calvart, and afterwards of the Carracci. Though extremely young, he carried off all the academical prizes. He worked apart from the other pupils, and ſtudied while they indulged in pleaſure. He joined Albano at Rome, who lodged him in his houſe, and for two years defrayed his expences. Domenichino painted ſeveral pieces for his protector cardinal Aguechi. He frequently viſited Annibal Carracci, then employed in the Farneſe gallery. His Communion of St. Jerome, in the church della Carita, has been reckoned by great judges the next piece in merit to the Transfiguration of Raphael. Though he was a modeſt and inoffenſive man, his ſuperior merit perpetually raiſed him enemies who rendered his life uneaſy. He left Rome and went to Fano, and thence to his native city of Bologna, where he employed two years on his famous picture of the Roſary. He married there an amiable woman, who ſerved him for a model in all his ſubſequent works. He was afterwards re-called to Rome by Gregory XV. who created him his firſt painter, and architect of the Vatican. He died in 1641, at the age of ſixty, and was interred at the cathedral of Naples.

DO'MENZAIN, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Mauleon: ſeven miles north-north-weſt of Mauleon.

DOMES-MEN, *ſ.* Judges, or men appointed to doom and determine ſuits and controverſies; hence *æg deme*, I deem, or judge.

DO'MESDAY, or DOMESDAY-BOOK, *ſ.* [*liber judiciarius, vel cenſualis Angliæ.*] A moſt ancient record, made in the time of William I. called the Conqueror, and now remaining in the exchequer fair and legible, conſiſting of two volumes, a greater and a leſs; the greater containing a ſurvey of all the lands in England, except the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, Durham, and part of Lancaſhire, which it is ſaid were never ſurveyed; and, excepting Eſſex, Suffolk, and Norfolk; which three laſt are comprehended in the leſſer volume. There is alſo a third book, which differs from the others in form more than matter, made by the command of the ſame king. And there is a fourth book kept in the exchequer which is called *domeſday*; and, though a very large volume, is only an abridgment of the others. Likewiſe a fifth book is kept in the remembrancer's office in the exchequer, which has the name of *domeſday*, and is the very ſame with the fourth, before mentioned. Our anceſtors had many dome-books. King Alfred had a roll which he called *domeſday*; and the domeſday-book made by William I. referred to the time of Edward the Confeſſor, as that of king Alfred did to the time of Ethelred. The fourth book of domeſday having many pictures, and gilt letters in the beginning, relating to the time of king Edward the Confeſſor, this led him who made notes on Fitzherbert's Regiſter into a miſtake in page 14, where he tells us, that *liber* domeſday *factus fuit tempore regis Edwardi.*

The book of domeſday was begun by five juſtices, aſſigned for that purpoſe in each county, in the year 1081, and finiſhed anno 1086. And the queſtion whether lands are ancient demeſne, or not, is to be decided by the domeſday of William I. from whence there is no appeal: and it is a book of that authority, that even the Conque-

ror

ror himſelf ſubmitted ſome caſes, wherein he was concerned, to be determined by it. The addition of *day* to this dome-book was not meant with any alluſion to the final day of judgment, as many perſons have conceived; but was to ſtrengthen and confirm it, and ſignifies merely the judicial deciſive record or book of dooming judgment and juſtice. Camden calls this book *Gulielmi Libram Cenſualem*, the Tax-book of king William; and it was further called *Magna Rolla Winton*, as having been kept in the cathedral of Wincheſter. The dean and chapter of York have a regiſter ſtiled *doomſday*; ſo hath the biſhop of Worceſter; and there is an ancient roll in Cheſter caſtle, called *domeſday-roll. Blount.* A tranſcript of the domeſday-book of William I. has been made and publiſhed, by which the acceſs to it is rendered more familiar to our antiquaries and hiſtorians.

DOMES'TIC, or DOMESTICAL, *adj.* [*domeſticus*, Lat.] Belonging to the houſe; not relating to things public.—The practical knowledge of the *domeſtic* duties, is the principal glory of a woman. *Clariſſa.*—Private; done at home; not open.—In this their *domeſtical* celebration of the Paſſover, they divided ſupper into two courſes. *Hooker.*—Inhabiting the houſe; not wild.—The faithful prudent huſband is an honeſt, tractable, and *domeſtic*, animal. *Addiſon.*—Not foreign; inteſtine.—*Domeſtical* evils, for that we think we can maſter them at all times, are often permitted to run on forward, till it be too late to recall them. *Hooker.*

DOMES'TIC, *ſ.* One kept in the ſame houſe.—A ſervant dwells remote from all knowledge of his lord's purpoſes: he lives as a kind of foreigner under the ſame roof; a *domeſtic*, and yet a ſtranger too. *South.*

To DOMES'TICATE, *v. a.* To make domeſtic; to withdraw from the public. To make as familiar as if of the family.—*Domeſticate* yourſelf there, while you ſtay at Naples. *Cheſterfield.*

DOMES'TICALLY, *adv.* Relatively to domeſtic matters.—Make yourſelf familiarly and *domeſtically* uſeful to them, by offering yourſelf for all their little commiſſions, and aſſiſting in doing the honours of their houſes. *Cheſterfield.*

DOME'VRE, a town of France, in the department of the Voſges, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Ramberviller: two leagues north of Epinal.

DOME'VRE SOUS AVIERE, a town of France, in the department of the Voſges, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Epinal: one league north-weſt of Epinal.

DOMFRO'NT, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Orne, ſituated on a mountain near the river Varenne, containing about 1700 inhabitants: ten leagues weſt-north-weſt of Alençon. Lat. 48. 35. N. lon. 17. 1. E. Ferro.

DOMESTI'CITY, *ſ.* The ſtate of being a ſervant, a ſervile condition. *Scott.*

DOMES'TICNESS, *ſ.* The ſtate of being domeſtic. *Scott.*

DOMICEL'LUS, *ſ.* an obſolete Latin word, anciently given as an appellation or addition to the king's natural ſons in France, and ſometimes to the eldeſt ſons of noblemen there; from whence we borrowed theſe additions: as ſeveral natural children of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, are ſtiled *domicelli* by the charter of legitimation. 20 *Rich.* II. But, according to Thorn, the *domicelli* were only the better ſorts of ſervants in monaſteries.

DOMICI'LIARY, *adj.* [from *domicile*, Fr.] Intruding into private houſes.—Superviſors of *domiciliary* viſitation. *Burke.*

DOMIDU'CUS, a god who preſided over marriage. Juno alſo was called *Domiduca*, from the power ſhe was ſuppoſed to have in marriages.

To DO'MIFY, *v. a.* [*domifico*, Lat.] To tame.

DO'MINA, *ſ.* A title given to honourable women, who anciently, in their own right of inheritance, held a barony.

DO'MINANT, *adj.* [*dominant*, Fr. *dominans*, Lat.] Predominant; preſiding; aſcendant.

To DO'MINATE, *v. a.* [*dominatus*, Lat.] To predominate; to prevail over the reſt:

I thus conclude my theme,
The *dominating* humour makes the dream. *Dryden.*

DOMINA'TION, *ſ.* [*dominatio*, Lat.] Power; dominion. Tyranny; inſolent authority:

Thou and thine uſurp
The *domination*, royalties, and rights,
Of this oppreſſed boy. *Shakeſpeare.*

One highly exalted in power; uſed of angelic beings:

Hear, all ye angels, progeny of light,
Thrones, *dominations*, princedoms, virtues, pow'rs. *Milton.*

DO'MINATIVE, *adj.* Imperious; inſolent.

DOMINA'TOR, *ſ.* [Lat.] The preſiding or predominant power or influence.—Jupiter and Mars are *dominators* for this north-weſt part of the world, which maketh the people impatient of ſervitude, lovers of liberty, martial, and courageous. *Camden.*

To DOMINE'ER, *v. n.* [*dominor*, Lat.] To rule with inſolence; to ſwell; to bluſter; to act without controul.—The voice of conſcience now is low and weak, chaſtiſing the paſſions, as old Eli did his luſtful *domineering* ſons. *South.*

Both would their little ends ſecure;
He ſighs for freedom, ſhe for pow'r;
His wiſhes tend abroad to roam,
And hers to *domineer* at home. *Prior.*

DOMIN'GO, or SAINT DOMINGO, once the principal city of the extenſive iſland of Hiſpaniola, in the Weſt Indies; which iſland has been lately deluged with human blood, in conſequence of a formidable and long-continued inſurrection of the negro ſlaves, mulattos, and men of colour: for particulars of which ſee the articles HISPANIOLA and SAINT DOMINGO.

DO'MINIC DE GUSMAN, a ſaint in the Roman calendar, and founder of the Dominican order of monks, born at Calaroga, in Old Caſtile, in 1170. He preached with great fury againſt the Albigenſes in Languedoc, when pope Innocent III. made a croiſade againſt that unhappy people; and was made inquiſitor in Languedoc, where he founded his order, and got it confirmed by the Lateran council in 1215. He died at Bologna in 1221, and was canonized fourteen years after his death, by pope Gregory IX. See DOMINICANS.

DOMIN'ICA, a daughter of Petronius, who married the emperor Valens.

DOMINI'CA, an iſland of the Weſt Indies, ſo named by Chriſtopher Columbus, from the circumſtance of diſcovering it on Sunday, (November 3, 1493,) ſituated between Guadaloupe and Martinico; about twenty-nine miles in length, and ſixteen in breadth, containing 186,436 acres of land, and divided into ten pariſhes. It contains many high and rugged mountains, among which are volcanoes, that frequently diſcharge eruptions. From ſome of theſe mountains iſſue ſprings of hot water, whoſe medicinal virtues are much commended. Dominica is well watered, there being upwards of thirty rivers in the iſland, beſides a great number of rivulets. The ſoil, in moſt of the interior country, is a light brown-coloured mould, and appears to have been waſhed from the mountains. Towards the ſea-coaſt, and in many of the valleys, it is a deep, black, and rich, native earth, and ſeems well adapted to the cultivation of all the articles of Weſt-Indian produce. The under ſtratum is, in ſome parts, a yellow or brick clay, in others a ſtiff terrace; but it is in moſt places very ſtony. In the woods of Dominica are innumerable ſwarms of bees, which hive in the trees, and produce great quantities of wax and honey, both of which are equal in goodneſs to any in Europe. Dominica was confirmed

onfirmed to Great Britain by the peace of Paris, in 1763, having been taken from the French in 1759. At the commencement of the American war, this iſland was in a flouriſhing ſtate. The port of Roſeau, having been declared a free port by act of parliament, was reſorted to by trading veſſels from moſt parts of the foreign Weſt Indies, as well as from America. The French and Spaniards purchaſed great numbers of negroes there for the ſupply of their ſettlements, together with vaſt quantities of the merchandize and manufactures of Great Britain; payment for all which was made chiefly in bullion, indigo, and cotton, and completed in mules and cattle; articles of prime neceſſity to the planter. Thus the iſland, though in itſelf certainly not ſo fertile as ſome others of leſs extent in its neighbourhood, was becoming very rapidly a colony of conſiderable importance; but unfortunately it wanted that protection which alone could give its poſſeſſions ſtability and value. On Monday, the 7th of September, 1778, a French armament, conſiſting of a forty-gun ſhip, three frigates, and about thirty ſail of armed ſloops and ſchooners, having on-board upwards of 2000 regular troops, and a banditti of volunteers, appeared off the iſland, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, governor of Martinico, and general of the French windward Weſt-Indian iſlands. The whole number of the militia in the iſland did not exceed 100. The ſmall force, however, that was collected, behaved with that ſpirit and gallantry, which give room to lament that they were not better ſupported. But gallantry was unavailing againſt ſuch ſuperiority of numbers; for about 2000 of the French having ſhortly after gained poſſeſſion of the heights above Roſeau, determined the fate of the iſland. The bravery of the inhabitants, however, obtained for them very honourable terms of capitulation. It was reſtored to Great Britain by the peace of 1783. The principal towns are Portſmouth, and Roſeau, or Charlotte's Town. The exports of the iſland, from January 5th, 1787, to January 5th, 1788, were 71,312 cwt. of ſugar, 63,392 gallons of rum, 16,803 gallons of molaſſes, 1194 cwt. of cocoa, 18,149 cwt. of coffee, 11,250 pounds of indigo, 970,816 pounds of cotton, 161 cwt. of ginger, with miſcellaneous articles to the value of 11,912l. 10s. 9d. The whole, according to the current prices in London, to the value of 302,987l. 15s. Lat. 15. 32. N. lon. 61. 23. W. Greenwich.

DOMINI'CA, or O-Heeva-Oa, one of the Marquis of Mendoza iſlands, in the South Pacific Ocean, mountainous, rocky, and apparently barren: about ſixteen leagues in circumference. Lat. 9. 41. S. lon. 139. 8. W. Greenwich.

DOMINI'CA (La), a town of the iſland of Cuba: forty-five miles weſt of Havanna.

DOMI'NICAL, *adj.* [*dominicalis*, Lat.] That which notes the Lord's day, or Sunday.—The cycle of the moon ſerves to ſhew the epacts, and that of the ſun the *dominical* letter, throughout all their variations. *Holder.*

DOMI'NICANS, an order of religious, called in ſome places *jacobins*; and in others, *predicants*, or *preaching friars*. The Dominicans take their name from their founder, Dominic de Guzman, a Spaniſh eccleſiaſtic, of Old Caſtile. He was made canon and archdeacon of Oſma; and preached with great zeal and vehemence againſt the Albigenſes in Languedoc, where he laid the firſt foundation of his order. It was approved of in 1215 by Innocent III. and confirmed in 1216 by a bull of Honorius III. under the title of *St. Auguſtin*; to which Dominic added ſeveral auſtere precepts and obſervances, obliging the brethren to take a vow of abſolute poverty, and to abandon entirely all their revenues and poſſeſſions; adopting alſo the title of *preaching friars*, becauſe public inſtruction was the main object of their inſtitution. Their firſt convent was founded at Thouloufe by the biſhop thereof and Simon de Montfort. Two years afterwards they had another at Paris, near the biſhop's houſe; and ſome time a third in the rue St. Jacques, whence the denomination of *jacobins*. Juſt before his death, Dominic ſent Gilbert de Freſney, with twelve of the brethren, into England; and they founded a monaſtery at Oxford in the year 1221. In 1276, the mayor and aldermen of London gave them two whole ſtreets, by the river Thames, where they erected a very commodious convent, whence that place is ſtill called *Black Friars*, then the name by which the Dominicans were called in England.

DOMIN'ICIDE, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *dominus*, maſter, and *cædo*, to kill.] The act of killing one's lord or maſter; one that kills his maſter or lord.

DOMIN'ICUM, *ſ.* [Lat.] The ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper; the place where the Lord's ſupper is adminiſtered, a church. *Mede.*—In law, a demeſne, lands occupied by the lord of a manor.

DOMI'NION, *ſ.* [*dominium*, Lat.] Sovereign authority; unlimited power:

> He gave us only over beaſt, fiſh, fowl,
> *Dominion* abſolute; that right we hold
> By his donation: but man over man
> He made not lord. *Milton.*

Power; right of poſſeſſion or uſe, without being accountable.—He could not have private *dominion* over that, which was under the private *dominion* of another. *Locke.*—Territory; region; diſtrict: conſidered as ſubject.—The donations of biſhoprics the kings of England did ever retain in all their *dominions*, when the popes uſurped authority was at the higheſt. *Davies.*—Predominance; aſcendant.—Objects placed foremoſt ought to be more finiſhed than thoſe caſt behind, and to have *dominion* over things confuſed and tranſient. *Dryden.*—An order of angels.—By him were all things created, viſible and inviſible, whether they be thrones or *dominions*, or principalities or powers. *Col.* i. 16.

DO'MINIS (Marc Antony de), a learned Italian prelate in the ſixteenth and beginning of the ſeventeenth century, deſcended from a family of rank at Arba, a town in what was formerly Venetian Dalmatia. After being educated in the Illyrian college at Loretto, he went to the univerſity of Padua, where he made diſtinguiſhed proficiency in the different branches of learning and ſcience. When young he entered into the ſociety of jeſuits; but he grew weary of the confinement and ſubordination which their regulations required. That he might quit their connection with honour, however, he obtained from the emperor Rodolph, a nomination to the biſhopric of Segni in Dalmatia. Finding, after ſome time, his ſituation in that ſee rendered unpleaſant by ſome quarrels with the clergy of his dioceſe, he ſolicited the ſenate of Venice to be appointed to the vacant archbiſhopric of Spalato, the capital of Dalmatia, and ſucceeded in his application. Some of his earlieſt labours in this new ſituation were conſecrated to the ſervice of his benefactors, whom, with much learning, ingenuity, and boldneſs, he defended in their diſpute with pope Paul V. who had iſſued an interdict againſt the republic. His writings on this ſubject were cenſured by the inquiſition; but he was ſafe from their power, and replied to their cenſures by a ſpirited kind of manifeſto, written in the Latin language. The diſguſt which on this occaſion he felt at the proceedings of the court of Rome, led him to break off his communion with the catholics, and to declare himſelf a proteſtant. He came to England with ſir Henry Wotton, ambaſſador to the republic of Venice, in the year 1616, and was received with great reſpect by all ranks; and he preached and wrote againſt the church of Rome with all the zeal of a new convert. Soon after his arrival he publiſhed an addreſs to all the biſhops of the Chriſtian church, explaining the reaſons which had compelled him to quit his dioceſe; which went through ſeveral editions, and was tranſlated into different languages. But the principal work

work which he publiſhed in this country, was intended to ſtrike a fatal blow at the foundations of the papal power and dominion, intitled, *M. Ant. de Dominis de Republica Eccleſiaſtica, Libri X.* in 3 vols. folio, which made their appearance in the years 1617 and 1620. It is a work of great erudition and ingenuity, and was received with much applauſe by the proteſtant world, while, as might be expected, it was ſtrongly condemned by the catholics. M. de Dominis is alſo ſaid to have been principally concerned in the publication of father Paul's Hiſtory of the Council of Trent, which appeared at London in 1619. In reward of his learning, and as ſome compenſation for the ſacrifices which he had made, he was preferred by king James to the maſterſhip of the Savoy, and the deanery of Windſor. But he is reported to have been diſappointed in the expectations which he had formed of higher preferments among the proteſtants. During this fit of chagrin, it is ſaid that count Gondemar, the Spaniſh ambaſſador, invited him in the name of pope Gregory XV. who had been formerly his friend and fellow ſtudent, to return to Rome, and abjure his hereſy, under ſolemn promiſes of a cardinal's hat. The ſnare was ſo artfully laid that he eaſily fell into it; and, after renouncing the proteſtant religion, he departed for Rome in 1622. In that city he ſolemnly abjured his heretical errors, and aſked pardon in a public conſiſtory for the apoſtacy of which he had been guilty. He alſo publiſhed an acknowledgment to the world at large of the criminality of his conduct in abandoning the catholic communion, and explained the motives which had again recalled him to it, in a treatiſe intitled, *Marcus Antoninus de Dominis Archiepiſcopus Spalatenſis ſui reditus ex Anglia concilium exponit.* But, though he was at firſt well received at Rome, he ſaw no proſpect of the advancement which he had been promiſed in the church. Theſe circumſtances are ſaid to have operated ſo powerfully upon his unſteady mind, that he was led to make uſe of expreſſions which excited a ſuſpicion of the ſincerity of his converſion; and letters are ſtated to have been intercepted, written by him to ſome of his connections in England, in which he declared his repentance for the ſtep he had recently taken. It was determined, however, that he ſhould not be indulged with another opportunity of joining the proteſtants; he was accordingly, by order of pope Urban VIII. committed priſoner to the caſtle of St. Angelo, where he is ſuppoſed to have died of poiſon, in 1625, in the ſixty-fourth year of his age. Some time after his death his body was taken out of his grave and burnt, together with his writings, by a decree of the inquiſition. Beſides the works already noticed, he was the author of *De Radiis Viſus & Lucis in Vitris perſpectivis & Iride Tractatus.* Sir Iſaac Newton, in his Optics, has complimented him as being the firſt perſon who explained the phenomenon of the colours of the rainbow upon juſt principles.

DO'MINO, *ſ.* A ſort of hood worn by the canons of a cathedral church; alſo the habit of a Venetian nobleman, very much in uſe as a dreſs for maſquerades.

DO'MINUS, *ſ.* in ancient times, when prefixed to a man's name, uſually denoted him a knight, or a clergyman; and ſometimes a gentleman, not a knight, eſpecially a lord of a manor.

DOMITEL'LUS, *ſ.* A title anciently given to the French king's natural ſons. See DOMITELLUS.

DOMI'TIA LEX DE RELIGIONE, *ſ.* was enacted by Domitius Ahenobarbus, the tribune, in the year of Rome 650. It transferred the right of electing prieſts from the college to the people.

DOMI'TIAN (Titus Flavius Domitianus), a Roman emperor, ſecond ſon of Veſpaſian, and the laſt of the twelve Cæſars: for his life and character, ſee ROME.

DO'MITROVSK, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Orel: forty miles ſouth-weſt of Orel, and 484 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg.

DO'MITURE, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *domo*, to tame.] The act of taming. *Scott.*

DO'MITZ, a town and fortreſs of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Mecklenburg, at the conflux of the Elbe and the Elda: ſold by the elector of Brandenburg to the count of Schwerin in 1328, with the duties, and all the country on both ſides the Elbe, for 7500 marks: the town and duties returned again to the houſe of Brandenburg, but the fortreſs remains with the dukes of Mecklenburg, as heirs of the counts of Schwerin. It was taken by the Imperial troops in 1627; by the Swedes in 1631; by the Saxons and Imperialiſts in 1637; and again by the Swedes in 1643: thirty-four miles ſouth of Schwerin. Lat. 53. 10. N. lon. 29. 5. E. Ferro.

DOMMA'IGNE, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Vitre: ſeven miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Vitre.

DOMMALAIN', a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of La Guerche: one league north of La Guerche.

DOM'MART LES PONTHIEU, a town of France, in the department of the Somme, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Doulens: four leagues north-weſt of Amiens.

DOM'ME, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Sarlat: two leagues ſouth of Sarlat.

DOM'MEL, a river of Brabant, which paſſes by Bois-le-Duc, where it receives the Aa, and, joining the Meuſe, forms, with that river and the Wahal, the iſland of Bommel.

DOM'MITSCH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and margraviate of Meiſſen: thirty-eight miles north-weſt of Meiſſen.

DOM'NAU, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Natangen: nineteen miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Konigſberg.

DO'MO REPARANDA, *ſ.* A writ that lay for one againſt his neighbour, by the fall of whoſe houſe he feared a damage and injury to his own. *Reg. Orig.* 153.

DOM'PAIRE, a town of France, in the department of the Voſges, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Mirecourt, formerly the reſidence of the kings of Auſtraſia, and dukes of Lorrain: three leagues weſt-north-weſt of Epinal.

DOMPIER'RE, a town of France, in the department of the Allier, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Donjon: fourteen miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Moulins.

DOMPIER'RE, a town of France in the department of the Lower Charente, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Saintes: two leagues eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Saintes.

DOM'REMY, a town of France, in the department of the Meuſe, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Commerce. The birth-place of the celebrated maid of Orleans, Jeanne d'Arc: three leagues and a half eaſt of Bar-le-Duc.

DOMRIAN'KA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Perm: forty miles north of Perm.

DO'MUS CONVERSORUM, *ſ.* An ancient houſe, built by order of Henry III. for ſuch Jews as were converted to the Chriſtian faith: but Edward III. who expelled the Jews from this kingdom, afterwards deputed the place for the cuſtody of the rolls and records of the chancery. See ROLLS.

DO'MUS DEI, *ſ.* [houſe of God.] The hoſpital of St. Julian in Southampton, ſo called. *Mon. Angl.* tom. ii. 440. It is a name applied to many ancient hoſpitals and religious houſes.

DON, or DOM, *ſ.* [*dominus*, Lat.] The Spaniſh title for a gentleman; as, *Don* Quixote. It is with us uſed ludicrouſly;

To the great *dons* of wit,
Phœbus gives them full privilege alone
To damn all others and cry up their own. *Dryden.*

To DON, *v. a.* [*To do on.*] To put on; to inveſt with; the contrary to *doff*. *Obſolete.*—What! ſhould I *don* this robe, and trouble you! *Shakeſpeare.*

The purple morning left her crimſon bed,
And *donn'd* her robes of pure vermilion hue. *Fairfax.*

DON, or the TANAIS, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes near Epiphan, in the government of Tula, and runs into the ſea of Azoph by two mouths, a little to the weſt of Azoph, after a courſe of about 800 miles.

DON, a river of England, in Yorkſhire, which runs into the Aire near Snaith.

DON, a river of Scotland, which riſes in the weſt part of the county of Aberdeen, and, croſſing the county, runs into the ſea a little below Old Aberdeen.

DON CHRISTOPHER's COVE, on the north coaſt of the iſland of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 58. N. lon. 77. 1. W. Greenwich. It gave ſhelter to the diſcoverer of America during a violent ſtorm in 1503; and is the ſcite of the ancient town of Sevilla de Nueva.

DON MARTIN MAYORGA, the name given by the Spaniards to a cluſter of iſlands in the South Sea, diſcovered on the 27th of February, 1781, by F. A. Maurelle, a celebrated pilot of that nation. In this archipelago Maurelle found a ſafe harbour, to which he gave the name of El Refugio; and which he places in ſouth lat. 18°. 36′. and weſt lon. 177°. 47′. 45″ of Greenwich.

DONAGHADE'E, a ſea-port of Ireland, in the county of Down, ſituated on the eaſt coaſt, at the entrance of the north channel, where packets are eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe of carrying the mails and paſſengers to Port Patrick, in Scotland, a diſtance not quite ſeven leagues: fifteen miles eaſt of Belfaſt. Lat. 54. 37. N. lon. 5. 25. W. Greenwich.

DONA'I, a province of Cochin-china, which forms the whole ſouthern diſtrict of that kingdom.

DONAIEC'Z, a river of Poland, which runs into the Viſtula twenty-five miles below Cracow.

DO'NARY, *ſ.* [*donarium*, Lat.] A thing given to ſacred uſes.

DONATEL'LO, or DONATO, one of the principal revivers of ſculpture in Italy, born of poor parents at Florence in 1383. He was patronized by a citizen named Martelli, who ſent him to learn deſign under Lorenzo de Bicci. Such was his application, that he acquired the principles which made him an excellent ſculptor, and alſo a maſter of perſpective and architecture. He attracted the notice of that eminent citizen, the great Coſmo de Medici, who employed him on a tomb for pope John XXIII. and in other works, public and private. Some of his moſt eſteemed works in Florence, which ſtill remain, are his group of Judith and Holofernes in bronze, his Annunciation, his St. George, and St. Mark, and his Zuccone. His St. Mark has the traditional honour of having been addreſſed by Michael Angelo, with "*Marco, perche non mi parli?*" "Mark, why do you not ſpeak to me." He died in 1466, at the age of eighty-three, and was buried, by his own directions, in the church of St. Lorenzo, adjoining to the ſepulchre of Coſmo, that, "as his ſoul had always been with him when living, their bodies might be near each other when dead." He had a brother, named Simon, who adopted his manner, and obtained reputation.

DONA'TIA, *ſ.* [ſo named by Forſter from *Vitaliano Donati* of Padua, profeſſor of botany at Turin. He travelled into Egypt and Arabia, and died in his journey.] In botany, a genus of the claſs triandria, order trigynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium three-leaved; leaflets awl-ſhaped, ſhort, remote. Corolla: petals eight to ten, linear-oblong, twice as long as the calyx, ſpreading. Stamina: filaments three, awl-ſhaped, the length of the calyx; antheræ ſubglobular, twin. Piſtillum: germ inferior; ſtyles three, filiform, a little longer than the ſtamens; ſtigmas bluntiſh.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, three-leaved; petals nine, twice as long as the calyx, linear-oblong; antheræ ſubglobular, twin.

Donatia faſcicularis, or congregated donatia; a ſingle ſpecies, is a ſimple undivided plant, a finger's length, with imbricate leaves. It differs from polycarpon in its habit, and having about nine petals to the corolla. See AVICENNIA.

DONA'TIO CAUSA MORTIS, *ſ.* in law, a death-bed diſpoſition of property, ſo called when a perſon in his laſt ſickneſs, apprehending his diſſolution near, delivers, or cauſes to be delivered, to another the poſſeſſion of any perſonal goods, (under which have been included bonds, and bills drawn by the deceaſed upon his banker,) to keep in caſe of his deceaſe. This gift, if the donor dies, needs not the aſſent of his executor; yet it ſhall not prevail againſt creditors; and is accompanied with this implied truſt, that, if the donor lives, the property thereof ſhall revert to himſelf, being only given in contemplation of death, or *mortis cauſâ*. 1 *P. Wms.* 404. 2 *Vez.* 431. *Ward* v. *Turner*. This latter caſe collects all the law on the ſubject of donations *cauſâ mortis*; and particularly conſiders what ſhall be a ſufficient delivery of different kinds of property to give effect to ſuch donations. There may be a *donatio cauſâ mortis* of bonds, bank-notes, and bills, payable to *bearer*; but not of other promiſſory notes or bills of exchange, theſe being choſes in action which do not paſs by delivery.

DONA'TION, *ſ.* [*donatio*, Lat.] The act of giving any thing; the act of beſtowing.—After *donation* there is an abſolute change and alienation made of the property of the thing given: which being ſo alienated, a man has no more to do with it than with a thing bought with another's money. *South.*—The grant by which any thing is given or conferred:

The kingdoms of the world to thee were giv'n,
Permitted rather, and by thee uſurp'd;
Other *donation* none thou canſt produce. *Milton.*

DO'NATISTS, *ſ.* Ancient ſchiſmatics in Africa, ſo denominated from their leader Donatus. They had their origin in 311, when, in the room of Menſurius, who died in that year on his return to Rome, Cæcilian was elected biſhop of Carthage, and conſecrated without the concurrence of the Numidian biſhops, by thoſe of Africa alone; whom the people refuſed to acknowledge, and to whom they oppoſed Majorinus; who, accordingly, was ordained by Donatus, biſhop of Caſæ Nigræ. They were condemned, in a council held at Rome, two years after their ſeparation; and afterwards in another at Arles, the year following; and again at Milan, before Conſtantine the Great, in 316, who deprived them of their churches, and ſent their ſeditious biſhops into baniſhment, and puniſhed ſome of them with death. Their cauſe was eſpouſed by another Donatus, called the *great*, the principal biſhop of that ſect, who, with numbers of his followers, was exiled by order of Conſtans. Many of them were puniſhed with great ſeverity. However, after the acceſſion of Julian to the throne, in 362, they were permitted to return, and reſtored to their former liberty. Gratian next publiſhed ſeveral edicts againſt them; and, in 377, deprived them of their churches, and prohibited all their aſſemblies. Their decline was alſo precipitated by the zealous oppoſition of St. Auguſtin, and by the violent meaſures which were purſued againſt them by order of the emperor Honorius.

DO'NATIVE, *ſ.* [*donatif*, Fr. from *donatus*, Lat.] A gift; a largeſs; a preſent; a dole of money diſtributed.—The Roman emperor's cuſtom was, at certain ſolemn times, to beſtow on his ſoldiers a *donative*; which *donative* they received wearing garlands upon their heads. *Hooker.*

DO'NATIVE, *ſ.* in law, a benefice merely given and diſpoſed

diſpoſed of by the patron to a man, without either preſentation to, or inſtitution by, the ordinary, or induction by his order. Donatives are ſo termed, becauſe they began only by the foundation and erection of the donor. The king might of ancient time found a church or chapel, and exempt it from the juriſdiction of the ordinary; ſo he may by his letters patent give licence to a common perſon to found ſuch a church or chapel, and make it donative, not preſentable; and that the incumbent or chaplain ſhall be deprived by the founder and his heirs, and not by the biſhop; which ſeems to be the original of donatives in England. 2 *Comm.* 22. When the king founds a church, &c. donative, it is of courſe exempted from the ordinary's juriſdiction, though no particular exemption is mentioned; and the lord chancellor ſhall viſit the ſame: and, where the king grants a licence to any common perſon to found a church or chapel, it may be donative, and exempted from the juriſdiction of the biſhop, ſo as to be viſited by the founder, &c. *Co. Litt.* 134. The reſignation of a donative muſt be to the donor or patron, and not to the ordinary; and donatives are not only free from all ordinary juriſdiction, but the patron and incumbent may charge the glebe to bind the ſucceſſor; and, if the clerk is diſturbed, the patron may bring *quare impedit*, &c. Alſo the patron of a donative may take the profits thereof when it is vacant. *Co. Lit.* 344. If the patron of a donative will not nominate a clerk, there can be no lapſe: but the biſhop may compel ſuch patron to nominate a clerk by eccleſiaſtical cenſures; for, though the church is exempt from the power of the ordinary, the patron is not exempted: and the clerk muſt be qualified like unto other clerks of churches; no perſon being capable of a donative, unleſs he be a prieſt lawfully ordained. 14 *Car.* II. c. 4.

There may be a donative of the king's gift with cure of ſouls, as the church of the Tower of London is: and, if ſuch donative be procured for money, it will be within the ſtatute of ſimony. A parochial church may be donative, and exempt from the ordinary's juriſdiction. *Godolph.* 262. The church of St. Mary-le-Bone, in Middleſex, is donative; and the incumbent being cited into the ſpiritual court, to take a licence from the biſhop to preach, pretending that it was a chapel, and that the parſon was a ſtipendiary; it was ruled in the king's-bench that it was a donative; and, if the biſhop viſit, the court will grant a prohibition. 1 *Nelſ. Abr.* 676. If a patron of a donative doth once preſent his clerk to the ordinary, and the clerk is admitted, inſtituted, and inducted, then the donative ceaſeth; and it becomes a church preſentative. *Co. Litt.* 344. But when a donative is created by letters patent, by which lands are ſettled upon the parſon and his ſucceſſors, and he is to come in by the donation of the king, and his ſucceſſors; in this caſe, though there may be a preſentation to the donative, and the incumbent come in by inſtitution and induction, yet that will not deſtroy the donative. 2 *Salk.* 541. All biſhoprics being of the foundation of the king, they were in ancient time donative. 3 *Rep.* 75. Donatives have two peculiar properties: one, that the preſentation does not devolve to the king, as in other livings, when the incumbent is made a biſhop. *Ca. Parl.* 184. The other, that a donative is within the ſtatute of pluralities, if it is the firſt living; but if a donative is the ſecond benefice taken without a diſpenſation, the firſt would not be void; for the words of the ſtatute are *inſtituted and inducted* to any other, which are not applicable to donatives. 1 *Woodd.* 330. And therefore it ſeems if donatives are taken laſt, they may be held with any other preferment.

DONA'TO (St.), a county of Maritime Auſtria, containing, beſides a few villages, the large borough of St. Dono di Piave, which carries on a conſiderable commerce.

DONA'TO (Bernardino), a learned Italian of the ſixteenth century, born at Zano in the Veroneſe. He was Greek profeſſor at Padua, and alſo taught at Parma, Ferrara, and Carpi; and died about the middle of the century in his own country. He is particularly known for his Latin verſion of the *Demonſtratio Evangelica* of Euſebius, which has ſeveral times been reprinted. He likewiſe tranſlated ſome works of Galen, Xenophon, and Ariſtotle. In 1541, he wrote a Latin dialogue on the difference between the Ariſtotelic and Platonic philoſophy. A Latin grammar, publiſhed at Venice in 1529, is aſcribed to him.

DONA'TO (Girolamo), a patrician of Venice, born about 1454. He was a perſon eminent for probity and talents, and was employed by his country in various important and difficult negociations. He commanded in Breſcia and Ferrara; and, in 1510, reconciled the republic to pope Julius II. He was at the ſame time one of the moſt learned men of the age, particularly in the Greek tongue. He tranſlated into Latin the commentary of Alexander Aphrodiſeus upon Ariſtotle on the ſoul, and a homily of St. John Chryſoſtom; alſo ſome pieces attributed to Dionyſius the Areopagite, and to John Damaſcenus. He wrote an apology for the pope's ſupremacy, againſt the Greek church, and a letter to cardinal Caraffa upon the ſame ſubject. Five of his epiſtles are extant, with thoſe of Angelo Poliziano, and Pico of Mirandula. He likewiſe drew up a long and forcible apology for the Venetians againſt Charles VIII. king of France. He died in 1511.

DO'NATORY, *ſ.* in Scots law, that perſon to whom the king beſtows his right to any forfeiture that has fallen to the crown.

DONA'TUS (Ælius), an ancient grammarian, flouriſhed in the time of Conſtantine, and was one of the preceptors of St. Jerom. He wrote commentaries upon Virgil and Terence; and compoſed ſome works on grammar, ſtill remaining, printed in the collection of ancient grammarians. The author of a life of Virgil, is ſuppoſed to have been Tiberius Claudius Donatus, a later writer.

DONA'TUS, biſhop of Caſæ Nigræ in Numidia, in the fourth century, gave name to the ſect of the Donatiſts in Africa. His party became exceedingly powerful and numerous, and for a long time ſupported their cauſe againſt their rival faction: but, finally, the ſentence of deprivation and excommunication was pronounced againſt him by the biſhop of Rome.

DONA'TUS, biſhop of Carthage, was elected to that office by the Donatiſt party, after the death of Majorinus, in 316. He was a perſon of conſiderable learning and abilities, whence he obtained among his ſect the ſurname of the Great, and acquired more influence in the management of their concerns than any other of their biſhops. By his perſuaſive eloquence he induced vaſt multitudes to join their communion; and by his writings confirmed them in a zealous adherence to their diſtinguiſhing principles. But he is ſaid to have been haughty, contentious, and intolerant; and, for the latter charge, the diſcriminating tenets of the Donatiſts, which he is conſidered as having ſyſtematiſed, afford too ſtrong evidence.

DONAUESCHIN'GEN, or DONESCHINGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, ſituated in the Black Foreſt, where the prince of Furſtenberg has a palace, near which is a ſpring, ſaid to be the ſource of the Danube: thirteen miles north-north-weſt of Schaffhauſen, and thirteen weſt of Duttlingen.

DONAVIT'Z, a town of Hungary; ſixteen miles north-north-weſt of Palotza.

DO'NAUSTAUFF, or DOMSTAUF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, and biſhopric of Ratiſbon, on the Danube: ſix miles eaſt of Ratiſbon.

DONAWERT', a town of Germany, in Upper Bavaria, on the Wernitz, near its union with the Danube. It was formerly imperial, and in the circle of Swabia; but, being put under the ban of the empire, in 1607, was ſeized by the duke of Bavaria. It is fortified, and has a bridge acroſs the Danube. It has been taken ſeveral times in the wars of Germany, both by the French and the Swedes. On the 3d of July 1704, the elector of Bavaria,

varia, to prevent its falling into the hands of the allies, ordered his garriſon to ſet it on fire; but, the duke of Marlborough coming ſuddenly into the town, the Bavarian troops were compelled to a precipitate retreat, and the town was ſaved: thirty miles weſt of Ingoldſtadt, and eighteen north of Augſburg. Lat. 48. 39 N. lon. 28. 25. E. Ferro.

DO'NAX, *ſ.* in botany. See ARUNDO.

DO'NAX, *ſ.* A genus of ſhell-fiſh, belonging to the order of vermes teſtacea, commonly called the *flat-ſided cockle*. The animal is a tethys; ſhell bivalve, with generally a crenulate margin; the frontal margin very obtuſe: hinge with two teeth, and a ſingle marginal one placed a little behind. For the number of ſpecies, &c. ſee the article CONCHOLOGY, vol.v. p. 32.

DON'CASTER, a conſiderable manufacturing town of Yorkſhire, named from its ſituation on the river Don, over which it has two bridges; diſtant thirty-ſeven miles from York, eighteeen from Sheffield, and 162 from London. It is a place of great antiquity, as appears from the Itinerary of Antoninus, who tells us that the Criſpinian horſe were ſtationed here while the Romans were in Britain; and that the governor of the province generally reſided in the caſtle, that he might be near the great wall, in order to repel the incurſions of the Scots and Picts. This caſtle remained as a place of great ſtrength under the kings of Deira; but a dreadful fire breaking out, anno 759, not only the caſtle but the whole town was reduced to aſhes. The caſtle was never after rebuilt; and at preſent the place where it ſtood is ſcarcely known. But the town was not ſuffered to remain long in ruins, it being ſoon after rebuilt in a handſome manner, and it has continued to flouriſh from that time to the preſent. In the reign of Henry III. a convent was founded in it, with an hoſpital for lepers; but no remains of either are now left, only that there is a ſtone croſs ſtill ſtanding at one end of the town, which appears to have been erected in that age, and probably by the perſon who founded the convent. The ſituation of Doncaſter is exceedingly pleaſant, and is a great thoroughfare to York and other places in the north. It has two fairs annually for horſes, &c. and a weekly market on Saturdays. Proviſions of all kinds are plentiful, and the town is well ſupplied with water, which is conducted through pipes from the river. The principal manufactories eſtabliſhed here are for ſpinning wool, cotton, &c. The river is navigable up to the town; and here are the remains of a great Roman cauſeway. The government of Doncaſter is veſted in a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common-council. The church is a very ancient ſtructure; and the ſteeple is greatly admired for its extraordinary workmanſhip. The manſion-houſe is a very ſpacious ſtone edifice; and it is to be remarked, that Doncaſter had a magnificent manſion-houſe, built by Paine, for its mayor, before either London or York. It has a free grammar-ſchool, an alms-houſe for aged perſons, and a diſpenſary for the relief of the ſick poor in the town and its neighbourhood.

Not far from Doncaſter is Coniſborough caſtle, called in Britiſh *Car Conan*, ſituate on a rock, where Matthew of Weſtminſter ſays, that Aurelius Ambroſius, a Britiſh prince, vanquiſhed Hengiſt, the Saxon general, and took him priſoner. Before the gate is an agger, ſaid to be the burying-place of Hengiſt. It is not only famous for its antiquity, but its ſituation alſo celebrious, upon a pleaſant aſcent, having in its neighbourhood ſix large market-towns, 120 villages, many large woods of oak, ſome beautifully cut through into walks; ſix iron-ſmelting furnaces, many mines of coal and iron, quarries of ſtone for building, nine large ſtone bridges, forty water-mills, ſix ſeats of noblemen, ſixty of gentlemen, fifty parks, and two navigable rivers. Contiguous to Coniſborough is Wentworth, the ſeat of the Wentworths, who have flouriſhed here ever ſince the Norman invaſion, and been poſſeſſed of the eſtate of Woodhouſe from the time of Henry III. It was rebuilt in a moſt elegant manner by the late marquis of Rockingham, and is now called Wentworth-houſe. It is ſituated in the midſt of a moſt beautiful country, and in a park that is one of the moſt exquiſite ſpots in the world. On entering the park, the proſpect which preſents itſelf is delicious, being diverſified by a noble range of hills, dales, lakes, and woods, with the houſe magnificently ſituated in the center of the whole. The eye naturally falls into the valley, through which the water winds in a noble ſtile. On the oppoſite ſide is a vaſt ſweep of riſing ſlopes, finely ſcattered with trees and ſhrubs, up to the houſe, which is here ſeen diſtinctly, and ſtands in the higheſt point of grandeur, from whence it commands all the ſurrounding country; the woods ſtretching away above, below, and to the right and left, with inconceivable magnificence. From the pyramid on one ſide, which riſes from the boſom of a great wood, extending quite round on the left, it there joins one of above an hundred acres, hanging on the ſide of a vaſt hill, and forming altogether an amphitheatrical proſpect, the beauties of which are much eaſier to be imagined than deſcribed. Upon the whole, Wentworth is in every reſpect conſidered as one of the fineſt ſeats in the kingdom. With ſome, the houſe is an object of curioſity; with others, the park is admired; the ornamental buildings give a general beauty to the whole, in which ſuperior taſte and elegance are united.

In the neighbourhood of this is the ancient Stainborough, now Wentworth-caſtle, a fine ſeat belonging to the earl of Strafford. But Wentworth-caſtle is more famous for the beauties of the ornamented environs, than for that of the houſe, though the front is ſuperior to many. The water and woods adjoining are ſketched with great taſte. The firſt extends through the park in a meandering courſe, and, wherever it is viewed, the terminations are no where ſeen, having every where the effect of a real and very beautiful river; the groves of oaks fill up the bends of the ſtream in a moſt beautiful manner, here advancing thick to the very banks of the water, there appearing at a diſtance, breaking away to a few ſcattered trees in ſome ſpots, and in others joining their branches into the moſt ſolemn ſhade. The water in many places is ſeen from the houſe, between the foliage of ſcattered clumps, moſt pictureſquely; in others it is quite loſt behind hills, and breaks every where upon the view, in a ſtile that cannot be ſufficiently admired. The lawn, which leads up to the caſtle, is truly elegant: there is a clump of lofty pines on one ſide of it, through which the diſtant proſpect is ſeen, and a ſtatue of Ceres is caught in the hollow of a dark grove, with the moſt pictureſque elegance, and is one among the few inſtances of ſtatues being employed in gardens with real taſte.

DON'CHERY, a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Sedan, on the Meuſe; it is defended with walls and fortifications. Here is alſo a woollen manufacture: one league weſt of Sedan.

DONDAN'GA, a town of the duchy of Courland: twenty-four miles north-eaſt of Piltyn.

DON'DI (James de), a phyſician and mathematician, flouriſhed in Padua in the fourteenth century. He was known by the name of the *Aggregator*, on account of a work which he compoſed, intitled, *Promptuarium Medicinæ, in quo facultates medicamentorum ſimplicium & compoſitorum declarantur, &c.* firſt printed at Venice, 1481, folio. It is ſaid, in the preface, to have been written in 1355. It is a mere compilation from the ancient phyſicians. He alſo wrote a work, *De modo conficiendi ſalis ex aquis calidis Aponenſibus*, from which it appears, that he extracted a ſalt from the waters of Albano, in the proportion of one pound from one thouſand. This treatiſe, together with one *De fluxu & refluxu maris*, was printed at Venice in 1571. He likewiſe made himſelf celebrated for the conſtruction of a clock, which was one of the earlieſt erected in Italy. This was placed, in 1344, on the top

of a tower in the palace of Ubertino Carrara, lord of Pavia. It was a ſtriking clock, of twenty-four hours. A more famous machine, kept at Padua, repreſenting the motions of all the heavenly bodies, as well as pointing out the progreſs of the day and the year, has been uſually attributed to James de Dondi. But Tiraboſchi renders it probable that it was the work of his ſon John, a famous phyſician and aſtronomer, a philoſopher and poet, and an intimate friend of Petrarch. From this curious piece of machinery the family of Dondi acquired the ſurname of *de Horologio*.

DONE, *part. paſſ.* of the verb *To do*:

Another like fair tree eke grew thereby,
Whereof whoſo did eat, eftſoons did know
Both good and evil: O mournful memory!
That tree, through one man's fault, hath *done* us all to dye. *Spenſer.*

The old infinitive of *do*.—Ne to your lady will I ſervice *done*. *Spenſer*.—As maydens uſed to *done*. *Id.*

DONE, *a kind of interjection*. The word by which a wager is concluded: when a wager is offered, he that accepts it ſays *done*.—'Twas *done* and *done*, and the fox, by conſent, was to be the judge. *L'Eſtrange*.

One thing, ſweet-heart, I will aſk;
Take me for a new-faſhion'd maſk,
—*Done*: but my bargain ſhall be this,
I'll throw my maſk off when I kiſs. *Cleaveland.*

DONE'E, *ſ.* [from *dono*, Lat.] One to whom a gift is made.—Touching the parties unto deeds and charters, we are to conſider as well the donors and grantors, as the *donees* or grantees. *Spelman.*

DO'NEGAL, a town of Ireland, which gives name to the county, ſituated at the mouth of the river Eſk, on a large bay of the Atlantic, on the weſt coaſt of the iſland, called from the town, *The Bay of Donegal*: nine miles north-north-eaſt of Ballyſhannon.

DO'NEGAL, a county of Ireland, bounded on the weſt and north by the ſea, on the eaſt by the counties of Londonderry and Tyrone, and on the ſouth by the county of Fermanagh, and an arm of the ſea, called *The Bay of Donegal*, about ſeventy miles in length, and from ten to thirty in breadth: it is computed to contain only forty-two pariſhes, 23,531 houſes, 140,000 inhabitants. The ſurface is generally rugged and mountainous, in ſome parts boggy, with ſome rich vales between the mountains and by the ſides of the rivers. The chief town is Ballyſhannon. The principal rivers are the Finn, the Dale, and the Guibarra.

DO'NEGAL, the name of three townſhips of the American States, in Pennſylvania; the one in Lancaſter county, the other in that of Weſtmoreland, and the third in Waſhington county.

DO'NETSK, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Ekaterinoſlav, on the river Donetz: 140 miles eaſt of Ekaterinoſlav. Lat. 48. 30. N. lon. 56. 15. E. Ferro.

DO'NETZ, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes near Bielgorod, in the government of Kurſk, and runs into the Don, near Kotchetovſkaia, in the country of the Coſſacks.

DON'GES, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: ſeven leagues weſt-north-weſt of Nantes.

DON'GO. See ANGOLO.

DONGO'LA, a province of Nubia, to the north of the Nile, abounding in foreſts of acacia, full of paroquets.

DO'NI (Giambatiſta), a learned Italian writer, deſcended from a noble family in Florence, born in 1594. He had his early education in the jeſuits' college at Rome, where he greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ability and application. He afterwards ſtudied at Bourges, where he added the knowledge of juriſprudence to his other acquiſitions; and, on his return, he took his degree in law at Piſa. He ſtudied the oriental languages; and, making a ſecond viſit to France with the nuncio Corſino, in 1621, he cultivated an acquaintance with all the learned men, and examined the libraries of that country. He then began to make a very copious collection of inſcriptions, which, after remaining a century in manuſcript, was publiſhed in 1731 by the learned Gori. He was made profeſſor of eloquence in the univerſity of Florence, and was aggregated to the Florentine academy, and to that of La Cruſca. He continued to purſue his ſtudies with his uſual ardour, and to publiſh learned works, till his death in 1647. It is chiefly as a writer upon muſic that Doni has perpetuated his name; and his works on this ſubject were numerous. In 1635 he publiſhed, *Compendio del trattato de generi, e de' modi della Muſica, con un diſcorſo ſopra la perfettione de' concenti*; to this was added, *Diſcorſo ſopra la perfettione delle melodie*. In 1640 appeared his *Annotazioni ſopra il compendio de' generi e de' modi della Muſica*, accompanied with various tracts and diſcourſes. In 1647 he publiſhed, *De præſtantia Muſica veteris*, a dialogue compriſing a curious and learned diſquiſition on ancient and modern muſic, with arguments in favour of each, but ſtrongly inclining to the cauſe of antiquity.

DONI'FEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *donum*, a gift, and *fero*, to bear.] Bringing gifts. *Scott.*

DON'JON, *ſ.* [now corrupted to *dungeon*, from *dominionum*, low Latin, according to *Menage*.] The higheſt and ſtrongeſt tower of the caſtle, in which priſoners were kept; as in *Chaucer*. It is now uſed of ſubterraneous priſons:

The grete toure, that was ſo thicke and ſtrong,
Which of the caſtle was the chief *dongeon*,
Wherein the knightes were in priſon. *Chaucer.*

DON'JON (Le), a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Allier: eight leagues ſouth-eaſt of Moulins. Lat. 46. 21. N. lon. 21. 28. E. Ferro.

DON'KEY, *ſ.* A young aſs.

DON'KOV, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Riazan, ſituated near the ſource of the Don: ſixty miles ſouth of Riazan, and 480 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg.

DONNE (John, D. D.), a poet and divine, ſon of a merchant in London, born in 1573. He was ſent to ſtudy at Oxford ſo early as his eleventh year, at which time we are told that he was a kind of prodigy of abilities. After a ſtay there of three years, he paſſed as many at Cambridge, and was then entered at Lincoln's-inn for the ſtudy of the law. This, however, he laid aſide for that of controverſial divinity; for his relations, being papiſts, had infuſed into his young mind the principles of their faith, and he now thought it time to fix his religious profeſſion by enquiring for himſelf. The reſult of his examination into the controverted points was, a firm deciſion in favour of proteſtantiſm. He attended the earl of Eſſex in 1596–97, on his expeditions againſt Cadiz and the Azores; and he afterwards paſſed ſome years in Italy and Spain. On his return he became ſecretary to lord-chancellor Egerton, and continued in that employment five years, when a clandeſtine marriage he contracted with a niece of the chancellor cauſed his diſmiſſion. The young couple ſtruggled with difficulties, which were in ſome degree alleviated by ſir Francis Wooley and ſir Robert Drury, who gave them apartments at his houſe in Drury-lane; and, in 1612, he accompanied that friend on his embaſſy to Paris. On his return, many of the nobility urged king James to confer upon him ſome civil employment; but his majeſty, who had ſecretly reſolved to make a divine of him, rejected their ſolicitations. He had already inſtigated Donne to draw up a treatiſe on the controverſy then depending concerning the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy required from the Roman catholics; and the reſult was his work, intitled, *Pſeudo-Martyr*, printed in 1610. He was now ordained deacon and prieſt by the biſhop of London, and was preſented with the degree of doctor of divinity by the univerſity of Cambridge; after which he was made preacher of Lincoln's-

inn. In 1619, he accompanied Hay earl of Doncaſter, on an embaſſy to the German princes. After his return, the king conferred upon him the deanery of St. Paul's, with which he enjoyed the living of St. Dunſtan's in the Weſt, and another benefice. A dangerous illneſs with which he was affected, gave occaſion to his book of Devotions upon emergent Occaſions, in which the fervour of his ſoul is ſtrongly expreſſed. He recovered and lived in good health, till he was ſeized with a fever in 1630, after which he began to decline. He preached in his turn at court in Lent, 1631; and his diſcourſe, on this occaſion, was termed by the houſehold, "the doctor's own funeral ſermon." He died on March 31 of that year, and was buried in St. Paul's cathedral.

Dr. Donne was a writer both in proſe and verſe, but he is chiefly remembered as a poet; and in that capacity it is rather his name than his works which may be ſaid to ſurvive. He is, however, worthy of notice, as ſtanding almoſt at the head of a particular claſs, and uniting in a high degree its excellences and defects. This is the witty claſs, underſtanding the word *wit* to mean the faculty of aſſembling and aſſociating the moſt diſcordant images, and preſenting a thought under its remoteſt and moſt fanciful aſpects. The ſtrong ſenſe and wit of his ſatires induced Pope to employ himſelf in verſifying (as he juſtly called it) two of them, but they are not among that poet's moſt pleaſing productions. Dr. Donne was among thoſe Engliſh poets who wrote Latin verſe with elegance. A collection was publiſhed in 1633, intitled, *Faſciculus Poëmatum et Epigrammatum miſcellaneorum*, which contains a book of epigrams by him. Of his proſe works, one of the moſt remarkable is that intitled *Biathanatos*; or, a Declaration of that Paradox or Theſis, that Self-homicide is not ſo naturally a Sin, that it may not be otherwiſe. This ſeems to have been a juvenile ſport of the underſtanding, in ſupporting a nice argument with no other view than as an exerciſe of the faculties. Dr. Donne alſo wrote Eſſays on Divinity; Sermons, 3 vols. folio; Letters; and other pieces; many of which are conſigned to oblivion.

DONNEMARI'E, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Provins: three leagues ſouth-weſt of Provins.

DONNERAI'LE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork: nineteen miles north of Cork, and twenty-ſix ſouth of Limerick

DON'NERSMARK, or CSOTORTOKHELY, or STWARTEK, a town of Hungary: ſeven miles north-north-weſt of Kapſdorf.

DON'NINGTON, or DUNNINGTON, a market town of Lincolnſhire, diſtant one hundred and ten miles from London, ten from Spalding, and eleven from Boſton. The market-day is Saturday; and there are two large fairs; one on the 25th of May, the other on the 17th of October. The town, which is very much improved within the laſt ten years, is noted for an extenſive trade in hemp and hemp-ſeed; it has a port for barges, by which goods are carried to and from Boſton and the Waſhes. A firm rampart of earth, of a conſiderable breadth, has lately been made from hence, through the fens, to Sempringham, in which the road has been rendered paſſable in winter, which before was attended with great danger. Here is a large free-ſchool, ſupported by a donation of about five hundred pounds a-year, given by lord Cowley.

DON'NOE, a ſmall iſland in the North Sea, near the coaſt of Norway. Lat. 66. 5. N. lon. 29. E. Ferro.

DO'NOR, *ſ.* [from *dono*, Lat.] A giver; a beſtower; one who gives any thing: the perſon receiving which is called the *donee*.—It is a mighty check to beneficent tempers to conſider how often good deſigns are fruſtrated and perverted to purpoſes, which, could the *donors* themſelves have foreſeen, they would have been very loth to promote. *Atterbury*.

DON'SHAL, a town of Egypt: ten miles north-weſt of Foua.

DO'NSHIP, *ſ.* Quality or rank of a gentleman or knight:

I'm none of thoſe,
Your boſom-friends, as you ſuppoſe;
But Ralph himſelf, your truſty ſquire,
Wh' has dragg'd your *donſhip* out o' th' mire. *Hudibras.*

DONSKA'IA, a town and fortreſs of Ruſſia, in the country of the Coſſacks, on the Don: 220 miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Azoph.

DONSKA'IA, a fortreſs of Ruſſia, in the government of Caucaſus: 116 miles weſt-north-weſt of Ekaterinograd.

DON'ZEL, *ſ.* [Ital.] A young attendant.—No, you ſhall ſpare his dowcets, my dear *donzels*. *Beaumont and Fletcher.*—He is eſquire to a knight-errant, *donzél* to the damſels. *Butler.*

DONZENAC', a town of France, in the department of the Correze, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Brive: three leagues and a half weſt-ſouth-weſt of Tulle.

DONZE'RE, a town of France, in the department of the Drome, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Montelimart: two leagues and a half ſouth of Montelimart.

DON'ZY, a town of France, in the department of Nievre, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Coſne: five leagues and a half ſouth-weſt of Clamecy.

DON'ZY, a town of France, in the department of the Rhone and Loire: five miles eaſt of Feurs.

DOO'AB, a province of Hindooſtan, between the river Ganges and Jumnah: belonging to the nabob of Oude.

DOO'BAUNT, or DOOBOUNT, a lake, about ſeventy miles long, and thirty broad: ſituated ſouth-eaſt of the head of Cheſterfield inlet, in New South Wales.

DOO'DLE, *ſ.* [a cant word, perhaps corrupted from *do little*.] A trifler; an idler.

DOOLE, *ſ.* [*deuil*, Fr.] Sorrow:

That angry foole
Which follow'd her, with curſed hands uncleane
Whipping her horſe, did with his ſmarting toole
Oft whip her dainty ſelfe, and much augment her *doole*.
Spenſer.

DOO'LY, *ſ.* [Indian.] A kind of open box, made of light wood, large enough for a perſon to lie at full length. It is uſually ſuſpended from poles of bamboo, and carried on the ſhoulders of four men. Moſt gentlemen in the army take one to the field for the double purpoſe of travelling, and uſing as a bed. They are alſo extremely convenient for removing the ſick and wounded. It is the *bier* of the Eaſt Indians.

To DOOM, *v. a.* [beman, Sax.] To judge:

Him through malice fall'n,
Father of mercy and grace! thou didſt not *doom*
So ſtrictly, but much more to pity incline. *Milton.*

To condemn to any puniſhment; to ſentence:

He may be *doom'd* to chains, to ſhame, to death,
While proud Hippolitus ſhall mount his throne. *Smith.*

To pronounce condemnation upon any:

Minos, the ſtrict inquiſitor, appears,
And lives and crimes, with his aſſeſſors, hears;
Round in his urn the blended balls he rowls,
Abſolves the juſt, and *dooms* the guilty ſouls. *Dryden.*

To command judicially or authoritatively:

Have I a tongue to *doom* my brother's death,
And ſhall that tongue give pardon to a ſlave? *Shakeſp.*

To deſtine; to command by uncontrollable authority:

I have no will but what your eyes ordain;
Deſtin'd to love, as they are *doom'd* to reign. *Granville.*

DOOM,

DOOM, *ſ.* [ðom, Sax. *doem*, Lat.] Judicial ſentence; judgment.—In the great day, wherein the ſecrets of all hearts ſhall be laid open, no one ſhall be made to anſwer for what he knows nothing of; but ſhall receive his *doom*, his conſcience accuſing or excuſing him. *Locke.*

And now, without redemption, all mankind
Muſt have been loſt, adjudg'd to death and hell
By *doom* ſevere. *Milton.*

The great and final judgment:

Search Windſor caſtle, elves, within and out:
Strew good luck, ouphes, on every ſacred room,
That it may ſtand till the perpetual *doom*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Condemnation; judicial ſentence:

Revoke thy *doom*,
Or whilſt I can vent clamour from my throat,
I'll tell thee thou doſt evil. *Shakeſpeare.*

Determination declared:

If friend or foe, let him be gently us'd.
—Revoke that *doom* of mercy, for 'tis Clifford. *Shakeſ.*

The ſtate to which one is deſtined:

By day the web and loom,
And homely houſehold taſk, ſhall be her *doom*. *Dryden.*

Ruin; deſtruction:

From the ſame foes, at laſt, both felt their *doom*;
And the ſame age ſaw learning fall, and Rome. *Pope.*

DOOMS'DAY, *ſ.* The day of final and univerſal judgment; the laſt, the great day:

Men, wives, and children ſtare, cry out, and run,
As it were *doomſday*. *Shakeſpeare.*

They may ſerve for any theme, and never be out of date until *doomſday*. *Brown.*

Our ſouls, not yet prepar'd for upper light,
Till *doomſday* wander in the ſhades of night:
This only holiday of all the year,
We privileg'd in ſunſhine may appear. *Dryden.*

The day of ſentence or condemnation.—All-ſouls day is my body's *doomſday*. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOOM'SDAY-BOOK. See DOMESDAY-BOOK.—The Danes alſo brought in a reckoning of money by ores, *per oras*, which is mentioned in *doomſday-book*. *Camden.*

DOON, a river of Scotland, which iſſues from Loch Doon, and taking a north-weſt direction, divides the diſtrict of Kyle from Carrick, the ſouthern diviſion of Ayrſhire, and falls into the frith of Clyde, about three miles ſouth of Ayr.

DOOR, *ſ.* [ðoꝛ, ðuꝛe, Saxon; *dorris*, Erſe.] The gate of a houſe; that which opens to yield entrance. *Door* is uſed of houſes, and *gates* of cities or public buildings; except in the licence of poetry.—For without rules there can be no art, any more than there can be a houſe without a *door* to conduct you in. *Dryden.*

All the caſtle quaked from the ground,
And every *door* of free-will open flew. *Spenſer.*

To the ſame end men ſev'ral paths may tread,
As many *doors* into one temple lead. *Denham.*

In familiar language, a houſe; often in the plural, *doors*.—Martin's office is now the ſecond *door* in the ſtreet, where he will ſee Parnel. *Arbuthnot.*—Lambs, though they are bred within *doors*, and never ſaw the actions of their own ſpecies, puſh at thoſe who approach them with their foreheads. *Addiſon.*—Entrance; portal:

The tender blades of graſs appear;
And buds, that yet the blaſt of Eurus fear,
Stand at the *door* of life, and doubt to clothe the year.
Dryden.

Paſſage; avenue; means of approach.—The indiſpenſable neceſſity of ſincere obedience, ſhuts the *door* againſt all temptations to carnal ſecurity. *Hammond.*—*Out of* DOOR, *or* DOORS. No more to be found; quite gone; fairly ſent away.—His imaginary title of fatherhood is *out of doors*, and Cain is no prince over his brother. *Locke.*

Should he, who was thy lord, command thee now,
With a harſh voice and ſupercilious brow,
To ſervile duties, thou would'ſt fear no more;
The gallows and the whip are *out of door*. *Dryden.*

At the DOOR *of any one.* Imputable; chargeable upon him.—In any of which parts if I have failed, the fault lies wholly *at my door*. *Dryden.*—*Next* DOOR *to.* Approaching to; near to; bordering upon.—A ſeditious word leads to a broil, and a riot unpuniſhed is but *next door to* a tumult. *L'Eſtrange.*

DOOR'CASE, *ſ.* The frame in which the door is fixed.—The making of frames for *doorcaſes*, is the framing of two pieces of wood athwart two other pieces. *Moxon.*

DOOR'KEEPER, *ſ.* Porter; one that keeps the entrance of a houſe.—He that hath given theſe aſſiſtances to thee, deſires to be even a *doorkeeper* in God's houſe, and to be a ſervant to the meaneſt of God's ſervants. *Taylor.*

DOPH'KAH, the ninth place of encampment of the Iſraelites, in their journey from Egypt to Canaan. *Numbers* xxxiii. 12.

DOPO'NEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania: four miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Stalluponen.

DOP'PELMAIER (John Gabriel), a celebrated mathematician and profeſſor at Nuremberg, born in 1667 in that city, where his father was a merchant. Having gone through the uſual preparatory courſe of education, he ſtudied law at Altdorf, in 1696; but, at the ſame time, attended the lectures of the celebrated profeſſor Sturm on philoſophy and the mathematics. He came to England in 1701, where he formed an acquaintance with the moſt celebrated mathematicians, and particularly Flamſtead, the aſtronomer-royal at Greenwich. In 1702, he returned to his native city; and, in 1704, was made profeſſor of mathematics in the Egidian college at Nuremberg, which place he filled for forty years. In 1715, he was elected a fellow of the royal ſociety of London; and the imperial academy of Peterſburgh ſent him a diploma of aſſociate in 1741. Towards the latter part of his life he attracted great notice in the philoſophical world by his electrical experiments, and died on the 1ſt of December, 1750. His works are, 1. *Tabulæ Aſtronomicæ Thom. Streetii*, Norim. 1705, quarto, tranſlated into Latin from the Engliſh. 2. Bion on Mathematical Inſtruments, 1712, tranſlated into German from the French. 3. The Defence of Copernicus, by J. Wilkins, 1713, quarto, tranſlated into German from the Engliſh. 4. A ſhort Explanation of the Syſtem of Copernicus, 1707, quarto, written in German. 5. A fourth volume of Welper's Gnomonics, 1708, folio, written in German. 6. Introduction to Geography, for Homan's Atlas, 1714, 1716, folio, in German. 7. The ſame work in Latin, 1731. 8. A Continuation of Bion on Mathematical Inſtruments, 1717, quarto. 9. A Second Continuation of Bion, 1720. 10. General Method of tracing out large Sun-dials, 1719, folio, in German. 11. *Nova Methodus parandi Sciaterica Solaria*, 1720, quarto. 12. An Hiſtorical Account of the Mathematicians and Artiſts of Nuremberg, 1730, folio, in German. 13. *Phyſica Experimentis illuſtrata*, 1741, quarto. 14. *Atlas Cæleſtis, in quo XXX Tabulæ Aſtronomicæ æri inciſæ continentur*, 1742, folio. 14. The Phenomena of Electricity, &c. in German.

DOP'PER, *ſ.* [from *dop*, old Engliſh, for *dip*.] An anabaptiſt.—Ha' you *doppers?*—A world of *doppers*: but they are there as lunatic perſons, walkers only, that have leave only to hum and ha, not daring to prophecy, or ſtart up upon ſtools to raiſe doctrine. *B. Jonſon.*

DOR, a city of Paleſtine, of the half-tribe of Manaſſeh, in Galilee, ſituated near the ſea-ſide. *Joſh.* xvii. 11.

DO'RA, the name of a place. 1 *Mac.* xv. 13.

DO'RAC,

DO'RAC, a town of Perſia, in the province of Chuſiſtan: ſeventy-five miles ſouth of Suſa.

DORA'DO, *ſ.* in aſtronomy, a ſouthern conſtellation, not viſible in our latitude; it is alſo called *xiphias*. The ſtars of this conſtellation, in Sharp's catalogue, are ſix.

DORÆ'NA, *ſ.* In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, five-cleft, ſhorter than the corolla; diviſions ovate, concave. Corolla: one-petalled, ſubcylindric-wheel-ſhaped; border five-cleft, ſegments ovate, obtuſe, erect. Stamina: filaments very ſhort, ſo as to be ſcarcely any; inſerted into the tube of the corolla; antheræ oblong, ſubquadrangular, included. Piſtillum: germ conic, ſmooth, ſuperior; ſtyle filiform, the length of the corolla; ſtigma truncate, emarginate. Pericarpium: capſule ovate, acute, one-celled. Seeds: very many.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, five-cleft; ſtigma emarginate; capſule one-celled.

Doræna Japonica, or Japan dorena, the only ſpecies known, is a tree of about a fathom in height; branches alternate, round, aſh-coloured, ſmooth, divaricate; flowers in racemes, white, minute; racemes axillary, ſcarcely half an inch long; capſule the ſize of a pepper-corn. Native of Japan.

DO'RAN, an ancient city of Arabia, in the province of Yeman, ſituate on the declivity of a mountain, not far from the junction of roads between Sana and Damar. It is the reſidence of a ſchieck, and of ſeveral imams or princes: twenty-eight miles ſouth of Sana. Lat. 14. 55. N. lon. 44. 4. E. Ferro.

DO'RAT, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Upper Vienne: eight leagues north of Limoges. Lat. 46. 13. N. lon. 18. 45. E. Ferro.

DO'RAT, or DAURAT, John (Latin *Auratus*), a man of letters and poet, born of an ancient family in the Limoſin, about the beginning of the ſixteenth century. He finiſhed his ſtudies at Paris, where he acquired ſuch a reputation for learning, that he was made royal profeſſor in the Greek language. He was in conſiderable favour with Charles IX. who took pleaſure in converſing with him; but it does not appear that he was much benefited by royal patronage, ſince he paſſed the latter part of life in great indigence. He poured forth a vaſt number of verſes, Greek, Latin, and French; and acquired the title of *poet-royal*. In the vigour of his powers he was thought inferior to none in lyric poetry. He alſo ranked high as a critic, and was accounted to excel in explaining the ſenſe of obſcure ancient authors. He married a ſecond time, in his old age, a handſome young woman; and when cenſured for the inequality of the connection, he replied, that he choſe rather to die by a bright ſword than a ruſty one. He ſurvived his eightieth year, and died in 1588.

DOR'CAS, [δορκας, Gr. a roebuck.] A proper name of women.

DOR'CHESTER, the county town of Dorſetſhire, diſtant 122 miles weſt of London, and eight from Weymouth. It is regularly built, on the elevated banks of the Frome, conſiſting of four ſtreets, correſponding to the four cardinal points, and has the river on its north ſide: it had originally four gates, one in the middle of each ſide, and was encompaſſed with a ſtrong wall and ditch. On the weſt ſide part of the old wall is ſtill ſtanding, which is twelve feet thick. The foundation of the Roman wall appears quite round the town; but eaſtward there is a ſtreet built upon it, called the Walls. Here are three churches, among which that dedicated to St. Peter is a handſome ſtructure. Here is an area of an old caſtle, out of whoſe ruins the monaſtery of the Grey Friars was built. The ſtreets are neatly paved, and the houſes generally built with ſtone. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor, recorder, two bailiffs, ſix aldermen, ſix capital burgeſſes, and twenty-four common-council men, by charter of 5 Charles I. Here are three alms-houſes, one of which is handſome and well endowed; there is alſo a good free-ſchool. In this town the county aſſizes are held, and the knights of the ſhire choſen. The town has ſent members to parliament ever ſince 23 Edward I. Dorcheſter had two mints for coining money in the time of the Saxons. It extends five furlongs from eaſt to weſt, and within the walls covers about eight acres. Here was a dreadful fire, Auguſt 6, 1613, which conſumed two of the churches, ſince rebuilt, and about 300 houſes, to the damage of 200,000l. but not a ſoul periſhed in it. Dorcheſter has conſiderable breweries, and carries on a great trade in beer, large quantities of which are ſold in London, and other parts of the kingdom. It has almoſt loſt the manufacture of broad-cloth, for which it was once famous; and its ſerge trade is not very conſiderable. It is computed that no leſs than 600,000 ſheep are conſtantly fed within ſix miles of this place: the ewes generally bringing two lambs, which is imputed to the wild thyme and other aromatic herbage which here grow upon the downs in great abundance. It has a market Wedneſdays and Saturdays; with four fairs, namely, on the 12th of February, for cattle and ſheep; on Trinity-Monday, and July 5, for ſheep, lambs, and all ſorts of cattle; and on the 5th of Auguſt, for cattle, ſheep, wool, and leather.

The ancient mounds and circumvallation called Pondbury, lie half a mile weſt of Dorcheſter; upon the ſide of the river ſtands an ancient fortification, of a ſquare form, with a high rampart; but the ditch is inconſiderable, except at the angle by the river: the chief entrance was by the ſouth ſide. It is ſuppoſed to have been originally a Roman camp. There is alſo on the down another Roman camp, called Maiden Caſtle, which Dr. Stukely imagines was the Æſtiva of the Dumovarian garriſon: it is of a vaſt extent, prodigiouſly ſtrong, and appears to have been formed in the inferior times of the empire. The amphitheatre is ſtill viſible. Fordington is a large village near Dorcheſter, to which it was formerly a ſuburb, and had a market on Tueſdays, and a fair. It has ſtill an officer choſen yearly called a *reeve*. This pariſh abounds with antiquities, and Roman coins are frequently dug up here. In 1747, on digging chalk, above 200 ſkeletons were diſcovered four or five feet deep. The pariſh church is large and ancient, ſtanding on a riſing ground, with a tower eighty feet high.

DOR'CHESTER, a townſhip of the American States, in Grafton county, New Hampſhire, incorporated in 1761: ſeventeen miles from Dartmouth College.

DOR'CHESTER, an ancient and thriving townſhip of the American States, in Norfolk county, Maſſachuſetts, ſettled as early as 1630. A number of towns have been peopled from it ſince its firſt ſettlement. It is ſituated two miles ſouth by eaſt of Boſton, and is now about ſix miles long and three and a half broad. The chief manufactures are paper, chocolate, ſnuff, leather, and ſhoes of various ſorts. It has a handſome church; and, by the cenſus 1722 inhabitants. This town and its vicinity ſuffered much during the early part of the American war.

DOR'CHESTER, a town of the American States, in Cumberland county, New Jerſey, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Morris river, about five miles from its mouth, in the bay, and ſeventeen eaſtward of Fairfield.

DOR'CHESTER, a county of the American States, in Maryland, on the eaſt ſide of Cheſapeak bay, and the ſouth ſide of Choptank-river, which ſeparates it from Talbot county. It has ſeveral iſlands on its coaſt; the chief of theſe, from the mouth of Hudſon river, are, James, Taylor's, Barren, Hooper's, and Goldſborough's, which laſt lies between Hungary-river and Fiſhing-bay. The length in the county from eaſt to weſt is about thirty-three miles, and its breadth from north to ſouth twenty-ſeven miles. The number of its inhabitants 15,875. The lands in the northern parts are ſomewhat elevated, but in the ſouthern parts low and marſhy. The produce is chiefly wheat, corn, and lumber. Its chief town is Cambridge.

DOR'CHESTER,

DOR'CHESTER, a ſmall town of the American States, in Charleſtown diſtrict, South Carolina, ſeated on the north-eaſt bank of Aſhley river, eighteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Charleſtown city. This place was ſettled and named as early as 1700, by a colony from Dorcheſter and its vicinity in Maſſachuſetts.

DORDO'GNE, a river of France, which riſes about ſeven miles north-weſt from Beſſe, in the department of the Puy-de-Dome, paſſes by Bort, Argental, Beaulieu, Souillac, Limeuil, Bergerac, Caſtillon, Libourn, &c. and joins the Garonne, between Blaye and Bourdeaux.

DORDO'GNE, a department of France, part of the province of Perigord, bounded on the north-eaſt by the department of the Upper Vienne, on the eaſt by the departments of the Lot and Correze, on the ſouth by the department of the Lot and Garonne, on the weſt by the departments of the Gironde and the Lower Charente, and on the north-weſt by the department of the Charente. Perigueux is the capital.

DORE, a river of France, which riſes in the department of the Puy-de-Dome, and joins the Allier, near Cuſſet, in the department of the Allier.

DORE L'EGLISE, a town of France, in the department of the Puy-de-Dome: five leagues eaſt of Iſſoire.

DOREBAT', a city of Arabia, in the province of Yemen, and capital of the territories of Schiech Ibn Aklan, who reſides there. Its ſituation, on the ſummit of a hill, renders it naturally ſtrong: ten miles diſtant from Mocha.

DORE'E, or JOHN DOREE, *ſ.* in ichthyology. See ZEUS.

DO'RENBERG, or DUIRENBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Ravenſberg: three miles north-weſt of Bielefield.

DO'RENHAGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Paderburn: five miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Paderburn.

DO'RENTHAL, or DOROTHEENTHAL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Erzgebirg: thirteen miles ſouth of Freyburg.

DORET'TE, a river of France, which runs into the Dive, near Troan, in the department of the Calvados.

DOR'FEN, a town of Germany, in Lower Bavaria, on the Iſen: twenty-ſeven miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Munich.

DORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, on the Danube: eleven miles north-weſt of Bruck.

DORF'FLIS, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſeven miles ſouth of Ziſterſtorf.

DORF'MARK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Luneburg: twenty miles north-weſt of Zelle.

DOR'HEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Hanau Munzenberg: twelve miles north of Hanau.

DORHO'BUSS, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia: ſixty miles eaſt of Lucko.

DO'RIA (Andrew), a gallant Genoeſe ſea-officer, born in 1466. He entered into the ſervice of Francis I. of France; but preſerved that true ſpirit of independence, which gained him univerſal admiration and regard. When the French attempted to render Savona, long the object of jealouſy to Genoa, its rival in trade, Doria remonſtrated againſt the meaſure in high terms; which bold action, repreſented by the malice of his courtiers in the moſt odious light, ſo much irritated Francis, that he ordered his admiral Barbeſieux to fail to Genoa, then in the hands of the French troops, to arreſt Doria, and to ſeize his galleys. This order being communicated ſecretly to Doria, he retired with all his galleys to a place of ſafety; and, while his reſentment was thus raiſed, he cloſed with the offers of the emperor Charles V. returned his commiſſion, with the collar of St. Michael, to Francis, and hoiſted the imperial colours upon all the ſhips of his ſquadron. To deliver his country, weary alike of the French and imperial yoke, from the dominion of foreigners, was now Doria's higheſt ambition; and the favourable moment offered. Genoa was afflicted with the peſtilence, the French garriſon was greatly reduced and ill-paid, and the inhabitants were ſufficiently diſpoſed to ſecond his views. He ſailed to the harbour with thirteen galleys, landed five hundred men, and made himſelf maſter of the gates and the palace with very little reſiſtance. The French governor with his feeble garriſon retired to the citadel, but was quickly forced to capitulate; when the people ran together, and levelled the citadel with the ground. It was now in Doria's power to have rendered himſelf the ſovereign of his country; but, with a magnanimity of which there are few examples, he aſſembled the people in the court before the palace, diſclaimed all pre-eminence, and recommended to them to ſettle that form of government they choſe to eſtabliſh. The people, animated by his ſpirit, forgot their factions, and fixed that form of government which has ſubſiſted ever ſince with little variation. This event happened in 1528. The Genoeſe, in gratitude to Doria, erected a ſtatue to him in the midſt of the great ſquare of their city; built for him a palace in the ſame place, which was for ever to be called by his name; ordained that himſelf and his poſterity ſhould be exempted from impoſts of all kinds; and were deſirous of erecting a fortreſs for him upon a ſpot which commanded every part of the city, that in caſe of any conſpiracy againſt his life, or inſurrection of the refractory inhabitants, he might retire in ſafety, till his friends and fellow-citizens could repair to his aſſiſtance. But to this he returned the following memorable anſwer: "God forbid, that to inſure the ſafety of the remainder of my life, my country ſhould be rendered obnoxious to ſlavery! This fortreſs, which you ſeem anxious to build, would only contribute, one day or other, in the hands of a deſpot, to reduce the republic to a ſtate of ſervitude. For remember, that neither men nor ſtates can preſerve their liberty by mere ramparts and garriſons; that ineſtimable bleſſing can only be perpetuated by the diſintereſtedneſs of the nobility, and the obedience of the people." Doria lived to the great age of ninety-two or ninety-four years, reſpected and beloved as a private citizen; and is ſtill celebrated in Genoa by the moſt honourable of all appellations, "The father of his country, and the reſtorer of its liberty."

DO'RIA, *ſ.* in botany. See SENECIO, SOLIDAGO, and OTHONNA.

DO'RIA BALTE'A, or GRAND DORIA, a river of Piedmont, which riſes in the Alps, on the borders of the Valais, and, after winding through the valley of Aoſta, &c. empties itſelf into the Po by two branches, between Chivazzo and Creſcentino.

DO'RIA RIPA'RIA, or LITTLE DORIA, a river of Piedmont, which riſes in the Alps, on the borders of France, paſſes through the valley of Suſa, &c. and runs into the Po a little to the north-eaſt of Turin.

DO'RIANS, a people from Egypt, who came into Greece, or Hellotia, under the name of Adorians; and from their ſimplicity of manners, and their little intercourſe with foreigners, preſerved the purity of their ancient tongue. The ancient hymns, ſung in the Prutaneia all over Greece, were Doric: ſo ſacred was their dialect eſteemed. As every colony, which went abroad, took to themſelves ſome ſacred title, from their particular mode of worſhip; this ſtiled themſelves accordingly Dorians. They were ſo named from the deity Adorus, who by a common aphæreſis was expreſſed *Dorus*. The country, when they arrived, was inhabited by a people of a different race; whom they termed, as they did all nations in contradiſtinction to themſelves, Βαρβαροι. With theſe original inhabitants they had many conflicts; of which we may ſee ſome traces in the hiſtory of the Heraclidæ: for the Dorians were the ſame as the Herculeans; and did not ſettle in Greece only; but in many parts of the world, whither the Amonians in general betook themſelves. Pauſanias imagines that the Dorians were comparatively of late date; yet he ſhews, from many evi-

dences in different parts of his antiquities, that they were high in the mythic age: and informs us of one curious particular, that all the ancient hymns of Greece, in every province, were in the dialect of this people. From this it would appear, in opposition to this learned antiquary, that they were as ancient as any branch of their family; that their language was the true Hellenic; and that it was once universally spoken. Their history is not to be confined to Greece; for they were to be found in Phenicia, Caria, Crete, and Etruria. They forced themselves into Laconia and Messenia; in the latter of which provinces the Dorian language was retained in the greatest purity: and from their history are to be obtained more ancient terms than can be elsewhere collected. We learn from almost every writer upon the subject, that the Dorians, like their brethren the Iönim, were not the first occupiers of Greece. They were colonies from Egypt: and Herodotus speaks of all the heads and leaders of this people as coming directly from thence. He takes his epocha from the supposed arrival of Perseus and Danaë; and says, that all the principal persons of the Dorian family upwards, were in a direct line from Egypt. But it was not Perseus, nor Iön, nor Dorus, who came into Greece; but a race of people stiled Iönians, Dorians, and Peresians. These were the Αιγυπτιοι ιθαγενεες; who went originally from Babylonia and Chaldea into Egypt, which countries in aftertimes were included under the general name of Assyria.

DO'RIC, *adj.* in architecture, the second of the five orders. For the description and figure, see ARCHITECTURE, vol. ii. p. 104.

DO'RIGNY (Louis), a French painter of eminence, born at Paris in 1654, the son of Michael Dorigny, a painter and engraver of merit. He began at an early age to practise design under his father; and after his death entered in the school of Le Brun. At the age of seventeen he contended for the prizes at the academy; and obtaining only the second when he thought he deserved the first, he quitted the academy. He at length settled at Verona, occasionally visiting the other towns of Italy as professional occupations called him. In 1711 prince Eugene sent for him to Vienna, and employed him above a year. Dorigny possessed great facility of composition, and the art of well managing large subjects. His pencil was animated, his colouring lively, his manner firm and correct, his stile heroical and sublime, but he was somewhat deficient in grace and dignity. He was a master in fresco, of which he gave several specimens. The most considerable of these is in the dome of the great church at Trent. Dorigni died at Verona in 1742, aged eighty-eight.

DO'RIGNY (Nicolas), younger brother of the preceding, attained great eminence as an engraver. He resided twenty-eight years in Italy, where he published prints from the works of the principal painters. He came to England, and engraved the famous cartoons at Hampton-court, for which he was knighted by George I. He was a member of the French academy of painting, and died at Paris in 1746, in his nineticth year.

DO'RING, or DARING, *f.* A term used to express a method of taking larks, by means of a clap-net and looking-glass. See the article BIRD-CATCHING, vol. iii. p. 50.

DO'RINGSTADT, or DURINSTATT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and bishopric of Bamberg: fourteen miles north of Bamberg.

DO'RINK, or DORING, (Matthias), a learned German monk of the Franciscan order, born at Kiritz in 1415. He was profoundly skilled in the sacred scriptures, in philosophy, and in scholastic theology. In 1445 he was chosen to fill the divinity chair in the university of Magdeburg, and discharged the duties of his province with eminent reputation. Paul de Burgos having published a variety of strictures against the Postilles, or short Commentaries on the Scriptures, of Nicolas de Lyra, Dorink undertook their defence and farther illustration. The pieces which he wrote on these subjects were collected together, and inserted in an edition comprehending the works of both those authors, which was published at Paris, in 1590, in 6 vols. folio. Since that time they have undergone various impressions. Dorink is also generally supposed to have been the author of The Chronicle of Nuremberg, continued to the year 1493, which was published anonymously.

DO'RION, anciently a town of Thessaly, where Thamyras, the musician, challenged the Muses to a trial of skill. *Propertius.*

DO'RIS, in ancient geography, a country of Greece, between Phocis, Thessaly, and Acarnania. It received its name from Dorus the son of Deucalion, who made a settlement there. It was called *Tetrapolis*, from the four cities of Pindus or Dryopis, Erineum, Cytinium, and Borium, which it contained. To these four some add Lilæum and Carphia, and therefore call it *Hexapolis*. The name of Doris has been common to many parts of Greece. The Dorians, in the age of Deucalion, inhabited Phthiotis, which they exchanged for Histiæotis, in the age of Dorus. From thence they were driven by the Cadmeans, and came to settle near the town of Pindus. From thence they passed into Dryopis, and afterwards into Peloponnesus. Hercules having re-established Ægimius king of Phthiotis or Doris, who had been driven from his country by the Lapithæ, the grateful king appointed Hyllus, the son of his patron, to be his successor, and the Heraclidæ marched from that part of the country to go to recover Peloponnesus. The Dorians sent many colonies into different places, which bore the same name as their native country. The most famous of these is *Doris in Asia Minor*, of which Halicarnassus was once the capital. This part of Asia Minor was called Hexapolis, and afterwards Pentapolis after the exclusion of Halicarnassus. *Strabo.*

DO'RIS, in mythology, a goddess of the sea, daughter of Oceanus and Tethys. She married her brother Nereus, by whom she had fifty daughters called Nereides. Her name is often used to express the sea itself. *Hesiod.*

DO'RIS, *f.* [so called from the sea-goddess of that name.] In zoology, a genus belonging to the order of molusca; the characters of which are as follow: body creeping, oblong, and flat beneath: mouth placed below on the fore-part; vent behind on the back-part, furrounded with a radiated fringe: tentacula, or feelers, from two to four, seated on the upper part of the body in front, and retractile at pleasure within their proper receptacles. Twenty-four species have been ascertained, inhabitants of the Mediterranean, Atlantic Ocean, Indian, and European seas. Three species are found on the coasts of England, viz. the *argo*, *verrucosa*, and *bilamellata*. The most beautiful is the *argo*, commonly called the *sea lemon*; a figure of which is given in the engraving. It varies much in size and colour; some being found of a yellow, more or less deep; others of a rich citron, or bright orange; and others again of a dull red, or scarlet. In all these varieties the body is convex, marked with numerous spots or punctures, and the vent surrounded with elegant ramifications.

DOR'KIAN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: forty-four miles west of Sinope.

DOR'KING. See DARKING.

DORKOW'KA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw: forty-four miles south-south-east of Braclaw.

DOR'LACH, a township of the American States, in Otsego county, New York. By the state census of 1796, 433 of its inhabitants are electors.

DOR'MANS, a town of France, in the department of the Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Epernay, on the Marne: four leagues west of Epernay, and six south-west of Reims.

DOR'MANT, *adj.* [Fr.] Sleeping.—With this radius he is said to strike and kill his prey, for which he lies, as it were, *dormant*, till it swims within his reach. *Grew.*

—In

—In a ſleeping poſture. If a lion were the coat of Judah, yet were it not a lion rampant, but rather couchant and *dormant*. *Brown.*—Private; not public.—There were other *dormant* muſters of ſoldiers throughout all parts of the realm, that were put in readineſs, but not drawn together. *Bacon.*—Concealed; not divulged.—It would be prudent to reſerve theſe privileges *dormant*, never to be produced but upon great occaſions. *Swift.*—Belonging to a leaning roof:

Old *dormant* windows muſt confeſs
Her beams: their glimmering ſpectacles,
Struck with the ſplendor of her face,
Do th' office of her burning-glaſs. *Cleaveland.*

Theſe windows were probably called *dormant* from being ſupported by a beam formerly ſo named.

DOR'MANT, *ſ.* A large beam; a ſummer:

For in that place the Painims rear'd a poſt,
Which late had ſerv'd ſome gallant ſhip for maſt,
And over it another beam they eroſs'd,
Pointed with iron ſharp to it made faſt
With ropes, which, as men would, the *dormant* toſs'd
Now out, now in; now back, now forward caſt. *Fairfax.*

DOR'MANT-WRITING, *ſ.* A deed with a blank to put in the name of a perſon.

DOR'MAR, or DORMER, *ſ.* [the common name, perhaps by corruption, for] A dormant window. A beam.—In a parlour belonging to a farm-houſe there was a remarkably large *dormar* of cheſnut. *Clubb.*

DOR'MITIVE, *ſ.* [from *dormio*, Lat.] A medicine to promote ſleep.—Does any diſtreſs'd patient want an emetic, a ſudorific, an anti-hyp, a diuretic, a purge, or a *dormitive*. *Arbuthnot.*

DOR'MITORY, *ſ.* [*dormitorium*, Lat.] A place to ſleep in: uſed commonly for a room with many beds.—Rooms that have thorough lights are left for entertainment, and thoſe that have windows on one ſide for *dormitories*. *Mortimer.*—A burial place.—The places where dead bodies are buried, are in Latin called *cæmiteria*, and in Engliſh *dormitories*. *Ayliffe.*

DOR'MOUSE, *ſ.* [*dormio*, Lat. to ſleep, and *mouſe*.] A ſmall animal which paſſes a large part of the winter in ſleep. See MYOXUS.

Come, we all ſleep, and are mere *dormice* flies,
A little leſs than dead: more dulneſs hangs
On us than on the moon. *Ben Jonſon.*

DORN, *ſ.* [from *dorn*, Germ. a thorn.] The name of a fiſh; perhaps the ſame as the thornback.—The coaſt is ſtored both with ſhell-fiſh, as ſcallops and ſheathfiſh; and flat as turbots, *dorns*, and holybut. *Carew.*

DORNABAD', a town of Perſia, in the province of Choraſan: 150 miles north-weſt of Herat.

DOR'NACH, or DORNECK, a bailiwick of Swiſſerland, in the eanton of Soleure, which takes its name from a ſtrong caſtle, celebrated for a victory obtained by the Swiſs over the Auſtrians in 1499. The Swiſs had only 6000 men, the enemy amounted to 15,000, of whom 3000 were left dead on the field. This was almoſt deciſive of the Swiſs independence.

DORN'BERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: eight miles weſt-north-weſt of Darmſtadt.

DORNBEU'REN, a town of Germany, in the county of Bregentz: five miles ſouth of Bregentz.

DORN'BURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Weimar: fourteen miles eaſt of Weimar.

DORN'BURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Anhalt Zerbſt, near the Elbe: eight miles weſt-north-weſt of Zerbſt.

DOR'NE, a town of Franee, in the department of the Nyevre: three miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Deciſe.

DOR'NECY, a town of France, in the department of the Nyevre: two leagues eaſt of Clamecy.

DORN'HEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: five miles weſt of Darmſtadt.

DOR'NIC, *ſ.* [of *Deornic* in Flanders; where firſt made.] A ſpecies of linen-cloth uſed in Scotland for the table.

DORN'KRELL D'EBERHERTZ (James), a German Lutheran divine, born at Lunenburg in 1643. After purſuing his ſtudies in the univerſities of Helmſtadt and Thiel, he was for ſome time ſettled in the paſtoral charge at Holdenſtadt. He was a man of conſiderable erudition, and publiſhed ſeveral works which were favourably received. The titles of the principal of them are: 1. *Specimen Bibliorum Harmonicorum.* 2. *Biblia hiſtorico-harmonica, ſive opus divinæ Conſonantiæ integrum.* 3. *Tractatus contra parum Utilitatis habentes conciones eccleſiaſticas.* 4. *Epiſtolæ Curioſæ*, publiſhed under the name of Polymuſus. He died in 1704.

DORN'NUM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Eaſt Friſeland: ſix miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Eſens.

DOR'NOCK, a ſea-port town of Scotland, ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the county of Sutherland, on a frith or arm of the German ſea, ealled the *Frith of Dornock*; formerly the reſidence of the biſhops of Caithneſs, but now much deeayed from its former grandeur. It is the county town. It was taken by the young chevalier in 1746: twenty-four miles north of Inverneſs. Lat. 57. 51. N. lon. 0. 44. W. Edinburgh.

DOR'NOLL, a river of Wales, which runs into the Wye, in the ſouthern part of the county of Montgomery.

DO'ROBOI, or DOROHOI, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Moldavia: ſixty-eight miles north-north-weſt of Jaſſi, and 142 north-weſt of Bender.

DO'ROG, a town of Hungary: ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Nanas.

DOROGOBUZ', a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Smolenſk: forty miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Smolenſk, and 320 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg.

DOROJKIEWIC'ZE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzeſc: ninety miles eaſt of Brzeſc.

DO'RON, *ſ.* [Gr.] A gift, a preſent; a meaſure in antiquity of about three inches. *Phillips.*

DORON'ICUM, *ſ.* [*Doronigi* or *Dorungi*; an Arabic name.] LEOPARD'S BANE; in botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia ſuperflua, natural order compoſitæ diſcoideæ, (corymbiferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: common with leaflets lance-ſubulate, about twenty in number, equal, upright, of a double ſeries, length generally of the ray of the corolla. Corolla: compound rayed; corollules hermaphrodite, tubular, numerous in the diſk; females ligulate, of the number of calycular leaves, in the ray; proper of the hermaphrodite funnel-form: border five-cleft, patulous; female ligulate, lanceolate, three-toothed. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, very ſhort; anther cylindrie, tubular. Piſtillum: in the hermaphrodites; germ oblong; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma emarginate. In the females; germ oblong; ſtyle filiform, length of the hermaphrodite; ſtigmas two, reflex. Pericarpium: none; calyx ſlightly converging. Seeds: in the hermaphrodite ſolitary, obovate, furrowed, a little compreſſed; down hairy. In the females ſolitary, obovate, furrowed, a little compreſſed; down none. Receptaculum naked, flat.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, ſcales in two rows equal, longer than the diſk; ſeeds of the ray naked and deſtitute of down; down to thoſe of the diſk ſimple; receptaculum naked.

Species. 1. Doronicum pardalianches, or great leopard's bane: leaves eordate, obtuſe, toothletted; thoſe next the root petioled, on the ſtem embracing. Great leopard's bane has thick fleſhy roots, divided into many knots, ſending out ſtrong fleſhy fibres, which penetrate deep into the ground; root-leaves heart-ſhaped, hairy, petioled: among theſe ariſe the flower-ſtalks, which are channelled and hairy, near three feet high, putting out one

one or two ſmaller ſtalks from the ſide; theſe grow erect, and have one or two heart-ſhaped leaves cloſely embracing the ſtalk; this and each branch is terminated by one large yellow flower. Theſe appear in May; and the ſeeds ripen in July. The ſcales of the calyx are about twenty-ſix. The florets of the ray are ſtreaked with green lines, and are from twenty-two or twenty-four to thirty in number; in the diſk are about 178. Seeds of the ray nearly triangular, and ſtreaked with ten lines: thoſe of the diſk roundiſh, hairy, and crowned with a down which is ſlightly plumoſe; receptacle convex and hairy; from the burſting of the anthers to the ripening of the ſeeds takes up the ſpace of one month; the ſtem-leaves towards the baſe become narrower, and then again widen into ears claſping about the ſtem, ſo as to be in a manner appendicled. In the great ſmooth variety, *Doronicum radice ſcorpii*, they are obſcurely ſerrate, three or four inches broad, and near a ſpan in length; whereas in the ſmaller one they are ſcarcely half the length and breadth. Native of France, Swiſſerland, Germany, Auſtria, Carniola, Hungary, Savoy, and Piedmont. This is one of the plants which from the facility with which it propagates itſelf has lately eſcaped from the gardens to increaſe the Britiſh Flora. Mr. Lightfoot remarked it in Scotland, but always near houſes; and Dr. Stokes near Duplin houſe.

This plant has been ſtigmatiſed as poiſonous, ſeemingly without much reaſon. It had its name, *pardalianches*, (παρδαλις, a leopard, and αγχω, to ſtrangle,) from this ſuppoſed noxious quality. The famous Conrad Geſner however took two drachms of the root without injury. Others on the contrary would perſuade us that it is an antidote to poiſon, but they are ſtill farther from the truth. It is not uſed in the preſent practice. Dr. Stokes informs us that two drachms occaſioned a ſenſe of inflation in the ſtomach, and of general weakneſs, but that theſe ſymptoms were of ſhort duration. That it has been recommended in vertigo, epilepſy, and menſtrual obſtructions, but that theſe powers want the confirmation of a more accurate experiment.

As the Auſtrian plant, *Doronicum Auſtralis*, differs from the common one chiefly in having a more woody root that ſpreads but little, it is no more than a variety.

2. Doronicum plantagineum, or plantain-leaved leopard's bane: leaves ovate, acute, ſomewhat toothed; branches alternate. The leaves are indented on their edges towards their baſe, but their upper parts are entire; the ſtalks riſe about two feet high; each is terminated by a large yellow flower, like that of the preceding: they have two or three alternate embracing leaves, not ſo hairy as thoſe of the former ſort; it flowers about the ſame time; and grows naturally in Germany, France, Spain, and Portugal. Theſe were both cultivated in 1597 by Gerarde.

3. Doronicum bellidiaſtrum, or daiſy-leaved leopard's bane: ſtem naked, very ſimple, one-flowered. This has a perennial root, as well as the two preceding: the leaves are like thoſe of the common daiſy, but longer, and not ſo broad; the flower grows on a naked ſtalk near a foot long, and the root ſeldom ſends out more than one ſtalk; the ray of the flower is white, very like that of the common daiſy; the diſk yellow. Found on the Swiſs, Tyroleſe, and Italian, alps; in Auſtria, Carniola, Sileſia; Bois de Batie near Geneva, April 22, 1779, in flower; Haller found it in the lower alps with a deep red flower. Cultivated by Mr. Miller, in 1759; he received it from Verona.

Propagation and Culture. This plant multiplies very faſt by its ſpreading roots, and if the ſeeds are permitted to ſcatter, they will produce plants wherever they happen to fall, ſo that it becomes a weed where it is once eſtabliſhed: it loves a moiſt ſoil and a ſhady ſituation. The third ſort is propagated by parting the roots, for the ſeeds do not ripen well in England. It muſt have a ſhady ſituation and a moiſt ſoil. The flowers do not make a much better appearance than thoſe of the common daiſy, only they ſtand on much taller ſtalks. See ARNICA, RUDBECKIA, SENECIO, SEPTAS, and TUSSILAGO.

DORONIN'SK, a town of Ruſſia, in Siberia, and government of Irkutſch, on the Ingoda: 190 miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Verch Udinſk, and 280 eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Irkutſch.

DORON'K, a town of Egypt: two miles ſouth of Siut.

DOROSTAY', a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia: ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Lucko.

DO'ROTHY, [Δωροθεα, Gr. *i. e.* the gift of God.] A proper name of women.

DORP, *ſ.* [*Dorff.* Dut.] A country town or village.

DORP AU'BEIT, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: forty-four miles north of Chamir.

DOR'PAT, or DORPT, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Riga; formerly the ſee of a biſhop, in the palatinate of Livonia. It was ſeized by the czar Iwan Baſilovitz, in 1558, and afterwards ceded to Poland: the Swedes took it in 1625. But Peter the Great finally annexed to it Ruſſia: 116 miles north-north-eaſt of Riga, and 132 ſouth-weſt of Peterſburg.

To DORR, *v. a.* [*tor*, ſtupid, Teut.] To deafen or ſtupify with noiſe. *Skinner.*

DORR, *ſ.* [ſo named probably from the noiſe which it makes.] The chafer, or common dorr-beetle. See the article SCARABÆUS.

DOR'RA, a town of Perſia, in the province of Segeſtan: eighteen miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Kin.

DOR'SAL, *adj.* [from the Lat. *dorſum*, the back.] Belonging to the back, pertaining to thoſe diſeaſes which are ſuppoſed to have their ſeat in the back.

DOR'SANE (Antony), a French divine, born at Iſſoudun, in Lower Berry. He became doctor of the Sorbonne, chanter of the church of Paris, and grand vicar and official of that dioceſe, under the cardinal de Noailles. He died in 1728, leaving behind him a work extremely uſeful to eccleſiaſtical hiſtorians. It was publiſhed under the name of A Journal, and preſents us with the hiſtory, and the moſt intereſting circumſtances which took place at Rome and in France, during the celebrated negociation reſpecting the conſtitution, or bull, *Unigenitus*, in 2 vols. 4to. or in 6 vols. 12mo. The beſt edition is the ſecond, which was publiſhed in 1756.

DORSCH (Chriſtopher), ſon of an engraver on gems, born at Nuremberg in 1676. In his youth he was placed at the Latin ſchool; acquired ſome knowledge of geometry, attended the academy of painting, frequented profeſſor Heiſter's lectures on anatomy at Altdorf, and gradually attained to great perfection in the art of engraving on ſtones. As his father had been ſeveral years in a weak and infirm condition, he executed a great many pieces under his name, as he already begun to excel him in that art. His talents, however, did not long remain unknown, and his works ſoon began to be in great requeſt. He cut not only coats of arms, which were finiſhed with ſo much neatneſs, that all the figures, though exceedingly ſmall, could be plainly diſtinguiſhed, as well as the colours and metals expreſſed according to the uſual rules of heraldry; but alſo portraits, which he executed immediately from the life, without any previous drawing, and which bore a ſtriking reſemblance to the originals. Though his pieces were deeply cut, the figures on them, when held towards the light, appeared as if in relief. The heads of moſt of the heathen deities and eminent men, hieroglyphics, amulets, and hiſtories, given in both parts of Martin von Ebermayer's *Theſaurus Gemmarum*, and of which J. J. Bayer of Altdorf, and E. Reuſch of Helmſtadt, publiſhed a deſcription in 1720 and 1721, were cut by him on gems in ſo maſterly a manner, that they were perfect imitations of the antique models which he copied. In this manner he executed whole cabinets: ſuch as, 1. all the Roman emperors from Julius Cæſar to Charles VI. 2. the whole archducal houſe of Habſburg-Auſtria; 3. all the kings of France; 4. all the popes to Benedict XIII. 5. all the doges of Venice; 6. all the ducal and electoral houſe of Bavaria;

Neele sculp. Strand.

DORSETSHIRE.

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Bavaria; 7. all the czars and emperors of Ruſſia. He cut in agate, at the time of the jubilee in 1723, all the profeſſors of Altdorf, exceedingly like. Dorſch followed the antique ſtile ſo cloſely, that the public were frequently deceived by his works, which were purchaſed at a high price as real antiques. Some of them which he had ſold, were offered to him as antiques in Italy. Among thoſe who teſtified their high eſteem for him by letters was Peter the Great, who, by large offers, endeavoured to induce him to come to Peterſburgh, and to enter into his ſervice. He died on the 17th of October, 1732, at the age of fifty-ſix years.

DOR'SEL, or DORSER, *ſ.* [from *dorſum*, the back.] A pannier; a baſket or bag, one of which hangs on either ſide a beaſt of burthen, for the reception of things of ſmall bulk. It is corruptly ſpoken, and perhaps written, *doſſel*.

DOR'SET, a townſhip of the American States, in Bennington county, Vermont, having Rupert weſt, Manchester ſouth, and Danby north: twenty-ſeven miles north by eaſt of Bennington.

DOR'SETSHIRE, [from the Cambro-Britiſh *Darotriges*, and this from *dwr*, water, and *drig*, an inhabitant, *q. d.* a people on the ſea-coaſt.] A maritime county of England; bounded on the north by Somerſetſhire and Wiltſhire, on the eaſt by Hampſhire, on the ſouth by the Britiſh channel, and on the weſt by Devonſhire and Somerſetſhire. It gives the title of duke and earl to the family of Sackville; and, during the Saxon heptarchy, belonged to the kingdom of the Weſt Saxons. It is now in the province of Canterbury, dioceſe of Briſtol, and is included in the weſtern circuit. It is fifty-eight miles long, thirty-ſix broad, and 200 in circumference; containing 1250 ſquare miles, or 800,000 ſquare acres; containing five diſtricts, ſub-divided into ſixty liberties or hundreds, having 250 pariſhes, ſixty-eight vicarages, 1006 villages, and twenty-two market towns. It is every where irregular in form; its long northern ſide having a great angular projection in the middle, and its ſea-coaſt running out into points and head-lands. On the coaſt are Cheſil Bank, Portland Road and Iſle, Weymouth and Ringſtead Bays, St. Alban's Head, Durlſton Head, and Swanage Bay, Handfaſt Point, and Studland Bay, Pool Harbour, Furze, Green, and Round, Iſles, with Brankſea, Sandsfoot, and Portland, Caſtles. From the mildneſs of its air, and fertility of its ſoil, Dorſetſhire has been termed *the garden of England*. The moſt remarkable inland places are the Vale of Whitehart; Marſhwood Vale; Whitehart, Gillingham, and Holt, Foreſts; Cranborne Chace; Black Moor; Luckford Lake; and Fordington Moor. The northern parts of the country are generally level, and were formerly covered with wood; but now are chiefly converted into rich arable and paſture. Acroſs the middle runs a ridge of lofty chalk hills, upon which, and the beautiful downs declining with a ſouthern aſpect towards the ſea, feed innumerable flocks of ſheep, whoſe fine fleeces are the ſtaple of the country. The number of ſheep kept in this county is eſtimated at upwards of 800,000, of which 150,000 are annually ſold, and ſent out of the county. Great advantages are derived from the ſheep, not only from the fleece and carcaſe, but likewiſe from the manure. In one particular inſtance the ſheep-owners excel all other parts of the kingdom, which is, in providing ewes to yean at a remarkably early ſeaſon, in the midland counties, which ſupply the metropolis with fat lambs. The wool produced in this county is ſhort and fine, of a cloſe texture, and the quality of it is highly eſteemed in the manufacture of broad-cloth. From a due obſervation of the quality and number of ſheep bred and kept in the county, it may be ſuppoſed, with ſome degree of accuracy, that the produce of wool annually is 90,000 weys, or tods, of thirty-one pounds each. Among various articles of great import to the community in the county of Dorſet, may be reckoned the cultivation of hemp and flax, and their manufacture. In the neighbourhood of Bridport and Beminſter alone, all ſorts of twine, ſtring, packthread, netting, cordage, and ropes, are made; from the fineſt thread, uſed by ſadlers in lieu of ſilk, to the cable, which holds the firſt-rate man of war. The nets made for the fiſhery at Newfoundland, as well as for home uſe, and the ſails for ſhipping of every kind, are manufactured of the beſt quality, as well as ſacking for hammocs, &c. and all kinds of bags and tarpaulins; and, in addition to the great quantity of flax and hemp uſed here, not more than one-third of it is allowed by the manufacturers to be of Britiſh growth; the remaining two-thirds being imported from Ruſſia and America, as raw materials. The manufacture carried on at Beminſter employs upwards of 2000 people. At Bridport there are a great number of manufactures, and about 1800 people are ſaid to be employed in this town; and in its environs, as far as ſeven or eight miles round, upwards of 7000 people are in conſtant work. No ores of any kind have been found in this county, nor mines of coals; but quarries of excellent ſtone are found in the iſland of Purbeck, near the ſea, where upwards of 400 people are employed in digging and tooling the ſtone. The ſtone obtained at Purbeck is uſed for walling, floors, ſteps, foot-pavements, &c. About 50,000 tons are annually ſhipped at Swannage. The whole iſland of Portland ſeems to be one entire maſs of the moſt beautiful free-ſtone, of a calcareous nature, chiefly uſed in the metropolis, and elſewhere, for the moſt ſuperb buildings, and is univerſally admired for its whiteneſs, cloſe texture, and durability. To the north of the iſle is a ſafe road for ſhips; but its ſouthern point, called *the Race of Portland*, is one of the moſt dangerous places in the Engliſh channel. About a mile diſtant from Corf Caſtle, are found large quantities of pipe clay, which is in great eſtimation, and abſolutely neceſſary for the uſe of the potters in Staffordſhire and other places: about eleven thouſand tons are annually ſent from this place for that purpoſe, and about one hundred men are conſtantly employed in digging it. Some of the pits are not more than ten or twelve feet deep. The towns are Dorcheſter, Lyme, Shafteſbury, Pool, Bridport, Wareham, Corf-Caſtle, Weymouth, Melcomb-Regis, Sherborn, Blandford, Cranborn, Beminſter, Abbotſbury, Bere, Everſhot, Frampton, Milton-Abby, Stalbridge, Sturminſter, Cerne, and Winburn; of which the firſt nine are borough towns, and ſend two members each to the Britiſh parliament; making, with two for the county, twenty members in the whole. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated at eighty-nine thouſand. The principal rivers are the Stour, the Frome, and the Piddle. This was the county where the Saxons made their firſt ſettlement; and in it upwards of thirty Roman and Saxon camps are to be traced.

DORSI'FEROUS, or DORSIPAROUS, *adj.* [*dorſum* and *fero*, or *pario*, Lat.] Having the property of bearing or bringing forth on the back. It is uſed of plants that have their ſeeds on the back of their leaves, as fern; and may be properly uſed of the American frog, which brings forth young from her back.

DOR'SO, C. Fabius, a Roman, who, when Rome was in the poſſeſſion of the Gauls, iſſued from the capitol, which was then beſieged, to go and offer a ſacrifice, which was to be offered on mount Quirinalis. He dreſſed himſelf in ſacerdotal robes, and carrying on his ſhoulders the ſtatues of his country gods, paſſed through the guards of the enemy, without betraying the leaſt ſigns of fear. When he had finiſhed his ſacrifice, he returned to the capitol unmoleſted by the enemy, who were aſtoniſhed at his boldneſs, and did not obſtruct his paſſage or moleſt his ſacrifice. *Livy*.

DOR'STEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and county of Recklinghauſen, on the Lippe. It is ſtrong, though it was ſeveral times taken and retaken by the Swedes and Heſſians during the long war of Germany: thirty miles north of Duſſeldorp, and thirty-one ſouth-weſt of Munſter.

DORSTE'NIA, *ſ.* [ſo named by Plumier, from *Theo-*

dorus Dorſtenius, a German phyſician, who publiſhed a hiſtory of plants, or Botanicon, 1540.] In botany, a genus of the claſs tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order ſcabridæ, (urticæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: receptacle-common one-leafed, flat, cornered, very large, covered by the receptacle, with very numerous floſcules inhabiting the diſk, very ſmall; perianthium-proper four-cornered, concave, imbedded in the receptacle and united with it. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments four, filiform, very ſhort; antheræ roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh; ſtyle ſimple; ſtigma obtuſe. Pericarpium: none; receptacle-common becoming fleſhy. Seeds: ſolitary, roundiſh, acuminate.—*Eſſential Character.* Receptacle-common one-leafed, fleſhy, in which ſolitary ſeeds neſtle. Thoſe who have opportunity of examining the living plant would do well to obſerve whether any other female floſcules are intermixed with the hermaphrodites, as in Parietaria; for Dorſtenia ſeems intermediate between Ficus and Parietaria, and as it were a fig expanded. Swartz obſerved monoecous flowers.

Species. 1. Dorſtenia Houſtoni, or Houſtoun's dorſtenia: ſcapes rooted; leaves heart-ſhaped, angled, acute; receptacles quadrangular. This ſort ſends out ſeveral angular heart-ſhaped leaves from the root, which have foot-ſtalks eight or nine inches in length and very ſlender; the leaves are about three inches and a half long, and almoſt four broad at their baſe, the two ears having two or three angles which are acute, and the middle of the leaves are extended, and end in acute points like a halbert; theſe are ſmooth and of a lucid green; the foot-ſtalk which ſuſtains the placenta is nine inches long, and about half an inch ſquare, and the upper ſurface cloſely ſet with ſmall flowers. Native of Campeachy, in South America; found there on rocky grounds by Dr. Houſtoun, and cultivated by Mr. Miller before 1733.

2. Dorſtenia contrajerva, or contrayerva: ſcapes rooted; leaves pinnatifid-palmate, ſerrate; receptacles quadrangular. Stalk near four inches high, upon which the fleſhy placenta is vertically placed; this is of an oval form, about one inch long, and three quarters broad. Upon the upper ſurface of this, the ſmall flowers are cloſely ſituated, the fleſhy part becoming an involucre to them; theſe are very ſmall, and ſcarce conſpicuous at a diſtance, being of an herbaceous colour. Native of New Spain, Mexico, Peru, the iſlands of Tobago and St. Vincent. Mr. Miller ſays that it was diſcovered by his ingenious friend Dr. William Houſtoun, near old Vera Cruz in New Spain.

3. Dorſtenia drakena, or irregular-leaved dorſtenia: ſcapes rooted; leaves pinnatifid-palmate, quite entire; receptacles oval. Leaves of different forms; ſome heart-ſhaped, having a few indentures on their edges, and ending in acute points, but the larger leaves are deeply cut like the fingers on a hand, into ſix or ſeven acute ſegments; theſe leaves are five inches long, and ſix broad in the middle; they are of a deep green, and ſtand upon long foot-ſtalks. Linnæus ſays it is a native of Vera Cruz; but Mr. Miller informs us that it was found in great plenty in the iſland of Tobago, by Mr. Robert Millar, ſurgeon. He alſo affirms, that the roots of all the three ſpecies are brought over indifferently, to be uſed in medicine and in dying; and that it was not known what the plant was, the roots of which were imported, and had been long uſed in medicine, until Dr. Houſtoun informed us; for although Plumier had diſcovered one ſpecies, and had given the name of Dorſtenia to it, yet he ſeems not to have known, that the contrayerva was the root of that plant.

4. Dorſtenia cauleſcens, or ſtemmed dorſtenia: peduncles on a ſtem. This appears to be a ſmall plant, with leaves proceeding irregularly from the ſtem, which is ſhort; they are ovate-acute, and pretty ſtrongly dentated at the edges. The male flowers are collected into little heads, and the females into a kind of ſharply-lobed or irregular flattiſh heads; the leaves ſtand on remarkably long foot-ſtalks.

5. Dorſtenia lucida, or ſhining dorſtenia: cauleſcent; leaves obliquely ovate, entire, even; peduncles in cymes axillary. 6. Dorſtenia pubeſcens, or pubeſcent dorſtenia: cauleſcent; leaves obliquely-ovate, ſerrate, pubeſcent; peduncles axillary, bearing heads. Theſe are natives of the Society Iſles. Forſter, ſuppoſing them to be of a different genus from this, named them *elatoſtema*, from ελατος, claſtic, and στημα, a ſtamen; becauſe the ſtamens are elaſtic.

7. Dorſtenia cordifolia, or cordate-leaved dorſtenia: ſcapes rooting; leaves cordate, ovate, toothletted; receptacles orbiculate. Native of Jamaica and St. Domingo.

8. Dorſtenia Chinenſis, or Chineſe dorſtenia: peduncles cauline; petioles three or five-leaved. Root fuſiform, three inches long, white within and without, fleſhy, aromatic. Native of China in the northern provinces; and called there *pechi* and *bach-chi*. The root is aromatic, and is uſed in medicine.

Propagation and Culture. It will be difficult to obtain theſe plants, becauſe the ſeeds are ſeldom to be found good; nor will they grow, if they are kept long out of the ground; ſo that the only ſure method to obtain them is, to have the roots taken up at the time when their leaves begin to decay, and planted pretty cloſe in boxes of earth, which may be brought very ſafe to England, provided they are preſerved from ſalt water, and are not over-watered with freſh water in their paſſage. When the plants arrive, they ſhould be tranſplanted each into a ſeparate pot filled with freſh earth, and plunged into the bark-ſtove, which ſhould be kept of a moderate heat; and the plants muſt be frequently refreſhed with water during the ſummer ſeaſon; but in winter, when the leaves are decayed, it ſhould be given to them more ſparingly. With this management theſe plants may not only be maintained, but may alſo be increaſed, by parting their roots in the ſpring, before the plants put out their leaves.

DORS'ZYCE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Minſk: forty-ſix miles north-north-eaſt of Minſk.

DORT, or DOR'DRECHT, a city of Holland, which holds the firſt rank in the aſſembly of the States; it is the capital of a ſmall territory called the *bailiwick of Dort*, and is ſituated on a ſmall iſland, formed by the waters of the Meuſe, the Merwe, the Rhine, and the Linge; ſeparated from the iſle of Iſſelmond by the Meuſe, and from the iſle of Beyerlandt by a canal. It was firſt detached from the main land November 17th, 1421, by an irruption of the rivers, which broke down the dikes, drowned one hundred thouſand perſons, and deſtroyed ſeventy-two villages: this dreadful calamity, it is ſaid, was owning to a peaſant, who, out of hatred wiſhing to drown his neighbour, opened the dyke between Gertrudenburg and Dort, not doubting of his being able to ſtop it again when the buſineſs was done; but the tide being aſſiſted by the wind, the waters poured in with ſuch fury that it carried all before it, men, cattle, and even houſes: they record the wonderful preſervation of a child which was borne in a cradle by the waters ſafe to Dort. Since that time the inhabitants have been very careful to preſerve their dykes, and keep them in repair, and moſt of the villages are rebuilt. In 1457, the city was nearly deſtroyed by fire, above two thouſand houſes being conſumed, together with the halls, the church of Notre Dame, and the town-houſe. The comtes of Holland held their court, and were inaugurated, at Dort, and granted many privileges to the inhabitants; the town is large and well peopled, not regularly fortified, but defended with ſeveral towers; its ſituation is very convenient for trade, eſpecially in wine, corn, wood, and other productions of Germany, and the countries connected with the Rhine and the Meuſe. In 1618 and 1619, was held a famous aſſembly of the clergy from all the proteſtant ſtates in Europe, called the Synod of Dort, to inquire into and ſettle the diſputes between the

Arminians

Arminians and Calviniſts called Gomariſts, otherwiſe called Remonſtrants and Anti-remonſtrants. The doctrines of Arminius were condemned; and Vorſtius, profeſſor at Leyden, the principal defender of thoſe tenets, with above a hundred miniſters and profeſſors, were baniſhed from the United States, becauſe they refuſed to ſubſcribe to the decree of the ſynod; John Olden Barnevelt was beheaded; the celebrated Hugo Grotius was ſentenced to perpetual impriſonment; and other learned men, favourers of that opinion, puniſhed. Among the public buildings are the town-houſe, the exchange, the hoſpitals, and the public library. The church of Notre Dame is a noble ſtructure, the tower lofty, and furniſhed with muſical chimes: there is another church dedicated to St. Nicholas, built in 1568; it had likewiſe, before the revolution, ſeveral religious houſes for monks and nuns, but they are all now applied to other uſes. It has two canals, by means of which veſſels loaded may enter the city. The company of tradeſmen, and ſome other communities, elect the magiſtrates, and name one part of the members of the council of the city: thirty-five miles ſouth of Amſterdam. Lat. 51. 48. N. lon. 22. 6. E. Ferro.

DORTMAN'NA, *ſ.* in botany. See LOBELIA.

DOR'TMUND, an imperial town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Mark, ſituated on the Embs; containing four Lutheran churches, and three convents. It has a ſeat and voice at the diets, and pays ninety-ſix florins for a Roman month, and is taxed one hundred and eight rix-dollars twenty kruitzers to the imperial chamber: forty miles weſt of Cologn, and twenty-five ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Munſter. Lat. 51. 35. N. lon. 24. 53. E. Ferro.

DOR"TURE, *ſ.* [contracted from *dormiture*; *dormitura*, Lat. *dortoir*, Fr.] A dormitory; a place to ſleep in.—He led us to a gallery like a *dorture*, where he ſhewed us along the one ſide ſeventeen cells, very neat. *Bacon.*

DO'RUS, a ſon of Hellen, or, according to others, of Deucalion, who left Phthiotis, where his father reigned, and went to make a ſettlement with ſome of his companions near mount Oſſa. The country was called Doris, and the inhabitants Dorians. *Herodotus.*—A city of Phœnicia, whoſe inhabitants are called Dorienſes. *Pauſanias.*

DO'RY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: ſixty-eight miles eaſt of Lida.

DORYAN'THES, *ſ.* in botany, a genus of plants, erected in 1802, by J. Correa de Serra, of the Linnæan ſociety. There is only one ſpecies, named *Dorianthes excelſa*, found among the plants of New Holland. Dr. de Serra deſcribes it as being nearly akin to the Agave of Linnæus; and may perhaps eventually prove to be a ſpecies of that ſuperb American plant.

DORYC'NIUM, *ſ.* in botany, ſee ANTHYLLIS, ASPALATHUS, CONVOLVULUS, CORONILLA, LOTUS, and PSORALEA.

DOSE, *ſ.* [δοσις, Gr.] So much of any medicine as is taken at one time.—In a vehement pain of the head he preſcribed the juice of the thapſia in warm water, without mentioning the *doſe*. *Arbuthnot.*

The too vig'rous *doſe* too fiercely wrought,
And added fury to the ſtrength it brought. *Dryden.*

Any thing nauſeous.—If you can tell an ignoramus in power and place that he has a wit and underſtanding above all the world, I dare undertake that, as fulſome a *doſe* as you give him, he ſhall readily take it down. *South.*—As much of any thing as falls to a man's lot. Ludicrouſly:

No ſooner does he peep into
The world, but he has done his doe;
Married his punctual *doſe* of wives,
Is cuckolded, and breaks, or thrives. *Hudibras.*

Quantity.—We pity or laugh at thoſe fatuous extravagants, while yet ourſelves have a conſiderable *doſe* of what makes them ſo. *Granville.*—It is often uſed of the utmoſt quantity of ſtrong liquor that a man can ſwallow. He has his *doſe*; that is, he can carry off no more.

To DOSE, *v. a.* To proportion a medicine properly to the patient or diſeaſe.—Plants ſeldom uſed in medicine, being eſteemed poiſonous, if corrected, and exactly *doſed*, may prove powerful medicines. *Derham.*—To give phyſic, or any thing nauſeous, to any man: in a ludicrous ſenſe.

DOSI'LOGY, or DOSOLOGY, *ſ.* [of δοσις and λογια.] A diſcourſe concerning the quantity or doſe of a medicine to be taken at a time. *Scott.*

DOSITHE'ANS, or DOSITHEI, *ſ.* An ancient ſect among the Samaritans in the firſt century of the Chriſtian era. Origen, Epiphanius, Jerom, and other Greek and Latin fathers, mention Doſitheus, as the chief of a faction among the Samaritans; but the learned are not agreed as to the time wherein he lived. St. Jerom, in his Dialogue againſt the Luciferians, places him before our Saviour; wherein he is followed by Druſius. But Scaliger places him poſterior to our Saviour's time: and Origen intimates him to have been contemporary with the apoſtles; where he obſerves, that he endeavoured to perſuade the Samaritans that he was the Meſſiah foretold by Moſes. He had many followers; and his ſect was ſubſiſting at Alexandria in the time of the patriarch Eulogius, as appears from a decree of that patriarch publiſhed by Photius. In that decree, Eulogius accuſes Doſitheus of injuriouſly treating the ancient patriarchs and prophets, and attributing to himſelf the ſpirit of prophecy. He makes him contemporary with Simon Magus; and accuſes him of corrupting the Pentateuch in divers places, and of compoſing ſeveral books directly contrary to the law of God. Archbiſhop Uſher takes Doſitheus to be the author of all the changes made in the Samaritan Pentateuch, which he argues from the authority of Eulogius. Epiphanius takes him to have been a Jew by birth, and to have abandoned the Jewiſh party for that of the Samaritans. He imagines him likewiſe to have been the author of the ſect of the Sadducees: which ſeems inconſiſtent with his being later than our Saviour; and yet the Jeſuit Serrarius makes Doſitheus the maſter of Sadoc, from whom the Sadducees are derived. Tertullian obſerves, that he was the firſt who dared to reject the authority of the prophets by denying their inſpiration. But he charges that as a crime peculiar to this whole ſect, who have never allowed any but the five books of Moſes for divine.

DOSITHE'US, the name of a man. 2 *Mac.* xii. 25.

DOS'MA DELGA'DO (Roderic), a learned Spaniſh divine, who flouriſhed in the ſixteenth century, born at Badajoz, in 1533. He was the author of ſeveral works, of which the moſt important are written in the Latin language, and conſiſt of illuſtrations of the Evangeliſts, the Pſalms, &c. and of a treatiſe intitled *De Auctoritate Sanctæ Scripturæ*, folio, 1534. He died in the year 1607.

DOS'SE, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and marquiſate of Brandenburg, which runs into the Havel, eight miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Havelberg.

DOS'SER, *ſ.* A ſort of baſket to be carried on the ſhoulders of men. It is uſed in carrying the overplus earth from one part of a fortification to another where it is wanted. A common panier for country uſe:

The milk-maids' cuts ſhall turn the wenches off,
And lay their *doſſers* tumbling in the duſt.
Merry Devil of Edmonton.

DOSSO'LA, a town of Piedmont, in the valley of Oſſola, defended by a fortreſs: fifty-one miles north-weſt of Milan, and ſeventy north-north-eaſt of Turin. Lat. 46. N. lon. 25. 48. E. Ferro.

DOST, [the ſecond perſon of *do*.]

Why then *doſt* treat me with rebukes, inſtead
Of kind condoling cares, and friendly ſorrow? *Addiſon.*

DOT, *ſ.* [this is derived by Skinner, from *dotter*, German, the white of an egg; and interpreted by him a grume of pus. It has now no ſuch ſignification, and ſeems rather

rather corrupted from *jot*, a point.] A ſmall point or ſpot made to mark any place in a writing.

To DOT, *v. a.* To mark with ſpecks.

To DOT, *v. n.* To make dots or ſpots.

DO'TAGE, *ſ.* Loſs of underſtanding; imbecility of mind; deliriouſneſs:

The ſoul in all hath one intelligence;
Though too much moiſture in an infant's brain,
And too much dryneſs in an old man's ſenſe,
Cannot the prints of outward things retain:
Then doth the ſoul want work, and idle ſit;
And this we childiſhneſs and *dotage* call. *Davies.*

Exceſſive fondneſs:

If on your head my fury does not turn,
Thank that fond *dotage* which ſo much you ſcorn. *Dryd.*

DO'TAL, *adj.* [*dotalis*, Lat.] Relating to the portion of a woman; conſtituting her portion; comprifed in her portion:

Shall I, of one poor *dotal* town poſſeſt,
My people thin, my wretched country waſte,
An exil'd prince, and on a ſhaking throne,
Or riſk my patron's ſubjects, or my own. *Garth.*

DO'TARD, *ſ.* A man whoſe age has impaired his intellects; a man in his ſecond childhood, called in ſome provinces a *twichild*:

The ſickly *dotard* wants a wife,
To draw off his laſt dregs of life. *Prior.*

DOTA'TION, *ſ.* [*dotatio*, Lat.] The act of giving a dowry or portion. Endowment in general.—As to eleemoſynary corporations, by the *dotation*, the founder and his heirs are of common right the legal viſiters. *Blackſtone.*

To DOTE, *v. n.* [*doten*, Dut. *radoter*, Fr.] To have the intellect impaired by age or paſſion; to be delirious.—A ſword is upon the liars, and they ſhall *dote:* a ſword is upon her mighty men, and they ſhall be diſmayed. *Jer.* l. 36.

Time has made you *dote*, and vainly tell
Of arms imagin'd in your lonely cell:
Go, be the temple and the gods your care;
Permit to men the thought of peace and war. *Dryden.*

To be in love to extremity.—I have long loved her, and beſtowed much on her, followed her with a *doting* obſervance. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DOTE *upon.* To regard with exceſſive fondneſs; to love to exceſs.—We *dote upon* this preſent world, and the enjoyment of it; and 'tis not without pain and fear, and reluctancy, that we are torn from them, as if our hopes lay all within the compaſs of this life. *Burnet.*

O death all eloquent! you only prove
What duſt we *dote on*, when 'tis man we love. *Prior.*

DO'TE ASSIGNAN'DA, *ſ.* in law, a writ that lay for a widow, where it was found by office, that the king's tenant was ſeiſed of lands in fee, or fee-tail, at the day of his death, and that he held of the king in chief, &c. In which caſe, the widow came into the chancery, and there made oath, that ſhe would not marry without the king's leave; whereupon ſhe had this writ to the eſcheator, to aſſign her dower. But it was uſual to make the aſſignment of the dower in the chancery, and to award a writ to the eſcheator, to deliver the lands aſſigned unto her. Stat. 15 *Edw.* IV. c. 4.

DOTE UNDE NIHIL HABET, in law, a writ of dower, that lies for the widow againſt the tenant who bought land of her huſband in his life-time, whereof he was ſolely ſeized in fee-ſimple or fee-tail, and of which ſhe is dowable. See the article DOWER.

DO'TED, *adj.* Stupid. *Not uſed:*

His ſenſeleſs ſpeech and *doted* ignorance
The prince had marked well. *Spenſer.*

DO'TER, *ſ.* One whoſe underſtanding is impaired by years; a dotard.—What ſhould a bald fellow do with a comb, a dumb *doter* with a pipe, or a blind man with a looking-glaſs. *Burton.*—A man fondly, weakly, and exceſſively, in love:

If in black my lady's brow be deckt,
It mourns that painting and uſurping hair
Should raviſh *doters* with a falſe aſpect;
And therefore is ſhe born to make black fair. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOTES, *ſ. pl.* [Lat.] Natural endowments.—I muſe a miſtreſs can be ſo ſilent to the *dotes* of ſuch a ſervant. *B. Jonſon.*

DO'THAN, [from the Hebrew, ſignifying cuſtom.] A town of Canaan, near Shechem, where Joſeph's brethren conſpired againſt his life, *Gen.* xxxvii. 17; and where the prophet Eliſha dwelt, when the king of Syria encompaſſed the city with intention to deſtroy him, 2 *Kings*, vi. 13.

DO'THAIM, the name of a place. *Jud.* iv. 6.

DO'TINGLY, *adv.* Fondly; by exceſſive fondneſs:

That he, to wedlock *dotingly* betray'd,
Should hope in this lewd town to find a maid! *Dryden.*

DOT'MATYN, a town of Hungary: ſix miles north-weſt of Podolicz.

DOT'TARD, *ſ.* This word ſeems to ſignify a tree kept low by cutting.—For great trees, we ſee almoſt all overgrown trees in church-yards, or near ancient buildings, and the like, are pollards and *dottards*, and not trees at their full height. *Bacon.*

DOT'TEREL, *ſ.* The name of a ſpecies of plover. See CHARADRIUS, vol. iv. p. 106.—We ſee how ready apes and monkeys are to imitate all motions of man; and in catching of *dotterels*, we ſee how the fooliſh bird playeth the ape in geſtures. *Bacon.*

DOUADIC', a town of France, in the department of the Indre: five miles north of La Blanc.

DO'VAIN, a town of Savoy, in the Chablais, celebrated for its vineyards: three miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Hermance.

DOUAR'NENEZ, a ſea-port town of France, in the department of Finiſterre, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Pontcroix; ſituated on a large bay in the Engliſh Channel: three leagues and a half north-weſt of Quimper, and two and a quarter north-eaſt of Pontcroix.

DO'UAY, a city of France, and capital of the department of the North; large and ſtrong, ſituated on the Scarp, which is navigable for boats. It contains ſeven pariſhes, and 2735 fires. It has long been celebrated for its Engliſh colleges, whither the Roman catholics of this nation were generally ſent for education. Douay was taken by the allies, under the command of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, in 1710. The ſiege laſted from the 5th of May to the 26th of June: the garriſon, which at the beginning conſiſted of 8000 men, was reduced to 4527; and the allies loſt 8000 men. It was retaken by the French in 1712: twenty-four poſts and three-quarters north of Paris. Lat. 50. 22. N. lon. 20. 45. E. Ferro.

DOU'AZIT, a town of France, in the department of the Landes: five miles ſouth of St. Sever.

DOU'BLE, *adj.* [*double*, Fr. *duplex*, Lat. *duple*, Erſe.] Two of a ſort; one correſponding to the other; in pairs.—All things are *double* one againſt another, and he hath made nothing imperfect. *Ecclus.* xlii. 24.—Twice as much; containing the ſame quantity repeated. It is ſometimes uſed with *to*, and ſometimes without.—This ſum of forty thouſand pounds is almoſt *double to* what is ſufficient. *Swift.*

Great honours are great burthens; but on whom
They are caſt with envy, he doth bear two loads:
His cares muſt ſtill be *double to* his joys,
In any dignity. *Ben Jonſon.*

Having one added to another; having more than one in the ſame order or parallel.—It is a curioſity alſo to make flowers *double*, which is effected by often removing them into

into new earth; as, on the contrary part, *double* flowers, by neglecting, and not removing, prove ſingle. *Bacon.*—Twofold; of two kinds:

Thus curſed ſteel, and more accurſed gold,
Gave miſchief birth, and made that miſchief bold,
And *double* death did wretched man invade,
By ſteel aſſaulted, and by gold betray'd. *Dryden.*

Two in number:

And if one power did not both ſee and hear,
Our ſights and ſounds would always *double* be. *Davies.*

Having twice the effect or influence; having the power of two. *Not uſed:*

The magnifico is much belov'd,
And hath in its effect a voice potential,
As *double* as the duke's. *Shakeſpeare.*

Deceitful; acting two parts, one openly, the other in ſecret.—Fifty thouſand could keep rank, that were not of *double* heart. 1 *Chron.* xii. 33.

I' th' preſence
He would ſay untruths, and be ever *double*
Both in his words and meaning. *Shakeſpeare.*

DO'UBLE, *adj.* Twice over.—I am not ſo old in proportion to them as I formerly was, which I can prove by arithmetic; for then I was *double* their age, which now I am not. *Swift.*

To DO'UBLE, *v. a.* To enlarge any quantity by addition of the ſame quantity.—This power of repeating or *doubling* any idea we have of any diſtance, and adding it to the former, as often as we will, without being ever able to come to any ſtop or ſtint, is that which gives us the idea of immenſity. *Locke.*

Rumour doth *double* voice and echo
The numbers of the fear'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

To contain twice the quantity:

Thus reinforc'd againſt the adverſe fleet,
Still *doubling* ours, brave Rupert leads the way. *Dryd.*

To repeat; to add:

He ſaw proud Arcite and fierce Palemon
In mortal battle *doubling* blow on blow;
Like lightning flam'd their falchions to and fro. *Dryd.*

To add one to another, in the ſame order or parallel.—Thou ſhalt *double* the curtain in the tabernacle. *Exodus.*—To fold:

He bought her ſermons, pſalms, and graces,
And *doubled* down the uſeful places. *Prior.*

To paſs round a headland.—Sailing along the coaſt, he *doubled* the promontory of Carthage, yet famous for the ruins of that proud city. *Knolles.*

To DO'UBLE, *v. n.* To increaſe to twice the quantity.—'Tis obſerved, in particular nations, that within the ſpace of three hundred years, notwithſtanding all caſualties, the number of men *double*. *Burnet.*—To enlarge the ſtake to twice the ſum in play:

Throw Egypt by, and offer in the ſtead;
Offer—the crown on Berenice's head:
I am reſolved to *double* till I win. *Dryden.*

To turn back, or wind in running.—Under the line the ſun croſſeth, and maketh two ſummers and two winters; but in the ſkirts of the torrid zone it *doubleth* and goeth back again, and ſo maketh one long ſummer. *Bacon.*

So keen thy hunters, and thy ſcent ſo ſtrong,
Thy turns and *doublings* cannot ſave thee long. *Swift.*

To play tricks; to uſe ſleights.

DO'UBLE, *ſ.* Twice the quantity or number.—If the thief be found, let him pay *double*. *Exodus.*—Strong beer; beer of twice the common ſtrength.—Here's a pot of good *double*, neighbour: drink, and fear not your man. *Shakeſpeare.*—A turn uſed to eſcape purſuit:

Man is frail,
Convulſions rack his nerves, and cares his breaſt;
His flying life is chas'd by rav'ning pains,
Through all his *doubles*, in the winding veins. *Blackm.*

A trick; a ſhift; an artifice.—Theſe men are too well acquainted with the chaſe, to be flung off by any falſe ſteps or *doubles*. *Addiſon.*—A fold; a duplicate.

DO'UBLE is much uſed in compoſition, generally for *doubly*, two ways; as, *double-edged*, having an edge on each ſide: or for twice the number or quantity; as, *double-died*, twice died.

DOU'BLE-BITING, *adj.* Biting or cutting on either ſide:

But moſt their looks on the black monarch bend,
His riſing muſcles and his brawn commend;
His *double-biting* ax, and beaming ſpear,
Each aſking a gigantic force to rear. *Dryden.*

DOU'BLE-BUTTONED, *adj.* Having two rows of buttons:

Others you ſee, when all the town's afloat,
Wrapt in th' embraces of a kerſey coat,
Or *double-button'd* frieze. *Gay.*

DOU'BLE-DEALER, *ſ.* A deceitful, ſubtle, inſidious fellow; one who acts two parts at the ſame time; one who ſays one thing and thinks another.—*Double-dealers* may paſs muſter for a while; but all parties waſh their hands of them in the concluſion. *L'Eſtrange.*

DOU'BLE-DEALING, *ſ.* Artifice; diſſimulation; low or wicked cunning; the action of one thing with the profeſſion of another.—Thou ſhalt not be the worſe for me; there's gold.—But that would be *double-dealing*, ſir. *Shakeſpeare.*—Our poets have joined together ſuch qualities as are by nature moſt compatable; valour with anger, meekneſs with piety, and prudence with diſſimulation: this laſt union was neceſſary for the goodneſs of Ulyſſes; for, without that, his diſſimulation might have degenerated into wickedneſs and *double-dealing*. *Broome.*

To DOU'BLE-DIE, *v. a.* To die twice over:

Yes, I'll to the royal bed,
Where firſt the myſteries of our love were acted,
And *double-die* it with imperial crimſon. *Dryden.*

DOU'BLE-FACED, *adj.* With two faces.—Fame, if not *double-fac'd*, is double-mouth'd. *Milton.*

DOU'BLE-FORM'ED, *adj.* Of mixed form:

Till firſt I know of thee,
What thing thou art, thus *double-form'd*. *Milton.*

DOU'BLE-FOUNTED, *adj.* Having two ſources:

Here the *double-founted* ſtream
Jordan, true limit eaſtward. *Milton.*

DOU'BLE-HANDED, *adj.* Having two hands.—All things being *double-handed*, and having the appearances both of truth and falſehood, where our affections have engaged us, we attend only to the former. *Glanville.*

DOU'BLE-HEAD'ED, *adj.* Having the flowers growing one to another.—The double rich ſcarlet nonſuch is a large *double-head* flower, of the richeſt ſcarlet colour. *Mortimer.*

DOU'BLE-ISLAND POINT, a cape on the north-eaſt coaſt of New Holland. Lat. 25. 58. S. lon. 153. 12. E. Greenwich.

To DOU'BLE-LOCK, *v. a.* To ſhoot the lock twice; to faſten with double ſecurity.—He immediately *double-locked* his door, and ſat down carefully to reading and comparing both his orders. *Tatler.*

DOU'BLE-MINDED, *adj.* Unſettled; undetermined.—A *double-minded* man is unſtable in all his ways. *James.*

DOU'BLE-MOUTHED, *adj.* With two different mouths.—See the example in DOUBLE-FACED.

DOU'BLE-PLEA, *ſ.* in law, is where a defendant allegeth for himſelf two ſeveral matters, in bar of the plaintiff's action, when one of them is ſufficient; which ſhall not be admitted: as if a man plead ſeveral things,

the one not depending upon the other, the plea is accounted double, and will not be allowed; but if they mutually depend on each other, and the party may not have the laſt plea without the firſt, then it ſhall be received. *Kitch.* 223. And where a double plea that is wrong, is pleaded; if the plaintiff reply thereto, and take iſſue of one matter; if that be found againſt him, he cannot afterwards move in arreſt of judgment; for by the replication it is allowed to be good. 18 *Ed.* IV. 17. If a man pleads two or more matters, when he is compelled to ſhew them, it makes not the plea double; ſo it is where two diſtinct things are pleaded, which require but one anſwer: and in caſe a man pleads two ſeveral matters or things, and only one is material, the other being ſurpluſage, and needing no anſwer, the plea is not double. *Hob.* 197. Where there are ſeveral inducements to a plea, they ſhall not make the plea double: and double pleas are allowable in aſſiſes of novel diſeiſin, &c. but not in other actions. *Jenk. Cent.* 75. By 4 Anne, c. 16, it ſhall be lawful for defendant or tenant in any action or ſuit, or for plaintiff in replevin, in any court of record, with the leave of the ſame court, to plead as many ſeveral matters thereto, as he ſhall think neceſſary for his defence. That is, in ſo many ſeparate and diſtinct pleas, and where there are more pleas than one. By virtue of this ſtatute, defendant is ſaid to plead double, by leave of the court.

DOU'BLE-QUARREL, *ſ.* in eccleſiaſtical law, is a complaint made to the archbiſhop of the province, againſt an inferior ordinary, for delaying or refuſing to do juſtice in ſome cauſe; as to give ſentence, inſtitute a clerk, &c. and ſeems to be termed a double quarrel, becauſe it is moſt commonly made againſt both the judge, and him at whoſe ſuit juſtice is denied or delayed: the effect whereof is, that the archbiſhop taking notice of the delay, directs his letters, under his authentical ſeal, to all clerks of his province, commanding them to admoniſh the ordinary within a certain number of days to do the juſtice required, or otherwiſe to appear before him or his official, and there allege the cauſe of his delay: and to ſignify to the ordinary, that if he neither perform the thing enjoined, nor appear and ſhew cauſe againſt it, he himſelf, in his court of audience, will forthwith proceed to do the juſtice that is due. *Cowel.*

DOU'BLE-SHI'NING, *adj.* Shining with double luſtre:

Among the reſt he there did take delight
To ſee the ſports of *double-ſhining* day. *Sidney.*

DOU'BLE-TON'GUED, *adj.* Deceitful; giving contrary accounts of the ſame thing.—The deacons muſt be grave, not *double-tongued*, not given to much wine, not greedy of filthy lucre. 1 *Tim.*

For much ſhe fear'd the Tyrians *double-tongu'd*,
And knew the town to Juno's care belong'd. *Dryden.*

DOU'BLENESS, *ſ.* The ſtate of being double.—If you think well to carry this as you may, the *doubleneſs* of the benefit defends the deceit from reproof. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOU'BLER, *ſ.* He that doubles any thing.

DOUB'LET, *ſ.* The inner garment of a man; the waiſtcoat: ſo called from being double for warmth, or becauſe it makes the dreſs double.—What a pretty thing a man is, when he goes in his *doublet* and hoſe, and leaves off his wit! *Shakeſpeare.*

They do but mimic ancient wits at beſt,
As apes our grandſires, in their *doublets* dreſt. *Pope.*

Two; a pair.—Thoſe *doublets* on the ſides of his tail ſeem to add ſtrength to the muſcles which move the tail fins. *Grew.*

DOUB'LETS, *ſ. pl.* The ſame number on both dice; thence alſo, a double meaning.—He commonly ſlurs every fourth or fifth word, and ſeldom fails to throw *doublets*. *Butler's Character of a Quibbler.*—Among antiquaries, two medals of the ſame ſort; alſo two books, &c. of the ſame ſort.

DOUB'LINGS, *ſ. pl.* Putting two files of ſoldiers into one. In heraldry, linings of robes, mantles of ſtate, or other garments. In hunting, the turnings of a hare to avoid the dogs.

DOUBLO'N, or DOUBLOON, *ſ.* [French.] A Spaniſh coin, containing the value of two piſtoles.

DOU'BLY, *adv.* In twice the quantity; to twice the degree:

Haply at night he does with horror ſhun
A widow'd daughter, or a dying ſon:
His neighbour's offſpring he to-morrow ſees,
And *doubly* feels his want in their increaſe. *Prior.*

DOUBS, or DOUX, a river of France, which riſes at the foot of mount Jura, paſſes by St. Hypolite, Clerval, Beſançon, Dole, &c. and loſes itſelf in the Saone, near Verdun.

DOUBS, a department of France, which takes its name from the river which paſſes through it; bounded on the north by the departments of the Upper Saone and Upper Rhine, on the eaſt by Swiſſerland, on the ſouth-weſt by the department of the Jura, and on the north-weſt by the department of the Upper Saone. Beſançon is the capital.

To DOUBT, *v. n.* [*doubter*, Fr. *dubito*, Lat.] To queſtion; to be in uncertainty.—Let no man, while he lives here in the world, *doubt* whether there is any hell or no, and thereupon live ſo, as if abſolutely there were none. *South.*—To queſtion any event, fearing the worſt:

Doubting things go ill, often hurts more
Than to be ſure they do. *Shakeſpeare.*

Sometimes with *of* in both the foregoing ſenſes:

Have I not manag'd my contrivance well,
To try your love, and make you *doubt of* mine? *Dryden.*

To fear; to be apprehenſive of ill.—If there were no fault in the title, I *doubt* there are too many in the body of the work. *Baker on Learning.*

I *doubt* there's deep reſentment in his mind,
For the late ſlight his honour ſuffer'd. *Otway.*

To ſuſpect; to have ſuſpicion:

The king did all his courage bend
Againſt thoſe four which now before him were,
Doubting not who behind him doth attend. *Daniel.*

To heſitate; to be in ſuſpenſe; to waver undetermined:

At firſt the tender blades of graſs appear,
And buds, that yet the blaſt of Eurus fear,
Stand at the door of life, and *doubt* to clothe the year. *Dryd.*

To DOUBT, *v. a.* To hold queſtionable; to think uncertain. To think endangered:

He from the terror of this arm ſo late
Doubted his empire. *Milton.*

To fear; to ſuſpect:

You that will be leſs fearful than diſcreet,
That love the fundamental part of ſtate,
More than you *doubt* the change of it, prefer
A noble life before a long. *Shakeſpeare.*

To diſtruſt; to hold ſuſpected:

To teach vain wits a ſcience little known,
T' admire ſuperior ſenſe, and *doubt* their own. *Pope.*

DOUBT, *ſ.* Uncertainty of mind; ſuſpenſe; undetermined ſtate of opinion.—Could any difficulty have been propoſed, the reſolution would have been as early as the propoſal; it could not have had time to ſettle into *doubt*. *South.*—Queſtion; point unſettled.—Hippocrates commends the fleſh of the wild ſow above the tame; and no *doubt* but the animal is more or leſs healthy, according to the air it lives in. *Arbuthnot.*—Scruple; perplexity; irreſolution:

Our *doubts* are traitors,
And make us loſe, by fearing to attempt,
The good we oft might win. *Shakeſpeare.*

Uncertainty of condition.—And thy life ſhall hang in *doubt* before thee; and thou ſhalt fear day and night, and ſhalt

ſhalt have no aſſurance of thy life. *Deut.*—Suſpicion; apprehenſion of ill.—I deſire to be preſent with you now, and to change my voice; for I ſtand in *doubt* of you. *Gal.* iv. 20.—Difficulty objected:

To every *doubt* your anſwer is the ſame,
It ſo fell out, and ſo by chance it came. *Blackmore.*

Peril:

However ſtrong and ſtout
They were, as well approv'd in many a *doubt*. *Spenſer.*

DOUBT'ER, *ſ.* One who entertains ſcruples; one who hangs in uncertainty.

DOUBT'FUL, *adj.* Dubious; not ſettled in opinion:

Methinks I ſhould know you, and know this man;
Yet I am *doubtful*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Ambiguous; not clear in its meaning: as, a *doubtful* expreſſion. That about which there is doubt, that which is not yet determined or decided; obſcure; queſtionable; uncertain.—In handling the right of a war, I am not willing to intermix matter *doubtful* with that which is out of doubt; for as in capital cauſes, wherein but one man's life is in queſtion, the evidence ought to be clear; ſo much more in a judgment upon a war, which is capital to thouſands. *Bacon.*—In *doubtful* caſes, reaſon ſtill determines for the ſafer ſide; eſpecially if the caſe be not only *doubtful*, but alſo highly concerning, and the venture be a ſoul, and an eternity. *South.*—Hazardous; of uncertain event:

We have ſuſtain'd one day in *doubtful* fight,
What heav'n's high Lord had pow'rfulleſt. *Milton.*

Not ſecure; not without ſuſpicion.—Our manner is always to caſt a *doubtful* and a more ſuſpicious eye towards that, over which we know we have leaſt power. *Hooker.*—Not confident; not without fear:

With *doubtful* feet, and wavering reſolution,
I come, ſtill dreading thy diſpleaſure. *Milton.*

Partaking different qualities:

Looks
Downcaſt and damp, yet ſuch wherein appear'd
Some glimpſe of joy, which on his count'nance caſt
Like *doubtful* hue. *Milton.*

DOUBT'FUL HARBOUR, a bay on the weſt coaſt of the ſouthernmoſt iſland of New Zealand, in the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 45. 16. S. lon. 168. 50. W. Greenwich.

DOUBT'FUL ISLAND, an iſland in the South Pacific Ocean, ſeen by Monſ. Bougainville. Lat. 17. 20. S. lon. 141. 38. W. Greenwich.

DOUBT'FULLY, *adv.* Dubiouſly; irreſolutely. Ambiguouſly; with uncertainty of meaning.—Knowing how *doubtfully* all allegories may be conſtrued, and this book of mine being a continual allegory, I have thought good to diſcover the general intention. *Spenſer.*

Nor did the goddeſs *doubtfully* declare
Her alter'd mind, and alienated care. *Dryden.*

Fearfully:

With that ſhe waked, full of fearfull fright,
And *doubtfully* diſmay'd through that ſo uncouth ſight.
Spenſer.

DOUBT'FULNESS, *ſ.* Dubiouſneſs; ſuſpenſe; inſtability of opinion.—Though *doubtfulneſs* or uncertainty ſeems to be a medium between certain truth and certain falſehood in our minds, yet there is no ſuch medium in things themſelves. *Watts.*—Ambiguity; uncertainty of meaning.—In arguing, the opponent uſes as comprehenſive and equivocal terms as he can, to involve his adverſary in the *doubtfulneſs* of his expreſſions: and therefore the anſwerer, on his ſide, makes it his play to diſtinguiſh as much as he can. *Locke.*—Hazard; uncertainty of event or condition.

DOUBT'INGLY, *adv.* In a doubting manner; dubiouſly; without confidence.—Whatſoever a man imagineth *doubtingly*, or with fear, muſt needs do hurt, if imagination have any power at all; for a man repreſenteth that oftener that he feareth, than the contrary. *Bacon.*

DOUBT'LESS, *adj.* Free from fear; void of apprehenſion of danger:

Pretty child, ſleep *doubtleſs* and ſecure,
That Hubert, for the wealth of all the world,
Will not offend thee. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOUBT'LESS, *adv.* Without doubt; without queſtion; unqueſtionably.—*Doubtleſs* he would have made a noble knight. *Shakeſpeare.*

Doubtleſs, oh gueſt! great laud and praiſe were mine,
If, after ſocial rites and gifts beſtow'd,
I ſtain'd my hoſpitable hearth with blood. *Pope.*

DOU'CET, *ſ.* [*doucet*, Fr.] A cuſtard.

DOU'CIN (Louis), a French Jeſuit, native of Vernon in Normandy, died at Orleans in 1726. His abilities and zeal pointed him out as a proper perſon to be employed at Rome, while the buſineſs of the conſtitution Unigenitus was in agitation. He was the author of A Hiſtory of Neſtorianiſm, in quarto, 1698, which is ably written and held in much eſtimation. He alſo publiſhed, A ſhort Memoir illuſtrative of the State and Progreſs of Janſeniſm in Holland; and a multitude of pamphlets on the Janſeniſtical controverſy.

DOUCK'ER, *ſ.* [from *to douck*, corrupted from *to duck*.] The diver. See COLYMBUS, vol. iv. p. 838.—The colymbi, or *douckers*, or loons, are admirably conformed for diving, covered with thick plumage, and their feathers ſo ſlippery that water cannot moiſten them. *Ray.*

DOU'DEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Cany; ſeven leagues north-north-weſt of Rouen.

DOVE, *ſ.* [from *duvo*, old Teut. *taub*, *daub*, Ger.] A ſpecies of wild pigeon. See COLUMBA, vol. iv. p. 815.—I have here a diſh of *doves*, that I will beſtow upon your worſhip. *Shakeſpeare.*

Not half ſo ſwift the trembling *doves* can fly,
When the fierce eagle cleaves the liquid ſky;
Not half ſo ſwiftly the fierce eagle moves,
When thro' the ſkies he drives the trembling *doves*. *Pope.*

The dove has always been eſteemed as one of the moſt pleaſing emblems of tenderneſs and affection. The dove and the rainbow have been rendered particularly intereſting, from the circumſtances of the deluge. Theſe were conſidered by the Hebrews as particularly favoured of heaven; whence the Samarim, or ſons of Cuſh, made the dove and the rainbow the ſacred ſtandard of the Deity. The patriarch Noah ſeems to have been the firſt who was in the gentile world typified under the emblem of a dove. He was a great prophet; and it was foretold at his birth, that he ſhould bring peace and comfort to mankind. The purport of his name is, *reſt from labour*. Hence the dove became the emblem of peace, as well as of the perſon through whom that bleſſing was to be derived to the earth. Thus the dove became a ſacred ſymbol, and was ſo acknowledged in the times of the pureſt worſhip. But the ſons of Ham perverted what was intended to be only typical, and at length made the dove the object of their idolatry. Under this name Juno was worſhipped by the Hetrurians. The firſt temple in memory of the ark was at Theba in Egypt; and as the dove was eſteemed the interpreter of the Deity, the prieſts of the temple were called *Iönah*, or doves. Thus the Iönic worſhip of the dove was brought into Greece, and temples every where erected for that purpoſe; the principal of which was at Dodona in Epirus. The women who officiated in theſe temples were called Πελειαι, and Πλειαδες; which the Latins rendered *columbæ*; whence Linnæus took his generic name for the dove. And as, among mariners, this bird was thought to be particularly auſpicious, they uſed anciently to let a dove or pigeon fly from their ſhips,

in order to judge, from its movements, of the ſucceſs of their voyage. The moſt favourable ſeaſon for ſetting ſail was ſuppoſed to be at the heliacal riſing of the ſeven ſtars near the head of Taurus, and they are in conſequence of it called *Pleiades*, or the doves.

With painters, the dove is an emblem of ſimplicity, innocence, purity, goodneſs, peace, and divine love, and repreſents the Holy Ghoſt. Having no gall, it is the ſymbol of a true and faithful Chriſtian, who forgives injuries, bears adverſity patiently, and ſuffers not the ſun to go down upon his anger.

DOVE, a river of England, in the county of Derby, which runs into the Trent, near Burton.

DOVE's-FOOT CRANE's-BILL. See GERANIUM.

DOUE', a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Saumur, on the Loire: there are the remains of an amphitheatre, which are by ſome ſuppoſed to be Roman, while others ſuppoſe them the remains of a palace of the ancient kings of Aquitaine. It contains about 800 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in a manufacture of druggets and tammies: nine miles ſouth-weſt of Saumur, and twenty ſouth of Angers.

DO'VECOT, *ſ.* A ſmall building in which pigeons are bred and kept.

DO'VEDRAWN, *part. adj.* Drawn by doves:

I met her deity,
Cutting the clouds tow'rds Paphos, and her ſon
Dovedrawn with her. *Shakeſpeare.*

DO'VEHOUSE, *ſ.* A houſe for pigeons.—The hawk ſets up for protector, and makes havock in the *dovehouſe*. *L'Eſtrange.*

DO'VEIN, a town of Egypt: ſeven miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Siut.

DO'VELIKE, *adj.* Like a dove.—*Dovelike* ſatſt brooding on the vaſt abyſs. *Milton.*

DO'VER, [ᵹeoɼɲa, Sax. of *dufyrra*, C. Br. a ſteep place, from the ſteep rocks not far from thence.] An ancient ſea-port town in the eaſtern part of the county of Kent, ſeventy-two miles from London, ſixteen from Canterbury, twenty-two from Margate, eleven from Sandwich, and eight from Deal. It is placed in a pleaſant valley, and the only one about this coaſt where water is admitted inwards of the cliff, which is here very high, and has a beautiful picturеſque appearance. The hill on which the caſtle is ſituated riſes with a bold aſcent to the northward of the town; and the venerable and famous fortreſs ſtill ſeems to bid defiance to its Gallic neighbours, the total change in the art of war ſince its erection has reduced its conſequence as a fortified ſtation very much indeed. A ſmall river runs through the valley, which paſſes through great part of the town, and from thence empties itſelf into the ſea. The delightful ſituation of Dover, the ſalubrity of the air, the purity of the ſea, and the advantages of a fine beach, has cauſed it to be much frequented in the bathing-ſeaſon. The ancient Britiſh name of Dover was *Dour*, the Saxon *Doppa*, the Roman *Dubris*; and the Watling-ſtreet, one of the ancient Roman roads which croſſed the kingdom, commenced here, going ſtrait to Canterbury, over Barham-downs, where it is very perfect. Dover at preſent conſiſts of two parts, of nearly equal ſize, connected by a long narrow ſtreet; the upper and moſt ancient part is called the Town; the lower part, the Pier. Dover is one of the principal cinque-ports incorporated by Edward I. The charter endowed them with many and great privileges, equally conducive to national commerce and ſecurity. Dover was anciently walled in, and had originally ten gates, a proof of its primitive opulence and ſplendour; it was firſt fortified in 1525. Eaſtbrook-gate ſtood under the Eaſt Cliff, near Mansfield's-corner. St. Helen's-gate next the former, towards the ſouth-weſt. The Poſtern, or Fiſher's-gate, near the bridge. Butcher's-gate, which opened towards the ſouth. Snare-gate, towards the ſouth-weſt, the ſcite of which (now called the Bench) was converted into a pavement for the merchants' meeting; and over it was the cuſtom-houſe. Severus's-gate, ſouth-weſt towards the pier, ſaid to have been built by the Roman emperor Severus. Adrian's-gate, called Upwall, on the lower ſide of the hill, on the weſt part, above the laſt-mentioned gate. Common-gate, or Cow-gate, on the way leading to the common. St. Martin's, called alſo Monk's-gate, and Poſtern gate, leading towards the hill. Biggen-gate, which laſt took its name from the ſtreet which ends there: it was anciently called North-gate.

The paſſage from Dover to France being the neareſt and ſafeſt from England, there was a law formerly, that none ſhould go to the continent but from thence. Dover was in a flouriſhing condition in the reign of Edward the Confeſſor, who made this town a body corporate, by the ſtile of mayor and commonalty, and the townſmen were called burgeſſes; amongſt whom the mayor choſe aſſiſtants for the year, who, being ſworn to faithful ſervice, were called jurats; which name and office is now common to all the cinque-ports, and ſome of the towns their dependents. This charter was renewed in the reign of Edward III. The laſt charter of Dover was granted by Charles II. There were formerly ſeven churches in this town; but five of them have been long ſince demoliſhed. The two now exiſting, are St. Mary the Virgin, and St. James's. St. Mary's was built by the prior and convent of St. Martin; and it may be worthy of notice, that the tower of this church was lately diſcovered (in digging a vault) to have been built upon the remains of an ancient Roman bath. In this town was formerly a houſe belonging to the knights templars, before their ſuppreſſion by Edward II. made memorable by being the place where king John made his diſgraceful ſubmiſſion to the Roman pontiff, by ſetting his ſeal to a deed, whereby he acknowledged himſelf to hold the crown of England of the pope.

Dover caſtle has been famous through many ages, and was formerly eſteemed the lock and key of the whole kingdom; it is very extenſive, upwards of thirty-five acres are ſuppoſed to be contained within the walls. As it is frequently aſſerted in our old chronicles, and from them tranſcribed into more general hiſtories, that Dover caſtle was built by Julius Cæſar, many who have viſited it have been ſatisfied with this idle report; but the works ſtill remaining bear evident marks of its having been raiſed in different and very diſtant periods of our hiſtory. The three leading characteriſtical parts of ground-plans and buildings are Roman, Saxon, and Norman. The fortifications about the caſtle underwent ſeveral material alterations in 1796. Of the new works, the moſt uſeful part is a battery of thirty-two-pounders, on a level with the water's edge. From this battery, if neceſſary, the men can retreat into the caſtle, aſcending by a perpendicular ſhaft which has been made through the ſolid rock. Here the Romans, under Julius Cæſar, attempted their firſt landing; but they were fruſtrated, and obliged to ſail about eight miles farther, towards the north; and landed near the high ground where Richborough caſtle was afterwards built.

Dover is incorporated by the name of the mayor, jurats, and commonalty, of the town and port of Dover; and ſends two members to the imperial parliament. Here is a good free-ſchool, eſtabliſhed in 1771, endowed by John Trevanion, eſq. member for Dover, for fifty boys, the ſons of freemen. There is alſo a charity-ſchool for forty-five boys and thirty-five girls, ſupported by voluntary contribution. It has a market every Wedneſday and Saturday; and one annual fair, which begins on the 22d of November, and continues three market-days. The packet-veſſels with the mail ſail conſtantly from this port for Calais and Oſtend in time of peace.

The juriſdiction of the cinque-ports is veſted in the conſtable of Dover caſtle, who ſhall not hold plea of any foreign county within the caſtle gates, except it concern the keeping of the caſtle; nor ſhall he diſtrain the inhabitants

bitants of the ports, to plead elſewhere or otherwiſe than as they ought, according to the charters, &c. 28 *Edw.* I. c. 7. See the article CINQUE-PORTS, vol. iv. p. 606.

DO'VER STRAITS. See STRAITS.

DO'VER, a townſhip of the American States, in Norfolk county, Maſſachuſetts, incorporated anno 1650: fifteen miles ſouthward of Boſton.

DO'VER, a conſiderable townſhip of the American States, in Strafford county, New Hampſhire, and the ſhire town of the county; ſituated on the ſouthern ſide of Cochecho river, about four miles above its junction with Salmon-fall river, which together form the Piſcataqua; ten miles ſouth-by-eaſt of Rocheſter, ſix from Berwick in Maine, and fourteen north-weſt by north from Portſmouth. The Indians named it Winichahanat, and Cochecho; by the firſt ſettlers, it was called Northam. It was incorporated in 1633. In this townſhip is a high neck of land, between the main branch of Piſcataqua and Back river, about two miles long, and half a mile wide, riſing gently along a fine road, and declining on each ſide, like a ſhip's deck. It commands an extenſive and variegated proſpect of the rivers, bays, adjacent ſhores, and diſtant mountains. It has often been admired by travellers as an elegant ſituation for a city, and by military gentlemen for a fortreſs. The firſt ſettlers pitched here, but the trade has long ſince been removed to Cochecho-falls; and this beautiful ſpot is almoſt deſerted of inhabitants. Lat. 43. 11. N. lon. 70. 50. W.

DO'VER, a townſhip of the American States, in Monmouth county, New Jerſey, between Shrewſbury and New Stafford, and extends from the ſea to the county line. It has but one church, the property of a generous and benevolent individual; who gives liberty to miniſters of all denominations to preach in it whenever they pleaſe.

DO'VER, a town of the American States, the metropolis of Delaware ſtate, in Kent county, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Jones's creek, about four miles and a half north-weſt from its mouth, in the Delaware; twelve miles from Duck creek, forty-eight from Wilmington, and ſeventy-ſix ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia. It contains four ſtreets, which interſect each other at right angles, in the center of the town. The area included within theſe interſections extends into a ſpacious parade, on the eaſt ſide of which is an elegant ſtate-houſe. It has a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia, chiefly in flour. Lat. 39. 10. N. lon. 75. 34. W.

DO'VER, a town of the American States, in York county, Pennſylvania, on Fox Run, which falls into Conewago creek, near its mouth, in the Suſquehannah. It contains a German Lutheran and Calviniſt church, united.

DOVE'RA, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Milan: twenty-four miles weſt of Milan.

DO'VETAIL, *ſ.* A form of joining two bodies together, where that which is inſerted has the form of a dove's tail, or wedge reverſed, and therefore cannot fall out.

DOUGH, *ſ.* [ðah, Sax. *deegh*, Dut.] The paſte of bread, or pies unbaked:

You that from pliant paſte would fabrics ariſe,
Expecting thence to gain immortal praiſe,
Your knuckles try, and let your ſinews know,
Their power to knead, and give the form to *dough*. *King.*

My cake is DOUGH. My affair has miſcarried; my undertaking has never come to maturity:

My cake is dough, but I'll in among the reſt;
Out of hope of all, but my ſhare of the feaſt. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOUGHBA'KED, *adj.* Unfiniſhed; not hardened to perfection; ſoft:

For when, through taſteleſs flat humility,
In *doughbak'd* men ſome harmleſſneſs we ſee,
'Tis but his phlegm that's virtuous, and not he. *Donne.*

DO'UGHTY, *adj.* [ðohtiȝ, Sax. *deught*, virtue, Dut.] Brave; noble; illuſtrious; eminent. Uſed of men and things:

Such reſtleſs paſſion did all night torment
The flatt'ning courage of that fairy knight,
Deviſing how that *doughty* tournament
With greateſt honour he achieven might. *Spenſer.*

It is now ſeldom uſed but ironically, or in burleſque.—If this *doughty* hiſtorian hath any honour or conſcience left, he ought to be pardoned. *Stillingfleet.*

She ſmil'd to ſee the *doughty* hero ſlain;
But, at her ſmile, the beau reviv'd again. *Pope.*

DOUGH'TY-HAND'ED, *adj.* Powerful:

I thank you all,
For *doughty-handed* are you. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOUGH'Y, *adj.* Unſound; ſoft; unhardened.—Your ſon was miſled with a ſnipt taffata fellow there, whoſe villainous ſaffron would have made all the unbaked and *doughy* youth of a nation in his colour. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOUGIELIS'KI, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: ſixteen miles north-north-eaſt of Wilna.

DOU'GLAS (Gawin), a Scotch prelate diſtinguiſhed for poetical talents, the third ſon of Archibald earl of Angus, born in 1474–5. He received a liberal education, firſt in his own country, and afterwards at the univerſity of Paris. On his return from his travels he entered into the church, and obtained the biſhopric of Dunkeld. Such was the violence of the times, that he was induced to retire into England; and as at that juncture war broke out between the two kingdoms, his enemies took advantage of his retreat to a hoſtile country, to repreſent him as a diſaffected perſon. A proſecution was commenced againſt him on this account, which ended in a ſentence of proſcription, and ſequeſtration of his epiſcopal revenues. He was reſpectfully received in England, and Henry VIII. granted him a liberal penſion, as a man of learning, and as a ſufferer for attachment to the Engliſh intereſt. He died of the plague at London in 1521, and was buried in the Savoy church. Biſhop Douglas has the merit of being a conſiderable improver of the language and verſification of his country, and Scottiſh poetry is indebted to him for a degree of elegance which, allowing for difference of dialect, places it on a level with the Engliſh of the time. In his youth he tranſlated Ovid *De Remedio Amoris*, not without a view, it is thought, to ſuggeſt to his own mind ſome defence againſt that importunate paſſion. But his greateſt work is a tranſlation of Virgil's Eneid, with the additional book of Mapheus Vegius, into Scottiſh heroic verſe. This is ſaid by Mr. Warton to have been the firſt metrical tranſlation of a claſſic in the language of Great Britain, unleſs one of Boethius can be called an exception. It was written about 1512, and was completed in the ſpace of ſixteen months. A new edition of this tranſlation was printed, with a gloſſary, at Edinburgh in 1710, ſmall folio. The biſhop likewiſe compoſed an original poem, intitled The Palice of Honour, which is a moral viſion in the manner of the Table of Cebes; and an allegorical poem called King Hart, firſt publiſhed in Mr. Pinkerton's Ancient Scottiſh Poems.

DOU'GLAS (James, M. D.) an able anatomiſt, born in Scotland in 1675. He ſettled in London, and made himſelf known by various writings. Haller, who was perſonally acquainted with him, calls him a learned and ſkilful man, and a very diligent diſſector. Beſides ſeveral papers in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, he wrote, 1. *Myographiæ Comparatæ Specimen*, or a Comparative Deſcription of all the Muſcles in a Man and a Quadruped, London, 1707, 12mo. which is the beſt myography extant down to his time, and is particularly accurate in the inſertions of the muſcles into the bones. 2. *Bibliographiæ Anatomicæ Specimen*, London, 1715, 8vo. a brief account, in Latin, of all anatomiſts from Hippocrates to Harvey, with their works and diſcoveries: of this an improved edition was publiſhed at Leyden in 1734. 3. A Deſcription of the Peritoneum, &c. London, 1730, 4to. an accurate and minute piece of anatomical examination. He alſo publiſhed, 4. A Hiſtory of the Lateral Operation for the Stone,

1726, 8vo. He had prepared a great work on hernias, for which he had made ſeveral figures, but he did not live to finiſh it. Dr. Douglas had the merit of patronizing the eminent anatomiſt Dr. John Hunter, who came from Scotland recommended to him in 1741. He died in 1742.

DOU'GLAS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Lanerk, on a ſmall river of the ſame name, which ſoon after runs into the Clyde, near which is Douglas Caſtle: eight miles ſouth of Lanerk.

DOU'GLAS, a ſea-port town of the Iſle of Man, ſituated in a large bay to which it gives name, in the Iriſh ſea, with a harbour for veſſels of tolerable burden; the trade and number of inhabitants have greatly increaſed within the laſt fifty years. Lat. 54. 9. N. lon. 4. 44. W. Greenwich.

DOU'GLAS, a townſhip of the American States, in Worceſter county, Maſſachuſetts, having the ſtate of Rhode Iſland on the ſouth, and that of Connecticut on the ſouth-weſt, and through it paſſes the middle road from Boſton to New York: ſixteen miles ſouth of Worceſter, and forty-ſeven ſouth-weſt of Boſton. It was incorporated anno 1746, and received its name in honour of William Douglas, M. D. of Boſton, a native of Scotland, and a conſiderable benefactor to the town.

DOU'GLAS, a townſhip of the American States, in Montgomery county, Pennſylvania.

DOUGLAS'SIA, *ſ.* [ſo named in honour of James Douglas, M. D.] In botany, a genus of the claſs polyadelphia, order polyandria. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, turbinate, half ſix-cleft, permanent; ſegments ovate, acute, coloured. Corolla: none; nectaries ſix, ovate on the outſide with two oblong pits, on the inſide convex, anther-bearing; terminated by two glands, convex without, concave within; ending at the bottom in a capillary pedicel, ſhorter than the calyx, inſerted at the baſe of the ſegments, with a villoſe gland on each ſide at the inſertion of it. Stamina: filaments none; antheræ very many, minute, one-celled, with the valve opening at the baſe. Piſtillum: germ ovate, ſuperior; ſtyle filiform, the length of the ſtamens; ſtigma ſix-cleft. Pericarpium: berry ovate, acute, one-celled. Seed: ſingle, with a brittle ſhell.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, half ſix-cleft; corolla, none; nectaries ſix; filaments none; germ ſuperior; ſtigma ſix-cleft; berry ovate, one-celled; ſeed, one, with a brittle ſhell. It is allied to Poroſtema; the fructification is extremely ſingular; the fruit aromatic.

Douglaſſia Guianenſis, or Guiana Douglaſſia; with alternate lanceolate leaves. This, the only ſpecies, is a middling ſized ſhrub, growing in Guiana; it is about five feet high, and branching at the top; its diameter five or ſix inches; the wood white and compact; the branches are ſubdivided into ſmaller ones; the flowers grow at their extremities in a kind of ſtraggling cluſters, and are ſmall and yelloviſh. See VOLKAMERIA.

DOU'GLEDY, a river of South Wales, which joins the Clethy, about three miles ſouth from Haverfordweſt, in the county of Pembroke.

DOU'LA BASSENDAR, a town of Aſia, in the country of Kemaoon: ſeventeen miles north of Lucknow.

DOU'LAINCOURT, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Joinville, ten miles ſouth-weſt of Joinville.

DOU'LENS, or DOURLENS, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Somme: fifteen miles north of Amiens, and eighteen ſouth-weſt of Arras.

DOU'LEVENT, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Joinville: three leagues ſouth-weſt of Joinville.

DOU'LON, a river of France, which runs into the Allier near Brioude.

DOUR'DAN, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Seine and Oiſe, on the Orge. The corn-market is large, and there are manufactures of worſted and ſilk-hoſe: twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Paris, and eight north of Eſtampes.

DOUR'GNE, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Caſtres: three leagues ſouth of Caſtres.

DOUR'LERS, or DOULERS, a town of France, in the department of the North, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Aveſnes: two leagues ſouth of Mauberge.

DOU'SA (Janus), properly *John Vanderdoes*, lord of Noortwyk in Holland, born in 1545. He ſtudied at Lier, Louvain, and Paris. On his return he had various employments; and, in 1574 was entruſted by the prince of Orange with the government of Leyden. He defended that city during its famous ſiege by the Spaniards, and obtained great reputation for his valour and conduct. Upon the foundation of the univerſity there, he was nominated its firſt curator; and he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as much by his learning at the head of a literary inſtitution, as he had done in his former poſt by his military qualities. He died of the plague in 1604. Douſa was the author of a number of Latin poems, conſiſting of epodes, epigrams, ſatires, elegies, &c. and ſix books of the Annals of Holland in elegiac verſe. This laſt has been printed ſeparately, with a commentary by Grotius. His verſes deſerve the praiſe of elegance and purity. He left four ſons, all of them proficients in letters. Of theſe the moſt celebrated was

JANUS DOUSA, *the Younger*, born in 1572. His extraordinary acquiſitions at a very tender age have given him a place among thoſe who became celebrated for literature in their childhood. He was a poet, a critic, a mathematician, and philoſopher. He wrote commentaries upon Plautus, in his ſixteenth year; and upon ſeveral other authors, at the age of nineteen. He afterwards acquired the knowledge of juriſprudence and hiſtory, and had been juſt appointed preceptor of Henry-Frederic prince of Orange, and firſt librarian to the univerſity of Leyden, when he was cut off in his twenty-ſixth year. His poems were collected after his death, and publiſhed at Leyden in 1607.

DOU'SABEL, [*Douce-et-belle*, Fr. ſweet and fair.] A proper name of women.

To DOUSE, *v. a.* [δυσις; but probably it is a cant word formed from the ſound.] To put over head ſuddenly in the water.

To DOUSE, *v. n.* To fall ſuddenly into the water:

It is no jeſting, trivial matter,
To ſwing i'th' air, or *douſe* in water. *Hudibras.*

DOU'TREMERE, *adj.* [Fr.] Brought from beyond ſea; ſeafaring, travelling beyond ſea. *Obſolete.*

DOUW (Gerard), an eminent painter of the Dutch ſchool, born in 1613 at Leyden, where his father was a glazier. His early inclination for painting cauſed him to be placed firſt with Dolendo, an engraver, then with Peter Kouwhoorn, a painter on glaſs; and, for farther improvement, he was ſent to ſtudy under Rembrandt. From that great maſter he imbibed the true principles of colouring, and a perfect knowledge of the chiaro-ſcuro; but, in other reſpects, he formed to himſelf a manner totally different. Douw excelled all the artiſts in exquiſite delicacy of finiſh. He copied after nature, and was not contented without rendering every object, however inconſiderable, with an exactneſs of imitation that would bear the cloſeſt inſpection. As he worked in ſmall ſize, the patience and labour required for ſuch minute accuracy may be conceived, as it has given a laſting value to his performances. The prices his pictures bore even in his own time and country were extraordinary, and at this time they are highly valued all over Europe. He died at Leyden in 1674. His works are diſperſed through the different cabinets of Europe.

DOUX. See DOUBS.

DO'VY, or DOUYE, a river of Wales, which riſes in the ſouth-eaſt part of Merionethſhire, paſſes by Machynlleth,

lleth, &c. and runs into the ſea, about ſeven miles north of Aberiſtwith.

DOUZE, a river of France, which runs into the Adour, near Tartas.

DOUZE, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne: ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Perigueux.

DOU'ZEPERE, *ſ.* [old Fr.] One of the twelve peers of France.—Big looking like a doughty *douzepere*. *Spenſer*.

DOU'ZY, a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Sedan: four miles eaſt of Sedan.

DOW'ABLE, *adj.* Entitled to dower.—A ſeiſin in law of the huſband will be as effectual as a ſeiſin in deed, in order to render the wife *dowable*. *Blackſtone*.

DOW'AGER, *ſ.* [*douairiere*, Fr.] A widow with a jointure.—Widows have a greater intereſt in property than either maids or wives; ſo that it is as unnatural for a *dowager* as a freeholder to be an enemy to our conſtitution. *Addiſon*.

She lingers my deſires,
Like to a ſtepdame or a *dowager*,
Long wintering on a young man's revenue. *Shakeſpeare*.

The title given to princeſſes or ladies who ſurvive their huſbands:

Catharine no more
Shall be call'd queen; but princeſs *dowager*,
And widow to prince Arthur. *Shakeſpeare*.

DOW'AGER (queen), the widow of a king, and as ſuch enjoys in England moſt of the privileges belonging to her as queen conſort. But it is not high treaſon to conſpire her death, or violate her chaſtity; becauſe the ſucceſſion to the crown is not thereby endangered. But no man can marry her, without ſpecial licence from the king, on pain of forfeiting his lands and goods. 2 *Inſt.* 18. 1 *Comm.* 223.

DOW'CETS, *ſ. pl.* The *teſtes* of deer.—I gave them all the ſweet morſels, call'd tongue, ears, and *dowcets*. *Ben Jonſon*.

DOW'DY, *ſ.* An awkward, ill-dreſſed, inelegant, woman.—Laura, to his lady, was but a kitchen wench; Dido, a *dowdy*; Cleopatra, a gipſy; Helen and Hero, ſlidings and harlots. *Shakeſpeare*.

The bedlam train of lovers uſe
T' inhance the value, and the faults excuſe;
And therefore 'tis no wonder if we ſee
They doat on *dowdies* and deformity. *Dryden*.

DOW'DY, *adj.* Awkward:

No houſewifery the *dowdy* creature knew;
To ſum up all, her tongue confeſs'd the ſhrew. *Gay*.

DOW'ER, or DOWERY, *ſ.* [*douaire*, Fr.] That which the wife bringeth to her huſband in marriage:

His wife brought in *dow'r* Cilicia's crown,
And in herſelf a greater *dow'r* alone. *Dryden*.

Rich, though depriv'd of all her little ſtore,
For who can ſeize fair virtue's better *dow'r*? *Melmoth*.

That which the widow poſſeſſes.—His patrimonial territories of Flanders were in *dower* to his mother-in-law. *Bacon*.—The gifts of a huſband for a wife.—Aſk me never ſo much *dowery* and gift, and I will give according as you ſhall ſay unto me; but give me the damſel to wife. *Gen.* xxxiv. 12.—Endowment; gift:

What ſpreading virtue, what a ſparkling fire,
How great, how plentiful, how rich a *dow'r*,
Doſt thou within this dying fleſh inſpire! *Davies*.

DOW'ER, *ſ.* [*dotarium*, Lat.] In law, the portion which a widow hath of the lands of her huſband after his deceaſe, for the ſuſtenance of herſelf, and education of her children. 1 *Inſt.* 30. There were formerly five kinds of dower in this kingdom. 1. Dower by the common law; which is a third part of ſuch lands or tenements whereof the huſband was ſole ſeiſed in fee-ſimple, or fee-tail, during the coverture; and this the widow is to enjoy during her life. 2. Dower by cuſtom; which is that part of the eſtate to which the widow is entitled after the death of her huſband, by the cuſtom of any manor or place, ſo long as ſhe lives ſole and chaſte; and this is more than one-third part, for in ſome places ſhe ſhall have half the land, as by the cuſtom of gavelkind; and in divers manors the widow ſhall have the whole during her life, which is called her free-bench: but as cuſtom may enlarge, ſo it may abridge, dower to a fourth part. *Co. Litt.* 33. 3. *Dower ad oſtium eccleſiæ*; made by the huſband himſelf immediately after the marriage, who named ſuch particular lands of which his wife ſhould be endowed. *Co. Litt.* 34. 4. *Dower ex aſſenſu patris*, a ſpecies of the *dower ad oſtium eccleſiæ*; which was likewiſe of certain lands named by a ſon who was the huſband, with the conſent of his father then living, and put in writing as ſoon as the ſon was married. *Litt.* 40. 5. *Dower de la pluis belle*; which was where the wife was endowed with the faireſt part of her huſband's eſtate. But of all kinds of dower, the two firſt are now only in uſe.

A woman to be endowed muſt be the actual wife of the party at the time of his deceaſe. If ſhe be divorced *à vinculo matrimonii*, ſhe ſhall not be endowed; for *ubi nullum matrimonium, ibi nulla dos*. *Bract.* lib. ii. c. 39. But a divorce *à menſa et thoro* only, doth not deſtroy the dower, *Co. Litt.* 32. no, not even for adultery itſelf by the common law. Yet now, by ſtat. Weſtm. 2. 13 Edw. I. c. 34. if a woman voluntarily leaves (which the law calls eloping from) her huſband, and lives with an adulterer, ſhe ſhall loſe her dower, unleſs her huſband be voluntarily reconciled to her. And, in a caſe where John de Camoys had aſſigned his wife by deed, it was decided in parliament, that, notwithſtanding the pretended purgation of the adultery in the ſpiritual court, the wife was not entitled to dower. 2 *Inſt.* 435. If, however, after the elopement of a wife, her huſband and ſhe demean themſelve as huſband and wife, it is evidence of reconciliation. *Dyer* 106. Lady Powys's caſe, where the reconciliation was ſpecially pleaded and allowed. It was formerly held, that the wife of an ideot might be endowed, though the huſband of an ideot could not be tenant by the curteſy. *Co. Litt.* 31. But, as it ſeems to be at preſent agreed, upon principles of ſound ſenſe and reaſon, that an ideot cannot marry, being incapable of conſenting to any contract, this doctrine cannot now take place. By the ancient law the wife of a perſon attainted of treaſon or felony could not be endowed; to the intent, ſays Staundforde, b. 3. c. 3. that if the love of a man's own life cannot reſtrain him from ſuch atrocious acts, the love of his wife and children may: though Britton, c. 110. gives it another turn; viz. that it is preſumed the wife was privy to her huſband's crime. However, the ſtat. 1 Edw. VI. c. 12. abated the rigour of the common law in this particular, and allowed the wife her dower. But a ſubſequent ſtat. 5 & 6 Edw. VI. c. 11. revived the ſeverity againſt the widows of traitors, who are now barred of their dower; (except in the caſe of certain treaſons relating merely to the coin; 5 Eliz. c. 11. 18 Eliz. c. 1. 8 & 9 Will. III. c. 26. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 28.); but the widows of felons are not barred. An alien alſo cannot be endowed unleſs ſhe be queen conſort; for no alien is capable of holding lands. *Co. Litt.* 31.

The wife of a man who is baniſhed ſhall have dower in his life-time; it is held otherwiſe, if he is profeſſed in religion: and a jointreſs of a baniſhed huſband ſhall enjoy her jointure, in his life. *Co. Litt.* 133. If a woman be of the age of nine years at the death of her huſband, ſhe ſhall be endowed of whatſoever age he is; becauſe, after the death of the huſband, the marriage is adjudged lawful. *Co. Litt.* 33. The wife of a *felo de ſe* ſhall have dower. So if the huſband be outlawed in treſpaſs, or any civil action, for this works no corruption of blood or forfeiture of lands. *Perk.* 388. If a woman being a lunatic kill her huſband, yet ſhe ſhall be endowed, becauſe this cannot be felony in her who was deprived of her underſtanding by the act of God; ſo, though ſhe be of ſound mind, and

refuſe

refuſe to bring an appeal of his death, when he is killed by another, yet ſhe ſhall be endowed; for this is only a waver of that privilege the law has given her to be avenged of her huſband's murderer; ſo it ſeems if ſhe refuſe to viſit and aſſiſt her huſband in his ſickneſs, yet ſhe ſhall be endowed, for this is only undutifulneſs, which the law does not puniſh with the loſs of her entire ſubſiſtence. *Perk.* 364.

If a man take an alien to wife and dieth, ſhe ſhall not be endowed, except the wife of the king, who ſhall be endowed by the law of the crown. And if a Jew born in England marry a Jeweſs alſo born here, the huſband becomes a Chriſtian, purchaſes lands and dies; the wife, not being alſo a Chriſtian, ſhall not have dower. 1 *Inſt.* 31. *b.*

In Hargrave's edition of Co. Litt. the latter part of the above is confirmed; as to the former, there is the following remarkable note: Anciently a woman alien was not dowable; but, by ſpecial act of parliament not printed, Rot. Parl. 8 Hen. V. n. 15. all women aliens who from thenceforth ſhould be married to Engliſhmen by licence of the king, are enabled to demand their dower after the death of their huſbands, to whom they ſhould in time to come be married, in the ſame manner as Engliſh women. But this act did not extend to thoſe married before; and therefore, in Rot. Parl. 9 Hen. V. n. 9. there is a ſpecial act of parliament to enable Beatrice counteſs of Arundel, born in Portugal, to demand her dower. *Hal.* MSS. 9 *Vin.* 210.

A woman is now by law entitled to be endowed of all lands and tenements, of which her huſband was ſeiſed in fee-ſimple, or fee-tail general, at any time during the coverture; and of which any iſſue, which ſhe might have had, might by poſſibility have been heir. Therefore if a man, ſeiſed in fee-ſimple, has a ſon by his firſt wife, and afterwards marries a ſecond wife, ſhe ſhall be endowed of his lands; for her iſſue might by poſſibility have been heir, on the death of the ſon by the former wife. But, if there be a donee in ſpecial tail, who holds lands to him and the heirs of his body begotten on A. his wife; though A. may be endowed of theſe lands, yet if A. dies, and he marries a ſecond wife, that ſecond wife ſhall never be endowed of the lands entailed; for no iſſue, that ſhe could have, could by any poſſibility inherit them. *Litt.* 53. But in caſe land be given to the huſband and wife in tail, the remainder in tail to the huſband, and the firſt wife dying without iſſue, he marries another wife; this ſecond wife will be entitled to dower after his death. 40 *Edw.* III. c. 4. 2 *Shep. Abr.* 63. For here he hath an eſtate in tail. The wife of a tenant in common, but not a joint-tenant, ſhall have dower; and ſhe ſhall hold her part in common with the tenants in common. *Kitch.* 160.

A ſeiſin in law of the huſband will be as effectual as a ſeiſin in deed, in order to render the wife dowable; for it is not in the wife's power to bring the huſband's title to an actual ſeiſin, as it is in the huſband's power to do with regard to the wife's lands; which is one reaſon why he ſhall not be a tenant by the curteſy, but of ſuch lands whereof the wife, or he himſelf in her right, was actually ſeiſed in deed. *Co. Litt.* 31. The ſeiſin of the huſband, for a tranſitory inſtant only, when the ſame act which gives him the eſtate conveys it alſo out of him again, (as where by a fine land is granted to a man, and he immediately renders it back by the ſame fine,) will not entitle the wife to dower. *Cro. Jac.* 615. *Co. Litt.* 31. for the land was merely *in tranſitu*, and never veſted in the huſband, the grant and render being one continued act. But, if the land abide in him for the interval of but one ſingle moment, it ſeems that the wife ſhall be endowed thereof. And, in ſhort, a widow may be endowed of all her huſband's lands, tenements, and hereditaments, corporeal or incorporeal, under the reſtrictions before mentioned; unleſs there be ſome ſpecial reaſon to the contrary. Thus, a woman ſhall not be endowed of a caſtle, built for defence of the realm; nor of a common without ſtint; for, as the heir would then have one portion of this common, and the widow another, and both without ſtint, the common would be doubly ſtocked. Copyhold eſtates are alſo not liable to dower, being only eſtates at the lord's will, unleſs by the ſpecial cuſtom of the manor, in which caſe it is uſually called the *widow's free-bench.* 4 *Rep.* 22. But where dower is allowable, it matters not though the huſband alien the lands during the coverture; for he aliens them liable to dower. *Co. Litt.* 32.

It is now ſettled, that although the huſband may be tenant by the curteſy of a truſt eſtate of inheritance, the wife is not entitled to dower out of ſuch an eſtate. 3 *P. Wms.* 229. The reaſon aſſigned for this is, that the wife was not endowed of a uſe at common law. And from analogy to truſts, it has been determined that a wife ſhall not be endowed of an equity of redemption, where the eſtate was mortgaged in fee by the huſband previous to the marriage. 1 *Bro. C. R.* 326. If lands are exchanged by the huſband for other lands, the wife may be endowed of which lands ſhe will, as the huſband was ſeiſed of both; though ſhe may not be endowed of the lands given and taken in exchange. *Co. Lit.* 31.

Where the eſtate, which the huſband hath during the marriage, is ended, there the wife ſhall loſe her dower. *New Nat. Br.* 333. But of an eſtate-tail in lands determined, a woman ſhall be endowed; in like manner as a man may be tenant by the curteſy of her lands. *Co. Lit.* 31. And if a wife be endowed of her third part, and afterwards evicted by an elder title, ſhe ſhall have a new writ of dower, and be endowed of the other lands. 2 *Danv. Abr.* 670. Though this is, where it is the immediate eſtate deſcended to the heir; and not when it is the eſtate of an alienee. 9 *Rep.* 17. The wife is dowable where lands are recovered againſt the huſband by default or covin; and a woman deforced of her dower ſhall recover damages, viz. the value of her dower from her huſband's death. 13 *Edw.* I. 20 *Hen.* III. If the huſband doth not die ſeiſed, after demand and refuſal to aſſign dower to her, ſhe ſhall have damages from the time of the refuſal. *Jenk. Cent.* 45. She ſhall be endowed of a reverſion, expectant on a term of years; and of a rent reſerved thereon. *Lutw.* 729. If the huſband hath only an eſtate for life, remainder to another in tail, though the remainder over is to his heirs, the wife ſhall not be endowed. 2 *Danv.* 656. A woman ſhall not be endowed of the goods of her huſband; nor of a caſtle, or capital meſſuage; but of all other lands and tenements ſhe may. *Co. Lit.* 35.

A grantee of a rent in fee or tail, dies without heir, his wife ſhall be endowed; but not where the rent ariſes upon a reſervation to the donor and his heirs, on a gift in tail, and the donee dies without iſſue; for this is a collateral limitation. *Plowd.* 156. If during the coverture, the huſband doth extinguiſh rents by releaſe, &c. yet ſhe ſhall be endowed of them; for as to her dower in the eye of the law, they have continuance. *Co. Lit.* 32. And where a rent is deſcended to the huſband but he dies before any day of payment; notwithſtanding the wife ſhall be endowed of it. 1 *Hen.* VII. 17. If lands are given to the huſband and wife in tail, and after the death of the huſband, the wife diſagrees, ſhe may recover her dower; for by her waving her eſtate, her huſband in judgment of law was ſole ſeiſed *ab initio.* 3 *Rep.* 27. If lands are improved, the wife is to have one third according to the improved value. And if the ground delivered her be ſowed, ſhe ſhall have the corn. 2 *Inſt.* 81.

Dower is an inſeparable incident to an eſtate in tail or fee, and cannot be taken away by condition. If one ſeiſed in fee of lands make a gift in tail, on condition that the wife ſhall not have dower, the condition is void. 6 *Rep.* 41. If tenant in tail die without iſſue, ſo that the land reverts to the donor; or in caſe he covenants to ſtand ſeiſed to uſes, and dies, his wife will be endowed: and a deviſe of land by the huſband to his wife by will is no bar of her dower, but a benevolence. *Yelv.* 51. A perſon grants and conveys land to D. and his heirs, on condition, to re-demiſe the ſame back, &c. which afterwards

wards he does, and dies; here D's widow may nevertheleſs be endowed. *Abr. Caſ.* 217. A. is tenant in tail of lands, the remainder to B. in tail, remainder to A. in fee; if A. bargains and ſells the land to C. and his heirs, the wife of the bargainee ſhall have dower, determinable upon the death of the tenant in tail. 10 *Rep.* 96. And if a feoffment be made upon a condition to reinfeoff, and the feoffee take a wife, ſhe may have her dower till reinfeoffment, or an entry made for not doing it: and ſo it is of other defeaſible eſtates. *Perk.* 420. If one be diſſeiſed, and after doth marry, if he die before entry, his wife ſhall not have dower: and where a perſon recovers land in a real action, and before his entry or execution made he dieth, the wife ſhall not be endowed of this land. 2 *Rep.* 56. In theſe caſes the huſband was not actually ſeiſed; for, as before obſerved, where there is a ſeiſin in law, ſhe ſhall be endowed. So that theſe caſes depend on the conſtruction of what is, and what is not, a ſeiſin in law.

Although of copyhold lands a woman ſhall not be endowed, unleſs there be a ſpecial cuſtom for it; yet if there be a cuſtom to be endowed thereof, then ſhe ſhall have the aſſiſtance of ſuch laws as are made for the more ſpeedy recovery of dower in general, being within the ſame miſchief, and therefore ſhall recover damages within the ſtatute of Merton. 4 *Co.* 22. Of tithes women were not dowable till 32 Hen. VIII. c. 7; for before that ſtatute tithes were not a lay fee, but now they are dowable of them. *Style's P. R.* 122. 1 *Rol. Abr.* 682. Of an advowſon, be it appendant or in groſs, a woman ſhall be endowed; for this may be divided as to the fruit and profit of it, viz. to have the third preſentation. *Co. Litt.* 32. 3 *Leon.* 155.

By the old law, grounded on the feodal exactions, a woman could not be endowed without a fine paid to the lord: neither could ſhe marry again without his licence; leſt ſhe ſhould contract herſelf, and ſo convey part of the feud, to the lord's enemy. This licence the lord took care to be well paid for; and, as it ſeems, would ſometimes force the dowager to a ſecond marriage, in order to gain the fine. But to remedy theſe oppreſſions, it was provided, firſt by the famous charter of Hen. I. A. D. 1101, and afterwards by Magna Charta, that the widow ſhall pay nothing for her marriage, nor ſhall be diſtrained to marry afreſh, if ſhe chooſes to live without a huſband; but ſhall not, however, marry againſt the conſent of the lord; and farther, that nothing ſhall be taken for aſſignment of the widow's dower, but that ſhe ſhall remain in her huſband's capital manſion-houſe for forty days after his death, during which time her dower ſhall be aſſigned. Theſe forty days are called the widow's quarantine; a term made uſe of in law to ſignify the number of forty days, whether applied to this occaſion or any other. The particular lands, to be held in dower, muſt be aſſigned, by the heir of the huſband, or his guardian; not only for the ſake of notoriety, but alſo to entitle the lord of the fee to demand his ſervices of the heir, in reſpect of the land ſo holden. For the heir by this entry becomes tenant thereof to the lord, and the widow is immediate tenant to the heir, by a kind of ſub-infeudation, or under-tenancy, completed by this inveſtiture or aſſignment; which tenure may ſtill be created, notwithſtanding the ſtatute of *quia-emptores*, becauſe the heir parts, not with the fee-ſimple, but only with an eſtate for life. If the heir or his guardian do not aſſign her dower within the time of quarantine, or do aſſign it unfairly, ſhe has her remedy at law, and the ſheriff is appointed to aſſign. *Co. Litt.* 34, 5. Or if the heir (being under age) or his guardian, aſſign more than ſhe ought to have, it may be afterwards remedied by a writ of admeaſurement of dower. *Finch L.* 314. If the thing of which ſhe is endowed be diviſible, her dower muſt be ſet out by metes and bounds, but if it be indiviſible, ſhe muſt be endowed ſpecially; as of the third preſentation to a church, the third toll-diſh of a mill, the third part of the profits of an office, the third ſheaf of tithe, and the like. *Co. Litt.* 32.

The aſſignment of the lands is for the life of the woman; and if lands are aſſigned to a woman for years, in recompenſe of dower, this is no bar of dower; for it is not ſuch an eſtate therein as ſhe ſhould have. 2 *Danv. Abr.* 668. Alſo where other land is aſſigned to the woman, that is no part of the lands wherein ſhe claims dower; that aſſignment will not be good or binding: for there muſt be certainty in what is aſſigned; otherwiſe, though it be by agreement, it may be void. 1 *Inſt.* 34. If a wife accept and enter upon leſs land than the third of the whole, on the ſheriff's aſſignment, ſhe is barred to demand more. But if, where a wife is entitled to dower of the lands of her firſt huſband, her ſecond huſband accepts of this dower leſs than her third part, after his death ſhe may refuſe the ſame, and have her full third part. *Fitz. Dower*, 121.

If a wife, having right of dower in the land, accept of a leaſe for years thereof after the death of her huſband, it ſuſpends the dower; though not ſuch acceptance of a leaſe before the huſband's death; for then the wife has only a title to have dower, and not an immediate right of dower. *Jenk. Cent.* 15. A widow accepting of dower of the heir, againſt common right, ſhall hold it ſubject to the charges of her huſband; but otherwiſe it is if ſhe be endowed againſt common right by the ſheriff. 2 *Danv.* 672. By proviſion of law, the wife may take a third part of the huſband's lands, and hold them diſcharged. If dower be aſſigned a woman on condition, or with an exception, the condition and exception are void. *Cro. Eliz.* 541. Where there are three manors, one of them may be aſſigned to the wife in dower in lieu of dower in all three; though it is ſaid that a third part of every manor ought to be aſſigned. *Moor* 12, 47. The ſheriff may aſſign a rent out of the land in lieu of dower; and her acceptance of the rent will bar dower out of the ſame land, but not of other lands. 1 *Nelſ. Abr.* 680.

A woman entitled to dower cannot enter till it be aſſigned to her, and ſet out either by the heir, turtenant or ſheriff, in certainty. *Plowd.* 529. None can aſſign dower but thoſe who have a freehold, or againſt whom a writ of dower lies; therefore a tenant by ſtatute merchant, ſtatute ſtaple, or *elegit*, or leſſee for years, cannot aſſign dower, for none of theſe have an eſtate large enough to anſwer the plaintiff's demand. *Co. Litt.* 35. If a woman be dowable of land, meadow, paſture, wood, &c. and any of theſe be aſſigned in lieu of dower of all the reſt, it is good, though it be againſt common right, which gives her but the third part of each, for the heir's enjoyment of the reſidue ſufficiently accounts for her title to what ſhe has. 1 *Rol. Abr.* 683. If lands whereof a woman hath no right to be endowed, or a rent out of ſuch lands be aſſigned in lieu of her dower, this does not bar her demand of dower, for ſhe, having no manner of title to thoſe lands, cannot without livery and ſeiſin be any more than tenant at will, which is no ſufficient recompenſe for an eſtate for life, which her dower was to be. *Co. Litt.* 169. If the heir within age aſſign to the wife more land in dower than ſhe ought to have, he himſelf ſhall have a writ of admeaſurement of dower at full age by the common law. If the wife, after aſſignment of dower, improves the lands, ſo as thereby they become of greater value than the other two parts, no writ of admeaſurement lies; ſo if they be of greater value, by reaſon of mines open at the time of the aſſignment, no writ of admeaſurement lies, becauſe the land in quantity was no more than ſhe ought to have; and then it is lawful to work the mines, which were open at the time of ſuch aſſignment. 2 *Inſt.* 368. 5 *Co.* 12.

Upon preconcerted marriages, and in eſtates of conſiderable conſequence, tenancy in dower happens very ſeldom: for the claim of the wife to her dower at the common law, diffuſing itſelf ſo extenſively, it became a great clog to alienations, and was otherwiſe very inconvenient to families. Wherefore ſince the alteration of the ancient

law reſpecting dower *ad oſtium eccleſiæ*, which has occaſioned the entire diſuſe of that ſpecies of dower, jointures have been introduced in their ſtead, as a bar to the claim at common-law. A widow may be barred of her dower, not only by elopement, divorce, being an alien, the treaſon of her huſband, and other diſabilities beforementioned, but alſo by detaining the title deeds, or evidences of the eſtate from the heir, until ſhe reſtores them. Though if ſhe denies the detainer, and it is found againſt her, ſhe loſes her dower. By the ſtat. of Glouceſter, 6 Edw. I. c. 7, if a dowager aliens the land aſſigned her for dower, ſhe forfeits it *ipſo facto*, and the heir may recover it by action. A woman alſo may be barred of her dower, by levying a fine with her huſband, or ſuffering a recovery of the lands during her coverture. *Plowd.* 514. But the moſt uſual method of barring dower, is by jointures, as regulated by the ſtat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 10.

A jointure, which, ſtrictly ſpeaking, ſignifies a joint-eſtate, limited to both huſband and wife, but in common acceptation extends alſo to a ſole eſtate, limited to the wife only, is thus defined by Coke, 1 *Inſt.* 36. "A competent livelihood of freehold for the wife, of lands and tenements; to take effect, in profit or poſſeſſion, preſently after the death of the huſband; for the life of the wife at leaſt." This deſcription is framed from the ſtat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 10, commonly called the *ſtatute of Uſes*. Before the making of that ſtatute, the greateſt part of the land in England was conveyed to uſes; the property or poſſeſſion of the ſoil being veſted in one man, and the uſe, and profits thereof, in another; whoſe directions, with regard to the diſpoſition thereof, the former was in conſcience obliged to follow, and might be compelled by a court of equity to obſerve. Now, though a huſband had the uſe of lands in abſolute fee-ſimple, yet the wife was not entitled to any dower therein; he not being ſeiſed thereof: wherefore it became uſual, on marriage, to ſettle by expreſs deed ſome ſpecial eſtate to the uſe of the huſband and his wife, for their lives, in joint-tenancy, or jointure; which ſettlement would be a proviſion for the wife, in caſe ſhe ſurvived her huſband. At length the ſtatute of uſes ordained, that ſuch as had the uſe of lands, ſhould, to all intents and purpoſes, be reputed and taken to be abſolutely ſeiſed and poſſeſſed of the ſoil itſelf. In conſequence of which legal ſeiſin, all wives would have become dowable of ſuch lands as were held to the uſe of their huſbands, and alſo entitled at the ſame time to any ſpecial lands that might be ſettled in jointure: had not the ſame ſtatute provided, that upon making ſuch an eſtate in jointure to the wife before marriage, ſhe ſhall be for ever precluded from her dower. 4 *Rep.* 1. 2. But in this caſe, theſe four requiſites muſt be punctually obſerved.—1. The jointure muſt take effect immediately on the death of the huſband.—2. It muſt be for the life of the wife herſelf at leaſt, and not *pur auter vie*, or for any term of years, or other ſmaller eſtate.—3. It muſt be made to herſelf, and no other in truſt for her.—4. It muſt be made in ſatisfaction of her whole dower, and not of any particular part of it, and muſt be ſo expreſſed to be in the deed; or it may be averred to be ſo. 1 *Inſt.* 366.

If the jointure be made to her after marriage, ſhe has her election, after her huſband's death, as in dower *ad oſtium eccleſiæ*, and may either accept it, or refuſe it, and betake herſelf to her dower at common law, for ſhe was not capable of conſenting to it during coverture. So where a deviſe is expreſſed to be given in lieu and ſatisfaction of dower, or where that is the clear and manifeſt intention of the teſtator, the wife ſhall not have both, but ſhall have her choice. 1 *Inſt.* 366. If, by any fraud, or accident, a jointure made before marriage proves to be on a bad title, and the jointreſs is evicted, or turned out of poſſeſſion, ſhe ſhall then (by the proviſions of the ſame ſtat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 10,) have her dower *pro tanto* at the common law. If a woman who is under age at the time of marriage, agrees to a jointure and ſettlement in bar of her dower, and of her diſtributive ſhare of her huſband's perſonal property, in caſe he dies inteſtate; ſhe cannot afterwards wave it; but is as much bound as if ſhe were of age at the time of the marriage. *Drury* v. *Drury*, (or *Buckingham* E. v. *Drury*,) 3 *Bro. P. C.* 492.

There are ſome advantages attending tenants in dower that do not extend to jointreſſes; and ſo *vice verſâ*, jointreſſes are in ſome reſpects more privileged than tenants in dower. Tenant in dower by the old common law, is ſubject to no tolls or taxes; and her's is almoſt the only eſtate on which, when derived from the king's debtor, the king cannot diſtrain for his debt, if contracted during the coverture. *Co. Litt.* 31 *a.* But on the other hand, a widow may enter at once, without any formal proceſs, on her jointure land, as ſhe alſo might have done on dower *ad oſtium eccleſiæ*, which a jointure in many points reſembles; and the reſemblance was ſtill greater, while that ſpecies of dower continued in its primitive ſtate; whereas no ſmall trouble, and a very tedious method of proceeding, is neceſſary to compel a legal aſſignment of dower. *Co. Litt.* 36. And what is more, though dower be forfeited by the treaſon of the huſband, yet lands ſettled in jointure remain unimpeached to the widow. Wherefore Coke very juſtly gives it the preference, as being more ſure and ſafe to the widow, than even dower *ad oſtium eccleſiæ*, the moſt eligible ſpecies of any. 2 *Comm.* 135. An additional advantage is, that a jointure is not forfeited by the adultery of the wife as dower; and Chancery will decree againſt the huſband a performance of marriage articles, though he alleges and proves that the wife lives ſeparate from him in adultery. 3 *P. Wms.* 269.

If a woman takes a leaſe for life of her huſband's lands after his death, ſhe ſhall have no dower, becauſe ſhe cannot demand it againſt herſelf; and if ſhe takes a leaſe for years only, yet ſhe ſhall not ſue to have dower during theſe years, becauſe it was her own act to ſuſpend the fruit and effect of her dower during that time. *Perk.* 350: If a recovery be had againſt the huſband by colluſion, this ſhall not bar the wife of dower; as if the recovery be by confeſſion or reddition, which are always underſtood to be by colluſion, the huſband always acting and concurring in obtaining of them; but it ſeems to have been a very great doubt, whether a recovery by default ſhould not be a bar: and the better opinion being that ſuch recovery was a bar at common law, therefore the ſtat. Wm. II. c. 4, was made, which ordains that notwithſtanding ſuch recovery by default, &c. pleaded, the tenant ſhall not cover in bar of the dower ſhew his right to the tenements recovered; and if it be found that he had no right, then ſhall the demandant recover her dower notwithſtanding ſuch recovery by default againſt her huſband. *Perk.* 376. By ſtat. Wm. II. c. 4, it appears, that if the recoveror had right, then the wife is barred; therefore if the heir of the diſſeiſor be in by deſcent, and the diſſeiſee enters upon him, and marries, and the heir of the diſſeiſor recovers by default, or reddition, in a writ of entry, in nature of an aſſize, and the huſband dies, his wife ſhall not have dower, becauſe he, who recovered, had right to the poſſeſſion by the deſcent; otherwiſe, if this diſſeiſin, deſcent, &c. were after marriage, becauſe the huſband was ſeiſed before of a rightful eſtate during the coverture, whereof his wife had title of dower, which cannot be defeated by the diſſeiſin, deſcent, and recovery, which all happened during the coverture. *Perk.* 379, 380.

If the huſband levy a fine with proclamation of his lands, and dies, his wife is bound to make her claim within five years after his death; otherwiſe ſhe ſhall be barred of her dower; for though her title of dower was not conſummate at the time of the fine levied; yet it being initiate by the marriage and ſeiſin of the huſband, the fine begins to work upon it preſently after the huſband's death; and if ſhe does not claim it within five years after, ſhe ſhall be barred. 2 *Co.* 93. 3 *Inſt.* 216.

The wife is, as ſoon as ſhe can after the deceaſe of her huſband, to demand her dower, leſt ſhe loſe the value from the time of his death: and in action of dower, the firſt proceſs is ſummons to appear: and if the tenant or

defendant

defendant do not appear, nor caſt an eſſoin, a grand *cape* lies to ſeize the lands, &c. By ſtat. 31 Eliz. c. 3. every ſummons on the land is to be made fourteen days before the return of the writ, and proclamation made at the church door on a Sunday, or elſe no grand *cape* to be awarded, but an *alias* and *pluries* ſummons till proclamation. But on the return of the writ of ſummons, the attorney for the tenant or defendant may enter with the filazer that the tenant appears, and prays view, &c. Then a writ of view goes out, whereby the ſheriff is to ſhew the tenant the land in queſtion; upon the return of which writ of view, the tenant's attorney takes a declaration, and puts in a plea; the moſt general one is, *ne unques ſeizie*, &c. viz. that the huſband was never ſeiſed of any eſtate whereof the wife can be endowed; and when iſſue is joined, trial proceeds, as in other actions: upon trial, the jury are to give damages for the meſne profits from the death of the huſband (if he die ſeiſed), for which, execution ſhall be made out; and then a writ to the ſheriff gives poſſeſſion of a third part of the lands. The ſheriff may give poſſeſſion or ſeiſin to the woman by a clod, or by graſs growing on the land, or by any beaſt being thereon. 40 *Edw.* 3. *Fitz. Dower* 48.

A widow may recover her dower with a *ceſſat executio*, in caſe there be any thing objected, precedent to the title of dower, till that is determined. 1 *Salk.* 291. Judgment in dower is to recover a third part of lands and tenements by metes and bounds. A wife may have her writ of dower againſt an heir, an alienee, a diſſeiſor, &c. or againſt any one that has power to aſſign dower; if the lord enters on the land for an eſcheat, ſhe may bring it againſt him, but to the king ſhe muſt ſue by petition. *Co. Litt.* 59. This writ was brought againſt eight perſons, feoffees of the huſband after marriage; two confeſſed the action, and the other ſix pleaded to iſſue; here the demandant had judgment to recover the third part of two parts of the land, in eight parts to be divided; and after the iſſue being found for the demandant againſt the other ſix, ſhe recovered againſt them the third part of the ſix parts of the ſame land as her dower. *Dyer* 187.

As to damages in dower, they are given by the ſtat. of Merton, c. 1; but that ſtatute extends only to the poſſeſſory action of dower *unde nihil habeat*, and not to the writ of right of dower, becauſe they are intended to be given for the detention of the poſſeſſion; and on writs of right, where the right itſelf is queſtionable, no damages are given, becauſe no wrong done till the right be determined; alſo that ſtatute extends only to lands, whereof the huſband died ſeiſed; and therefore judgment for the damages was reverſed, becauſe the jury did not find that the huſband died ſeiſed; for otherwiſe ſhe ſhall have no damages; as if the huſband aliens and takes back an eſtate for life, the wife ſhall recover dower, but no damages; becauſe this dying ſeiſed was only of an eſtate of freehold; but if he makes a leaſe for years only, rendering rent, ſhe ſhall recover a third part of the reverſion, with a third part of the rent and damages, becauſe there he died ſeiſed as the ſtatute ſpeaks. *Co. Litt.* 32. *Yelv.* 112.

Damages are given in dower from the death of the huſband and to the return of the writ of enquiry, though the writ of ſeiſin iſſued a year before, but was not executed. *Hardw.* 19. Where there are two joint-tenants in dower, and one dies after judgment for damages, and his heir and the other joint-tenant bring error, the value from the time of the judgment to the affirmance cannot be recovered againſt the ſurviving plaintiff in error only. 2 *Stra.* 271. On a writ of dower, damages cannot be awarded by 16 Car. II. without ſpeeding a writ of enquiry. *Hardw.* 51.

DOW'ERED, *adj.* Portioned; ſupplied with a portion:

Will you with thoſe infirmities ſhe owes,
Unfriended, new adapted to our hate,
Dower'd with our curſe, and ſtranger'd with our oath.
Take her, or leave her? *Shakeſpeare.*

DOW'ERLESS, *adj.* Wanting a fortune; unportioned:

Thy *dow'rleſs* daughter, king, thrown to my chance,
Is queen of us, of ours, and our fair France. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWL, *ſ.* A downy particle of a feather.—As diminiſh one *dowl* that's in my plume. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOW'LAS, *ſ.* A coarſe kind of linen.—*Dowlas*, filthy *dowlas*; I have given them away to bakers wives, and they have made boulters of them. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWLATABAD', a province of Hindooſtan, otherwiſe called AMEDNAGUR, or the land of proſperity, with a city of the ſame name.

DOWLATABAD, a town and fortreſs of Hindooſtan, which gives name to the above conſiderable province in the Deccan. It is the ſame city as the ancient Togara. The fortreſs is ſituated on a ſteep rock, not to be aſcended by a horſe or camel; the town is at the foot of the rock, and once very flouriſhing, but has been ruined by wars: nine miles north-weſt of Aurungabad, and ninety-two ſouth of Burhampour.

DOWN, *ſ.* [*duun*, Dan.] Soft feathers.—A tender weakly conſtitution is very much owing to the uſe of *down*-beds. *Locke.*

Virtue is the roughеſt way;
But proves at night a bed of *down*. *Wotton.*

Any thing that ſoothes or mollifies:

Thou boſom ſoftneſs! *down* of all my cares!
I could recline my thoughts upon this breaſt
To a forgetfulneſs of all my griefs,
And yet be happy. *Southern.*

Soft wool, or tender hair:

On thy chin the ſpringing beard began
To ſpread a doubtful *down*, and promiſe man. *Prior.*

The ſoft fibres of plants which wing the ſeeds.—Any light thing that moveth, when we find no wind, ſheweth a wind at hand; as when feathers, or *down* of thiſtles, fly to and fro in the air. *Bacon.*

Like ſcattered *down*, by howling Eurus blown
By rapid wlfirlwinds from his manſion thrown. *Sandys.*

DOWN, *ſ.* [ðun, Sax. *dune*, Erſe, a hill.] A large open plain; properly a flat on the top of an hill.—Hills afford pleaſant proſpects; as they muſt needs acknowledge who have been on the *downs* of Suſſex. *Ray.*

How Will-a-wiſp miſleads night-faring clowns
O'er hills, and ſinking bogs, and pathleſs *downs*. *Gay.*

DOWN, *prep.* [aðuna, Sax.] Along a deſcent; from a higher place to a lower.—Let go thy hold when a great wheel runs *down* hill, leſt it break thy neck with following it. *Shakeſpeare.*—A man falling *down* a precipice, though in motion, is not at liberty, becauſe he cannot ſtop that motion if he would. *Locke.*—Towards the mouth of a river.—Mahomet put his chief ſubſtance into certain boats, to be conveyed *down* the river, as purpoſing to fly. *Knolles.*

DOWN, *adv.* Not up. On the ground; from the height at which any thing was to a lower ſituation:

Down ſinks the giant with a thund'ring ſound,
His pond'rous limbs oppreſs the trembling ground. *Dryd.*

Tending towards the ground. From former to latter times: as, this has been the practice *down* from the conqueſt. Out of ſight; below the horizon:

How goes the night?
—The moon is *down*; I have not heard the clock,
And ſhe goes *down* at twelve. *Shakeſpeare.*

To a total ſubjection: uſed of men and things.—What remains of the ſubject, after the decoction, is continued to be boiled *down*, with the addition of freſh water, to a ſapid *fat*. *Arbuthnot.*—Into diſgrace; into declining reputation.—There is not a more melancholy object in the learned world, than a man who had written himſelf *down*. *Addiſon.*—[Anſwering to *up*.] Here and there.—Let them wander

wander *up* and *down* for meat, and grudge if they be not ſatisfied. *Pſalm* lix. 15.

DOWN, *interj.* An exhortation to deſtruction or demolition.—Go, ſome pull down the Savoy; others to the inns of court: *down* with them all. *Shakeſpeare.*—A contemptuous threat.—*Down, down* to hell, and ſay I ſent thee thither. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWN, [*To go.*] To be digeſted; to be received.—If he be hungry more than wanton, bread alone will *down*; and if he be not hungry, 'tis not fit he ſhould eat. *Locke.*

To DOWN, *v. a.* To knock; to ſubdue; to ſuppreſs; to conquer:

The hidden beauties ſeem'd in wait to lie,
To *down* proud hearts that would not willing die. *Sidney.*

DOWN, or DOWN PATRICK, a city of Ireland, in the county of Down, and ſee of a biſhop, united with Connor, called the biſhop of Down and Connor: twenty-five miles eaſt of Newry. Lat. 54. 18. N. lon. 5. 37. W. Greenwich.

DOWN, a county of Ireland; bounded on the north by the county of Antrim and Belfaſt Lough, on the eaſt and ſouth by the Iriſh ſea, and on the weſt by the county of Armagh; about forty miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about twenty-five in breadth. The number of houſes is computed at 36,636, and of inhabitants 204,500. The ſurface is irregular, about the center mountainous, but moſt parts fertile. An irregularity of ground, well watered, abounding in bleach-greens, and full of neat and cleanly habitations, with an orchard to almoſt every cottage, afford a moſt cheerful and pleaſing proſpect of the comfort and opulence of the inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in the linen buſineſs. In the rougher parts of the country they breed a great number of horſes, with which the fairs of diſtant counties are ſupplied. This county derives equal advantages from its maritime ſituation, and its inland waters. A canal is continued from Newry to the South Bann, and ſo into Lough Neagh. From this lake to Belfaſt, another canal has been lately cut, at the expence of the marquis of Belfaſt; and the river Lagan, which ſeparates Down from Antrim, is alſo made navigable. Downpatrick, Bangor, Hillſborough, Killyleagh, Newtown, and Newry, are its principal towns.

DOWN-BED, *ſ.* Bed of down.—If he loved too much to lie upon his own *down-bed* of eaſe, his ſubjects had the pleaſure, during his reign, of lolling and ſtretching upon theirs. *Marquis of Halifax.*

DOWN-TROD, *part. adj.* Trodden down:

But I will lift the *down-trod* Mortimer
As high in th' air as this ungrateful king. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWN'CAST, *adj.* Bent down; directed to the ground:

My wily nurſe by long experience found,
And firſt diſcover'd to my ſoul its wound;
'Tis love, ſaid ſhe; and then my *downcaſt* eyes,
And guilty dumbneſs, witneſs'd my ſurprize. *Dryden.*

DOWNE, or DOWNS, a townſhip of the American States, in Cumberland county, New Jerſey.

DOWN'FAL, *ſ.* Ruin; calamity; fall from rank or ſtate.—We have ſeen ſome, by the ways by which they had deſigned to riſe uncontroulably, to have directly procured their utter *downfal. South.*

Why doſt thou ſay king Richard is depos'd?
Dar'ſt thou, thou little better thing than earth,
Divine his *downfal?* *Shakeſpeare.*

A ſudden fall, or body of things falling:

Each *downfal* of a flood the mountains pour
From their rich bowels, rolls a ſilver ſtream. *Dryden.*

Deſtruction of fabrics:

Not more aghaſt the matrons of renown,
When tyrant Nero burn'd the imperial town,
Shriek'd for the *downfal* in a doleful cry,
For which their guiltleſs lords were doom'd to die. *Dryd.*

DOWN'FALLEN, *part. adj.* Ruined; fallen.—The land is now divorced by the *downfallen* ſteep cliffs on the farther ſide. *Carew.*

DOWN'GYRED, *adj.* Let down in circular wrinkles:

Lord Hamlet, with his ſtockings looſe,
Ungarter'd, and *downgyred* to his ancles. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWN'HAM, a large town in the county of Norfolk, pleaſantly ſituated on the declivity of a hill, twelve miles from Lynn, thirteen from Wiſbeach, eighteen from Ely, and eighty-ſix from London. Here is an ancient ſtone-bridge over the river Ouze, which receives the Cam at Denver ſluice, (a noble piece of ſtone-work,) and the Neene at Salter's Load ſluice, and empties itſelf into an arm of the German ſea at Lynn. Hollingſhed ſays, that, in October 1568, there were taken at this bridge ſeventeen monſtrous fiſhes, from twenty to twenty-ſeven feet long. It has two markets weekly, on Mondays and Saturdays; and two fairs annually, on the 8th of May, and 13th of November. Downham has been long famous for its trade in butter. Formerly 2000 firkins have been brought to this market weekly; but now ſcarcely 500 are averaged. The butter-market is held by the water-ſide; the butter is ſent to London by way of Cambridge, and thus acquires the name of Cambridge butter.

DOWN'HAUL, *ſ.* [a ſea-term.] A rope tied to the upper corner of a ſail to pull it down.

To DOWN'HAUL, *v. a.* To pull down.

DOWN'HILL, *ſ.* Declivity; deſcent:

Heavy the third, and ſtiff, he ſinks apace;
And tho' 'tis *downhill* all, but creeps along the race. *Dryd.*

DOWN'HILL, *adj.* Declivous; deſcending.—And the firſt ſteps a *downhill* greenſward yields. *Congreve.*

DOWN'INGS, a poſt-town of the American States, Pennſylvania, Cheſter county, on the eaſt ſide of Brandywine creek: thirty-three miles weſt by north of Philadelphia, and near ſeven north-weſt of Weſtcheſter.

DOWN'LOOKED, *adj.* Having a dejected countenance; gloomy; ſullen; melancholy:

Jealouſy, ſuffus'd with jaundice in her eyes,
Diſcolouring all ſhe view'd, in tawney dreſs'd;
Downlook'd, and with a cuckoo on her fiſt. *Dryden.*

DOWN'LYING, *adj.* About to be in travail of childbirth.

DOWN'RIGHT, *adv.* Straight or right down; down perpendicularly:

A giant's ſlain in fight,
Or mow'd o'erthwart, or cleft *downright.* *Hudibras.*

In plain terms, without ceremony:

Elves, away!
We ſhall chide *downright* if I longer ſtay. *Shakeſpeare.*

Completely; without ſtopping ſhort.—This paper put Mrs. Bull in ſuch a paſſion, that ſhe fell *downright* into a fit. *Arbuthnot.*

DOWN'RIGHT, *adj.* Plain; open; apparent; undiſguiſed.—It is *downright* madneſs to ſtrike where we have no power to hurt. *L'Eſtrange.*—Directly tending to the point; plain; artleſs.—I would rather have a plain *downright* wiſdom, than a fooliſh and affected eloquence. *Ben Jonſon.*—Unceremonious; honeſtly ſurly.—When it came to the count to ſpeak, old Fact ſo ſtared him in the face, after his plain *downright* way, that the count was ſtruck dumb. *Addiſon.*—Plain; without palliation.—Religion ſeems not in danger from *downright* atheiſm, ſince rational men muſt reject that for want of proof. *Rogers.*

DOWNS, *ſ.* A bank or elevation of ſand, which the ſea gathers and forms along its ſhores; and which ſerves it as a barrier. The word is formed from the French *dune*, of the Celtic *dum*, a mountain. This name is particularly applied to a well-known road for ſhipping, in the Engliſh channel, oppoſite the eaſtern coaſt of the county of Kent, from Dover to the North Foreland; where both the outward and homeward-bound ſhips frequently

make ſome ſtay. It affords excellent anchorage; and is defended by the caſtles of Deal, Dover, and Sandwich.

DOWN'SITTING, *ſ.* Reſt; repoſe; the act of ſitting down, or going to reſt.—Thou knoweſt my *downſitting* and mine upriſing; thou underſtandeſt my thoughts afar off. *Pſalm* cxxxix. 2.

DOWN'TON, an ancient borough, in the county of Wilts, ſituated in a pleaſant vale between Saliſbury and Fordingbridge, on the eaſtern banks of the Avon: eighty-five miles from London, and ſix from Saliſbury; and is bounded on the ſouth by an ancient foſs, called Landſhire Ditch, from Hampſhire. The chief trade of the place is malting, paper-making, and tanning; and the poor are employed in a tick manufactory, and in making Bruſſels lace. Here are annually two fairs, one on the 23d of April for cattle, pedlary ware, &c. and the other on the 2d of October for ſheep and horſes. The profits of both theſe fairs are given to the maſter of the free-ſchool for inſtructing twelve boys in reading, writing, and arithmetic: firſt founded by Gyles Eyre, eſq. Downton returned members to the Britiſh parliament as early as the 23 Edw. I. and here king John had a caſtle, in which he ſometimes reſided; whoſe effigies, and alſo thoſe of one of his queens, erected in correſpondent niches, ſtill remain.

DOWN'WARD, or DOWNWARDS, *adv.* [ðunepeapð, Sax.] Towards the center.—As you lift up the glaſſes, the drop will aſcend ſlower and ſlower, and at length reſt, being carried *downward* by its weight as much as upwards by the attraction. *Newton.*—From a higher ſituation to a lower.—Hills are ornamental to the earth, affording pleaſant proſpects to them that look *downwards* from them upon the ſubjacent countries. *Ray.*

What would this man? Now upward will he ſoar,
And, little leſs than angel, would be more:
Now, looking *downwards*, juſt as griev'd appears
To want the ſtrength of bulls, the fur of bears. *Pope.*

In a courſe of ſucceſſive or lineal deſcent:

A ring the count does wear,
That *downward* hath ſucceeded in his houſe,
From ſon to ſon, ſome four or five deſcents. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOWN'WARD, *adj.* Moving on a declivity; tending towards the center; tending to the ground:

With *downward* force,
That drove the ſand along, he took his way,
And roll'd his yellow billows to the ſea. *Dryden.*

Declivous; bending:

When Aurora leaves our northern ſphere,
She lights the *downward* heav'n, and riſes there. *Dryden.*

Depreſſed; dejected.—At the loweſt of my *downward* thoughts, I pulled up my heart to remember, that nothing is achieved before it be thoroughly attempted, and that lying ſtill doth never go forward. *Sidney.*

DOWN'Y, *adj.* Covered with down or nap.—There be plants that have prickles, yet have *downy* or velvet rind upon their leaves, as ſtock-gilly-flowers and coltsfoot; which down or nap conſiſteth of a ſubtile ſpirit, in a ſoft ſubſtance. *Bacon.*

In her hand ſhe held
A bough of faireſt fruit, that *downy* ſmil'd,
New gather'd, and ambroſial ſmell diffus'd. *Milton.*

Made of down or ſoft feathers:

Belinda ſtill her *downy* pillow preſt,
Her guardian ſylph prolong'd the balmy reſt. *Pope.*

Soft; tender; ſoothing:

The night's companion kindly cheating them
Of all their cares, tam'd the rebellious eye
Of ſorrow with a ſoft and *downy* hand,
Sealing all breaſts in a Lethean band. *Craſhaw.*

DO'WRE, or DOWRY, *ſ.* [*douaire*, Fr.] A portion given with a wife. See DOWER.—I could marry this wench for this *dowre*. *Sidney.*—And aſk no other *dowry* but ſuch another jeſt. *Shakeſpeare.*—A reward paid for a wife. A gift; a fortune given:

Thine own hand
An hundred of the faithleſs foe ſhall ſlay,
And for a *dowre* a hundred foreſkins pay. *Cowley.*

DOXO'LOGY, *ſ.* [δοξα, glory; and λογος, to proclaim.] A form of giving praiſe and glory to God.—David breaks forth into theſe triumphant praiſes and *doxologies*, Bleſſed be the Lord God of Iſrael, who has kept me this day from ſhedding blood, and from avenging myſelf with my own hand. *South.*

DOX'Y, *ſ.* [perhaps of *dochen*, Dut. to yield willingly.] A wench; a wanton woman:

When daffodils begin to pure,
With heigh! the *doxy* over the dale. *Shakeſpeare.*

DOYAYA'CE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lemberg: thirty-ſix miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Lemberg.

DO'YET, a town of France, in the department of the Allier, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Montmarault: ſeven miles weſt of Montmarault.

DOYLS'TOWN, a town of the American States, in Bucks county, Penſylvania; ten miles ſouth-weſt of Howell's ferry, on Delaware river, fifteen north-weſt of Newton, and thirty-three weſt by north of Philadelphia.

DO'ZARY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Minſk: thirty-ſix miles north-north-eaſt of Minſk.

To DOZE, *v. n.* [ðpæȝ, Sax. *daes*, Dut.] To ſlumber; to ſleep lightly.—There was no ſleeping under his roof: if he happened to *doze* a little, the jolly cobler waked him. *L'Eſtrange.*—To live in a ſtate of drouſineſs; to be half aſleep.—It has happened to young men of the greateſt wit to waſte their ſpirits with anxiety and pain, ſo far, as to *doze* upon their work with too much eagerneſs of doing well. *Dryden.*

Chiefleſs armies *doz'd* out the campaign,
And navies yawn'd for orders on the main. *Pope.*

To DOZE, *v. a.* To ſtupify; to dull.—He was now much decayed in his parts, and with immoderate drinking *dozed* in his underſtanding. *Clarendon.*

Two ſatyrs on the ground,
Stretch'd at his eaſe, their ſire Silenus found
Doz'd with his fumes, and heavy with his load. *Dryden.*

DO'ZEN, *ſ.* [*douzaine*, Fr.] The number of twelve. It is ſeldom uſed but on light occaſions.—By putting twelve units together, we have the complex idea of a *dozen*. *Locke.*

DO'ZINESS, *ſ.* Sleepineſs; drouſineſs.—A man, by a violent fit of the gout in his limbs, finds a *dozineſs* in his head, or a want of appetite. *Locke.*

DO'ZING, *ſ.* Sluggiſhneſs.—Six, or at moſt ſeven hours ſleep is, for a conſtancy, as much as any body can want: more is only lazineſs and *dozing*. *Cheſterfield.*

DO'ZY, *adj.* Sleepy; drouſy; ſluggiſh:

The yawning youth, ſcarce half awake, eſſays
His lazy limbs and *dozy* head to raiſe. *Dryden.*

DRA'ABURG, or OBER TRAABURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: fifty-ſix miles eaſt of Clagenfurt, and forty-two eaſt-north-eaſt of Brixen. Lat. 46. 48. N. lon. 30. 35. E Ferro.

DRA'ABURG, or UNTER TRAABURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carinthia: 112 miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Vienna, and forty-eight weſt-north-weſt of Pettaw.

DRAB, *ſ.* [ðpabbe, Sax. lees.] A ſtrumpet; a trull.—If your worſhip will take order for the *drabs* and the knaves, you need not fear the bawds. *Shakeſpeare.*

Curs'd be the wretch ſo venal and ſo vain,
Paltry and proud as *drabs* in Drury-lane. *Pope.*

DRA'BA, *ſ.* [from δρακω, acrid.] WHITLOW-GRASS;

in botany, a genus of the claſs tetradynamia, order ſiliculoſa, natural order ſiliquoſæ or cruciformes, (cruciferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved; leaflets ovate, concave, from erect ſpreading; deciduous. Corolla: four-petalled, cruciform; petals oblong, ſomewhat ſpreading; with very ſmall claws. Stamina: filaments ſix, length of the calyx: of theſe the four oppoſite ones ſomewhat longer, from erect ſpreading; antheræ ſimple. Piſtillum: germ ovate; ſtyle ſcarce any; ſtigma headed, flat. Pericarpium: ſilicle elliptic-oblong, compreſſed, entire, deſtitute of ſtyle, two-celled; diſſepiment parallel with the valves; valves plano-concave. Seeds: ſeveral, ſmall, roundiſh.—*Eſſential Character.* Silicle, entire, oval-oblong; valves, flattiſh, parallel to the diſſepiment; ſtyle, none. Hence it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from Alyſſum, Subularia, and Lunaria.

Species. 1. Draba aizoides, or hairy-leaved alpine whitlow-graſs: ſcape naked, ſimple; leaves enſiform, keeled, ciliate. It very much reſembles D. alpina, from which however it differs, in the leaves being even, linear, keeled, ciliate; not oval-oblong, rough-haired, without any keel. It differs from D. ciliaris in having the root-leaves forming a cloſe tuft, giving it the air of a Sedum; the keel even; not alternate leaves on the branches ſpreading, and a ciliate keel. The flowers alſo are yellow, as in D. alpina, not white. Root perennial; ſtem three inches high; petals entire; ſilicle hairy, rough, ovate, ſharp at both ends, ending in a long ſtyle, four lines in length; the cells having ſix to eight ſeeds, which are round and flatted. It is well adapted to rockwork, and is a pretty plant with a pleaſant ſmell. Native of the mountains of France, Swiſſerland, Savoy, Auſtria, Carniola, Sileſia, &c. ſeen on mount Saleve near Geneva, April 13, 1779; in our gardens it flowers ſo early as February.

2. Draba ciliaris, or ciliate-leaved whitlow-graſs: ſtem almoſt naked, leaves linear, ciliate about the edge and along the keel; petals entire. It differs from the foregoing, in the leaves being narrower and ſmooth, and the petals not in the leaſt emarginate. In a ſtate of cultivation it branches out with remote leaves. Native of Provence, in dry rocky places.

3. Draba alpina, or alpine whitlow-graſs: ſcape naked, ſimple; leaves lanceolate, quite entire; petals emarginate. Stem leafleſs, with a few hairs ſcattered about it; not one-leaſed or ſmooth. Gouan thus diſtinguiſhes this from the firſt ſort. It has fewer leaves, ovate, a little longer, very often toothed towards the end, and rough with hair; ſtem often naked, but ſometimes it has a leaf or two on it; this alſo is rough with hairs; flowers ſubracemed, at firſt corymbed; calyx hairy; the leaflets membranaceous and coloured at the edge, as in D. aizoides. Native of the Alps of Europe.

4. Draba verna, common or ſpring whitlow-graſs: ſcapes naked, leaves ſomewhat ſerrate, often very entire; petals divided. Root annual; ſtems about three inches high, one to five or more from the ſame root in a rich ſoil; ſmooth after flowering, but hairy when young; ſeeds ovate, brown, fixed to the edge of the partition; from three to ſix in a cell according to Scopoli, but ſometimes as many as twenty-four. By theſe it propagates itſelf prodigiouſly, and is a weed hardly to be eradicated in dry paſtures, gravel-walks of gardens, &c. Linnæus obſerves that the flowers hang down in the night and in wet weather: that in Smoland they ſow rye when this plant is in bloſſom; and that in dry ſoils whole fields are covered with the flowers early in the ſpring. With us it is common on walls, dry banks, fields, and paſtures, flowering in March and April, or earlier if the weather be mild. In ſome countries abundance of this little plant is ſuppoſed to prognoſticate dearneſs of corn; which may have ſome foundation, as a wet ſeaſon produces a great crop of this little weed, which according to ſome is agreeable to ſheep. Gerarde calls it whiteblowe, or whitlowe-graſſe, or naile woort. This ſmall plant may ſerve as an index of the difference of climates; for in Sweden it flowers in the month of April; in Germany a month earlier; in England, Holland, and France, in February; whilſt in Sicily it flowers all the winter.

5. Draba pyrenaica, or pyrenean whitlow-graſs; ſcape naked; leaves wedge-ſhaped, palmate, three-lobed. This is a perennial plant, ſeldom more than two inches high; it has a ſhrubby ſtalk, dividing into many ſmall heads; leaves ſmall, the lower ones have five ſhort narrow lobes, the upper have but three; the flowers come out in cluſters, ſitting cloſe to the leaves: they are of a bright purple colour, and appear early in the ſpring. Native of the mountains of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Appenzel, Provence, Carniola, Auſtria, and Piedmont; flowering in May.

6. Draba muralis, or wall whitlow-graſs: ſtem branched; leaves ovate, ſeſſile, toothed. It riſes with an upright branching ſtalk about ten inches high, terminated by looſe ſpikes of white flowers, which appear the beginning of May. Native of Sweden, Swiſſerland, Germany, ſouth of France, Italy, in fiſſures of rocks; Mr. Ray found it near Montpellier, and between Lucca and Piſa, in hedges; with us, in Derbyſhire, Yorkſhire, and Weſtmoreland; common about Malham. The wood variety *D. nemoroſa*, being ſowed with the *muralis* in a garden, they became ſo alike as not to be diſtinguiſhed by any means, the yellow flowers becoming white.

7. Draba hirta, or rough-leaved whitlow-graſs: ſcape one-leafed; leaves ſubhirſute; ſilicles oblique, pedicelled. Reſembles D. incana very much, but the ſtem is naked with a ſingle lanceolate leaf in the middle of it. Silicles ſmooth, like thoſe of D. verna, but narrower, terminated by the ſhort ſtyle with a headed ſtigma. Native of Lapland, Denmark, Provence, Swiſſerland, Sileſia, Auſtria, Piedmont, in the fiſſures of rocks: flowering in May. Mr. Dickſon found the *D. ſtellata*, or *hirta* of Jacquin, in Scotland, on Ben Lawers. Jacquin, in his *Obſervationes*, ſays that his *ſtellata* is the *hirta* of Linnæus, but that in the Auſtrian plants the ſilicles are uſually ſtraight, very ſeldom oblique. Though he gave up his *ſtellata* as a ſpecies, yet it ſeems to be different from Linnæus's *hirta*.

8. Draba ſladnizenſis, or ſcentleſs whitlow-graſs: ſcape two-leaved; leaves ſmooth, ciliate; ſilicles ſtraight, pedicelled. Native of Carinthia.

9. Draba incana, or hoary whitlow-graſs: ſtem-leaves numerous, hoary; ſilicles oblong, oblique, ſubſeſſile. Root biennial; root-leaves very numerous, ſpreading like the flower of a roſe, lanceolate, tomentoſe and ſomewhat hairy, entire, acute; ſtem a hand in height, ſtiff, hoary, clothed with many leaves (frequently more than thirty), very like the root-leaves, but ſhorter, ſo that the uppermoſt are ovate, ſeſſile, and have a few teeth; on the lower part of the ſtem they are more crowded. Native of Lapland, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Britain, as in Weſtmoreland, Yorkſhire about Settle, and near the ſummit of Ingleborough; Scotland, as in Iſla, Skye, &c. Wales in Caernarvonſhire. It flowers in May and June.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are eaſily propagated by parting the heads in autumn; for they ſhoot up to flower very early in the ſpring. They will thrive and flower annually, in a moiſt ſoil, and ſhady ſituation; and require no other culture but to be kept clean from weeds. Some of the ſpecies are proper to adorn rock-work, and they all proſper beſt in that ſituation. See ARABIS, COCHLEARIA, IBERIS, LEPIDIUM, LOBELIA, and SISYMBRIUM.

DRAB'BING, *ſ.* Aſſociating with drabs.—Drinking, fencing, ſwearing, quarrelling, *drabbing. Shakeſpeare.*

DRA'BOWICE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Kiov: thirty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Czerkaſy.

DRAC, a river of France, which runs into the Iſere, near Grenoble.

DRACÆ'NA, *ſ.* [δρακαινα, the female of δρακων, a dragon.] In botany, a genus of the claſs hexandria, order

der monogynia, natural order ſarmentaceæ, (aſparagi, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: none. Corolla: petals ſix, oblong, ſomewhat upright, equal, cohering by the claws. Stamina: filaments ſix, inſerted into the claws, ſubulate, thicker in the middle, membranaceous at the baſe, length ſcarcely of the corolla; antheræ oblong, incumbent. Piſtillum: germ ovate, ſix-ſtriated; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma three-cleft, obtuſe. Pericarpium: berry ovate; ſix-furrowed, three-celled. Seeds: ſolitary, ovate-oblong, incurved at the tip. The character is almoſt that of aſparagus, the habit different.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla: ſix-parted, erect; filaments ſomewhat thicker in the middle; berry three-celled, one-ſeeded.

Species. 1. Dracæna draco, or dragon tree: arboreous: leaves ſomewhat fleſhy, with a thorny end. This riſes with a thick trunk nearly equal in ſize the whole length; the inner part very pithy, next to this a circle of ſtrong fibres, and the outſide ſoft; height twelve or fourteen feet, nearly of the ſame diameter the whole length, which is rarely more than eight or ten inches; circular marks or rings are left the whole length, where the leaves have fallen off. The top ſuſtains a large head of theſe, coming out ſingly all round it; they are ſhaped like thoſe of the common iris, but are much longer, being often four or five feet in length, and an inch and half broad at their baſe, where they embrace the trunk; they leſſen gradually and terminate in a point: theſe leaves are pliable, and hang down; they are entire, of a deep green, ſmooth on both ſurfaces: it has the habit of the palms; the peduncles are furniſhed with a joint. Crantz has made two genera out of this ſpecies, under the names of Oedera and Störckia. Native of the Eaſt Indies. Mr. Miller received a plant of it from the Cape Verd iſlands, and ſeeds from Madeira. It is called *dragon-tree*, becauſe the inſpiſſated juice becomes a red powder, very like the eaſtern dragon's blood. Cultivated in 1640, by Parkinſon; who ſowed the ſeeds, but they did not abide the winter.

2. Dracæna ferrea, or purple dracæna: arboreous: leaves lanceolate, acute. Stem ſhrubby, almoſt ſimple, eight feet high, erect, round, with cloſe protuberant rings from the fallen leaves; theſe are quite entire, a foot and half in length, erect, ſmooth, on ſtem-claſping petioles, and of a duſky-red colour; flowers red-purple, corolla bell-ſhaped, ſix-parted, inferior; ſegments oblong, obtuſe, ſpreading; antheræ ſagittate, ſharp, and bifid at the end; ſtyle awl-ſhaped, thick, trifid, equal to the ſtamens; berry red; the ſeed is uſually abortive. It ſeems to approach the palms. In Chineſe it is called *tat-ſio* or *tſiet-tſao*; and is planted in gardens both there and in Cochin-china. Native of China; flowers in March and April.

3. Dracæna ſtriata, or ſtriated dracæna: fruteſcent; cauleſcent; erect; leaves lanceolate, obliquely ſickle-form, ſtriated; ſtem flexuoſe. Found at the Cape of Good Hope, by Thunberg.

4. Dracæna terminalis, or canna-leaved dracæna: herbaceous; cauleſcent; leaves lanceolate. Native of the Eaſt Indies, and the Society iſles.

5. Dracæna enſifolia, or ſword-leaved dracæna: herbaceous; ſubcauleſcent; leaves enſiform. This ſpecies perhaps more properly belongs to the genus Medeola, for it differs remarkably from D. draco in the fruit. Native of the Eaſt Indies, and Cochin-china. Loureiro ſays, that if he had followed his own opinion, he ſhould rather have referred this plant to the genus Ornithogalum.

6. Dracæna undulata, or undulated dracæna: herbaceous; cauleſcent; erect; leaves ovate, acute, many-nerved; flowers axillary, peduncled. 7. Dracæna medeoloides, or medeola dracæna: herbaceous; twining; leaves ovate, nerved. 8. Dracæna erecta, or upright dracæna: herbaceous; cauleſcent erect; leaves lanceolate, ſubulate, ſeſſile. 9. Dracæna volubilis, or twining dracæna: herbaceous; twining; leaves lanceolate. Found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg. Dracæna medeoloides and Medeola aſparagoides are probably one and the ſame plant.

10. Dracæna graminifolia, or graſs-leaved dracæna: herbaceous; ſtemleſs; leaves linear. Leaves like thoſe of graſs, very much ſtreaked, a ſpan in length. Native of Aſia.

11. Dracæna marginata, or aloe-leaved dracæna: ſhrubby; leaves tooth-ſpiny; racemes axillary; berries many-ſeeded. Native of the iſland of Bourbon; flowers in April.

12. Dracæna borealis, or oval-leaved dracæna: herbaceous; ſubcauleſcent; leaves elliptic. Native of Newfoundland, Hudſon's Bay, and Canada; flowers in June.

13. Dracæna indiviſa, or entire dracæna: arboreous; leaves enſiform, acute; raceme compound. Native of New Zealand, in woods on the coaſt of Duſky bay. Trunk round, full of ſmall chinks, undivided, leafy at top, from ſix to nine feet high; leaves half-ſtem-claſping, imbricate at the baſe, quite entire, ſpreading, ſtriated, bright green, two feet long and a hand broad; berry globular, blue, marked above with three hollow dots, mucronate with the permanent ſtyle, having about ſeven ſeeds in each cell, involved in an aril or membrane, ſo as to appear only one; they are black, ſmooth, ſemilunar and three-ſided. The generic character conſtructed from the firſt ſpecies does not agree very well with this or D. terminalis, which have many ſeeds in their berries. Perhaps the berry of the firſt alſo may be involved in an aril, and this may conſtitute the eſſential difference between aſparagus and dracæna. The berries of this ſpecies are eaten by the natives; they are ripe in May, that is, at the beginning of their winter. The young leaves, or rather the hybernacle concealed among them, is an excellent ſalad; and this, together with Areca oleracea and ſapida, Apium graveolens or ſmallage, Tetragonia halimifolia, Lepidium oleraceum and piſcidium, and Sonchus oleraceus or ſowthiſtle, was found to be of great ſervice to our circumnavigators in reſiſting the putrid ſcurvy.

14. Dracæna auſtralis, or New Zealand dracæna: arboreous; leaves enſiform, acute; raceme terminating, erect, ſuperdecompound. Native of New Zealand. Propagation and Culture, ſee Palms.

DRACH'ENFELS, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and capital of a diſtrict, in the electorate of Cologn, with a citadel: four miles ſouth-eaſt of Bonn, and ſeven north-north-weſt of Linz.

DRACHM, *ſ.* among the Greeks, a coin of the value of ſeven-pence three-farthings; alſo a weight, which they divided into ſix oboli.

DRACH'MA, *ſ.* [δραχμη, from δραττομαι, to graſp, it being about a handful; or rather from דרכמין *drachmin*, Heb.] A drachm. The eighth part of an ounce, containing three ſcruples or ſixty grains.

DRACH'MON, *ſ.* [Heb.] An Hebrew gold coin, in value twenty-five ſhillings.

DRA'CIA, a river of Boſnia, which runs into the Drin, five miles north-eaſt of Orach.

DRAC'KEMBURG, or Drakemburg, a town of Germany, in the county of Hoya, on the Weſer, where a bloody battle was fought in 1547, between the Imperialiſts and the Saxons: two leagues north of Nienburg.

DRA'CO, the firſt legiſlator of the Athenians, B. C. 624. The accounts of him, which have come down to modern times, are ſuperficial and trifling; it is only certain that his laws were extremely ſevere, ſo that they are ſaid to have been "written in blood." Death was the penalty for every kind of offence; for which he is ſaid to have given as a reaſon, that "ſmall faults ſeemed to him worthy of death, and he could find no higher puniſhment for the greateſt crimes." We are told, however, that he ſo much abhorred the crime of taking away life, as to direct that even inanimate things, which had been the inſtruments of ſuch an action, ſhould be proſecuted; ſo that a ſtatue, which by falling had killed a man,

a man, was to be ſentenced to baniſhment. Theſe inconſiſtencies and puerilities denote a very rude ſtate of legiſlation, if, indeed, they have not been aggravated by popular tradition. Draco was advanced in years when he gave laws, and had acquired much authority from his virtue and patriotiſm. The Athenians, however, became ſo diſpleaſed with his rigour, that he thought proper to withdraw to the iſland of Ægina. There, according to a ſtory which appears ridiculous, he was received at the public theatre with an applauſe which proved fatal to him; for its expreſſion conſiſted in heaping upon him the cloaks and hats of the audience, by which he was ſuffocated. The laws of Draco, in the thirty-ninth Olympiad, are conſidered as the moſt ancient writing to which we can ſecurely appeal. It is ſaid that he was addicted to poetry, whence ſome have thought that he could not have been ſo harſh and rigid as has been repreſented; but there are too many authentic examples of the union of a cruel diſpoſition, with a taſte for elegant literature. All the laws of Draco were aboliſhed by Solon, except ſuch as related to murder.

DRA'CO, *ſ.* the DRAGON, in aſtronomy, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere; whoſe ſtars, according to Ptolemy, are eighty-one; according to Tycho, thirty-two; according to Hevelius, forty; according to Bayer, thirty-three; and according to Mr. Flamſteed, eighty. See ASTRONOMY.

DRA'CO, *ſ.* the DRAGON, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of amphibia reptilia; the characters of which are theſe: it has four legs, a cylindrical tail, and two membranaceous wings, radiated like the fins of a fiſh, by which it is enabled to fly, but not to any great diſtance at a time. There are two ſpecies enumerated by Linnæus and Gmelin, as follow:

1. Draco volans, the flying dragon; native of Africa and India, and found abundantly in the iſland of Ceylon. It is diſtinguiſhed from the lizard tribe only by having broad lateral membranes, ſtrengthened by radii or bony proceſſes like the fins of fiſh, and of a leathery ſubſtance; in this reſpect reſembling the wings of the bat, flying fiſh, flying ſquirrel, &c. The body is aſh-coloured grey, covered with minute ſcales, clouded and varied with brown: beneath the gula or throat is a large pouch, membranaceous, and pointed; tail long and ſlender, annulated with light brown. It preys upon inſects of almoſt every kind; in purſuit of which it lurks among the foliage of trees, ſhrubs, and plants. It is a ſmall animal, meaſuring only nine inches from the point of the noſe to the tip of the tail. It ſprings from bough to bough, and from tree to tree, by means of its alar membranes, chirping as it goes. In this ſpecies the fore-legs are diſtinct from the wings; and, though very ſmall, it is the largeſt of the genus: a correct figure of it is given in the engraving, by Albertus Seba.

2. Draco præpos, the flying dragon of America. In this the alar membranes are very ſmall, ferruginous, with bars of deep brown running in an oblique direction round the edges of the wings. The body is covered with minute ſcales, of a dull cinereous colour. The tail is beſet with ſharp prickles for ſome diſtance from its baſe; it is very ſlender, and marked with obſcure ſpots of brown. In this ſpecies the wings are faſtened to the fore-feet, but not to the hind; the whole animal is very ſlender, and only ſeven inches long: modern naturaliſts conſider it as a ſmaller variety of the preceding, having preciſely the ſame form and habits, and uſing the ſame food.

The late Mr. Pennant, in his "Outlines of the Globe," after deſcribing this, among the other amphibia of Ceylon, remarks, "that the animal which bears the dreadful name of *dragon*, is no more than an innocent little lizard, quite harmleſs, and perfectly inoffenſive: yet it is the only creature known, that really bears the form and make of that all-devouring and deſtructive monſter feigned by the poets and writers of ancient romance. See the article DRAGON.

DRA'CO AR'BOR, *ſ.* in botany. See DRACÆNA and PTEROCARPUS.

DRA'CO CE'PHALOS, *ſ.* in botany. See CHELONE.

DRA'CO HER'BA, *ſ.* in botany. See ARTEMISIA.

DRACOCE'PHALUM, *ſ.* [from δρακων, a dragon, and κεφαλη, a head; the form of the flowers being ringent, or like a gaping mouth.] DRAGON'S HEAD; in botany, a genus of the claſs didynamia, order gymnoſpermia, natural order verticillatæ, (ſcropulariæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, tubular, permanent, very ſhort. Corolla: one-petalled, ringent; tube length of the calyx; throat very large, oblong, inflated, gaping, a little compreſſed on the back; lip ſuperior ſtraight, arched, complicated, obtuſe; lip inferior three-cleft; lateral diviſions upright, as it were the ſegments of the throat; the intermediate one hanging down, ſmall, prominent forwards at the baſe, roundiſh, emarginate. Stamina: filaments four, ſubulate, hid beneath the upper lip of the corolla, of which two are a little ſhorter; antheræ ſomewhat cordate. Piſtillum: germ four-parted; ſtyle filiform, in the ſituation of the ſtamens; ſtigma two cleft, ſharp, ſlender, reflex. Pericarpium: none; calyx cheriſhing the ſeeds in its bottom. Seeds: four, ovate-oblong, three-ſided.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, throat inflated, upper lip concave.

Species. I. In ſpikes. 1. Dracocephalum Virginianum, or Virginian dragon's-head: flowers crowded, leaves linear-lanceolate, ſerrate. This riſes with an upright ſtalk, near three feet high. Leaves about three inches long, and half an inch broad, ſeſſile; they are uſually in pairs at each joint, but ſometimes there are three together. The flowers are purple, in terminating ſpikes, and make a pretty variety among other hardy plants. It is perennial, and flowers from July to September. Native of North America, in woods, and by the ſides of rivers.

2. Dracocephalum denticulatum, or denticulated dragon's-head: flowers remote, leaves obovate-lanceolate, denticulate above. Allied to the firſt; but inferior in point of beauty. It ſpreads more on the ground; its flowering-ſtems are not altogether ſo upright, nor ſo tall; the leaves are broader, and the flowers in the ſpikes leſs numerous. It flowers in Auguſt and September. Mr. Curtis received ſeeds of it from Philadelphia, collected at a conſiderable diſtance from that city, about the year 1786. And Mr. Watſon, nurſeryman at Iſlington, obtained the plant from Carolina, about the ſame period.

3. Dracocephalum Canarienſe, or Canary dragon's-head: leaves compound. This is a perennial plant, riſing with ſeveral ſtalks to the height of three feet or more, becoming woody at the lower part. Leaves at each joint, having three or five oblong, pointed, ſerrate, leaflets. The flowers come out in ſhort thick ſpikes on the top of the ſtalks; they are of a pale blue colour, and are produced from July to September. Native of the Canary iſlands, whence it was brought to Europe, by the name of *permento de Tana*; the old writers call it *camphoroſma* and *cedronella*; and we, *balm of Gilead*, from its rich odour, on being gently rubbed. It was deſcribed by Moriſon in 1690, and was cultivated in 1697, by the ducheſs of Beaufort.

4. Dracocephalum pinnatum, or pinnate-leaved dragon's-head: leaves cordate, pinnate-ſinuate. Native of Jerkatſch, in Siberia.

5. Dracocephalum peregrinum, or prickly-leaved dragon's-head: flowers ſomewhat ſpiked, ſtem-leaves ovate-oblong, gaſhed, bractes linear-lanceolate, denticulate-ſpiny. Native of Siberia.

6. Dracocephalum Auſtriacum, or Auſtrian dragon's-head: leaves and bractes linear, parted, ſpiny. This is a beautiful plant, and grows in Auſtria and Hungary, where it was firſt obſerved by Cluſius. It varies according to its ſoil in point of number of ſtems, &c. The ſtems are annual, ſquariſh, and villoſe: the leaves oppoſite; hoary below, ſmooth and green above, and are deeply lobed or cut in a pinnatifid manner. The flowers

are

are axillary on the upper part of the plant, commonly in pairs, ſometimes in threes; and are of a violet-purple colour, paler without.

7. Dracocephalum Ruyſchiana, or hyſſop-leaved dragon's-head: leaves and bractes lanceolate, undivided, awnleſs. Stems about two feet high, with two ſmooth linear leaves at each joint, about an inch long, and one-eighth of an inch broad, with a deep furrow along the middle. The flowers appear in June, and are of a fine blue colour. Native of Norway, Sweden, Swiſſerland, and Siberia. This and the foregoing ſpecies were ſeparated by Boerhaave, and made a diſtinct genus, under the name of *Ruyſchiana*, in honour of Dr. Ruyſch, who was profeſſor of anatomy and botany at Amſterdam.

II. In whorls. 8. Dracocephalum Sibiricum, or Siberian dragon's-head: flowers ſubverticilled; peduncles bifid, pointing one way; leaves cordate-oblong, acuminate, naked. The ſtalks of this do not grow erect, like the preceding, but ſpread nearer to an horizontal poſition; they divide into ſeveral branches, which have a pair of large leaves at each joint, and four ſmaller, two on each ſide; they are ſmooth, have ſharp indentures on their edges, and ſtand erect. The flowers come out from the ſide of the ſtalks at the baſe of the leaves, two or three together on each ſide; calyx purple, corolla of a paler blue. Native of Siberia. This, and all the foregoing ſpecies, are perennial. The third is marked in the Kew catalogue as biennial.

9. Dracocephalum Moldavica, or Moldavian dragon's-head or balm: leaves dotted underneath; bractes lanceolate, the ſerratures capillaceous. This is an annual plant, riſing with branching ſtalks a foot and a half high, with oblong leaves, deeply ſerrate on their edges. The flowers come out in whorls round the ſtalks at every joint; they are blue, and appear in July, continuing to the middle of Auguſt. The ſeeds ripen in September. The plant has a ſtrong balſamic odour, which to ſome perſons is very agreeable. Native of Moldavia. Cultivated in 1596, by Gerarde.

10. Dracocephalum caneſcens, or hoary dragon's-head: bractes oblong, with ſpiny ſerratures; leaves ſubtomentoſe. This has hoary ſtalks, a foot and a half high putting out two or three ſide branches, with hoary leaves near two inches long, and half an inch broad, a little indented on their edges; they are placed juſt under the whorls of flowers, which ſit cloſe to the ſtalk; the corolla is large, of a fine blue colour, and makes a pretty appearance among the hoary leaves. It flowers and ſeeds about the ſame time as the foregoing ſort, and is generally treated as an annual, but the roots will live two years in a dry ſoil. There is a variety, with white flowers. Diſcovered by Tournefort in the Levant.

11. Dracocephalum peltatum, or willow-leaved dragon's-head: bractes orbiculate, ſerrate-ciliate. This is an annual plant, about a foot high, ſending out two ſmall branches from the lower part. Flowers ſmall, purpliſh, coming out at the ſame time with the two foregoing. Native of the Levant, whence Tournefort ſent the ſeeds to the royal garden at Paris.

12. Dracocephalum grandiflorum, or great-flowered dragon's-head; leaves crenate; root-leaves cordate; ſtem-leaves orbiculate, ſeſſile; bractes acuminate-toothed. Native of Siberia. That deſcribed in the *Species Plantarum* is a variety of this.

13. Dracocephalum nutans, or nodding dragon's-head: bractes oblong, ovate, quite entire; corollas rather large, nodding. This alſo is annual. Stalks many, weak, about nine inches high, having at the bottom ovate-lanceolate leaves about two inches long, and an inch and a quarter broad, crenate, and on pretty long foot-ſtalks. The flowers are of a deep blue colour; the ſeeds ripen in autumn. Native of Siberia.

14. Dracocephalum thymiflorum, or ſmall-flowered dragon's-head: bractes oblong, quite entire; corollas ſcarcely larger than the calyx. Stalks a foot and a half high; lower leaves like thoſe of betony, upon very long foot-ſtalks; upper leaves ſmall, and cloſer to the ſtalks. The flowers come out in whorls at every joint, they are of a pale purple or blue colour, and being ſmall make little appearance. Seeds ſmall, ovate-oblong, ſlightly convex on one ſide, angular on the other, dark cheſnut colour. Native of Siberia.

15. Dracocephalum Cochin-chinenſe, or dragon's-head of Cochin-china: flowers in ſpikes; bractes roundiſh, acute; leaves ovate-lanceolate, quite entire. Stem herbaceous, ten inches high, erect, grooved, villoſe. Flowers violet-coloured. Native of Cochin-china.

Propagation and Culture. 1, 2. Theſe will live in the open air, but require a moiſt ſoil, or ſhould be duly watered in dry weather, otherwiſe the leaves will ſhrink, and the flowers make little appearance.

3. Balm of Gilead is uſually kept in the green-houſe; but in mild winters the plants will live abroad in warm borders; and thoſe which are kept in pots will thrive much better when ſheltered under a frame than in a green-houſe, where the plants are apt to draw up weak; for they ſhould have as much free air as poſſible in mild weather, and only require to be ſheltered from ſevere froſt. This may be propagated by ſeeds, which, if ſown in autumn, will more certainly grow than thoſe which are ſown in the ſpring; but, if ſown in pots, they muſt be ſheltered under a frame in the winter, and, if the plants do not come up the ſame autumn, they will riſe in the ſpring; but if the ſeeds are ſown in the full ground, it ſhould be in a warm border; and in hard froſt they ſhould be ſheltered, otherwiſe the young plants will be deſtroyed. The plants may alſo be propagated by cuttings; which, if planted in a ſhady border any time in the ſummer, will very ſoon take root, and furniſh plenty of rooted plants.

6, 7, 8. Theſe plants are propagated by ſeed, which ſhould be ſown the latter end of March, in a bed of freſh light earth in an open expoſure, and in about five or ſix weeks after, the plants will appear, when they ſhould be carefully cleared from weeds; and if the ſeaſon ſhould prove dry, they muſt be refreſhed now and then with water, which will greatly promote their growth. When the plants are about two inches high, they ſhould be carefully tranſplanted into a bed or border of freſh, light, undunged earth, obſerving to ſhade them from the ſun until they have taken root, as alſo to refreſh them with water until they are well eſtabliſhed in this bed; after which time they will require no further care, but to keep them conſtantly clear from weeds till Michaelmas, when they are to be removed into the places where they are deſigned to remain for good. At Michaelmas, when the plants are tranſplanted for good, they ſhould be carefully taken up with balls of earth to their roots; and they muſt be planted in the middle of the borders in the pleaſure garden, in freſh light earth, intermixing them with other hardy plants of the ſame growth, where they will make a pretty appearance when they are in flower, and will continue three or four years; and in ſome poor ſtony ſoils the roots will live ſix or ſeven years, but theſe do not produce ſo large ſpikes of flowers as the younger and more vigorous plants. Therefore, as theſe plants do not continue many years, it will be proper to raiſe a ſupply of young plants to ſucceed them, for the old plants will produce ſeeds plentifully, which are ripe the latter end of Auguſt or the beginning of September, when they ſhould be gathered in dry weather, and kept in a warm dry room till the time for ſowing them.

9–14. All theſe ſorts may be propagated by ſeeds, which may be ſown either in the ſpring or autumn, in ſmall patches, upon the borders where they are to remain. When the plants come up, they ſhould be thinned where they grow too near together, and kept clear from weeds.

DRACONA'RIUS, *ſ.* in antiquity, DRAGON-BEARER. Several nations, as the Perſians, Parthians, Scythians, &c. bore dragons or ſerpents on their ſtandards; whence the

ſtandards were called *dracones*. The Romans borrowed the cuſtom from the Parthians; or, as Caſaubon informs us, from the Dacæ; or, as Codin, from the Aſſyrians. The ſoldier who bore the dragon or ſtandard was called by the Romans *draconarius*; and by the Greeks δρακοναριος and δρακοντειοφορος.

DRACONI'TES (John), a learned German Lutheran divine and biſhop, born at Carlſtadt in Franconia, in 1494. By his learning, abilities, and prudence, he acquired ſo high a reputation, that he was employed in ſeveral eccleſiaſtical negociations of conſiderable importance, and was ſucceſſively appointed to the biſhoprics of Marpurg and Roſtoch, and Samelande in the Pruſſian dominions. He was the author of Commentaries on ſome of the prophets; and Commentaries on the Goſpels for Sundays, written in Latin, folio; and other works, in which his erudition and critical ſkill were advantageouſly diſplayed. He alſo commenced the preparation of a grand work, being A Polyglot of the Bible, in five languages, in imitation of that of Origen, and of the Complutenſian edition, which he did not live to finiſh. He died in 1566.

DRACON'TIC MONTH, *ſ.* The time of one revolution of the moon from her aſcending node, called *caput draconis*, to her return to the ſame point, or place.

DRACON'TIUM, *ſ.* [from δρακων, a dragon.] In botany, a genus of the claſs gynandria, order polyandria, (heptandria monogynia, *Schreber*,) natural order piperitæ, (aroideæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: ſpathe boat-form, leathery, one-valved, very large; ſpadix extremely ſimple, cylindric, very ſhort, coated on all ſides with fructifications diſpoſed into a head, of each of which the perianthium proper none, unleſs you call the corolla ſo. Corolla: proper five-petalled, concave; petals ovate, obtuſe, ſomewhat equal, coloured. Stamina: in each filaments ſeven, linear, depreſſed, upright, equal, longer than the corollet; antheræ four-cornered, twin, oblong, obtuſe, upright. Piſtillum: germ ſomewhat ovate; ſtyle columnar, ſtraight, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma obſcure, three-ſided. Pericarpium: in each a roundiſh berry. Seeds: very many.—*Eſſential Character.* Spathe, boat-form; ſpadix, covered; calyx, none; petals, five; berries, many-ſeeded.

Species. 1. Dracontium polyphyllum, or many-leaved dragon: ſcape very ſhort; petiole rooted, torn, leaflets three-parted; diviſions pinnatifid. This has a large knobbed irregular root, covered with a rugged brown ſkin; the ſtalk riſes about a foot high, is ſmooth, and of a purple colour, full of ſharp protuberances of different colours, ſhining like the ſkin of a ſerpent; it is naked to the top, where it has a tuft of leaves, which are divided into many parts. The flower-ſtalk riſes immediately from the root, and is ſeldom more than three inches high; having an oblong ſwelling hood, or ſpathe, at top, which opens lengthwiſe, ſhewing the ſhort thick pointed ſtyle within, upon which the flowers are cloſely ranged. It grows naturally in ſeveral of the iſlands of America; alſo in Surinam, and Japan, where they prepare a medicine from the acrid roots, which they call *konjakf*, and eſteem as a great emmenagogue; diſſolute women uſe it there to procure abortion. In the Society iſles, it is cultivated for the ſake of the roots, which are eaten in a ſcarcity of the bread-fruit, notwithſtanding their extreme acrimony.

2. Dracontium ſpinoſum, or prickly dragon: leaves ſagittate; peduncles and petioles prickly. It grows naturally in the iſland of Ceylon, and in ſeveral parts of India.

3. Dracontium fœtidum, fetid dragon, or ſcunk-weed: leaves roundiſh. The flowers appear firſt; after they are arrived to a ſtate of perfection, the leaves come out at a ſmall diſtance in a conic form, very cloſely rolled together; they are nearly ovate when expanded, and petioled; the plant has no ſtem; the globe of flowers is nearly the colour of the ſpathe, which is beautifully variegated with ſcarlet and yellow; the corolla has four erect, very thick, narrow, obtruncated, petals; the ſtamens have four flattiſh filaments riſing from the receptacle, longer than the corolla; ſtyle rather longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma bifid; ſeeds large, roundiſh, ſingle, incloſed within the receptacle. Native of North America, in ſwamps and borders of meadows; flowers in April and May. The vulgar names of ſcunk cabbage and ſcunk weed are taken from its rank ſmell, nearly reſembling that of a ſcunk or polecat. The roots dried and powdered are an excellent remedy in aſthmatic caſes. It may be given with ſafety, to children, in doſes of four, five, or ſix, grains, and to adults, in doſes of twenty grains and upwards. It appears to be antiſpaſmodic, and bids fair to be uſeful in many diſorders. In collecting the roots, particular care ought to be taken that the white hellebore, or poke-root, which ſome call ſcunk weed, be not miſtaken for this. There is an obvious diſtinction, the former has a ſtalk, but this has none. Cattle do not touch it during the ſummer. The Swedes ſettled in North America call it *byorn-blad*, or *byorn-retter* (bear's leaf or bear's root), becauſe the bears, when they leave their winter habitations in the ſpring, are very fond of it.

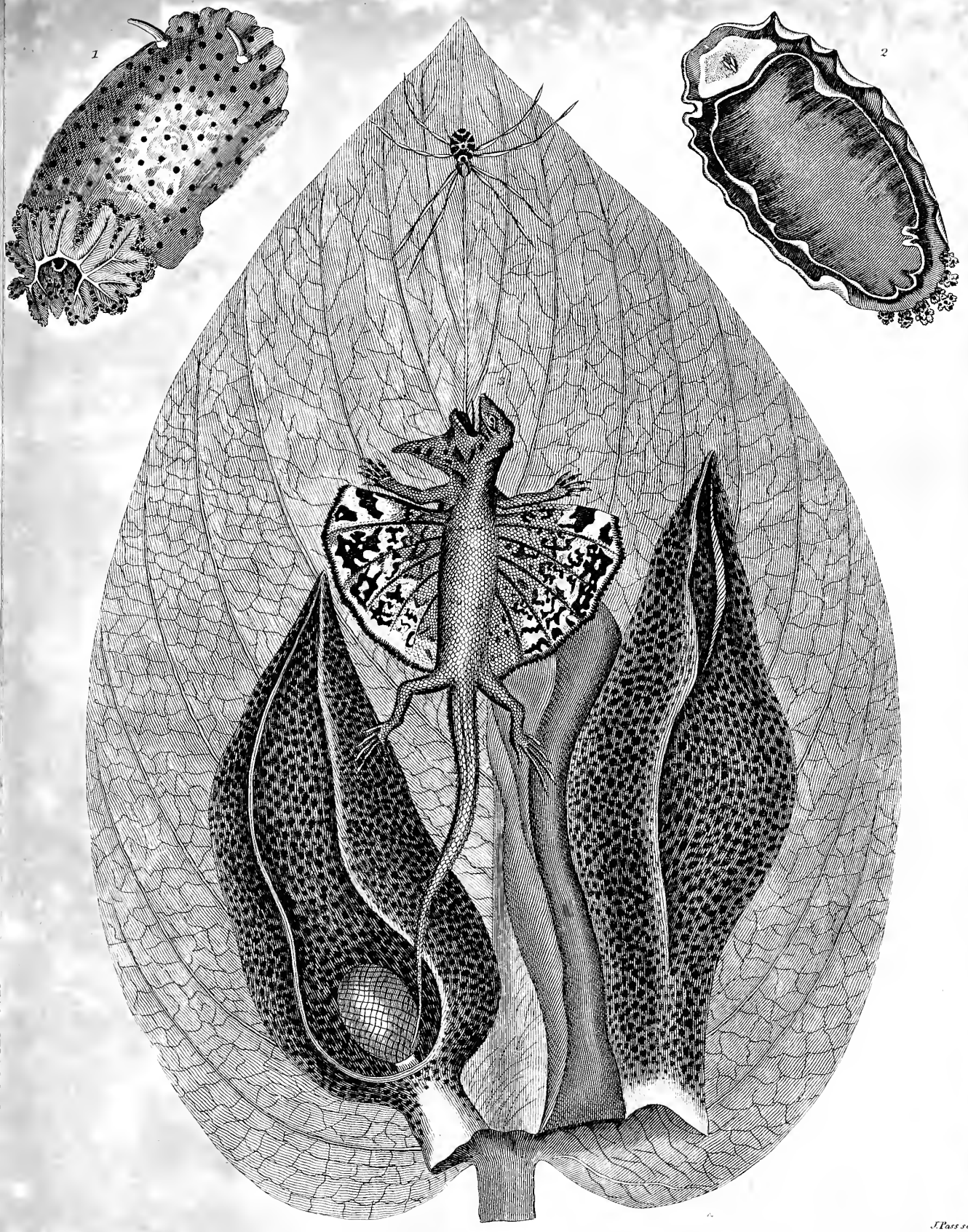
4. Dracontium Camſchatcenſe, or Kamtſcatka dragon: leaves lanceolate. This has roots like the common arum, and the leaves come out each on a ſeparate foot-ſtalk, immediately from the root, as in that plant; it has not flowered in England; Siberia is its native country.

5. Dracontium pertuſum, or perforate-leaved dragon: leaves perforated; ſtem climbing. This has ſlender jointed ſtalks, which put out roots at every joint, that faſten to the trunks of trees, walls, or any ſupport which is near them, and thereby riſe to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet; the leaves are placed alternately, ſtanding upon long foot-ſtalks; they are four or five inches long, and two and a half broad, having ſeveral oblong holes in each, ſo that on the firſt view they appear as if eaten by inſects. The flowers are produced at the top of the ſtalk, which always ſwells to a larger ſize in that part than in any other; theſe are covered with an oblong ſpatha (or hood) of a whitiſh green colour, which opens longitudinally on one ſide, and ſhews the ſpadix cloſely covered with flowers, of a pale yellow inclining to white. When this plant begins to flower, it ſeldom advances farther in height, ſo that theſe ſeldom are more than ſeven or eight feet high; but the leaves are much larger on theſe, than thoſe of the plants which ramble much farther. It grows naturally in moſt of the iſlands in the Weſt Indies, and in the iſland of Tanna in the South Seas; and was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1752.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt and ſecond ſorts being tender, require a warm ſtove to preſerve them in England. The roots muſt be planted in pots filled with light kitchen-garden earth, and plunged into the tan-bed in the ſtove, where they ſhould conſtantly remain; in the winter they muſt be watered very ſparingly, but in warm weather, when the plants are in vigour, they muſt be often refreſhed, but it ſhould not be given them in too great quantities; with this management the plants will flower, but their roots do not increaſe here. The fourth ſpecies requires a ſhady ſituation, and will bear the greateſt cold of this country. The fifth is eaſily propagated by cuttings, which, if planted in pots filled with poor ſandy earth, and plunged into a hot-bed, will ſoon put out roots, if they had none before; but there are few of the joints which have not roots: the plants being tender, will not live in the open air in England, therefore the pots ſhould be placed near the walls of the hot-houſe, againſt which the plants will climb, and faſten their roots into the wall, and thereby ſupport the ſtalks. They ſhould have but little water given them in the winter, but in warm weather it muſt be given them three or four times a-week, and in the ſummer the free air ſhould be admitted to them in plenty. The plants have no particular ſeaſon of flowering, for they ſometimes flower in autumn, and at other times in the ſpring, but they do not ripen their ſeeds in England. Theſe plants are preſerved in the gardens of the curious in England and Holland,

more

DORIS, DRACO, AND DRACONTIUM.



J. Pass sculp.

1. The Doris Argo, or Sea Lemon. 2. Under part of the same. 3. The Draco Volans, or flying Dragon, upon the Dracontium foetidum or Skunkweed.

London. Published as the Act directs July 30 1803 by J. Wilkes.

more for the ſake of variety than for beauty; for, except the fifth ſort, there is not any of them which make much appearance; that indeed may be ſuffered to have a place againſt the wall of the ſtove, over which it will ſpread, and cover the nakedneſs of the wall; and the leaves, which are ſo remarkably perforated, remaining all the year, make a ſingular appearance.

All the other ſorts of dragon being tender plants, will not live in this country, unleſs they are preſerved in the warmeſt ſtoves; the ſeveral American ſorts grow naturally in the woods in Jamaica, and other hot parts of America; the climbing ſorts twiſt themſelves round the trunks of trees, into which they faſten their roots, which are ſent forth from their joints, and riſe to the height of thirty or forty feet. Theſe climbing ſorts are eaſily propagated by cuttings, which, being very ſucculent, may be brought over to England in a box of dry hay, if they are packed up ſeparate, ſo as not to injure each other by the moiſture, which is apt to flow out at the part where they are cut off, which may occaſion a fermentation, and thereby rot the cuttings. When the cuttings arrive, they ſhould be planted in ſmall pots filled with light freſh earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark, being very careful not to let them have too much moiſture until they have taken root, leſt it rot them: when they have taken root, they muſt be frequently refreſhed with water; and when they are grown pretty large, they ſhould be placed in the bark-bed in the ſtove, where they muſt be placed near ſome ſtrong plants, to which they may faſten themſelves, otherwiſe they will not thrive; for though they will ſend forth roots at their joints, which will faſten to the mortar of the ſtove, when placed againſt the wall, yet they will not thrive near ſo well as againſt a ſtrong plant, which will afford them nouriſhment.

The other ſorts are propagated by offsets from their roots; theſe may be procured from the countries of their growth, and ſhould be planted in tubs of earth, about a month before they are put on-board the ſhip to tranſport them; theſe tubs ſhould be placed in a ſhady ſituation until they have taken root. In their paſſage, great care ſhould be had to keep them from ſalt water, as alſo not to let them have too much water given them; for if they have a little water once or twice a-week while they are in a hot climate, and when they are come into a cooler climate once in a-fortnight, this will be ſufficient for them; and it ſhould be done ſparingly, leſt it rot them; for if the tops of the plants ſhould decay for want of water in their paſſage, if the roots are not rotted, they will ſoon recover with proper care. Theſe plants will riſe to the height of three, four, or five, feet, and will afford a very agreeable variety amongſt other tender exotic plants in the ſtove. See ARUM and POTHOS.

DRACUNCULO'IDES, *ſ.* in botany. See HÆMANTHUS.

DRACUN'CULUS, *ſ.* in botany. See ACHILLEA, ARTEMISIA, ARUM CALLA, POTHOS, and RUDBECKIA.

DRACUN'CULUS, *ſ.* [from δρακων, Gr. a ſerpent.] The GUINEA WORM, called alſo *ſolitary worm*. The Arabians call it *Medinenſis*, or *medena vena*. They ſtyled it *vena*, becauſe they doubted its being a living animal, and *Medinenſis*, from the frequency of its appearance at Medina. Hence Avicenna treats of it among abſceſſes. Dr. Frend ſays, that Ætius is the firſt who gives an account of theſe worms; but Plutarch quotes Agatharchides for an account of them, who wrote long before Ætius. Plutarch calls them δρακοντια μακρα. They are common in both the Indies, in moſt parts of Africa, particularly in Guinea, from which they derived their trivial name; in Swiſſerland, Genoa, and many other hot countries. It is the *filaria medinenſis* of Gmelin's Linnæus. See FILARIA. This worm is commonly found in the legs, but ſometimes it is in the muſcular part of the arms. While they move under the ſkin they create no trouble; but in length of time the place near the dracunculus ſuppurates, and the animal puts forth its head. If it be drawn, it excites conſiderable uneaſineſs, eſpecially if drawn ſo forcibly as to break it; for the part left within creates intolerable pain. *Ætius*, ii. *c.* 85. Paulus Ægineta mentions them as being always ſeated in the muſcular parts of the thighs, legs, and arms; and he ſays, that ſometimes they are met with in the ſides of children. In the ſixth volume of the Edinburgh Medical Eſſays, mention is made of one that was three yards and a half in length. In ſome inſtances, beſides the pain which it occaſions, a fever is alſo a conſequence. Theſe worms are ſaid to be frequent in the morning dew, from whence they enter the naked feet of the negroes, and bury themſelves under the cuticle.

Dr. Towne, in his Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of the Weſt Indies, deſcribes this worm as being long, white, round, and reſembling ſmall round bobbing. This deſcription is juſt. Nothing need be done until a tumor comes on; and then the beſt method is to promote ſuppuration: as ſoon as the tumor is open, the head of the worm appears, which, being tied by a thread, may be ſecured on a roll of linen ſpread with ſticking-plaiſter, and as the worm appears, it may be rolled round this linen, until the whole is extracted; after which, the treatment will be only as in common caſes. During the time that this worm is coming out, the greateſt care is neceſſary that it may not be broken, for the conſequence of ſuch an accident are tedious ulcers in the whole length of that part which is poſſeſſed of the remaining worm. A daily uſe of aloes, or of any other anthelmintic, is convenient, during the extraction of the worm, as ſuch means are obſerved to haſten its expulſion. Dr. Iſert, phyſician-general to the Daniſh ſettlement in Africa, on his return from the Piton mountains, found his ancle very much ſwelled and inflamed; and, on examination, diſcovered that it was occaſioned by a dracunculus, which he gradually extracted: it was near five feet in length, and about the thickneſs of a ſtraw. He imagines that he brought it from Guinea; and if ſo, he muſt have had it for eight months about him before it produced any inconvenience. See his Voyage to Guinea, Dordt, 1790.

DRA'CUT, a townſhip of the American States, in the northernmoſt part of Middleſex county, on the bank of Merrimack river, oppoſite Patucket falls: thirty miles north by weſt of Boſton, and twenty-eight ſouth-weſt of Exeter, in New Hampſhire.

DRAD, *adj.* [for *dread*, or the part. paſſ. of *To dread.*] Terrible; formidable; dreaded:

Th' utmoſt ſand-breach they ſhortly fetch,
Whilſt the *drad* danger does behind remain. *Spenſer.*

DRAFF, *ſ.* [ðrop, Sax. dirty; *draf*, Dut. the ſediment of ale.] Refuſe; lees; dregs: properly ſomething fluid.—You would think I had a hundred and fifty tattered prodigals lately come from ſwinekeeping, from eating *draff* and huſks. *Shakeſpeare.*

'Twere ſimple fury, ſtill thyſelf to waſte
On ſuch as have no taſte;
To offer them a ſurfeit of pure bread
Whoſe appetite is dead!
No, give them grains their fill;
Huſks, *draff*, to drink and ſwill. *Ben Jonſon.*

Refuſe; ſweepings. Perhaps improper.—Younger brothers but the *draff* of nature. *Dryden.*

DRAFFY, *adj.* Worthleſs; dreggy.

DRAFT, *adj.* [corrupt for *draught.*] Employed to draw.—Ulyſſes and old Neſtor yoke you like *draft* oxen, and make you plough up the wair. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRAFT, *ſ.* An order in writing to receive money. See BILL of EXCHANGE, vol. iii. p. 29.

To DRAG, *v. a.* [ðnaʒan, Sax.] To pull along the ground by main force; to draw heavily along:

Such his aſpect, when, ſoil'd with bloody duſt,
Dragg'd by the cords which thro' his feet were thruſt.
Denham.

To

To draw any thing burthenſome, any thing from which one cannot diſengage one's ſelf:

Can I, who lov'd ſo well,
To part with all my bliſs to ſave my lover,
Oh! can I *drag* a wretched life without him? *Smith.*

To draw contemptuouſly along, as a thing unworthy to be carried.—He triumphs in St. Auſtin's opinion; and is not only content to *drag* me at his chariot-wheels, but he makes a ſhew of me. *Stillingfleet.*—To pull about with violence and ignominy:

They ſhall ſurpriſe
The ſerpent, prince of air, and *drag* in chains
Thro' all his realm, and there confounded leave. *Milton.*

To pull roughly and forcibly:

To fall, that's juſtice;
But then, to *drag* him after! For to die
And yet in death to conquer, is my wiſh. *Dryden.*

To DRAG, *v. n.* To hang ſo low as to trail or grate upon the ground.—A door is ſaid to *drag*, when, by its ill hanging on its hinges, the bottom edge of the door rides in its ſweep upon the floor. *Moxon.*

From hence are heard the groans of ghoſts, the pains
Of ſounding laſhes, and of *dragging* chains. *Dryden.*

DRAG, *ſ.* A net drawn along the bottom of the water:

Caſting-nets were ſpread in ſhallow brooks,
Drags in the deep, and baits were hung on hooks. *Dryden.*

An inſtrument with hooks to catch hold of things under water.—You may in the morning find it near to ſome fixed place, and then take it up with a *drag*-hook, or otherwiſe. *Walton.*—A kind of car drawn by the hand.—The *drag* is made ſomewhat like a low car: it is uſed for the carriage of timber, and then is drawn by the handle by two or more men. *Moxon.*—In huſbandry, an implement to break the clods, and tear the ground; a large harrow. A raft to carry any thing down a river; that which hangs over a ſhip, and prevents her ſailing.

DRAGE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Holſtein: four miles north of Itzehoa.

DRAGE, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Netza, ſix miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Drieſen, in the New Mark of Brandenburg.

DRA'GEMEL, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola, on the Save: ſix miles north of Laubach.

To DRAG'GLE, *v. a.* To make dirty by dragging on the ground:

You'll ſee a *draggled* damſel, here and there,
From Billingſgate her fiſhy traffic bear. *Gay.*

To DRAG'GLE, *v. n.* To grow dirty by being drawn along the ground:

His *draggling* tail hung in the dirt,
Which on his rider he would flirt. *Hudibras.*

DRAG'MA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A handful, a gripe. With apothecaries, a handful of herbs.

DRAG'MIS, *ſ.* in pharmacy, as much as may be taken up with three fingers.

DRAG'NET, *ſ.* A net which is drawn along the bottom of the water.—Whatſoever old Time, with his huge *dragnet*, has conveyed down to us along the ſtream of ages, whether it be ſhells or ſhellfiſh, jewels or pebbles, ſticks or ſtraws, ſeaweeds or mud, theſe are the ancients, theſe are the fathers. *Watts.*

Dragnets were made to fiſh within the deep,
And caſting-nets did rivers bottoms ſweep. *May.*

DRA'GOMAN, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Bulgaria: twenty-two miles weſt-north-weſt of Sofia.

DRA'GOMAN, or DROGMAN, *ſ.* A term in the Eaſt for an interpreter, whoſe office is to facilitate commerce between the natives and foreigners.

DRAGOMES'TRO, a town of European Turkey, in Livadia; taken by the Venetians in 1684, but abandoned ſoon after: forty-four miles weſt-north-weſt of Lepanto.

DRAGOMIR'NA, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia: eight miles north of Suczava.

DRA'GON, *ſ.* [*draco*, Lat. of δρακων, Gr.] A reptile of the lizard kind, furniſhed with wings like a bat. See the article DRACO. An imaginary and terrific monſter, much celebrated in the romances of remote ages; and uſed ſymbolically in many paſſages of the holy ſcriptures, wherein it is frequently applied to deſignate the malignity of Satan, the ſpiritual enemy of man, and to convey to the mind an idea of the monſtrous ſhapes and deplorable condition of the fallen angels, as a puniſhment for their rebellion againſt God. Notions of the real exiſtence of wide-waſting animals of this deſcription, with wings, and ſcales, and forked tongues, alſo breathing fire and ſmoke, have too long embarraſſed the apprehenſions of weak minds, and uninformed readers. A late writer, therefore, inveſtigating the various accounts we have of the dragon, with a view to remove theſe vague and ſuperſtitious impreſſions, is led to believe that he has diſcovered the origin of this feigned monſter, among the hieroglyphics of ancient Egypt. "Before the Egyptians were become acquainted with the exact time of the periodical overflowing of the Nile, they frequently found their harveſts deſtroyed by the then unlooked-for inundation. They therefore regarded that river as the enemy of agriculture or huſbandry. Agriculture or huſbandry was ſymbolized as a child, the ſon of Oſiris and Iſis, or the ſun and earth; and, thus perſonified, was denominated Horus. The Nile was characterized by a crocodile, &c. The character of a crocodile was hence conſidered as the ſymbol of any enemy. In commemorating the general deluge, they alſo ſymbolized that event by a water-monſter killing Oſiris, or the ſun. Hence the water-monſter, the crocodile, or dragon, became the repreſentation of the enemy of the ſun. The ſun the Egyptians confounded with Ham, and Ham they confounded with the Almighty: hence thoſe ſigns became indicative of the enemy of the Almighty, or of the evil principle, or the devil. Moſes, we are told, was learned in all the wiſdom of the Egyptians; and almoſt every page of the pentateuch reminds us of the idolatry of the Iſraelites. And mention is expreſsly made by the prophet Amos, v. 25, 26, and from him by St. Stephen, Acts ii. 43, 47. of the images, the types, or ſymbols, which they brought out of Egypt. The convertible uſe of the terms, *Ob*, *Peten*, *Python*, *Typhon*, &c. ſo often made, both by the ſacred and prophane writers, corroborates this idea. The words Satan and devil (Διαβολος) alſo ſignifying an enemy, accuſer, or adverſary, and ſo frequently occurring in the ſcriptures, and which are applied even to men, 2 *Sam.* xix. 22; and *John* vi. 7; 2 *Tim.* iii. 3, &c. add ſtrength to the conjecture.

"The crocodile was peculiarly deſcriptive of the Nile; and was, therefore, more generally and longer adopted as the repreſentative of that river, the original foe. The emblem of the winds was, a bird; or, in compound ſymbols, the wings of one. When the Egyptians had at length aſcertained the annual inundation of the Nile, they exhibited to the public view, the ſymbol of a crocodile with wings upon his back, in order to indicate to the people, that the Eteſian winds had ſet in, and that, in conſequence, the Nile was about to overflow. The crocodile with wings, ſtrongly agrees with the repreſentation of the dragon; and the crocodile is evidently the tannim, the leviathan, &c. of the ſcriptures. The name of the leviathan has alluſion to its ſcales: now the whale (as the word is frequently rendered) has no ſcales; but the ſcales of the crocodile are proverbial. "A flame goeth out of his mouth," ſays Job. The crocodile, from long repreſſion of breath in the water, is remarked by naturaliſts, as emitting it ſo as to reſemble ſmoke: and is not the dragon of romance repreſented as belching out fire? The tannim

nim of Ezekiel too has feet; and ſo, it ſhould ſeem, had the leviathan of Job, xli. 30. The feet of the crocodile reſemble thoſe of the imaginary dragon; but whales have no feet. Again, the tannim of Ezekiel are deſcribed as being in "the river of Egypt," where whales are not known, but crocodiles are proverbially numerous. Eve, Heva, Chavah, the name of the firſt woman, ſignified in ſeveral of the oriental languages, a ſerpent: it alſo ſignified *life*, or to *cauſe to live*; and ſo Moſes himſelf interprets: "And he called her name Eve, becauſe ſhe was the mother of all living." Hence the Moſaic allegory of the fall. The ſerpent became the ſymbol of the tempter, or enemy of man. It had before been conſidered as the emblem of life: but Moſes, in order to counteract ſuch idolatry, repreſented it as the introducer or author of death. Thus the ſerpent was confounded with the dragon; and hence we find the terms tannim, nachaſh, and leviathan, uſed often for each other (compare *Gen.* iii. 1; *Ex.* vii. 9, 10, 15, &c.) and equally tranſlated in the Septuagint by that of Δρακοντων. See *Pſalm* lxxiv. 13, 14; *Ezek.* xxxii. 2; *Job*, xli. 1; *Iſaiah*, xxvii. 1; *Job*, xxvi. 13; *Amos*, ix. 3, &c."

The learned Dr. Bryant traces the origin of the dragon, and its introduction into fable and romance, from a ſimilar ſource, and from the ſame country. According to this author, "towers were erected on artificial mounds, in Egypt and Syria, as places of ſafety, and as repoſitories for riches and treaſure. Being generally royal edifices, and very ſtrong, they were termed *trachon*. There were two hills with towers of this denomination near Damaſcus, from whence undoubtedly the Regio Traconitis received its name. The Greeks, who brought their arts and mythology out of Egypt, ſophiſticated this term by calling ſuch places Δρακων; from whence in a great meaſure aroſe the notion of virgins and treaſures being guarded by ſleepleſs dragons. When the Greeks underſtood that in theſe temples idols were worſhipped under the form of a ſerpent, they concluded that *trachon* was a ſerpent; and hence came the word *draco* to be appropriated to ſuch an animal: for the draco was always conſidered as an imaginary being. Hence in romances we often read of pious virgins cruelly expoſed to dragons and ſea-monſters; and of dragons which laid waſte whole countries or provinces, till they were encountered and ſlain by ſome hero of eminent proweſs. All the poetical accounts of knights and heroes engaging with dragons, ſeem therefore to have ariſen from fables or miſconceptions about theſe towers or temples, which thoſe perſons either founded, or took in war: or if they were deities, of whom ſuch ſtory is told, theſe temples were erected to their honour. But the Greeks made no diſtinction: they were fond of heroiſm: and no colony could ſettle any were, and erect ſuch a temple, but there was ſuppoſed to have been a contention between a hero and a dragon." See HYDRA.

DRA'GON, *ſ.* in botany. See ARUM and DRACONTIUM.

DRA'GON's BLOOD, *ſ.* A red-coloured, inodorous, and inſipid reſin, inſoluble in water, ſoluble in ſpirit of wine and in oils, to both which liquors it communicates a red colour. By fire it is fuſible, inflammable, and it emits an acid vapour, like that of benzoin. It is obtained principally from the *calamus dioicus*, or dioecous rattan, of Linnæus. A ſolution of dragon's blood in ſpirit of wine is uſed for ſtaining marble, to which it gives a red tinge, which penetrates more or leſs deeply according to the heat of the marble during the application. But as it ſpreads at the ſame that it ſinks deep, for fine deſigns the marble ſhould be cold. Mr. Du Fay ſays, that, by adding pitch to this ſolution, the colour may be rendered deeper. The Dutch often adulterate this reſin with mixtures of gum arabic, Braſil wood, alum, &c. but theſe are diſcovered by their diſſolving in water, or by their crackling and not burning in the fire. It is not much uſed as a medicine, and Cullen thinks it ought to be expunged from the Materia Medica; though it is recommended as a gentle incraſſant, deſiccative, and reſtringent.

DRA'GON-FLY, *ſ.* See LIBELLULA.

DRA'GON's HEAD, *ſ.* in botany. See DRACOCEPHALUM.

DRA'GON's HEAD AND TAIL, *ſ.* [*caput & cauda draconis.*] The nodes of the planets; or the two points wherein the ecliptic is interſected by the orbits of the planets, and particularly that of the moon; making with it angles of five degrees and eighteen minutes. One of theſe points looks northward; the moon beginning then to have north latitude, and the other ſouthward, where ſhe commences ſouth. Thus her deviation from the ecliptic ſeems (according to the fancy of ſome) to deſcribe a figure like that of a dragon, whoſe belly is where ſhe has the greateſt latitude; the interſection repreſenting the head and tail, from which imaginary reſemblance this denomination has ariſen, to ſignify the moon's nodes. See ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 326.

DRA'GON-TREE, *ſ.* in botany. See DRACÆNA.

DRAGO'NERA, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Capitanata: fifteen miles north of Volturara.

DRAGO'NERA, a ſmall uncultivated iſland in the Mediterranean, not above a mile from the weſt coaſt of the iſland of Majorca. Lat. 39. 35. N. lon. 19. E. Peak of Teneriffe.

DRA'GONET, or DRAGON-FISH, in ichthyology. See CALLIONYMUS, vol. iii. p. 627.

DRA'GONISH, *adj.* Having the form of a dragon; dragonlike. *An arbitrary word:*

Sometimes we ſee a cloud that's *dragoniſh*;
A vapour ſometimes like a bear or lion. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRA'GONLIKE, *adj.* Furious; fiery:

He fights *dragonlike*, and does achieve
As ſoon as draw his ſword. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRAGOON', *ſ.* [from *dragen*, Germ. to carry.] A ſoldier that ſerves indifferently either on foot or horſeback.—Two regiments of *dragoons* ſuffered much in the late action. *Tatler.*

To DRAGOON', *v. a.* To perſecute by abandoning a place to the rage of ſoldiers; to harraſs:

In politics I hear you're ſtaunch,
Directly bent againſt the French;
Deny to have your free-born foe
Dragoon'd into a wooden ſhoe. *Prior.*

DRAGO'T, a town of European Turkey, in Albania, on the Crevaſta: thirty-ſix miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Durazzo.

DRAGUIGNAN', a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Var, containing about 9000 inhabitants: four leagues and a half north-weſt of Frejus, and nine and a half weſt of Antibes. Lat. 44. 34. N. lon. 24. 8. E. Ferro.

DRAGUSZA'NI, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia: forty-eight miles eaſt of Jaſſi.

DRA'HEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Pomerania: twenty miles ſouth-weſt of New Stettin.

To DRAIN, *v. a.* [*trainer*, Fr.] To draw off gradually.—The fountains *drain* the water from the ground adjacent, and leave but ſufficient moiſture to breed moſs.—Whilſt a foreign war devoured our ſtrength, and *drained* our treaſures, luxury and expences increaſed at home. *Atterbury.*—To empty, by drawing gradually away what it contains:

Sinking waters, the firſt land to *drain*,
Fill'd the capacious deep, and form'd the main. *Roſcom.*

To make quite dry.—When wine is to be bottled, waſh your bottles, but do not *drain* them. *Swift.*

DRAIN, *ſ.* The channel through which liquids are gradually drawn; a watercourſe; a ſink.—If your *drains* be deep, that you fear cattle falling into them, cover them. *Mortimer.*

Why ſhould I tell of ponds and *drains*,
What carps we met with for our pains?

DRAIN'ING, *ſ.* in huſbandry, the art of carrying off the ſurcharge of water from wet, marſhy, or ſwampy, land, and thereby laying it ſufficiently dry for the purpoſes of agriculture. This art has been purſued for a long ſeries of years, with a degree of induſtry and perſeverance equal to the importance of the object, though without the deſired ſucceſs. But it has recently approached very near perfection, through the ingenuity of Mr. Joſeph Elkington, a gentleman farmer of Princethorp, in the county of Warwick, who ſucceſsfully adopted a plan of tapping or boring the ſubjacent ſprings, ſo as to let off thoſe waters which are the conſtant ſupply of bogs, moraſſes, and ſwamps. This valuable diſcovery not only detects the latent cauſe of water oozing over the ſurface of the ſoil, but points out a method of draining by which the evil is effectually removed.

Draining is, without doubt, the firſt ſtep towards the improvement of all wet land; and, according to the principles laid down by Mr. Elkington, it depends upon three points: 1. Upon finding out the main ſpring, or cauſe of the miſchief, without which nothing effectual can be done. 2. Upon taking the level of that ſpring, and aſcertaining its ſubterraneous bearings; for, if the drain is cut a yard beyond the line of the ſpring, we can never reach the water that iſſues from it, but by aſcertaining that line by means of levelling, we may cut off the ſpring effectually, and conſequently drain the land in the cheapeſt and moſt eligible manner. 3. By making uſe of the auger to reach or tap the ſpring, when the depth of the drain is not ſufficient for that purpoſe.

In regard to the uſe of the auger, though it appears that Mr. Elkington was led to employ that inſtrument from an accidental circumſtance, yet there is no doubt that others have hit upon the ſame idea many years, perhaps ages, ago, though without applying it in the advantageous manner which this operator has done. It is ſaid, that in attempting to diſcover mines by means of an auger, ſprings have been tapped, and the adjacent wet ground thereby drained, either by letting the water down, or giving it vent to the ſurface. The auger has alſo been made uſe of in bringing water into wells, by boring in the bottom of them, to ſave the expence of digging, eſpecially in Italy, where it is probable that the practice is very ancient.

Buffon ſtates, "That, in the city of Modena, and four miles round, whatever part is dug, when we reach the depth of ſixty-three feet, and bore five feet deeper with an auger, the water ſprings out with ſuch force, that the well is filled in a very ſhort ſpace of time. This water flows continually, and neither diminiſhes nor increaſes by the rain or drought." Mentioning the different ſtrata that are met with to this depth, he adds, "Theſe ſucceſſive beds of fenny or marſhy earth and chalk, are always found in the ſame order wherever we dig; and very often the auger meets with large trunks of trees, which it bores through, but which give great trouble to the workmen; bones, coals, flint, and pieces of iron, are alſo found.

The ancient mode of draining was well known to the Romans, as appears from many of their writers. Cato, Palladius, Columella, and Pliny, mention them particularly. Upon ſtrong tenacious land, where the water could only be received at top, they preferred open drains; on other ſoils, where the water could be drawn equally from both ſides, or could riſe from the bottom, they uſed covered ones. They knew the propriety of directing them obliquely acroſs the ſlope of the field; a point in which modern drainers have often been erroneous. Their general depth was from three to four feet, filled half-way up with ſmall ſtones; for want of theſe, with willow or alder poles, and even with the ſpray of wood twiſted into a rope, which is one of the lateſt practices with ſtraw that has take place with modern drainers in England. Of that material, alſo, the Roman farmers availed themſelves, when others were wanting. The ends of their drains they were careful in fortifying with larger ſtones, in form of bridges, and the mouths, or outlets, were laid in maſonry. From the depth, it appears that their drains were deſigned to carry off the water of ſprings, as well as that cauſed by rain on a flat or retentive ſurface; for both which they were, in ſome caſes, equally well-adapted. To the proper direction of water-furrows in their huſbandry, in order to convey all ſurface water into the drains, and to the clearing and cleaning out of the ditches round the fields, they paid particular attention. Theſe circumſtances are ſufficient to ſhow that the Romans brought the buſineſs of common draining into Britain with them; and that our beſt cultivated counties had little to boaſt in this reſpect, in ſuperiority to the ancients, till Mr. Elkington made the diſcovery of the preſent method, with which they certainly appear to have been wholly unacquainted.

This modern principle of draining, by tapping ſprings, or by perforating with an auger through a retentive into an abſorbent or porous ſtratum, being aſcertained, its application in theory is obvious; though it requires ſome judgement to direct its practice. The method of performing it has been moſt laudably inveſtigated by the board of agriculture in England, and the Highland ſociety in Scotland; to whom it deciſively appeared, that barren moraſſes might, by this art, be converted into rich meadow and fertile arable fields; that cold wet four grounds might, by the ſame means, be made equally productive, and that thus an aſtoniſhing proportion of the worſt lands in Great Britain and Ireland might be redeemed from the curſe of infertility. It appears likewiſe, by thus collecting the large ſupplies of water pent up in ſoils to which it is highly injurious, that what now operates as an evil, might be converted into a permanent good, by making theſe waters ſubſervient to the purpoſes of irrigation, of ſupplying ponds, or reſervoirs, or houſes, or directed in aid of turning mills. To reward ſo uſeful an invention, and to purchaſe it for the benefit of the public, the board of agriculture, highly to its honour, obtained to Mr. Elkington a grant from parliament of one thouſand pounds ſterling. Mr. John Johnſtone, land ſurveyor, at Edinburgh, has ſince publiſhed the method at large, illuſtrated by explanatory engravings, whereby the practical farmer, or gentlemen, who wiſhes to improve his land, might have recourſe to it, under his own direction, without difficulty or impoſition; and from the above work, which we earneſtly recommend to the peruſal of all men, we have extracted the following outline of the principles and applications of this new mode of draining.

Wetneſs in land proceeds from two cauſes, as different in themſelves as the effects which they produce. It proceeds either from rain-water ſtagnant on the ſurface, or from the water of ſprings iſſuing over, or confined under it. On clay ſoils, that have no natural deſcent, wetneſs is commonly produced by the firſt of theſe cauſes; but, in a variety of ſituations, it proceeds from the latter. From the perforations made in quarries, wells, and other ſubterraneous pits, the earth is known to be compoſed of various ſtrata, which, being in their nature of oppoſite conſiſtence, are here diſtinguiſhed by the names of porous, and impervious. Thoſe ſtrata, which, from their more open compoſition, are porous, and capable of receiving the rain water that falls on them, include ſandy-rock, gravel, ſand, and ſuch marles as are of an abſorbent quality. Clay, and a certain kind of gravel having a proportion of clay in its compoſition, which, by binding and cementing the ſmall ſtones together, renders it equally cloſe and tenacious as clay itſelf; with ſuch rock as is of a cloſe and compact nature, without any fiſſures in it, are the principal ſtrata that reſiſt the water, and that are capable of unholding or retaining it on their ſurface, and are termed impervious. Springs, therefore, commonly

monly originate from rain-water falling upon ſuch porous and abſorbent ſurfaces, and ſubſiding downwards through ſuch, till, in its paſſage, it meets a body of clay or other impenetrable ſubſtance, which obſtructs its farther deſcent, and here, forming a reſervoir or conſiderable collection of water, it is forced either to filtrate along ſuch body, or riſe up to ſome looſe part of the ſurface, where it oozes out in all thoſe different appearances that are ſo frequently met with. This hypotheſis is evident from the immediate diſappearance of the rain-water, as it falls, on ſome parts of the ground, while it remains ſtagnant on others, till carried off by evaporation; and from the ſtrength of theſe land ſprings being greater in wet than in dry ſeaſons. Hence, after inceſſant rains, they are obſerved to break out in higher ſituations, and, as the weather becomes drier, ceaſe running, unleſs at their loweſt outlets. The ſtrength of theſe ſprings alſo, or quantity of water which they iſſue, depends chiefly on the extent of high ground that receives and retains the rain, forming large reſervoirs, which affords them a more conſtant ſupply. Hence bog-ſprings, or thoſe that riſe in valleys and low ſituations, are much ſtronger, and have a more regular diſcharge, than thoſe which break out on higher ground, or on the ſides of hills. Independent of theſe, there are certainly immenſe ſprings contained in the bowels of the earth; otherwiſe, how could the many rivers that interſect it be ſupplied with ſuch vaſt quantities of water as they diſcharge, the rains falling on its ſurface, or the dews that deſcend, not being adequate for that purpoſe? But, as this may be conſidered among thoſe arcana of nature which we have not yet explored, and lying at too great a depth to affect the ſurface, it comes not within the limits of the preſent enquiry.

Where ſprings break out in the manner above deſcribed, running over a flat ſurface of clay, and cannot get off with ſufficient rapidity, or are not confined to a narrow channel; the ſuper-abundance of water muſt cauſe the diſſolution of all the coarſe vegetables it produces, which, together with part of the natural ſoil itſelf, is formed into a peat earth, every year increaſing in depth; and the extent of ſuch bog or moraſs is according to the quantity of water, and to that of the flat ground on which it is formed. The great object of Mr. Elkington's ſyſtem is, that of draining ſuch bogs, by cutting off entirely the ſource of the ſprings or ſubterraneous waters that cauſe the wetneſs. If the ſprings have a natural outlet, the object of the drain is, to lower and enlarge it, which, by giving the water a more free and eaſy channel, will ſooner diſcharge and draw it off, or will reduce it to a level ſo far below the ſurface, as to prevent its overflowing. Where the ſprings have no apparent outlet, but are either confined ſo far below the ſurface, as to injure it by conſtant moiſture, or by oozing out imperceptibly through any ſmall pores of the upper ſoil; the object of the drain is, to give a proper vent to that water, and to extract more quickly and more effectually what has before been pent up in the boſom of the ſoil. The application of the auger now becomes neceſſary, which is ſimply to reach or tap the ſpring, and to give vent to the water thus pent up, when the depth of the drain does not reach it, or where the level of the outlet will not admit its being cut to that depth, and where the expence of cutting ſo deep would be very great, and the execution of it very difficult. As the whole depends upon the ſituation of the ground to be drained, and the nature and inclination of the ſtrata of which the adjacent country is compoſed; as much knowledge as poſſible ſhould be obtained of theſe, before the proper courſe of a drain can be aſcertained, or any ſpecific rules given for its direction or execution.

The firſt thing to be obſerved is, carefully to examine the adjoining high grounds, and what ſtrata they are compoſed of, in order to judge at what place the level of the ſpring comes neareſt to the ſpot where the water is intended to be diſcharged. The beſt time for aſcertaining the true direction of drains, and likewiſe for executing the work, is, when the ground is in paſture, becauſe then the ruſhes make their appearance on the wet part of the ſurface: or, when the ground is in fallow, becauſe the water is then ſeen oozing up in the furrows, along the line in which the drain ſhould be cut. It is of material conſequence to aſcertain which of the different outlets of water that may appear on the ſurface is the main ſpring, or that from which the other outlets are ſupplied; for, by cutting off that, the others become dry, and is therefore the principal circumſtance upon which the true direction of the drain depends. If, on the bank or ſloping ſurface from whence the ſprings proceed, they be found to break out at different levels, according to the wetneſs of the ſeaſon; and if thoſe loweſt down continue running while thoſe above be dry, it is a ſure ſign that all the different outlets are connected with, and proceed from, the ſame ſpring; therefore, along the level of this the line of the drain ſhould be directed, which, if properly executed, all thoſe above would afterwards continue dry. This is called the main ſpring, and thoſe above, the overflowings of it. If the drain was to be cut along the line of the *uppermoſt* of theſe outlets, and the depth of it not reaching the level of thoſe *below*, the overflowings would only be carried off; and the main ſpring, ſtill continuing to flow, would injure the ground below the bottom of the drain, as having a natural vent lower. Such has been the practice of draining ground in this ſituation, before Mr. Elkington's method was underſtood; and which was reckoned the moſt effectual and approved mode. Wherever the uppermoſt ſprings made their appearance, there a trench was cut, between the wet and the dry, as it is termed, which not being ſufficiently deep to intereept the water, others of the ſame kind were cut, one below another, the whole way down the declivity; and being filled with looſe ſtones nearly to the top, each carried off a portion of *ſurface* water only, without ever affecting the main ſpring that cauſed the miſchief. The conſequence of ſuch drains is, that they render the ſurface drier while they continue to run; but ſoon choaking up, and burſting out in different parts, the ground becomes worſe than before they were made. It frequently happens that the uppermoſt (if the ſtrongeſt outlets) are the main ſprings, and thoſe below only leakages. Therefore the ſame caution is neceſſary to aſcertain this, before proceeding to mark out the drain, becauſe from the main ſpring only the level ought to be taken.

When the main ſpring riſes in a ſteep bank or hill, a conſiderable height above the level of the brook, or place where the drain is to diſcharge itſelf, it is unneceſſary to cut a deep trench, or to lay a covered drain all the way from the brook up to it; for the deſcent being too rapid, and if deep cut, by croſſing veins of ſand that are always met with in ſuch ſituations, the materials with which the ſough or conduit of the drain is laid, would be undermined by the rapidity of the current, which would alſo carry down a great quantity of the looſe ſand; but it ſhould be begun only ſo far down the bank, as, by cutting in level, the drain may be ſix or ſeven feet lower than the outlet of the ſpring, or whatever depth is neceſſary for drawing down the water to ſuch a level, as it may diſcharge itſelf without riſing to the ſurface, or injuring the ground adjoining it. If the expanſe of the valley or bog lie betwixt two banks, ſo narrow that the ſtratum of rock or ſand containing the ſprings unites within reach of the auger, below the clay, one trench up the middle, with auger holes, will do the buſineſs, without any croſs drains whatever. See this plan projected in fig. 1, of the annexed engraving, where all the ſprings and ſurface-water draw into the main ſpring in the center, down which the drain is laid.

Although ſprings that injure ground in this ſituation often break out of hills all round, nearly on the ſame level, yet the reſervoir from whence they proceed may

poſſibly be found in the middle of the lower ground or valley, by boring through the ſuperincumbent body of clay, which forces the water to riſe and ooze out along the upper edge of it, at its junction with the lighter porous ground. The drain being cut below, and the ſpring bored into, it is evident, that the depth of the drain being ſo much lower than the natural outlet of the ſprings, the preſſure of water above that level will force that which lies under the trench through the auger holes; or even, for ſome time, until the water ſubſide, it might be made to riſe higher than the level of its natural outlet. The conſequence of this will be, that the water of the ſpring having found, by means of the drain and boring, a new and eaſier channel, will ſoon abandon its former outlets, and ceaſe to overflow the ground that formerly lay below it. In a valley belonging to Mr. Eccleſton, of Scariſbrick, in Lancaſhire, Mr. Elkington has executed a very remarkable drainage of the above kind. The ground was a mere bog, ſo ſoft that neither horſe nor man could walk over it. It contained ſixty acres, which, after the drainage, gave thirty pounds of additional yearly rent; and the expence of executing the drains did not much exceed that ſum. An account of this drainage has been communicated to the Board of Agriculture, by Mr. Eccleſton himſelf. Where a bog of this nature, between two hills, is of great extent, it may be requiſite to have three different drains; one on each ſide, and one in the middle. This laſt muſt be an open drain, to receive all ſurface water, as well as to cut off any ſprings that may ariſe in that part of the bog. In all caſes of this kind, where there is any difficulty of diſcovering from whence the principal ſprings proceed, or what is the nature and inclination of the ſubſtrata, the auger muſt be applied.

The next thing to be conſidered, is the conducting of the drain, after the levels have been taken, and the true line of it fixed; and whether it ſhould be covered, or open. If the land be to be incloſed, and as the line of the trench may ſerve as a proper diviſion of the ground, it may be made an open cut, or ſunk fence; if not, a covered drain: but it is firſt neceſſary to aſcertain which, as the depth, width, and other circumſtances, may be regulated accordingly. After finding the neareſt outlet where the water collected in the drain can be diſcharged, from that a trench muſt be brought up to the croſs one that is to be carried along the line of the ſpring; allowing a fall of a few inches, in every ten yards, for the water to run.

If, in cutting the trench along the foot of the hill, the level of the orifice will not admit of its being cut ſo deep as to touch the rock; then the clay, or impervious ſtratum that lies immediately above it, muſt be bored through, when the water will flow up through the fiſſures of the ſtone, and through the auger holes, into the ſough; but it is preferable, in caſes where the level will admit, to dig the drain through the clay, and ſo far into the rock as will furniſh ſtones for laying the ſough; and then the water will meet with leſs reſiſtance, and have a freer iſſue, than if the ſtone had not been opened nor broken. This will increaſe the expence of cutting the drain, but leſſen that of quarrying the ſtones elſewhere, and of carrying them to the place where the drain is to be made.

If the drain be to paſs through a ſoft boggy ſoil, it is better to be open than covered, eſpecially where it may receive other water than that collected from below, and can at the ſame time ſerve as the ſide of an incloſure, or diviſion betwixt the upland and low grounds. Stones laid in ſuch drains are ſoon apt to ſink, owing to the ſoftneſs of the bottom; and the ſough may alſo be ſoon choaked up. The width of a covered drain may be from three to four feet at top, and one and a half or two feet wide at bottom, thus allowing ſix or nine inches for each ſide-ſtone, and ſix inches between, for the paſſage of the water, forming a ſquare conduit called the *ſough*, commonly pronounced *ſurf*, ſix or nine inches in height. Or, when the quantity of water collected, or to be conveyed in the drain, is ſmall, the ſtones may only be coupled at bottom. This is a conſiderable ſaving, both in materials and labour, requiring fewer ſtones, and leſs time to lay them. It is equally ſecure when the bottom is ſolid, the ſtones good and properly laid, and well packed at the ſides, to prevent them from ſhifting. It is alſo a ſaving in cutting the drain, as it requires leſs width at bottom for this manner of laying the ſtones, than it does for a ſquare conduit. The depth is regulated by the level of the place where the drain is to empty itſelf, and the nature of the ground through which it is to be cut, commonly four or five feet, and never leſs than three. When the drain is only to act as a conducter for the water brought up by the borer, where the ſoil is all clay, its depth may only be three feet, which will be ſufficient to allow a proper depth of earth above the ſtones laid for the drain at bottom, which need not exceed, nor ſhould ever be leſs, than one and a half or two feet. In ſoft boggy ſoils, it is often neceſſary (if the drain be to be covered) to cut to a much greater depth, in order to have a ſecure foundation for the ſtones. The moſt difficult part of the work is laying the ſough in running ſands, where it is neceſſary to have the ſides of the trench ſupported with flat boards and props, which are to be removed forwards as the work proceeds, and which keep the ſides from falling in, and the looſe ſand from falling amongſt the ſtones with which the conduit is laid. If the ſough or conduit be laid with brick, a ſmall aperture ſhould be left betwixt each, to admit the water from the ſides of the drain, and thin turfs muſt be laid above, graſs-ſide downwards, to prevent the mould from getting through the openings. In quick or running ſands, turfs muſt alſo be laid in the bottom of the drain, under the ſough, to prevent the looſe ſand from flowing up, and to render the foundation of the brick or ſtone more ſecure, in caſe of their ſinking.

Before boring, it is proper to lay the ſide ſtones of the conduit; after which the holes may be bored down, at the diſtance of every four or ſix yards. But if the water, on withdrawing the auger, ruſh up with violence, and continue to have a boiling appearance, it indicates a ſtrong body of water confined below, and therefore requires a greater number of openings to give it a ſpeedy and ſufficient vent. When the force of the water is great, the width of the holes enlarges, and conſequently the diſcharge is increaſed. By a careful examination of the adjoining ground, it is ſometimes poſſible to ſay at what depth the ſtratum containing the ſpring lies, and conſequently how deep the holes ſhould be made; but the general rule is, to go down till the water riſe immediately on withdrawing the auger. Mr. Elkington has bored thirty feet, before the water flowed plentifully: but from ten to fifteen feet is about the average. He bored a hole thirty feet deep, near Tamſworth, in Staffordſhire, through which water iſſued, equal to three hogſheads in a minute, and drained a great extent of wet ground in the neighbourhood. In quick-ſands, it is better to dig a little into the ſides of the trench, off the line of the ſough, where the auger is to be uſed, and, after boring, to cover the places in the ſame manner as the reſt of the ſough, leaving out a ſide-ſtone oppoſite the hole, as the ſand thrown up by the ſpring can thus be more eaſily taken out with the hand till it ſubſide and give over running, and is likewiſe remote from the current running down the center or main drain. This is ſhewn upon the croſs drains of the plan fig. 2, in the engraving.

When the circumference of the auger-holes is not ſufficient to let up the quantity of water which the ſpring would iſſue, holes muſt be dug down to the ſpring, and theſe holes filled up with looſe ſtones, firſt putting down a round pole in the middle, which, after the ſtones are filled

DRAINING.

Fig. 1.

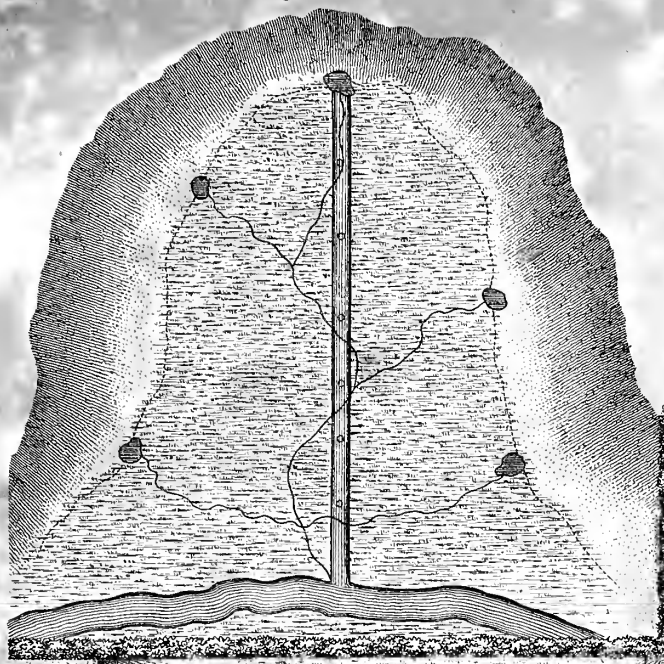


Fig. 2.

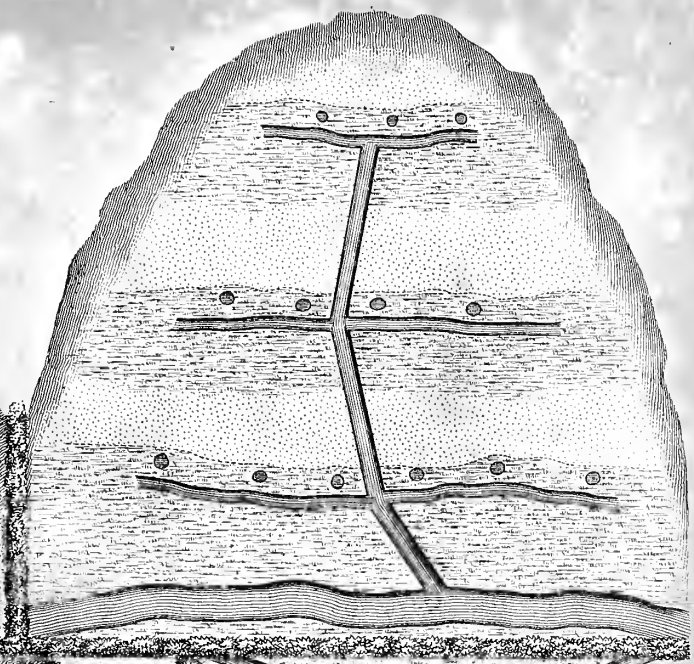


Fig. 4.

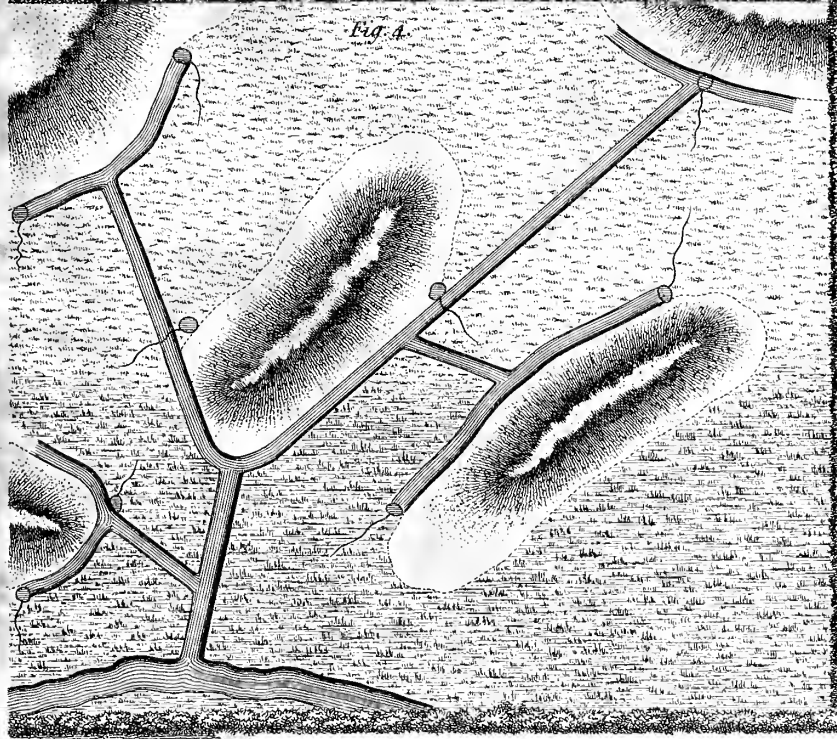


Fig. 5.

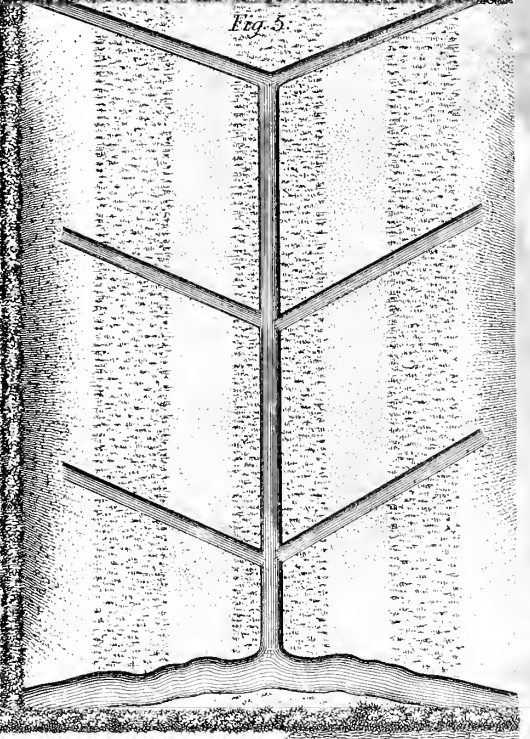
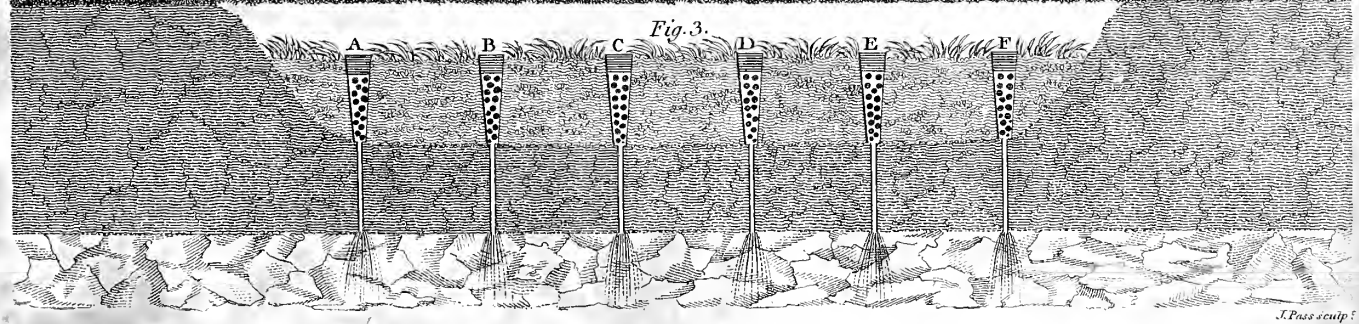


Fig. 3.



J. Pass sculp.

Plans for modern Draining.

London. Published as the Act directs. July 29. 1803. by J. Wilkes.

filled in, muſt be drawn out, and this leaves an opening for the water to flow up. No apprehenſion need be entertained of the holes made by the auger being choaked, whether the drain be open or covered, provided no other water is admitted; for, ſuch is often the force of the ſpring, that it will throw up any earth that may accidentally get into it, and can be injured only by the admiſſion of great quantities of ſurface or flood water coming upon it at once. The mouth of the drain ſhould be carefully railed in, or otherwiſe guarded, to prevent cattle from trampling and choaking it up: and where any defect of this kind happens, it ſhould immediately be remedied. The firſt ſymptoms of the drain having taken effect, when the ſpring is properly tapped, are, that all the ſurface drains that may have formerly been made, and alſo any adjacent pits, ditches, or places to which it may have backed up, immediately become dry, and remain ſo afterwards. In Mr. Elkington's practice there are many inſtances where, by a few auger-holes hitting on the particular ſpot where the loweſt part of the main ſpring lay, a conſiderable extent of ground with which his drain had ſeemingly little connection, has been laid dry, to the aſtoniſhment of thoſe who have ſeen it, and furniſhing a ſubject of incredibility to many who have not. At Odſtone-hall, in Leiceſterſhire, a very remarkable inſtance may be ſeen. A conſiderable tract of wet marſhy ground, of very little value, divided in the middle by a ſmall river, he ſo completely drained, by making a trench on one ſide, and by boring in it, that the part of the marſh on the oppoſite ſide of the rivulet, which was at a conſiderable diſtance from the drain, became in a ſhort time equally dry with that where the cut was made, has continued ſo ever ſince; and, from being formerly of little or no value, is now converted into excellent water-meadow, producing, without manure, abundant crops of graſs. At Madely, near Newcaſtle in Staffordſhire, there was a bog of ſome hundred acres, the draining of which was always deemed impracticable, being of ſo wet and ſoft a nature that no cattle could paſs over it, till Mr. Elkington, having obtained a leaſe of it for a number of years, has, by means of very little cutting and expence, ſo effectually drained it, that it may now be conſidered not only as one of the moſt wonderful undertakings of the kind ſo eaſily accompliſhed, but is alſo, from the other improvements making on it, likely to become one of the moſt productive farms in that part of the country. At Woburn, in Bedfordſhire, he has lately accompliſhed the drainage of two extenſive bogs, belonging to his grace the duke of Bedford, in a manner attended with little expence, although they were formerly reckoned irreclaimable. It is alſo remarkable, that by ſome of his drains, pits and wells at a great diſtance have been laid dry, and diſtant ſprings have abandoned their former courſe.

In hilly countries, where ſheep are the ſtaple produce, leſs attention is paid to the drainage of ſuch parts of their walk as are wet and unproductive, than to that of arable ground, although the effects in the one caſe are equally beneficial with thoſe in the other. This neglect is often attended with conſiderable loſs, from that almoſt incurable malady the rot, to which ſo many thouſands of valuable animals fall a ſacrifice. For this, draining is the moſt infallible preventative; and in ſuch ſituations it is attended with little expence, as the drains may, for the moſt part, be left open, with here and there covered paſſages, over which the ſheep may croſs with ſafety. And here, in all caſes where the depth of the cut does not reach the ſpring, the auger muſt be applied, whether the drains be open or cloſed. From the irregular diſpoſition of the component ſtrata, the ſides of hills are often covered with alternate patches of wet and dry ſoil. By the appearance of the ſurface, and by the vegetables it produces along the declivity, the internal ſtrata may often be aſcertained with ſuch a degree of preciſion as to guide the direction of a drain without inveſtigating below the ſurface. If the rock lies in a horizontal direction, all the different outlets, or ſprings, that appear on the ſurface, may proceed from, or be connected with, the ſame body of water, and may all be dried up, by cutting off, or letting out, the main body of water that ſupplies them, at the lower part of the reſervoir, or place where the water would of itſelf run off, if it was not confined under an impervious body of clay. But, where the rock lies in a perpendicular manner, and contains only partial collections of water amongſt the more open fiſſures of the ſtone, which empty themſelves at numberleſs outlets unconnected with one another, it would be abſurd to attempt cutting them off by one drain, or by tapping, without a drain being cut into each. In many hills compoſed of alternate ſtrata of rock, ſand, and clay, the ſurface of the latter is commonly wet and ſwampy, while that of the former is dry and productive, and therefore requires as many cuts to drain it completely as there are diviſions of wet and dry ſoil. To drain a hill-ſide of this deſcription, it is neceſſary to begin by making a trench along the upper ſide of the uppermoſt ruſhy ſoil, which will have the effect of cutting off the higheſt ſpring; but, as the rain falling on the next porous ſoil ſubſides to the loweſt part of it, and forms another ſpring, and as it may likewiſe be partly ſupplied from ſome internal ſource, a ſecond cut is neceſſary there, to prevent that water from injuring the ſurface of the next clay bed. Thus, ſimilar cuts will be requiſite lower down the deſcent, ſo far as the ſame ſprings and appearances are obſerved to injure the ground; all of which are directed into the central or principal drain, which conducts the water to the brook below. See this method projected in the plan fig. 2, in the abovementioned engraving.

The reſervoir from whence the ſpring or outlet of water is ſupplied, being confined, and pent up between two impervious ſtrata, and the upper part of it extending perhaps to a conſiderable height and diſtance in the high ground, it is evident that, if a perforation is made through the ſuperincumbent ſtratum into the loweſt part of the ſpring, the water may be raiſed, by confining it, nearly as high as the level of the head of the reſervoir. Of this there are ſeveral inſtances in Mr. Elkington's practice, particularly near Warwick, where he raiſed the water procured from draining a low meadow, into a mill-ſtream a conſiderable height above the level of the drain. The drain is cloſely built with brick, and puddled above with clay, to prevent the water from oozing through the joints. It then riſes through a perpendicular brick chimney to the height of the mill-ſtream, by means of its own preſſure in the higher ground.

Conſiderable tracts of land often lie waſte and uncultivated, owing to wetneſs in a particular ſituation, which proceeds neither from ſprings under the ſurface, nor from the overflowings of any in the adjoining higher grounds; but ariſe from the accumulation of rain water, ſtagnating on a retentive body of clay, through which the water can have no deſcent; and being alſo ſurrounded with higher ground of the ſame impervious nature, the water of itſelf can find no natural outlet. Such are commonly called landlocked bogs. The drainage of theſe bogs is effected in a manner different from that of ſpring bogs, the cauſe of both not being the ſame. In the following manner it may be done at leaſt expence: The firſt and principal drain muſt be made in the middle or loweſt part of the ground, and into this all the others muſt lead. The number and direction of them will depend on its extent. They muſt be cut through the wet ſpongy upper ſoil, quite down to the clay or retentive ſubſtratum, which is then to be perforated by the auger, in order to give an outlet downwards for the water, which will immediately ſink into the porous ſtrata below. The drains ſhould be cut as narrow as poſſible, and, after the auger holes have been made, and a conduit formed on the under ſtones coupled be-

low, they ſhould be filled with looſe ſtones to within a foot and a half of the ſurface, having a turf, graſs-ſide downwards, next the ſtones. The noxious moiſture contained in the bog will be extracted by the drains, and will ſubſide through the auger holes into the porous ſtrata below. If the ground is afterwards ploughed, care muſt be taken in forming the ridges, and giving them a deſcent towards the main drain, which will greatly aſſiſt the others in diſcharging heavy falls of rain. But before proceeding to drain this kind of ſwampy land, in the manner deſcribed, it ſhould firſt be aſcertained whether the porous ſtrata immediately under the bed of clay will receive the water when let down into it; for ſhould it be already ſaturated with water, it may, inſtead of receiving more, throw up a greater quantity to the ſurface; and thus render the evil worſe. This may ſometimes be the caſe; for the ſubſtrata may contain water that makes no appearance on the ſurface at this place, owing to the ſuperincumbent body of clay, but which, being connected with ſome higher ſpring, may flow up when a vent is given to it by the auger. Thus would a greater quantity of water be brought to the ſurface, which, having no outlet through the circumjacent bank, would render the ground much more wet, and might, in ſome ſituations, almoſt form a lake, or pond. But if the ſurrounding high ground declines deeper or lower than the bog, although at ſome diſtance, which may eaſily be aſcertained by the ſpirit-level, (for a deſcription of which ſee the article LEVEL,) a drain may be conducted thither, which will effectually draw off the water, though at a greater expence. A ſection of a landlocked bog of this kind is ſhewn at the foot of the engraving, fig. 3, completely ſhut in by elevated banks or hills of marl or clay. A, B, C, D, E, F, repreſent the drains, and G, H, I, K, L, M, the auger-holes, diſcharging the water into the looſe ſtratum below.

It frequently happens that ſprings riſe in the middle of a field, at a diſtance from any ditch or open drain into which the water may be diſcharged; ſo that a covered drain brought from the neareſt outlet, would paſs ſo far through dry ground as to render the expence of conducting the water from the ſpout, greater than the injury done by it. To remedy this, begin by cutting a drain a few yards in length, or by ſinking a pit into the porous ſoil immediately between the lower ſide of the wet and dry ground; and from that bring an upright drain to the upper ſide of the wet ground, from which take a branch to both ſides, along the upper ſide of the wet, ſo far as it goes. This upper drain will cut off the water where it riſes to the ſurface; the upright drain will convey it to that cut along the lower ſide of the wet ground, where the water will ſubſide into the porous ſubſoil. An eaſier method may be, where the retentive ſubſtratum is not deep, firſt to cut the drain along the upper ſide of the wet ground, and, after coming to the ſtratum in which the water flows, either to bore through the retentive ſubſtratum, or cut the drain to that depth, by which means the water cut off above will be let down into the abſorbent ſtratum below, and thus got rid of at once.

In diſtricts where the ſoil is compoſed of an intermixed variety, moſt commonly ſand, gravel, and clay, but where clay forms the moſt predominant part, draining is a work of much greater difficulty and expence than in thoſe where both the ſurface and internal ſtrata are more regularly diſpoſed. In theſe ſoils, where almoſt every puddle is unconnected with another, and ſeparated by intervening ridges of clay, the partial collections of water remain until the time of great rains, when they have a free iſſue, as over the edges of a diſh, and thus overflow and ſurcharge the ſurface of the clay, and render it ſo wet and ſour, that its produce becomes every year more ſcanty, and the ſoil itſelf more barren. As the intervening ſand-beds have no communication with each other, it will require as many drains as there are banks in number, to extract the water from each of them. From the neareſt and loweſt part of the field to be drained, a main trench ſhould be cut up to the higheſt or moſt diſtant ſand-bank, and into this ſhould fall other drains, ſomewhat in the form of the letter Y, communicating with each of the other ſand-banks, ſo as to draw off the water they contain, ultimately leading into the main trench, which diſembogues into the brook below. The plan of this intereſting mode of draining is ſhewn at fig. 4, in the preceding copper-plate.

Beſides the ſoils correſponding to the above deſcription, there are others of a ſimilar nature, where each bed being of leſs extent, and lying more regularly together, their drainage might be effected by leſs cutting, and conſequently leſs expence. Under the beds of ſand and clay that thus lie alternately together, and almoſt parallel to one another, is generally found a body of impervious clay, that keeps up the water contained in the ſand, which continues always full, moiſtening the adjacent clay, and, in wet ſeaſons, running over it. As this main under-ſtratum of clay is ſeldom above four or five feet below the ſurface, a drain muſt be cut to that depth through the middle of the field, if it has a deſcent from both ſides; or, if the ground decline all to one ſide, the drain muſt be cut there, where the water will more eaſily diſcharge itſelf into it; and, unleſs the field is of conſiderable extent, and have more hollows in it, one drain will anſwer the purpoſe effectually; becauſe, by croſſing all the different beds that hold the water, it will draw it from each. The great difficulty in draining land of this deſcription is, when the direction of the alternate beds of clay and ſand lie acroſs the declivity of the ground; ſo that one drain in this caſe can have no other effect than that of carrying off the water after it has paſſed over the different ſtrata, and would here naturally ſtagnate in the loweſt part of the field, if there was no other outlet for it. Therefore, when the ground lies in this manner, which is often the caſe, beſides the drain in the hollow, or middle, others muſt be cut from it, in a ſloping direction, acroſs the declivity, which, by croſſing all the different veins of ſand, will extract the water from each.

In drains of this kind, there is ſeldom any need for applying the auger, as the neceſſary depth of the trench reaches far enough down; and as there is no ſpring for want of connection with higher ground, to force itſelf up through the auger-holes, or, if there is, it cannot, at ſo great a depth, and below ſuch a body of clay, do any injury to the ground above. A plan of this method is exhibited at fig. 5, in the engraving.

In flat tracts of rich land, where the ſurface is injured by a ſuperfluity of ſtagnant water not proceeding from ſprings, their drainage becomes an object of the firſt importance, and which may, in moſt caſes, be accompliſhed with very little expence. The upper ſoil being compoſed of a porous ſtratum, of two, three, or four, feet in thickneſs, and having under this a ſtrong retentive body of clay, the rain-water falling on the ſurface, eaſily ſubſides till it meets the clay, and there being obſtructed from farther deſcent, the whole open part of the ſoil ſtands ſo full of water, as to retard the progreſs of vegetation, or greatly to injure it. To carry off this water requires but few drains, and theſe no deeper than juſt to reach a few inches into the clay; betwixt which, and the under part of the porous ſoil, the greateſt quantity of water will remain ſtagnant, when it does not appear ſo much on the ſurface. In this kind of drainage the auger is not employed, there being no ſubterraneous water to get rid of. If the ground has a ſmall deſcent from both ſides, one drain cut through the hollow part of the field will effectually draw off all the water that the porous ſoil may contain; which will be greatly facilitated by properly forming the ridges to anſwer the declivity of the ground, and by deepening and clearing out the furrows with the ſpade. If a field of this ſoil has

has more than one hollow in it, in that caſe, it is neceſſary to have more than one drain; but if it is almoſt level, or inclines only a little to one ſide, a ditch or drain at the lower extremity, having the ridges and furrows formed, as already mentioned, will anſwer the purpoſe effectually. In ſome caſes, however, it may be neceſſary to have a few ſide-cuts from the main drain, where the field is large and flat, cut as narrow as poſſible, and filled with ſtone, in the uſual manner.

Such is the method of draining theſe ſoils with moſt advantage; but many fields ſuffer equally from wetneſs, that conſiſt of ſoil exactly oppoſite to the former, viz. a clay ſurface having a porous ſubſtratum. Fields of this nature commonly lie very flat, without any declivity, whereby the noxious water, ſtagnant on the clay ſurface, might naturally diſcharge itſelf without the help of drains; for ſoils of the ſame nature, in a hanging ſituation, are ſeldom or never affected by the ſame cauſe. Such ground is more difficult to drain, and requires a greater number of trenches than any other ſoil whatever; and they muſt be ſo arranged as to collect all the water from the ſurface, which can only diſcharge itſelf into the drains from above, being unable to flow into them through the clay, as in ſoils of an oppoſite deſcription; and where there is any irregularity in the ground, the water will remain in the hollows, perhaps within a few feet only of the drain. The firſt thing is, therefore, to make one main conductor in the loweſt part of the field, to receive and carry off the water collected by the ſmaller lateral ones on each ſide of it. If it ſuits the ſituation or diviſion of the field, this main drain had better be open than covered; and then the outlets of the other drains that fall into it, can eaſily be inſpected, and frequently cleared. The formation of the ridges in ploughing, to anſwer the declivity of the ground, ſhould alſo be particularly attended to in ſuch ſoils. The ridges ſhould have riſe enough in the middle to give the water a fall into the furrows; and theſe ſhould have depth and fall enough to convey it into the drains. Thus would a great part of the rain-water, as it occaſionally falls, be carried off, which would leſſen the number of ſmall cuts, otherwiſe neceſſary. The drains ſhould all be dug as narrow as poſſible, and filled up in the uſual manner with looſe ſtones; only the bottom of the conducting drain (if it is not an open one) ſhould be formed in the manner already deſcribed, with a ſmall open conduit at bottom, the more effectually to carry off the water. The ſmall drains ſhould alſo be coupled at bottom; i. e. two of the largeſt ſtones laid againſt each other at the top, forming a triangular opening, of four or ſix inches, below. This mode of draining is calculated for every tenacious clay ſoil, whether porous below or not; but, in many inſtances, the deepening of the furrows, with very few drains, might remedy the evil, where the retentive upper ſoil is only a foot or two deep, with a porous ſubſoil under it, through which the water would eaſily ſubſide downwards, and again empty itſelf at ſome lower extremity of the field.

Other extenſive tracts of land are wet and ruſhy, from a cauſe that can hardly be removed by any contrivance in the art of draining. This is the land which generally lies along the ſides of brooks or rivers, which, having often altered their courſe between the oppoſite banks, and depoſiting ſand and gravel as they recede from their laſt channel, the water of the river always percolates through the ground thus formed to the level of its preſent courſe, keeping it ſo moiſt and wet as to produce ruſhes, and other coarſe vegetables; and wherever a drain or pit is dug in ſuch ground, it immediately fills with water, to the level of that in the river. Where the river has a quick deſcent, it is leſs apt to produce this effect; but where its current is ſlow, and the level of its ſurface little below that of the ground on either ſide, the ſoil will be conſtantly ſaturated with water. Drains cut in any direction, can have no good effect, while the river continues in this ſituation. The only remedy, therefore, where it can be done at a moderate expence, is deepening and widening the bed of the river; the earth taken out of which, will at the ſame time ſerve to form an embankment on either ſide; for while it can riſe higher than the outlet of the drains, and flow back into them, it will render the ground equally wet as before they were made; and the expence of making them is laid out to no advantage. Beſides being thus injured by the river water, ſprings, in many ſituations, iſſue from the bottom of the higher ground, and ooze through the ſoil higher than its level. Yet the water of theſe may eaſily be cut off, and lowered to the level of the river. But in ſome caſes, the wetneſs proceeds entirely from ſprings, where the ſoil of the flat ground betwixt them and the river does not conſiſt of looſe gravel or ſand, but of a loamy or clayey mixture. In this caſe, the water of the ſprings is reſiſted, and prevented from finding its way, below the ſoil, to the river, and therefore is forced to flow nearer the ſurface, keeping it conſtantly in a ſwampy ſtate in all ſeaſons. To drain this ground, a trench muſt be cut at the lower end of it, and brought from the river, along the bottom of the bank from whence the ſprings iſſue. This trench ſhould be cut below the line of the ſprings, and kept open to receive the river water in floods, and alſo any run of water from the higher ground in times of rain, which would blow it up, if covered; and muſt diſcharge itſelf into the river at the loweſt poſſible level. From this trench, ſhort covered drains might be cut a little way into the bank, to lead in the ſprings that are above it, if boring oppoſite to them has not that effect. The bottom of theſe drains muſt be higher than that of the open cut, to prevent its water flowing back into them. In theſe alſo the auger muſt be uſed to tap the ſprings, if the depth of this level does not reach the ſtratum containing the water.

The principles of Mr. Elkington's ſyſtem have hitherto been confined to the draining of land only; but there is no doubt that it might be equally uſeful in mines and quarries, by diminiſhing the quantity of water that is frequently found in the courſe of working them, and which very much obſtructs, and even ſometimes puts a ſtop, to the work altogether. Thus, in ſinking a pit for coal, or any other mineral, near the bottom of a hill or high ground, a bed of quickſand is met with, ſo full of water, that to paſs through it becomes a very difficult and expenſive operation; and as this water proceeds from the porous ground above, it may in many caſes be practicable to intercept the greater part of that water, before it reach the ſand-bed in the pit, and by means of tapping at the tail of the ſand-bank (provided the ground naturally declines lower than where the ſand is found in the pit), the whole of the water may be extracted from it, at a comparatively ſmall expence with what is uſed as the common remedy in like caſes. At preſent, the water that is found in the bottom of the pit, or what proceeds from the rocks, &c. in the courſe of working the mine, is got rid of by means of an engine pump; to aſſiſt in working which, the water obtained by means of the drains already deſcribed, may be very uſeful, where the ſtream for that purpoſe is deficient; and may ſave the great expence of working it by ſteam. It may, however, in ſome caſes, be removed by the auger; as the following inſtance will ſhew: "The water was raiſed by a ſteam engine about ſixty yards, from a colliery in Yorkſhire, which had been wrought ſeveral years; the proprietors bored down to the depth of ten yards farther, to aſcertain the thickneſs of a ſeam of coal, which was ſuppoſed to lie below thoſe then wrought; the workmen bored from the bottom of the pit next the engine pit, and when they had bored to the above depth, and taken out the auger, the water from the works, which uſually ran acroſs the bottom of this pit to the engine pump, ran down the hole they had then made.

As ſoon afterwards as the ſteam engine was ſet to work at the ſtated period, the engine pump contained no water; it had eſcaped through this hole, and continued to run through the ſame ever afterwards, and rendered the engine unneceſſary. This inſtance of water, at ſo great a depth from the ſurface, finding a paſſage at a further depth of ten yards, and immediately below, is very ſingular and ſtriking. Experiments of this ſort ſeldom fall to the lot of man to make, therefore ſuch inſtances are rare and uncommon. In large tracts of level land, where lakes or moraſſes have been formed, and which cannot be drained by cutting open drains, or driving levels through rocks, but at an expence for which the lands, when drained, would never compenſate, the above inſtance warrants experiments being made with the auger, which, if not ſucceſsful, may be tried at little expence." *Agricultural Reports of Hertfordſhire*, p. 67.

It frequently occurs, in working quarries of lime or freeſtone, that, at a certain depth, part of the rock containing water is met with, whereby the quarry is ſoon ſo filled with water as to put a ſtop to working it deeper, where the beſt of the ſtone lies. The common remedy in ſuch caſes is, either to erect a windmill-pump to draw out part of the water, or to open a new quarry adjoining to the laſt, which at the ſame depth meets with the like obſtruction; or to bring up a very deep and expenſive cut, under the level of the water, from the neareſt declivity. By the following method, however, all quarries of limeſtone, freeſtone, marl, &c. liable to ſuch an obſtruction, may be completely cleared of water at little expence; and the drain, at the ſame time, will ſerve a double purpoſe, by drying the wet ground, which, in conſequence of the ſpring contained in the rock, is found adjoining to it. Immediately under the rock, commonly lies a bed of ſtrong retentive clay, that upholds all the water retained in that rock, and which being alſo bound round on each ſide by a covering of clay, or other ſtiff ſoil, cannot diſcharge itſelf. In the firſt place, endeavour to find to what ſide the rock dips or inclines, which may be aſcertained by the appearance of the ſurface in examining the adjacent ground, and by the aſſiſtance of the ſpirit-level. After diſcovering this, cut a drain through the clay covering to the rock, and the offending water will be drawn completely off. The ſituation of marl pits is often ſuch that it requires a very extenſive cut through ſome part of the ſurrounding bank, to carry off the water that prevents taking out the marl. This might often be accompliſhed by ſinking a pit through the retaining ſtratum under the marl bed, into ſome abſorbent ſtratum below, that would receive the water let down into it by the pit. If the ground where the marl lies is of conſiderable extent, ſeveral ſuch pits will be neceſſary to carry off the water. In many caſes the water may be got rid of in a ſtill eaſier manner, provided the ſituation of the ground is anſwerable. If the ſurrounding bank declines on the oppoſite ſide lower than the water, by cutting a drain into it, and boring with the horizontal auger into the tail of the ſtratum containing the water, it will immediately be drawn off, and reduced to a level lower than that of the bed of marl. We have noticed, with gratification and pleaſure, very ſimilar methods of draining and tapping ſprings, by means of the auger, laid down by Dr. Anderſon, F. R. S. and by Mr. John Wedge, of Bickenhill, near Coventry, to whom the Society of Arts and Manufactures awarded their ſilver medal, for his communications on this ſubject.

Notwithſtanding the great advantages to be derived from this new mode of *under-draining*, we muſt not forget to notice, in a variety of inſtances, the utility and convenience of the common hollow or open drains. Theſe are chiefly uſed to correct that temporary wetneſs of ſoil which reſults from rain; and which, from flatneſs of ſurface, or its retentive quality, ſtagnates, to the injury of both ſoil and crops. This is an evil of conſiderable magnitude to the practical farmer; to remedy which, in a cheap and expeditious manner, ſeveral inventions have been recently offered to the public. The Society of Arts, &c. gave a bounty to Mr. Makins of Suffolk, for the firſt offer of a plough to cut hollow drains. There was merit in the idea, but his plough has fallen into diſuſe. Another plough, for the ſame purpoſe, was invented by Mr. Arbuthnot, of Mitcham, of which an account is given in the "Eaſtern Tour." And lately, the Society of Arts have made ſeveral trials with what is called a mole plough; the intention of which is, to draw a pointed iron cylinder, at a given depth, through the earth, which ſhall form a pipe or hollow drain, of the ſize of the iron cylinder, through which the water will flow freely under the ſoil, at a depth below the roots of the grain, and will find its way into a furrow, or watercourſe, made at the end of the field on purpoſe to receive it. This plough was introduced by Mr. Adam Scott, of Guildford, in Surry; who, in the ſpring of 1797, received a bounty of thirty guineas from the Society of Arts, for the invention. It is found to anſwer beſt in ſuch ſoils where it is not likely to meet with obſtructions from ſtones and rocks; and the drains will endure longeſt in ſtrong adheſive land, or clay; but in light ſandy ſoils they quickly fall in. A plough very ſimilar to the above has been projected, by Mr. Watts, of Binley, in Warwickſhire, for which a patent was obtained the 19th of October, 1797.

For the purpoſe of making *open* drains, and for drawing off cold ſtagnant ſurface water in paſture land, the lateſt and beſt invention ſeems to be that of a plough, conſtructed under the direction of the late duke of Bridgewater, by Robert Tomlinſon, of Worſley, near Mancheſter. The thanks of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. were voted to his grace in 1801, for a model of this plough, which his grace preſented to them; and which is now placed in the ſociety's repoſitory, in the Adelphi, London, for public inſpection. In clay or ſtiff land that lies flat, the plough cannot go too deep; but if it lies on a declivity, about five inches deep will be ſufficient. In ſoft light ſoil, the plough ſhould go as deep as it can in all ſituations, becauſe the ſides are apt to moulder into the gutters. The beſt time for this draining is about Michaelmas, or as ſoon as the graſs is eaten; and the whole ſhould be accompliſhed betwixt that time and Chriſtmas. In clay ground, that has never been drained, ſix good horſes will be requiſite to draw the plough. In every following year the plough ſhould be run through the ſame gutters, and four horſes will then be ſufficient. At Broughton, in the neighbourhood of Mancheſter, conſiderable quantities of ſtiff clay, paſture, and meadow land, have been much improved, under the inſpection of the ſecretary of the ſociety, by the uſe of this plough. After the cattle were houſed for the winter, three horſes only were employed to form drains with the plough at proper intervals: the ſmall drains were made at the diſtance of about nine yards from each other, in old furrows of the ground, and about five inches deep: the ſod, when cut out by the plough, was placed in a heap in the field, with quicklime in a powdery ſtate: the whole maſs was reduced to a compoſt by the froſt during the winter, and in the following ſpring was laid upon the ſurface of the land, and formed an excellent top-dreſſing. The water from the ſmall drains is directed into the larger drains, made by lowering the ſhare of the plough to the depth of nine or more inches. Little or no loſs of land ariſes from the ſmall drains, as natural graſſes are produced therein early in the ſpring. It will be highly advantageous to repeat the operation every winter: it is eaſily and expeditiouſly performed; and no perſon, without an actual experiment of the fact, can form a ſufficient judgment of the great benefit ariſing to vegetation by the removal of cold ſtagnant water, during the winter, from land of every deſcription. A drawing of this plough is given in the Draining Plate II. fig. 1, of which the following

lowing is a deſcription: A B, the beam of the plough, C D, the handles. E, the ſhare or ſock. F, the coulter, or firſt cutter of the ſod; which coulter is fixed to the ſhare. G, the other coulter, or ſecond cutter, which ſeparates the ſod from the land, and directs it through the open ſpace betwixt F and G. This coulter is connected with the ſhare and the beam. H I, the ſheath of the plough. K, the bridle or muzzle, to which the ſwingle-tree is to be fixed. L M, two wheels of caſt iron, which may be raiſed or lowered by ſcrews at N, preſſing upon the flat irons O O, to which the axis of each wheel is fixed. Theſe wheels regulate the depth which the ſhare is to penetrate into the earth. P, a chain with an iron pin, to move the ſcrews at O.

Another invention for draining land is thus deſcribed in the "Annals of Agriculture," and in the agricultural report of the county of Eſſex:—"The author of this experiment has conſtructed, and uſes, a *draining-wheel* of caſt iron, that weighs about four hundred weight; it is four feet in diameter; the cutting edge, or extreme circumference of the wheel, is half an inch thick, which increaſes in thickneſs towards the nave or centre, and will, at fifteen inches deep, cut a drain half an inch wide at the bottom, and four inches wide at the top. This wheel is ſo placed in a frame, that it may be loaded at pleaſure, and be made to operate to a greater or leſs depth, according to the reſiſtance made by the ground. The trenches are thus cut in the winter, and are then either filled with ſtraw-ropes, and lightly covered, or left to crack wider and deeper during the enſuing ſummer. The drains are then filled with twiſted ſtraw or buſhes, and covered lightly with earth moſt conveniently at hand. Thus hollow drains are formed at little expence, and which, upon trial, have been found to anſwer extremely well. Twelve acres have been drained with this wheel in one day.

With reſpect to the formation of drains, and the materials for filling them up, the farmer muſt be guided by circumſtances of ſituation, &c. The materials moſt commonly uſed, are ſtone, wood, bruſhwood, ſtraw and ſtubble, heath or ling, or bricks made for the purpoſe. If the drain is to be made ſquare at the bottom, the trench muſt be wide enough to contain two ſide-ſtones about ſix inches aſunder, and the ſame in height, with a flat ſtone laid over, which covers and ſecures the cavity through which the water is deſtined to flow. Theſe drains are more expenſive than when the ſtones are thrown in promiſcuouſly, but are the only conductors applicable to ſprings, which are to be prevented from injuring large tracts of land. A ſection of this drain is ſhown in the Draining-plate, II. fig. 2.

In ſituations where the ſoil is looſe, or ſubject to give way at the bottom of the trench, a method of laying the drain has been recommended by ſir Henry Fletcher, bart. member of the Board of Agriculture, whereby this evil may be overcome. He directs three ſquare ſtones to be uſed, of a thin, flat, form, two of which are to be placed againſt the ſides of the drain, meeting at bottom, and the third laid over on the top, thus forming a hollow triangular ſpace, through which the water will flow without impediment. Stones, from their weight, are always liable to ſink; and, where the ſoil is looſe, they are ſtill more apt to give way, and thus occaſion ſtoppages in the drain. But when the ſtones are fixed in the above triangular poſition, if the ſoil gives way, the work will ſubſide regularly with it, and ſtill keep its form, preſerving conſtantly a paſſage for the water. A ſection of this drain is repreſented in the engraving at fig. 3. In many caſes where the ſoil is firm and adheſive, and the flow of water not very conſiderable, it is quite ſufficient to make the drain by throwing in field-ſtones promiſcuouſly, with a turf laid on the top, graſs-ſide downwards, or covered over with ſtraw, heath, ling, ruſhes, &c. The water will always trickle through the crevices of the ſtones, while the upper ſoil is prevented from choaking them up. A ſection of this drain is given in the plate, at fig. 4.

Upon the ſubject of filling drains with wood, lord Petre thus expreſſes his opinion: "The drains filled with wood, and covered as uſual with ſtraw or ruſhes, before the top mould is put on, are preferable to ſtones or any other kind of materials; the reaſon is, as the wood decays, the water continues to paſs. When filled with ſtones, and the drains ſtop up, which muſt be expected to take place in time, the earth becomes quite ſolid round the ſtones, and, as they do not decay, the filtering of the water is for ever obſtructed: not ſo when buſhes or wood are uſed; continual filtering and draining are then for ever to be perceived; and by repeating the operation a ſecond time, cutting the drains tranſverſely of the old ones, the benefit of the filterings through the rotten wood is ſecured, and the ſpewing up of old broken and damaged drains corrected and carried off. Moreover, as buſhes form a much greater number of cavities than either ſtones or poles, they are leſs able to ſtop up, and encourage filtering more than larger and more ſolid bodies." For this purpoſe ſome perſons prefer black-thorn buſhes to every other material for filling. There is alſo a method of filling with wood, by ſuſpending the buſhes upon ſtakes or billets ſet croſſways in the bottom of the drain. This kind of drain is much recommended by the writer of the Agricultural Report of the County of Caermarthen, who ſays, "The completeſt method is to cut the ſtrongeſt ends of alder, willow, or other aquatic wood, into lengths of about twenty inches, and place them alternately in the drain, with one end againſt one ſide of the bottom, and the other leaning againſt the oppoſite ſide, forming, as it were, a St. Andrew's croſs. Having placed the ſtakes or billets in this manner, about a foot apart, I fill the ſpace left between them on the upper ſide with the ſmall bruſhwood, laid as it were in faggots, longitudinally; upon which a few ruſhes or ſtraw being laid, as before mentioned, the work is done. By this method there is a triangular open ſpace at the bottom of the drain, and one on each ſide. See the ſection of this drain in the plate, at fig. 5. There is another method ſaid to be preferable to the above, and requiring leſs wood: it is to fix in at every foot diſtance a ſtick, bent in manner of a hoop, or ſemicircular arch; and along theſe to lay the poles or branches longitudinally. This will form a ſecure vacuity below, and an arch capable of ſupporting any weight of earth neceſſary above it. From its known durability in water, and being ſufficiently pliant, the young branches of larch are well adapted for this purpoſe; as are alſo willow, beach, &c. In ſituations where quarry ſtones are at hand, we think after all, that no method excels the common form of laying the drain with ſuch ſtones, coupled like two tiles leaning againſt each other, and forming a triangular ſough for the water. The ſection of a coupled drain is ſhewn in the plate at fig. 6. It is laid with great facility; requires only a few common field ſtones thrown in upon the couples, and then the earth or mould.

Reſpecting filling drains with ſtraw, the following obſervations by Mr. Vancouver, in his Report of the Eſſex Huſbandry, merits attention: "When the ſoil is a very cloſe and retentive clay, the drains ſhould be made proportionably near to each other, ſhallow, and filled with ſtraw only, it being totally unneceſſary to uſe wood, or any more durable material, upon land where the ſides of the drains are not likely to crumble in. Upon a ſoil like this, the drains ſhould ſeldom exceed the diſtance of three or four yards apart, and twenty inches deep, or ſuch a depth as may be the moſt conveniently obtained, by firſt opening the drains with the plough, ſhovelling the bottom of the loweſt furrow, and then digging one ſpit only with the land ditch ſpade. Drains formed in this manner, in tough and retentive clays, will be found, in a ſhort time after the work is finiſhed, to have formed over the

the ſtraw with which the drain was filled, an arch of ſufficient ſtrength to ſupport the incumbent weight of the ſoil, and the caſual traffic of the field. In twelve or eighteen months, it may be obſerved, that the ſtraw, being of one uniform ſubſtance, is all rotted and carried away, leaving a clear pipe through the land in every drain, for the water to run off. But the lateſt and beſt improvement in filling hollow drains with ſtraw, is that of twiſting the ſtraw into a rope, deſcribed as follows: "The common practice of filling drains is to tread in looſe ſtraw; but Mr. Bedwell has invented a method of winding it into a hard rope, as large as a man's arm, which he forces to the bottom of the drains, and finds from experience, copied ſucceſsfully by his neighbours, to convey the water off more readily, and to have much longer duration; at the ſame time the quantity of ſtraw conſumed is not increaſed, and the operation of filling accelerated. After the cattle have picked it over, he finds the ſtraw tougher, and in better order to twiſt, than when quite dry and freſh." The machine for twiſting the ſtraw is upon the ſame principle with that uſed by the rope-makers. This invention of twiſting the ſtraw into ropes, has ſuggeſted a very excellent method of forming drains in ſtiff adheſive lands, without any other material. The method is, firſt to open the drains with the duke of Bridgewater's plough: then, with the draining ſpade open a triangular pipe or ſough in the ground below. This is to be laid with three large ſtraw ropes, one at bottom, and two over, placed longitudinally; then clay, trampled in upon theſe ropes, completes the drain. See a ſection of it in the engraving, at fig. 7.

With reſpect to the common implements uſed in draining, they are ſo ſimple and ſo well known, that it is needleſs to deſcribe them; but thoſe of more modern invention, as now uſed in Mr. Elkington's practice, it will be extremely neceſſary to explain. Theſe are alſo very few, and very ſimple, conſiſting only of a large ſtrong ſteel chiſel; a ſharp-pointed punch; a perpendicular borer or auger, lengthened by rods; and an horizontal auger, in many caſes, is an indiſpenſable aſſiſtant to the other. The perpendicular augur or borer, uſed in modern draining, is nearly ſimilar to that made uſe of in ſearching for coal or other minerals. This inſtrument is from two and a half to three and a half inches in diameter; the hollow part of it one foot four inches in length, and conſtructed nearly in the ſhape of the wimble uſed by carpenters; only in this the ſides of the ſhell come cloſer to one another. The rods are made in ſeparate pieces, of four feet long each, and ſcrew into one another, to any aſſignable length, or as the depth of the hole requires. The ſize above the auger is about an inch ſquare, unleſs at the joints, where, for the ſake of ſtrength, they are a quarter of an inch more. The chiſel and punch are alſo made to ſcrew into the ſame rods, and are deſtined to cut their way through hard gravel, or metallic ſubſtances, to accelerate and prepare the paſſage of the auger, which could not otherwiſe perforate ſuch hard bodies. The punch is often uſed when the auger is not applied, to prick or open the ſand or gravel, and give a more ready iſſue to the water. The chiſel is an inch and a half or two inches wide, and made very ſharp. There is a ſhifting handle of wood adapted to the auger, and faſtened with two iron wedges, for the purpoſe of turning round the rods in boring, and alſo iron keys for ſcrewing and unſcrewing the rods, and for aſſiſting the handle when the ſoil is very ſtiff, and requires more than two men to turn it. The manner of uſing it is thus: in working it, two or three men are neceſſary. Two ſtand above, on each ſide of the drain, who turn it round by means of the wooden handle; and when the auger is full, they draw it out, and the man in the bottom of the drain clears out the earth, aſſiſts in pulling it out, and directing it into the hole again, and can alſo aſſiſt in turning with the iron handle or key, when the depth and length of the rods require additional force to perform the operation. The workmen ſhould be cautious, in boring, not to go deeper at a time, without drawing, than the exact length of the ſhell, otherwiſe the earth, clay, or ſand, through which it is boring, after the ſhell is full, makes it very difficult to pull out. Flat boards, with a hole cut through, and laid over the drain, in time of boring, are very uſeful for directing the rods in going down perpendicularly, for keeping them ſteady in boring, and for the men to ſtand upon when performing the operation. A hollow ſpade, made of oak timber, and ſcooped out in the middle, is uſed in ſoft peat ſoils, being light and eaſy, to throw the mould out of the trench. They are made of iron, in the ſame ſhape alſo, for throwing out clay or tough ſoil. A crook-handled ſpade or ſhovel, having the edges turned up, is well adapted for ſmoothing the bottom of the drain before laying the ſough, and with which the workmen have leſs occaſion to ſtoop. As the moſt uſual opening of the ſough is ſix inches ſquare, a piece of wood of that ſize, and one yard in length, is very uſeful for laying in the bottom of the drain, and building the ſtones on each ſide of it, and which can be ſhifted forward as the workman proceeds in forming the drain. The moſt material of theſe implements are delineated in the engraving, viz. fig. 8, the chiſel; 9, the punch; 10, a four-feet length of the auger rod, made to ſcrew on; 11, the auger, for boring perpendicularly from the bottom of the drains; 12, the wooden handle and wedges; 13, the iron key. Fig. 14, is the *horizontal auger*, a very ingenious inſtrument, lately invented by Mr. Haford, of Hathern, in Leiceſterſhire. The advantages of it are in many caſes conſiderable, by ſaving the expence of digging or cutting, and performing the work in a ſhorter time. Where a drain or water-courſe is intended to paſs under a bank, road, wall, or rivulet, it may be uſed to advantage in excavating a ſufficient paſſage for the water, without opening a trench. In laying leaden pipes for the conveyance of water, it is alſo extremely uſeful, by making a hole in which the pipe may be laid, without opening a trench on purpoſe. For tapping ſprings, or finding water at the bottom of a hill, either for the ſupply of a houſe, or for draining the ground, it may be uſed with ſucceſs, as the water of the ſpring will flow more eaſily, and in greater abundance, through a horizontal perforation, than through a perpendicular outlet. The manner of uſing it is thus: ſuppoſe a lake or pond, ſurrounded with high banks, is to be emptied; if the ground declines lower on the oppoſite ſide, find the level of the botom of the water, and trace that level to the face of the bank where the perforation is to be made. There ſmooth the ſurface of the ground, ſo as to place the frame nearly level, with the auger pointing a little upwards. It requires two men to turn the handles at top, in order to work it. When the auger ſhell is full, the rods are drawn back by reverſing the lower handle; and rods are added at the joint, whenever the diſtance requires. In boring through a bank of the hardeſt clay, two men will work through from thirty to forty feet in a day, provided there be no interruption from hard ſtones, which will require a chiſel to be fixed on in place of the ſhell, and longer time to work through. The parts of this machine, as delineated on the plate, are as follow: AA, frame groved within, eight feet ten inches. BB, ends of the frame, two feet ten inches, through which the ſcrew and augur paſs. CC, bottom of the carriage to which the uprights are fixed. DDDD, upright ſtandards, four feet high. E, ſpindle, two feet ten inches long. F, upper cog wheel with ten teeth. G, lower cog wheel with twenty-four teeth. H, main wheel with thirty-two teeth. I, the main ſcrew, ſix feet three inches. K, the auger, ſix feet long, and three inches and a half in diameter. L, winch and roller for reverſing the rods. M, two contright or ſide wheels, with twenty-four cogs each, upon which the two handles are fixed. N, joint for lengthening the rods.

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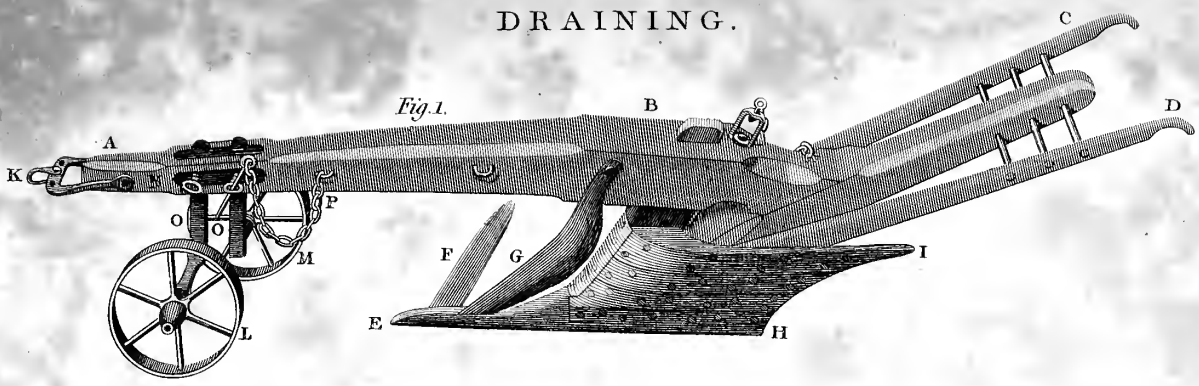
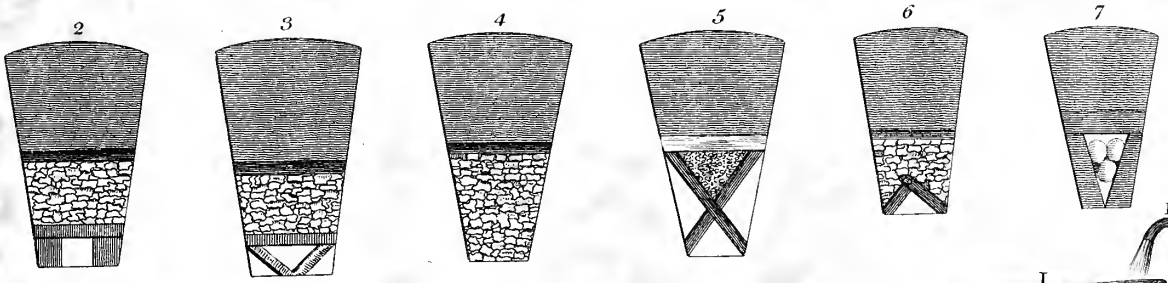
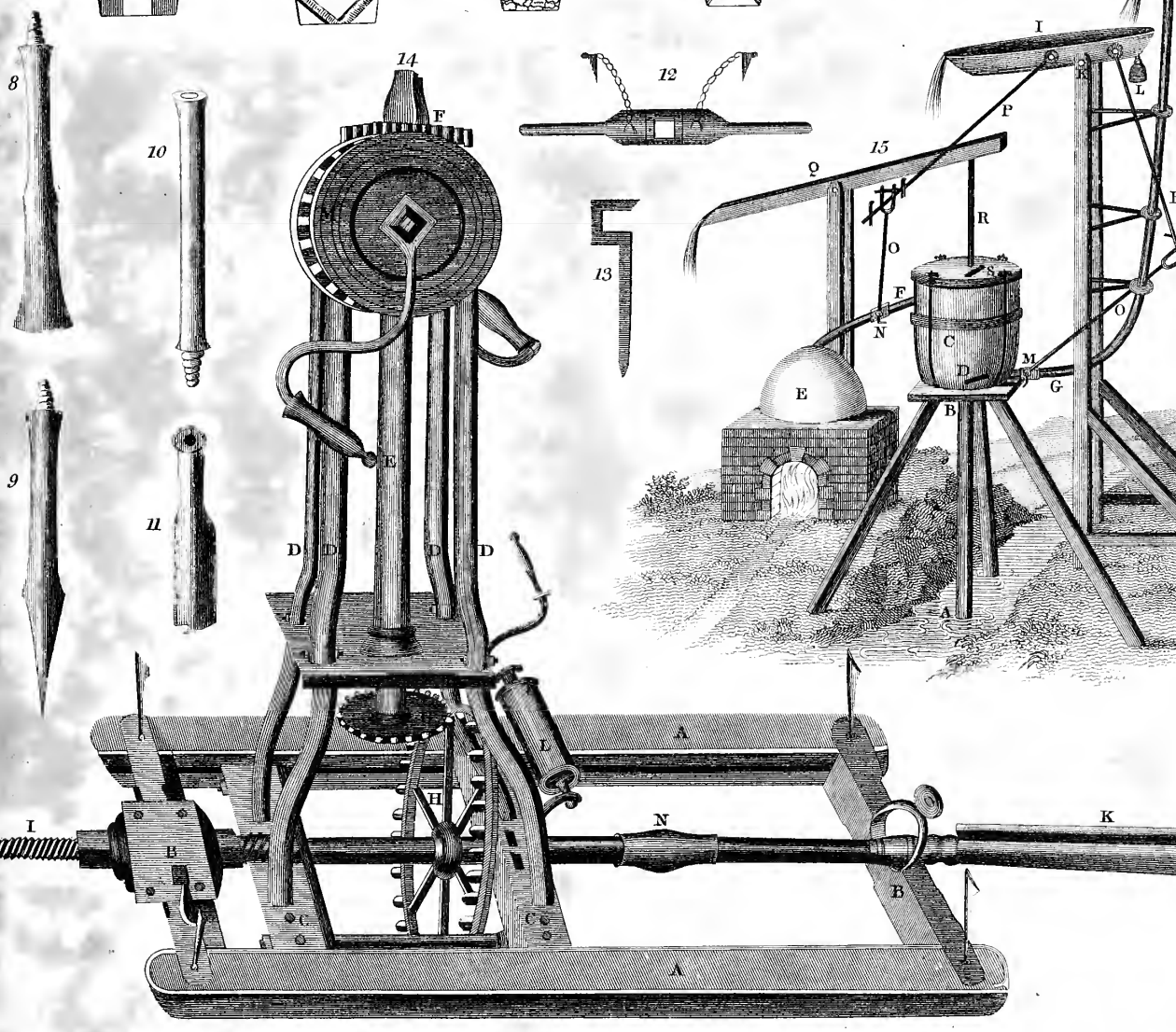
DRAINING.







Modern Implements for Draining.

J. Pass sculp.ᵉ

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We have noticed, in the former part of this article, that the water which diſturbs the working of coal-pits and mines, is often obliged to be pumped up by means of a ſteam engine. To elucidate the great utility of ſuch machines, and to ſhew the eaſy application of them to the purpoſes of draining marſhy land, we ſhall here deſcribe a ſteam-engine for raiſing water without a piſton, invented by M. François, and publiſhed in the Memoirs of the Philoſophical Society of Lauſanne. The author deſcribes it as follows: "Some members of the government having conſulted me reſpecting the draining of a conſiderable extent of marſhy land, between the lakes of Neufchatel, Bienne, and Morat, I firſt conſidered whether I could not, for that purpoſe, employ the method which is uſed with ſo much ſucceſs by the Dutch; this method conſiſts in ſurrounding with banks the land which is intended to be drained, and placing, at certain diſtances, wind-mills which draw off the waters within, and pour them into canals formed on the other ſide of the bank: as is commonly done in ſalterns. An inſpection of the places, however, convinced me that it was impoſſible to make uſe of ſuch mills. Theſe marſhes are bounded on the eaſt and weſt by the mountains Jura and Jorat, which render the direction of the wind very irregular; beſides which thoſe mills are ſubject to two very great inconveniences; the firſt, that, even in flat open countries, they do not go more than one third of the year; the ſecond, that they can only raiſe water to a moderate height, that is to ſay, to the height of the radius of the wheel. It is true that this inconvenience has been attempted to be remedied, by inclining the axis of the wheel, but, that being found to produce other inconveniences, it was thought neceſſary to recur to the horizontal axis. It appears to me therefore, that for undertakings of this nature, we ſhould give up the idea of wind-mills, and, inſtead of them, make uſe of ſteam-engines. The Engliſh have, for a long time, employed them with great advantage; the French, and other nations, begin now to bring them into uſe. Theſe conſiderations induced me to propoſe a machine, the conſtruction and effects of which, are as follow: The machine is compoſed of the pipe A B, as delineated in the preceding plate, fig. 15, part of which pipe is plunged into the water: to this pipe is joined the pump-body of iron C, the lower opening of which is cloſed by the valve D, which opens from D. The diameter of C is ſix times as great as that of A B. E is a copper ſtill, two thirds filled with water, and placed upon a furnace; it communicates, by the tube F, with the upper part of the pump-body C. G H is a tube, through which the water is forced to riſe into the bucket I, which is ſuſpended by the centre K, upon which it turns; L is the counterpoiſe of the bucket. At M and N are two cocks. O P and O P are the arms of the regulator, which ſerve to open and ſhut the cocks. Q is the trough which carries off the water. R is the tube of ſupply, the inferior orifice of which is ſhut by the ſpring-valve S, which opens from S towards C. Let us now ſuppoſe the water boiling in the ſtill, the cocks M and N cloſed, and A B C filled with water: for the water will eaſily be made to riſe into the pump-body, by giving an oſcillatory movement to the bucket I. It is evident that, as ſoon as the cocks are opened, the ſteam eſcapes through the tube F; it preſſes upon the ſurface of the water, the valves D and S are cloſed, and the water is forced to riſe from G to H, where it empties itſelf into the ſwinging-bucket I. This bucket, being filled, turns upon its axis, and empties itſelf into the trough Q; as ſoon as it is empty, it is brought back into its horizontal poſition, by the counterpoiſe L. The bucket, however, as it turns down, gives a motion to the two branches of the regulator, by which the cocks M and N are cloſed, and as it riſes opens them again. On the other hand, the trough Q, which receives the water from the bucket, gives a portion of it, at every turn, to the tube of ſupply R, which water, in falling, overcomes the reſiſtance of the ſpring-valve S; this water being cold, and falling into the pump-body C, condenſes the ſteam, and conſequently occaſions a vacuum; and the water which is in the tube A B, being forced up by the weight of the atmoſphere, comes into its place. The pump-body C, becomes then filled afreſh, the cocks are opened, the ſteam eſcapes, and the water is again driven out; this takes place alternately, five or ſix times in every minute. A view of this machine, as delineated in the engraving, will ſufficiently ſhew its ſimplicity: it is ſubject neither to the friction of piſtons, nor to the ſhaking of levers which riſe and fall, as in the ſteam-engines made uſe of in England. It poſſeſſes in itſelf the principle of its regular motion; for, the bucket, being put in motion by the water which empties itſelf from it, cauſes the regulator to act, which opens and ſhuts the cocks, without the aſſiſtance of any perſon. This machine can raiſe water at leaſt fifty feet, reckoning thirty for the weight of the atmoſphere, and twenty only for the action of the ſteam. Its power conſiſts in the proportion which the capacity of the ſtill bears to that of the pump-body above it. According to this proportion, the quantity of water which goes out at each action may be eſtimated.

DRAKE, *ſ.* The male of the duck. See ANAS.—The duck ſhould hide her eggs from the *drake*, who will ſuck them if he finds them. *Mortimer.*—[From *draco*, Lat. a dragon.] A ſmall piece of artillery, now out of uſe.—Two or three ſhots, made at them by a couple of *drakes*, made them ſtagger. *Clarendon.*

DRAKE (ſir Francis), a very eminent Engliſh navigator and naval commander, born of obſcure parentage near Taviſtock in Devonſhire, probably in 1545. He was the eldeſt of twelve brothers, and was brought up to a maritime life under the care of ſir John Hawkins, who was his kinſman. After ſome ſubordinate commands, he roſe to be captain of a veſſel at the age of twenty-two; and in that capacity he ſerved under Hawkins in the gulf of Mexico, and acquired great reputation for his gallantry. He returned, however, bankrupt in fortune; and by naval cauſiſtry he conceived that he had a right to retrieve his loſſes, by making repriſals, as they were called, upon the ſubjects of the king of Spain. It is not to be concealed, that the private expeditions of ſeveral of our naval adventurers againſt the Spaniſh trade and ſettlements, however deſerving of admiration on account of the boldneſs and ability with which they were conducted, partook very much of the character of piracies, and were always regarded as ſuch by the court of Spain. Without, therefore, examining the point of right, we ſhall proceed to relate hiſtorically the principal exploits of this great hero. Drake's deſign of cruiſing againſt the Spaniards, ſoon raiſed him a number of volunteers ſufficient to man two ſmall veſſels, with which he made a voyage to the Weſt Indies in 1570. The next year he repeated his voyage with one ſhip alone. Of the particular tranſactions of theſe years we have no account; but his purpoſe ſeems to have been chiefly exploratory and commercial, and he avoided alarming the Spaniards by open hoſtilities. He ſailed again in 1572 with two veſſels, one of ſeventy, the other of twenty-five tons burthen, and manned by ſeventy-three perſons. Yet with this ſmall force he ventured to ſtorm the town of Nombre de Dios on the iſthmus of Darien, in which action he received a wound. He afterwards took Vera Cruz on the ſame iſthmus; and he had the fortune to make a large addition to the booty acquired at theſe places, by falling in with a ſtring of fifty mules laden with ſilver, of which his men carried off as much as they could, and buried the reſt. In this expedition he had the aſſiſtance of an Indian nation, hoſtile to the Spaniards, whom he made his friends by liberal treatment. Satisfied with his ſucceſs, he re-embarked with his wealth, and arrived ſafe at Plymouth in Auguſt, 1573. Drake, upon his return, honourably ſettled with his owners, and employed the money which remained to him in a manner which, if it is to be imputed to diſintereſted patriotiſm, will appear very extraordinary. He fitted out three

ſtout

ſtout frigates at his own expence, and ſailed with them to Ireland, where he ſerved as a volunteer under Walter Devereux, earl of Eſſex, then engaged againſt the rebels. But it appears that the Iriſh expeditions in thoſe days were much carried on by individuals, who were paid by grants of land or other emoluments. The ſpirit he diſplayed on this occaſion ſeems to have recommended him at court, where he was introduced by his patron, ſir Chriſtopher Hatton. It was the wiſh of his heart to make a voyage to the South Sea. He had obtained a ſight of this ocean from the iſthmus of Darien, and it had ſo kindled his enthuſiaſm, that he put up a fervent prayer that he might be the firſt Engliſhman who ſhould ſail upon it. Queen Elizabeth's permiſſion for undertaking this deſign was at length obtained, and his own reputation ſoon furniſhed him with the means. He aſſembled a fleet of five veſſels, the largeſt of 100 tons burden, the ſmalleſt of only fifteen tons; and manned by no more than 164 men. He kept his deſtination ſecret, though it was generally ſuſpected that he was bound to ſome port of America. He took his final departure from Falmouth on December 13, 1577, and arrived in the ſucceeding June at port St. Julian, not far from the ſtraits of Magellan. He had been furniſhed, by permiſſion of the queen, with power of life and death over his crews, though his ſhips did not belong to the royal navy. This power he now thought proper to exerciſe upon the perſon of John Doughty, the ſecond in command on board his own ſhip, whom he tried by a court-martial for the crimes of plotting to murder him, and to defeat the expedition. By the verdict of a jury of twelve men, according to Camden; by the ſentence of the whole council of forty perſons, according to others; Doughty was found guilty, and ſentenced to death. It is added, that he made a full confeſſion. Drake gave him the choice either to be executed where they were, to be ſet on ſhore upon the continent, or to be brought back to abide the juſtice of his country. Doughty choſe the firſt; and he was accordingly, with all due ſolemnity, and after receiving the ſacrament along with Drake, beheaded by the provoſt-marſhal of the fleet. Such was the fact relative to this ſingular tranſaction. It was ſcarcely to be expected that ſuch an exertion of power ſhould go uncenſured; and ſome attributed it to the commander's jealouſy of Doughty, who appears to have been a brave and able ſeaman; others to ſecret directions from the carl of Leiceſter, who had a quarrel againſt the man. Yet he was never legally queſtioned concerning the fact after his return; and he appears to have proceeded in it with coolneſs and deliberation, and all the forms of juſtice. After refitting at St. Julian, he paſſed the ſtraits of Magellan; and, with his own ſhip ſolely, proceeded along the coaſts of Chili and Peru, making captures of the Spaniſh veſſels he met with, and plundering on ſhore, till the avarice of his crew was ſatiated. He then coaſted California and North America as far as the forty-eighth degree, in hopes of finding a paſſage to the Atlantic; but, being diſappointed in this expectation, he landed and took poſſeſſion, in the queen's name, of the country, which he named New Albion. Having careened his ſhips, he boldly ſet ſail acroſs the Pacific Ocean. Within leſs than ſix weeks he reached the Molucca iſlands, and touched at Ternate. Thence, by Java and the Cape of Good Hope, he proceeded homewards, and arrived at Plymouth on November 3, 1580, having completed the circumnavigation of the globe in two years ten months and twenty days. He was the firſt commander in chief who had performed this great exploit; for Magellan died in his voyage, and his ſhip was brought round by Cano. Drake brought home a large quantity of treaſure, and his adventure became an intereſting topic of diſcuſſion. The Spaniſh ambaſſador made complaints of him as a pirate, and reclaimed the plunder he had taken; and there were not wanting thoſe who ſupported the ſame opinion, and thought that the nation would ſuffer more from the interruption of commerce with Spain, than it would benefit from prizes. On the other hand, many were elated with the reputation for valour and maritime ſkill which redounded to Engliſhmen from this enterpriſe, and thought that the injuries offered by the Spaniards to the traders in the Weſt Indies juſtified repriſals. The court long wavered; at length, in the ſpring of 1581, the queen gave a ſanction to Drake's conduct, by dining on-board of his ſhip at Deptford, and conferring upon him the honour of knighthood. The nation gladly joined in the applauſe. The commander's fame became a favourite theme, and verſes were written to celebrate the ſhip which had "match'd in race the chariot of the ſun." Elizabeth having come to an open breach with Spain, Drake was ſent, in 1585, with a fleet of twenty ſail, having a body of land forces on-board, to attack the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. Several officers of diſtinguiſhed merit ſerved under him, and his ſucceſs was anſwerable to the national expectations. He took St. Jago in Cuba, St. Domingo, Carthagena, and St. Auguſtin, and made a large booty, though the miſchiefs he did to the enemy were greater than the profits which accrued to the adventurers. His expedition fully demonſtrated the weakneſs of the Spaniards in thoſe parts, and placed in a ſtriking point of view that ſuperiority in naval ſkill and valour of the Engliſh, which has conduced ſo much to the glory and proſperity of this country. In 1587 Drake ſailed with a fleet of thirty veſſels under his command, partly fitted out by the queen, partly by the London merchants. Its firſt object was to deſtroy the ſhipping aſſembled on the coaſt of Spain to form the great armada. This ſervice he gallantly purſued, by entering the harbour of Cadiz, and burning upwards of 10,000 tons of ſhipping. After this, gaining intelligence of a rich carrack from the Eaſt Indies expected at Terceira, he ſailed thither, and took it, and thus ſatisfied his merchant owners in point of profit, as well as he had done the ſtate by his other ſucceſſes. On this occaſion he boaſted, in ſeaman-like language, of "burning the king of Spain's beard." He liberally employed ſome of the wealth he had acquired, in bringing water from a diſtant ſpring to the town of Plymouth, which place he repreſented in parliament in the thirty-fifth year of Elizabeth, as he did Boſſiney in Cornwall in the twenty-ſeventh of that reign.

In the memorable year 1588, ſir Francis Drake was entruſted with the defence of his country as vice-admiral under lord Howard of Effingham. In the conflict againſt the armada, he captured a large galleon, commanded by Don Pedro de Valdez, who ſurrendered, without reſiſtance, through the terror of his name. His ſquadron had the principal ſhare in the diſcomfiture of the Spaniſh fleet, as it fled before the ſtorms and the foe. An Engliſh fleet was ſent the next year under Drake, with a body of land forces commanded by ſir John Norris, for the purpoſe of reſtoring Don Antonio to the throne of Portugal. That diſagreement which has ſo often taken place between land and ſea officers, proved fatal to this enterpriſe. Norris inſiſted upon landing at Corunna, whereas Drake propoſed ſailing directly for Liſbon. The firſt meaſure was put in practice, and Drake promiſed to proceed with the fleet up the Tagus and meet the army. He unaccountably broke his promiſe, and to this, Norris imputed the miſcarriage of the enterpriſe. Drake juſtified himſelf before the council; yet upon the whole it appears, that he loſt ſome credit by this affair. He had, however, the good fortune to capture a large fleet laden with naval ſtores. Some time after, a propoſal was made to the queen by Drake and Hawkins for an important expedition againſt the enemy, where he was moſt vulnerable, and whence he drew his chief pecuniary reſources—in the Weſt Indies. The deſign was approved; and a ſquadron of men of war was given to ſir John Hawkins, while ſo many private ſhips were furniſhed by Drake and his friends, as to make the whole force a fleet of twenty-ſeven veſſels, on-board of which were embarked 2500 troops. After a conſiderable delay, the joint commanders ſet ſail from Plymouth in Auguſt, 1695, their grand deſign being to burn

burn Nombre de Dios, and to march thence acroſs the iſthmus to Panama, in order to ſeize the treaſure from Peru, lying at that place. Before their departure they received advice that the plate-fleet was ſafely arrived in Spain, except one galleon which had put into Porto Rico. The commanders differed about the expediency of attempting to take this veſſel, as the queen adviſed. An attempt was firſt made upon the Canaries, which failed. Time was then loſt in refitting at Dominica; and the Spaniards had the opportunity of conveying away their galleons from Porto Rico. Vexation threw Hawkins into a diſeaſe, of which he died in November. On the day after his deceaſe, Drake made a deſperate attack upon the port and ſhipping of Porto Rico, which, though very deſtructive to the enemy, proved finally unſucceſsful. The fleet afterwards took and burnt Rio de la Hacha and Nombre de Dios. From the laſt place an expedition was ſent over land againſt Panama, but it was found impracticable to effect any thing. Theſe diſappointments preyed upon the mind of Drake, and his depreſſion, joined with the effects of an unhealthy climate, threw him into a fever and flux, of which he died on January 28th, 1596, in the fifty-firſt year of his age, according to the date of his birth given in the Biog. Britan. but in the fifty-fifth according to other accounts. He was a man, upon the whole, of an eſtimable private character; careful of thoſe under his command, courteous and humane towards thoſe whom the fortune of war threw into his power, juſt and generous in his dealings, ſober and religious. He poſſeſſed a natural eloquence, and though without the advantages of education, acquitted himſelf with credit on public occaſions. He was eminently ſkilled in all the branches of his profeſſion; and with ſo much courage and ability did he conduct his enterpriſes, that ſcarcely any name among naval adventurers ſtood ſo high, not only in his own country, but throughout Europe, as that of ſir Francis Drake.

DRAKE, a harbour in California, ſo called after the celebrated ſir Francis Drake, who diſcovered and took poſſeſſion of the peninſula of California, for his miſtreſs, queen Elizabeth. Lat. 28. 15. N. lon. 111. 3. W.

DRAKE, or Drake's Bay, a baſon in the middle of the Virgin Iſles, in the Weſt Indies, four leagues broad and ſeven long, in which ſhips may anchor, landlocked and ſheltered from all winds.

DRAKE, or Druse-hol, *ſ.* A Swediſh denomination, uſed in their mineralogy to expreſs a cluſter of cryſtals which line a cavity in any mineral.

DRAKE's ISLAND, or St. Nicholas, an iſland in Plymouth ſound.

DRAKE'NA, *ſ.* in botany. See Dorstenia.

DRA'KENBORCH (Arnold), profeſſor of rhetoric and hiſtory in the univerſity of Utrecht, and one of the moſt celebrated critics of modern times, born in that city on the 1ſt of January 1684. He ſtudied the belles-lettres under Grævius and Burmann, and law under Cornelius van Eck, after which he went to Leyden, and in 1706 took his degree of LL.D. at Utrecht. In 1716, he ſucceeded Burmann as profeſſor in that univerſity, and died there on the 16th of January 1748. His works are: 1. *Diſputatio Philolog. Hiſt de præfectis urbis*, Traj. ad Rhen. 1704, 4to. On account of its merit and great ſcarcity it was reprinted in ſix ſheets, at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, in 1750, by profeſſor Uhl, with the author's life; and at Bayreuth in 1787, by J. C. Kapp, co-rector of the gymnaſium at Hof, with corrections and annotations. 2. *Diſputatio de officio præfectorum prætorio*, Traj. ad Rhen. 1707, 4to. 3. *C. Silii Italici Punicorum*, libri xvii. Traj. ad Rhen. 1717. 4to. 4. *T. Livii Patavini hiſtoriarum ab urbe condita libri, qui ſuperſunt, omnes. Accedunt Supplementa deperditorum T. Livii libror. a J. Freinſhemio concinnata*, Lugd. Batav. 1738, 1746, tom. vii. 4to. with the author's portrait. Seven of Drakenborch's letters to La Croze may be found in Theſaurus Epiſt. *La Crozianus*, part. i. and others in *Sylloge nova Epiſtolarum*, Norimb. 1758, 8vo.

DRAM, *ſ.* [from *drachm*; *drachma*, Lat.] In weight the eighth part of an ounce. See Drachma.—The trial being made betwixt lead and lead, weighing ſeverally ſeven drams in the air, the balance in the water weigheth only four *drams* and forty-one grains, and abateth of the weight in the air two *drams* and nineteen grains: the balance kept the ſame depth in the water. *Bacon.*—A ſmall quantity, in a kind of proverbial ſenſe:

One loving hour
For many years of ſorrow can diſpenſe;
A *dram* of ſweet is worth a pound of ſour. *Spenſer.*

Such a quantity of diſtilled ſpirit as is uſually drunk at once.—Every *dram* of brandy, every pot of ale that you drink, raiſeth your character. *Swift.*—Spirits; diſtilled liquors:

A ſecond ſee, by meeker manners known,
And modeſt as the maid that ſips alone;
From the ſtrong fate of *drams* if thou get free,
Another Durfy, Ward! ſhall ſing in thee. *Pope.*

To DRAM, *v. n.* In low language, to drink drams; to drink diſtilled ſpirits.

DRA'MA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A poem accommodated to action; a poem in which the action is not related, but repreſented; and in which therefore ſuch rules are to be obſerved as make the repreſentation ſtrictly natural and probable. The drama includes both tragedy and comedy; for the origin, ſtyle, and proper verſification of which, ſee the article Poetry.—Many rules of imitating nature Ariſtotle drew from Homer, which he fitted to the *drama*; furniſhing himſelf alſo with obſervations from the theatre, when it flouriſhed under Æſchylus, Euripides, and Sophocles. *Dryden.*

DRA'MA, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Romania: ſixteen miles north-eaſt of Emboli.

DRAMA'TIC, or Dramatical, *adj.* Repreſented by action; not narrative.—I hope to make it appear, that, in the great *dramatic* poem of nature, is a neceſſity of introducing a God. *Bentley.*

DRAMA'TICALLY, *adv.* Repreſentatively; by repreſentation.—Ignorance and errors are ſeverally reprehended, partly *dramatically*, partly ſimply. *Dryden.*

DRA'MATIST, *ſ.* The author of dramatic compoſitions.—The whole theatre reſounds with the praiſes of the great *dramatiſt*, and the wonderful art and order of the compoſition. *Burnet.*

DRAM'BURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and New Mark of Brandenburg: forty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Colberg, and 118 north-eaſt of Berlin.

DRAN, a river of Germany, which runs into the Drave, four miles ſouth of Pettau, in the duchy of Stiria.

DRAN (Henry Francis le), an eminent French ſurgeon, born in 1685, the ſon of Henry le Dran, a ſurgeon at Paris, diſtinguiſhed for the treatment of cancers. Henry Francis was a man of great experience and ability. He wrote, 1. *Parallele des differentes Manières de tirer la Pierre hors de la Veſſie*, 1730, 8vo. 2. *Obſervations de Chirurgie, avec des Reflections*, 2 vols. 12mo. 1731. 3. *Traité ou Reflections tirées de la Pratique ſur les Playes d'Armes à Feu*, 1757, 12mo. the reſult of his own army-practice in gun-ſhot wounds, and inculcating bold and efficacious modes of treatment. 4. *Traité des Operations de Chirurgie*, 1743, 12mo. To Gataker's Engliſh tranſlation of it, Cheſelden made ſome valuable additions. 5. *Conſultations ſur la plupart des Maladies qui ſont du Reſſort de la Chirurgie*, 1765, 8vo. He died at Paris in 1770, at the age of eighty-five.

DRANCE, a river of Switzerland, which runs into the Rhone, near Martigny, in the Valais.

DRANK, the pret. of *drink*; and, *ſ.* a provincial term for the wild oat.

DRANS'FELD, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Calenberg: ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Gottingen.

To DRAPE, *v. n.* [*drap*, Fr. *drapus*, low Lat.] To make cloth.—It was rare to ſet prices by ſtatute; and this act did not preſcribe prices, but ſtinted them not to exceed a rate, that the clothier might *drape* accordingly as he might afford. *Bacon.*—To jeer, or ſatirize; [*drapper*, Fr.] It is uſed in this ſenſe by the innovator Temple, whom nobody has imitated.

DRA'PER, *ſ.* One who ſells cloth.—If a piece of cloth in a *draper*'s ſhop be variouſly folded, it will appear of differing colours. *Boyle.*

DRA'PERY, *ſ.* [*draperie*, Fr.] Clothwork; the trade of making cloth; woollen manufacture.—He made ſtatutes for the maintenance of *drapery*, and the keeping of wools within the realm. *Bacon.*—Cloth; ſtuffs of wool.—The Bulls and Frogs had ſerved the lord Strutt with *drapery* ware for many years. *Arbuthnot.*—The dreſs of a picture or ſtatue.—Poets are allowed the ſame liberty in their deſcriptions and compariſons, as painters in their *draperies* and ornaments. *Prior.*—See the article PAINTING.

DRA'PET, *ſ.* Cloth; coverlet. *Not in uſe:*

Thence ſhe them brought into a ſtately hall,
Wherein were many tables fair diſpred,
And ready dight with *drapets* feſtival,
Againſt the viands ſhould be miniſtred. *Spenſer.*

DRAS'CUS, *ſ.* in old writings, grains, the refuſe of malt after brewing. *Aſh.*

DRAS'TIC, *adj.* [*draſticus*, Lat. δραστικος, Gr. from δραω, to effect.] It is uſed of a medicine that works with ſpeed; as jalap, ſcammony, and the ſtronger purges. *Quincy.*

DRAVE, the pret. of *drive*. *Drove* is more uſed:

The foe ruſh'd furious as he pants for breath,
And thro' his navel *drave* the pointed death. *Pope.*

DRAVE, a river of Germany, which riſes in the mountains of Tyrol, and joins the Danube about ſixteen miles below Eſzek in Sclavonia.

DRAUGH, *ſ.* [corruptly written for *draff*.] Refuſe; ſwill. See DRAFF.

We do not act, that often jeſt and laugh.
'Tis old, but true, ſtill ſwine eat all the *draugh*. *Shakeſp.*

DRAUGHT, *ſ.* The act of drinking.—They ſlung up one of their hogſheads, and I drank it off at a *draught*; which I might well do, for it did not hold half a pint. *Gulliver.*—A quantity of liquor drunk at once.—Every *draught*, to him that has already quenched his thirſt, is but a farther quenching of nature; a proviſion for rheum and diſeaſes. *South.*

Fill high the goblets with the ſparkling flood,
And with deep *draughts* invoke our common god. *Dryden.*

Liquor drunk for pleaſure:

Were it a *draught* for Juno when ſhe banquets,
I would not taſte thy treaſonous offer. *Milton.*

Delicious wines th' attending herald brought;
The gold gave luſtre to the purple *draught*. *Pope.*

[In commerce.] An order for the payment of money, commonly written *draft*. See BILL OF EXCHANGE, vol. iii. p. 30. The act of drawing or pulling carriages.—A general cuſtom of uſing oxen for all ſorts of *draught*, would be, perhaps the greateſt improvement. *Temple.*—The moſt occaſion that farmers have, is for *draught* horſes. *Mortimer.*—The quality of being drawn.—The Hertfordſhire wheel-plough is the ſtrongeſt for moſt uſes, and of the eaſieſt *draught*. *Mortimer.*—Repreſentation by picture:

Her pencil drew whate'er her ſoul deſign'd,
And oft the happy *draught* ſurpaſs'd the image in her mind. *Dryden.*

Delineation; ſketch; outline.—A good inclination is but the firſt rude *draught* of virtue; but the finiſhing ſtrokes are from the will. *South.*—A picture drawn.—Whereas in other creatures we have but the trace of his footſteps, in man we have the *draught* of his hand: in him were united all the ſcattered perfections of the creature. *South.*—The act of ſweeping with a net.—Upon the *draught* of a pond, not one fiſh was left, but two pikes grown to an exceſſive bigneſs. *Hale.*—The quantity of fiſhes taken by once drawing the net.—He laid down his pipe, and caſt his net, which brought him a very great *draught*. *L'Eſtrange.*—The act of ſhooting with the bow.—Geoffrey of Boullion, at one *draught* of his bow, ſhooting againſt David's tower in Jeruſalem, broached three feetleſs birds called allerions. *Camden.*—Diverſion in war; the act of diſturbing the main deſign; perhaps ſudden attack.—I conceive the manner of your handling of the ſervice, by drawing ſudden *draughts* upon the enemy, when he looketh not for you. *Spenſer.*—Forces drawn off from the main army; a detachment.—Such a *draught* of forces would leſſen the number of thoſe that might otherwiſe be employed. *Addiſon.*—A ſink; a drain.—Whatſoever entereth in at the mouth goeth into the belly, and is caſt out into the *draught*. *Matt.* xv. 17.—The depth which a veſſel draws, or ſinks into the water.—With a ſmall veſſel one may keep within a mile of the ſhore, go amongſt rocks, and paſs over ſhoals, where a veſſel of any *draught* would ſtrike. *Ellis.*

With roomy decks, her guns of mighty ſtrength,
Deep in her *draught*, and warlike in her length. *Dryden.*

[In the plur. *draughts*.] A kind of play reſembling cheſs.

DRAUGHT'HOUSE, *ſ.* A houſe in which filth is depoſited.—And they brake down the image of Baal, and brake down the houſe of Baal, and made it a *draughthouſe*. 2 *Kings.*

DRAUN'SEN SEA, a lake of Pruſſia, in the province of Ermeland, a little to the ſouth of Elbing.

DRAW, a town of Perſia, in the province of Segeſtan: ſeventy miles north-weſt of Zareng.

To DRAW, *v. a.* pret. *drew*; part. paſſ. *drawn*; [dragan, Sax.] To pull along; not to carry.—Then ſhall all Iſrael bring ropes to that city, and we will draw it into the river. 2 *Sam.*—To pull forcibly; to pluck.—He could not *draw* the dagger out of his belly. *Judges*, ii. 22.—To bring by violence; to drag.—Do not rich men oppreſs you, and *draw* you before the judgment-ſeats? *James* ii. 6.—To raiſe out of a deep place.—They *drew* up Jeremiah with cords, and took him up out of the dungeon. *Jer.* xxxviii. 13.—To ſuck.—He hath *drawn* thee dry. *Eccluſ.* xiii. 7.—Sucking and *drawing* the breaſt diſcharges the milk as faſt as it can be generated, *Wiſeman.*—To attract; to call towards itſelf.—We ſee that ſalt, laid to a cut finger, healeth it; ſo as it ſeemeth ſalt *draweth* blood, as well as blood *draweth* ſalt. *Bacon.*—Majeſty in an eclipſe, like the ſun, *draws* eyes that would not have looked towards it if it had ſhined out. *Suckling.*—To draw as a magnet does:

She had all magnetic force alone,
To *draw* and faſten ſundred parts in one. *Donne.*

To inhale:

Thus I call'd, and ſtray'd I know not whither,
From where I firſt *drew* air, and firſt beheld
This happy light. *Milton.*

To take from any thing containing or holding.—They *drew* out the ſtaves of the ark. 2 *Chron.*—To take off the ſpit or broacher:

They cut out legs and fillets for the feaſt,
Which *drawn* and ſerv'd, their hunger they appeaſe. *Dryd.*

To take from a caſk:

The wine of life is *drawn*, and the meer lees
Are left this vault to brag of. *Shakeſpeare.*

To pull a ſword from the ſheath.—I will *draw* my ſword; my hand ſhall deſtroy them. *Exod.* xv.

In all your wars good fortune blew before you,
Till in my fatal cauſe your ſword was *drawn*;
The weight of my misfortunes dragg'd you down. *Dryd.*

To let out any liquid.—I opened the tumor by the point of a lancet, without *drawing* one drop of blood. *Wiſeman.* —To take bread out of the oven.—The joiner puts boards into ovens after the batch is *drawn*. *Mortimer.*—To uncloſe or ſlide back curtains:

Alarm'd, and with preſaging heart he came,
And *drew* the curtains, and expos'd the dame. *Dryden.*

To cloſe or ſpread curtains.—Philoclea intreated Pamela to open her grief; who, *drawing* the curtain, that the candle might not complain of her bluſhing, was ready to ſpeak. *Sidney.*—To extract.—Spirits, by diſtillations, may be *drawn* out of vegetable juices, which ſhall flame and fume of themſelves. *Cheyne.*—To procure as an agent cauſe.—When he finds the hardſhip of ſlavery outweigh the value of life, 'tis in his power, by reſiſting his maſter, to *draw* on himſelf death. *Locke.*—To produce, or bring, as an efficient cauſe.—Religion will requite all the honour we can do it, by the bleſſings it will *draw* down upon us. *Tillotſon.*

When the fountain of mankind
Did *draw* corruption, and God's curſe, by ſin,
This was a charge that all his heirs did bind,
And all his offſpring grew corrupt therein. *Sir J. Davies.*

To convey ſecretly or gradually.—The liers in wait *draw* themſelves along. *Judg.* xx. 37.—To protract; to lengthen; to ſpin:

If we ſhall meet again with more delight,
Then *draw* my life in length; let me ſuſtain,
In hopes of his embrace, the worſt of pain. *Dryden.*

To utter lingeringly:

The brand, amid the flaming fuel thrown,
Or *drew*, or ſeem'd to *draw*, a dying groan. *Dryden.*

To derive; to have from ſome original cauſe or donor.—Several wits entered into commerce with the Egyptians, and from them *drew* the rudiments of ſciences. *Temple.*—To deduce as from poſtulates.—From the events and revolutions of theſe governments, are *drawn* the uſual inſtructions of princes and ſtateſmen. *Temple.*—To imply; to produce as a conſequential inference.—What ſhews the force of the inference but a view of all the intermediate ideas that *draw* in the concluſion, or propoſition inferred. *Locke.*—To allure; to entice.—*Draw* me not away with the wicked. *Pſalm* xxviii. 3.—To lead as a motive:

Your way is ſhorter;
My purpoſes do *draw* me much about. *Shakeſpeare.*

To perſuade to follow:

The poet
Did feign that Orpheus *drew* trees, ſtones, and floods;
Since nought ſo ſtockiſh, hard, and full of rage,
But muſic, for the time, doth change his nature. *Shakeſp.*

To induce; to perſuade.—The Engliſh lords did ally themſelves with the Iriſh, and *drew* them in to dwell among them, and gave their children to be foſtered by them. *Davies.*—To win; to gain: a metaphor from gaming:

This ſeems a fair deſerving, and muſt *draw* me
That which my father loſes. *Shakeſpeare.*

To receive; to take up: as, to *draw* money from the funds:

For thy three thouſand ducats here is ſix.
—If every ducat in ſix thouſand ducats
Were in ſix parts, and every part a ducat,
I would not *draw* them, I would have my bond. *Shakeſp.*

To extort; to force:

Can you e'er forget
The fond embraces, and repeated bleſſings,
Which you *drew* from him in your laſt farewel? *Addiſon.*

To wreſt; to diſtort.—I wiſh that both you and others would ceaſe from *drawing* the ſcriptures to your fantaſies and affections. *Whitgifte.*—To compoſe; to form in writing: uſed of formulary or juridical writings.—The report is not unartfully *drawn*, in the ſpirit of a pleader, who can find the moſt plauſible topies. *Swift.*—Shall Ward *draw* contracts with a ſtateſman's ſkill? *Pope.*—To withdraw from judicial notice.—Go, waſh thy face, and *draw* thy action: come, thou muſt not be in this humour with me. *Shakeſpeare.*—To eviſcerate; to diſbowel:

In private *draw* your poultry, clean your tripe,
And from your eels their ſlimy ſubſtance wipe. *King.*

To convey a criminal to execution on a ſledge.

To DRAW *in*. To apply to any purpoſe by diſtortion or violence.—A diſpute, where every little ſtraw is laid hold on, and every thing that can but be *drawn in* any way, to give colour to the argument, is advanced with oſtentation. *Locke.*—To repreſent by picture, or in fancy:

From the ſoft aſſaults of love
Poets and painters never are ſecure;
Can I, untouch'd, the fair one's paſſions move,
Or thou *draw* beauty, and not feel its pow'r. *Prior.*

To form a repreſentative image.—The emperor one day took up a peneil which fell from the hand of Titian, who was then *drawing* his picture; and, upon the compliment which Titian made him on that occaſion, he ſaid, Titian deſerves to be ſerved by Cæſar. *Dryden.*—To contract; to pull back:

Now, ſporting muſe, *draw in* the flowing reins;
Leave the clear ſtreams awhile for ſunny plains. *Gay.*

To inveigle; to entice.—It was the proſtitute faith of faithleſs miſcreants that *drew* them *in*, and deceived them. *South.*

To DRAW *off*. To extract by diſtillation.—Authors, who have thus *drawn off* the ſpirits of their thoughts, ſhould lie ſtill for ſome time, till their minds have gathered freſh ſtrength, and by reading, reflection, and converſation, laid in a new ſtock of elegancies, ſentiments, and images of nature. *Addiſon.*—To drain out by a vent. —Stop your veſſel, and have a little vent-hole ſtopped with a ſpill, which never allow to be pulled out till you *draw off* a great quantity. *Mortimer.*—To withdraw; to abſtract.—It *draws* men's minds *off* from the bitterneſs of party. *Addiſon.*

To DRAW *on*. To occaſion; to invite.—Under colour of war, which either his negligence *draws on*, or his practices procured, he levied a ſubſidy. *Hayward.*—To cauſe; to bring by degrees.—The examination of the ſubtile matter would *draw on* the conſideration of the nice controverſies that perplex philoſophers. *Boyle.*

To DRAW *over*. To raiſe in a ſtill.—I took rectified oil of vitriol, and by degrees mixed with it eſſential oil of wormwood, *drawn over* with water in a limbeck. *Boyle.*—To perſuade to revolt; to induce to change a party.—Some might be brought into his intereſts by money, others *drawn over* by fear. *Addiſon.*

To DRAW *out*. To protract; to lengthen:

He muſt not only die the death,
But thy unkindneſs ſhall his death *draw out*
To ling'ring ſufferance. *Shakeſpeare.*

To beat out, as is done to hot iron.—Batter a piece of iron out, or, as workmen call it, *draw* it *out*, till it comes to its breadth. *Moxon.*—To extract; to pump out by inſinuation.—Philoclea found her, and, to *draw out* more, ſaid ſhe, I have often wondered how ſuch exeellencies could be. *Sidney.*—To induce by motive.—What needed this, to *draw out* from us an accuſation of foreign churches? *Hooker.*—To call to action; to detach for ſervice; to range:

Draw out a file, pick man by man,
Such who dare die, and dear will ſell their death. *Dryd.*

To range in battle.—Let him deſire his ſuperior officer, that, the next time he is *drawn out*, the challenger may be poſted near him. *Collier.*

To DRAW *up*. To form in order of battle:

So Muley-Zeydan found us
Drawn up in battle, to receive the charge. *Dryden.*

To form in writing; to compoſe in a formulary manner.—To make a ſketch, or a more perfect model of a picture, is, in the language of poets, to *draw up* the ſcenery of a play. *Dryden.*

To DRAW, *v. n.* To perform the office of a beaſt of draught.—An heifer which hath not been wrought with, and which hath not *drawn* in the yoke. *Deut.* xxi. 3.—To act as a weight.—They ſhould keep a watch upon the particular bias in their minds, that it may not *draw* too much. *Addiſon.*—To contract; to ſhrink.—I have not yet found certainly, that the water itſelf, by mixture of aſhes, or duſt, will ſhrink or *draw* into leſs room. *Bacon.*—To advance; to move; to make progreſſion any way.—*Draw* ye near hither all the chief of the people. 1 *Sam.*

He ended; and th' archangel ſoon *drew* nigh,
Not in his ſhape celeſtial, but as man
Clad to meet man. *Milton.*

To draw together; to be collected; to come together:

They muſter there, and round the center ſwarm,
And *draw* together in a globoſe form. *Blackmore.*

To draw a ſword:

For his ſake
Did I expoſe myſelf, pure; for his love
Drew to defend him, when he was befet. *Shakeſpeare.*

To practiſe the art of delineation.—So much inſight into perſpective, and ſkill in *drawing*, as will enable him to repreſent tolerably on paper any thing he ſees, ſhould be got. *Locke.*—To take a card out of the pack; to take a lot.—He has *drawn* a black, and ſmiles. *Dryden.*—To make a fore run by attraction.

To DRAW *off*. To retire; to retreat.—When the engagement proves unlucky, the way is to *draw off* by degrees, and not to come to an open rupture. *Collier.*

To DRAW *on*. To advance; to approach.—The fatal day *draws on*, when I muſt fall. *Dryden.*

To DRAW *up*. To form troops into regular order.—The lord Bernard, with the king's troops, ſeeing there was no enemy left on that ſide, *drew up* in a large field oppoſite to the bridge. *Clarendon.*

To DRAW retains, through all its varieties of uſe, ſome ſhade of its original meaning, *to pull*. It expreſſes an action, gradual or continuous, and leiſurely. Thus we *forge* a ſword by blows, but we *draw* it by a continued line. We *pour* liquor quick, but we *draw* it in a continued ſtream. We *force* compliance by threats, but we *draw* it by gradual prevalence. We *write* a letter with whatever haſte, but we *draw* a bill with ſlow ſcrupuloſity.

DRAW, *ſ.* The act of drawing. The lot or chance drawn.

DRA'WA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Poſnania: forty-eight miles north-weſt of Poſen.

DRAW'BACK, *ſ.* Money paid back for ready payment, or any other reaſon. It is commonly underſtood of the allowance made at the cuſtom-houſe, or exciſe-office, either on the exportation of our home manufactures, or upon certain foreign merchandiſe, which had paid duty on its importation:

In poundage and *drawbacks* I loſe half my rent;
Whatever they give me, I muſt be content. *Swift.*

DRAW'BRIDGE, *ſ.* A bridge made to be lifted up, to hinder or admit communication at pleaſure. See the article BRIDGE, vol. iii. p. 396.

DRAWE'E, *ſ.* The perſon on whom a bill of exchange is drawn.

DRAW'ER, *ſ.* One employed in procuring water from the well.—From the hewer of thy wood unto the *drawer* of thy water. *Deut.* xxix. 11.—One whoſe buſineſs is to draw liquors from the caſk:

Let the *drawers* be ready with wine and freſh glaſſes;
Let the waiters have eyes, tho' their tongues muſt be ty'd.
Ben Jonſon.

That which has the power of attraction.—Love is a flame, and therefore we ſay beauty is attractive, becauſe phyſicians obſerve that fire is a great *drawer*. *Swift.*—A box in a caſe, out of which it is drawn at pleaſure.—We will ſuppoſe the China diſhes taken off, and a *drawer* of medals ſupplying their room. *Addiſon.*—He that draws a bill of exchange.—The perſon who writes this letter is called in law the *drawer*, and he to whom it is written the *drawee*. *Blackſtone.*—[In the plural.] The lower part of a man's dreſs.—The Malteſe harden the bodies of their children, by making them go ſtark naked, without ſhirt or *drawers*, till they are ten years old. *Locke.*

DRAW'ING, *ſ.* Delineation; repreſentation; the firſt rudiment of the art of painting, wherein conſiſts the formation of the outline of every object or figure; for the principles of which ſee the article PAINTING.

They random *drawings* from your ſheets ſhall take,
And of one beauty many blunders make. *Pope.*

DRAW'ING, among hunters, is beating the buſhes, &c. after a fox.—*Drawing amiſs*, is when the hounds hit the ſcent of their chace contrary, *i. e.* up the wind inſtead of down.—*Drawing in the ſlot*, is when the hounds having touched the ſcent, draw on till they hit on the ſame again.

DRAW'ING-ROOM, *ſ.* The room in which company aſſembles at court.—What you heard of the words ſpoken of you in the *drawing-room* was not true: the ſayings of princes are generally as ill related as the ſayings of wits. *Pope.*—The company aſſembled there.

To DRAWL, *v. n.* To utter any thing in a ſlow driveling way:

Then mount the clerks, and in one lazy tone
Through the long heavy page *drawl* on. *Pope.*

DRAW'LATCHES, *ſ.* Thieves and robbers, mentioned by Lambert in his Eiren. i. c. 6. He calls them *thieves*, *waſters*, and *roberdſmen*; the two laſt words are now grown out of uſe. See 5 *Edw.* III. c. 14. 7 *Rich.* II. c. 5.

DRAWN, *part.* [from *draw.*]—An army was *drawn* together of near ſix thouſand horſe. *Clarendon.*

So lofty was the pile, a Parthian bow,
With vigour *drawn*, muſt put the ſhaft below. *Dryden.*

Equal; where each party takes his own ſtake.—If we make a *drawn* game of it, or procure but moderate advantages, every Britiſh heart muſt tremble. *Addiſon.*—With a ſword drawn.—What, art thou *drawn* among thoſe heartleſs hinds? *Shakeſpeare.*—Open; put aſide, or uncloſed:

A curtain *drawn* preſented to our view
A town beſieg'd. *Dryden.*

Eviſcerated.—There is no more faith in thee than in a ſtoned prune; no more truth in thee than in a *drawn* fox. *Shakeſpeare.*—Induced as from ſome motive.—The Iriſh will better be *drawn* to the Engliſh, than the Engliſh to the Iriſh government. *Spenſer.*—As this friendſhip was *drawn* together by fear on both ſides, ſo it was not like to be more durable than was the fear. *Haward.*

"DRAWN wells are ſeldom dry." The Latins ſay, *Puteus ſi hauriatur melior evadit*. The Greeks, Φρεατα αντλημενα βελτιω γινεται. Implying that motion, uſe, and exerciſe, improve every thing. Waters, when they ſtagnate, become putrid. The air, not agitated by the wind, would be unwholeſome, if not peſtilential. Every inſtrument of ſteel, if diffuſed, grows ruſty; but, above all, the minds of men, if not exerciſed, and improved, would ſoon become dry, barren, and ſavage.

DRAW'NET, *ſ.* A net for taking wildfowl, &c. See the article BIRD-CATCHING, vol. iii. p. 53.

DRAW'WELL, *ſ.* A deep well; a well out of which water is drawn by a long cord.—The firſt conceit, tending to a watch, was a *drawwell*: the people of old were wont only

only to let down a pitcher with a handcord, for as much water as they could eaſily pull up. *Grew.*

DRAY, or DRAYCART, *ſ.* [ðnaȝ, Sax.] The car on which beer is carried.—Let him be brought into the field of election upon his *draycart*, and I will meet him there in a triumphant chariot. *Addiſon.*

When *drays* bound high, then never croſs behind,
Where bubbling yeſt is blown by guſts of wind. *Gay.*

The neſt of a ſquirrel:

Whilſt he from tree to tree, from ſpray to ſpray,
Gets to the wood, and hides him in his *dray*. *W. Browne.*

DRAY'HORSE, *ſ.* A horſe which draws a dray.—This truth is illuſtrated by a diſcourſe on the nature of the elephant and the *drayhorſe*. *Tatler.*

DRAY'MAN, *ſ.* One that attends a dray or cart.—Have not coblers, *draymen*, and mechanics, governed as well as preached? Nay, have not they by preaching come to govern? *South.*

DRAY'TON, or MARKET-DRAYTON, an ancient town in the county of Salop, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Tern, which here ſeparates Shropſhire from Staffordſhire. It is diſtant from Shrewſbury nineteen miles, from Staffordnineteen, from Cheſter thirty, and from London 150. It lies about three miles from Tern-hill inn, which ſtands in the great road leading from London to Cheſter. Here is a manufactory of hair-weaving, for chair-ſeats, ſieve-bottoms, &c. Its principal market-day is Wedneſday, with a ſmall market on Saturday for butchers meat, &c. It has four fairs annually, viz. nine days before Eaſter, nearеſt Wedneſday to the 22d of June, September 19, and the 26th of October. Here was a very ancient church, dedicated to St. Mary, the tower of which is now ſtanding; but the body of it was rebuilt in 1782. About two miles from this town was fought the obſtinate battle of Bloorheath, upon which ſpot was erected a ſtone-croſs, with an inſcription, to perpetuate this memorable action. The battle was fought in 1459. Lord Audley commanded for the houſe of Lancaſter, and was ſlain: the earl of Saliſbury commanded for the houſe of York. In this battle, the earl of Saliſbury, with five thouſand men, beat Lord Audley, who had ten thouſand, after a moſt bloody engagement.

DRAY'TON (Michael), an Engliſh poet, born in 1563, at Hartſhill, a village in Warwickſhire. He was for ſome time a ſtudent at Oxford; but of his profeſſional purſuits, and the circumſtances of his life, very little is known. He ſeems early to have entered among the votaries of the muſes; and he became known by various poetical publications during the reign of queen Elizabeth. He died in 1631, and was honoured with a tomb among the poets in Weſtminſter-abbey. A great portion of his pieces are derived from Engliſh hiſtory. The battle of Agincourt, the barons' wars, the ſtories of queen Margaret of Anjou, of Robert duke of Normandy, of Matilda the Fair, Pierce Gaveſton, and Cromwell earl of Eſſex, have employed his heroic or epic ſtrain; and in England's Heroical Epiſtles, feigned to have paſſed between lovers of the firſt rank and fame in our hiſtories, he has imitated the elegiac manner of Ovid. His greateſt performance, intitled Polyolbion, is a kind of ſyſtem of the geography and antiquities of England and Wales. It has the peculiarity of being written in uniform Alexandrines, the effect of which is far from agreeable to a modern ear, and ſeems to aggravate the natural tedioufneſs of the work. The learned Selden thought it worth while to write annotations on this poem; which is a circumſtance to its honour as a curious piece of narrative, though it will not conclude much in favour of its poetry. The other poems of Drayton are paſtorals, odes, elegies, ſatires, and various anomalous compoſitions. An edition of his works appeared in folio, in 1748, and another in 4 vols. 8vo. in 1753.

DRA'ZEL, *ſ.* [perhaps corrupted from *droſſel*, the ſcum or droſs of human nature; or from *droſteſſe*, Fr. a ſtrumpet.] A low, mean, worthleſs, wretch:

As the devil uſes witches,
To be their cully for a ſpace,
That, when the time's expir'd, the *drazels*
For ever may become his vaſſals. *Hudibras.*

DREAD, *ſ.* [ðnað, Sax.] Fear; terror; affright; horror either felt or impreſſed.—Was ever any wicked man free from the ſtings of a guilty conſcience, from the ſecret *dread* of divine diſpleaſure, and of the vengeance of another world? *Tillotſon.*

Think'ſt thou that duty ſhall have *dread* to ſpeak,
When pow'r to flatt'ry bows? To plainneſs honour
Is bound, when majeſty to folly falls. *Shakeſpeare.*

Habitual fear; awe.—The fear of you, and the *dread* of you, ſhall be upon every beaſt of the earth. *Gen.* ix. 2.—The perſon or thing feared; the cauſe of fear.—Let him be your *dread*. *Iſaiah.*

To thee, of all our good the ſacred ſpring;
To thee, our deareſt *dread*; to thee, our ſofter king. *Prior.*

DREAD, *adj.* [ðnæð, Sax.] Terrible; frightful:

To be expos'd againſt the warring winds;
To ſtand againſt the deep *dread* bolted thunder. *Shakeſp.*

Awful; venerable in the higheſt degree:

Thou, attended glorioufly from heav'n,
Shalt in the ſky appear, and from thee ſend
The ſummoning archangels to proclaim
Thy *dread* tribunal. *Milton.*

This ſeems to be the meaning of that controverted phraſe, *dread majeſty*. Some of the old acts of parliament are ſaid in the preface to be *metuendiſſimi regis*, our *dread* ſovereign's. *Johnſon.*

To DREAD, *v. a.* To fear in an exceſſive degree.—You may deſpiſe that which terrifies others, and which yet all, even thoſe who moſt *dread* it, muſt in a little time encounter. *Wake.*

To DREAD, *v. n.* To be in fear.—*Dread* not, neither be afraid of them. *Deut.* i. 8.

"Do well, and DREAD no ſhame." He who acts upon principles of juſtice and honour, never need be apprehenſive of the conſequences that follow. This proverb directs us to be virtuous and honeſt in every exigency of our lives.

DREAD-BOLTED, *adj.* Having a dreadful bolt.—To ſtand againſt the deep *dread-bolted* thunder. *Shakeſp.*

DREAD'ER, *ſ.* One that lives in fear.—I have ſuſpended much of my pity towards the great *dreaders* of popery. *Swift.*

DREAD'FUL, *adj.* Terrible; frightful; formidable:

The ſtill night,
Accompanied with damps and *dreadful* gloom. *Milton.*

Awful; venerable.—How *dreadful* is this place! *Geneſis.*—Full of fear.—*Dreadful* of danger that moſe him betyde. *Spenſer.*

This to me
In *dreadful* ſecrecy impart they did. *Shakeſpeare.*

DREAD'FULNESS, *ſ.* Terribleneſs; frightfulneſs.—It may juſtly ſerve for matter of extreme terror to the wicked, whether they regard the *dreadfulneſs* of the day in which they ſhall be tried, or the quality of the judge by whom they are to be tried. *Hakewell.*

DREAD'FULLY, *adv.* Terribly; frightfully:

Not ſharp revenge, nor hell itſelf, can find
A fiercer torment than a guilty mind,
Which day and night doth *dreadfully* accuſe,
Condemns the wretch, and ſtill the charge renews. *Dryd.*

DREAD'LESS, *adj.* Fearleſs; unaffrighted; intrepid; unſhaken; undaunted; free from terror:

All night the *dreadleſs* angel, unpurſu'd,
Thro' heav'n's wide campaign held his way. *Milton.*

DREAD'LESSNESS, *ſ.* Fearleſſneſs; intrepidity; undauntedneſs.—Zelmane, to whom danger then was a cauſe of *dreadleſſneſs*, all the compoſition of her elements being nothing but fiery, with ſwiftneſs of deſire croſſed him. *Sidney.*

DREAM, *ſ.* [*droom*, Dut. This word is derived by Meric Caſaubon, with more ingenuity than truth, from δραμα τε βιε, *the comedy of life*; dreams being, as plays are, a repreſentation of ſomething which does not really happen. This conceit Junius has enlarged by quoting an epigram:

Σκηνη τως ο βιος και παιγνιον η μαλε παιζειν,
Την σπευδην μεταθεις, η φερε τας οδυνας. *Anthol.*]

A phantaſm of ſleep; the thoughts of a ſleeping man:

Glorious *dreams* ſtand ready to reſtore
The pleaſing ſhapes of all you ſaw before. *Dryden.*

An idle fancy; a wild conceit; a groundleſs ſuſpicion:

Let him keep
A hundred knights; yes, that on ev'ry *dream*,
Each buz, each fancy, each complaint, diſlikc,
He may enguard his dotage. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DREAM, *v. n.* [pret. *dreamed*, or *dreamt*.] To have the repreſentation of ſomething in ſleep.—*Dreaming* is the having of ideas, whilſt the outward ſenſes are ſtopped, not ſuggeſted by any external objects, or known occaſion, nor under the rule or conduct of the underſtanding. *Locke.*—It has *of* before the noun:

I have nightly ſince
Dreamt of encounters 'twixt thyſelf and me:
We have been down together in my ſleep,
Unbuckling helms, fiſting each other's throat,
And wak'd half dead with nothing. *Shakeſpeare.*

To think; to imagine.—He never *dreamed* of the deluge, nor thought that firſt orb more than a tranſient cruſt. *Burnet.*

He little *dream'd* how nigh he was to care,
Till treach'rous fortune caught him in the ſnare. *Dryd.*

To think idly.—They *dream* on in a conſtant courſe of reading, but not digeſting. *Locke.*—To be ſluggiſh; to idle:

Why does Anthony *dream* out his hours,
And tempts not fortune for a noble day? *Dryden.*

To DREAM, *v. a.* To ſee in a dream:

At length in ſleep their bodies they compoſe,
And *dreamt* the future fight, and early roſe. *Dryden.*

"*Dreams*, (ſays Addiſon,) look like the amuſements of the ſoul, when ſhe is diſencumbered of her machine; her ſports and recreations, when ſhe has laid her charge aſleep."—Scarcely indeed are there any of the functions of nature leſs open to our obſervation, than the human mind in this ſtate. The dreamer himſelf cannot well obſerve the manner in which dreams ariſe or diſappear to him. When he awakes, he cannot recollect the circumſtances of his dreams with ſufficient accuracy. Were we to watch over him with the moſt vigilant attention, we could not perceive with certainty what emotions are excited in his mind, or what thoughts paſs through it, during his ſleep. But though we could aſcertain theſe phenomena, many other difficulties would ſtill remain. What parts of a human being are active, what dormant, when he dreams? Why does not he always dream while aſleep? Or why dreams he at all? Do any circumſtances in our conſtitution, ſituation, and peculiar character, determine the nature of our dreams? Theſe are queſtions about which we can only conjecture. In dreaming, we are not conſcious of being aſleep. This is well known from a thouſand circumſtances. When awake, we often recollect our dreams; and we remember on ſuch occaſions, that while thoſe dreams were paſſing through our minds, it never occurred to us that we were ſeparated by ſleep from the active world. In dreaming, alſo, we do not conſider ourſelves as witneſſing or bearing a part in a fictitious ſcene: we ſeem not to be in a ſimilar ſituation with the actors in a dramatic performance, or the ſpectators before whom they exhibit, but appear to be engaged in the buſineſs of real life. All the varieties of thought which paſs through our minds when awake, may alſo occur in dreams; all the images which imagination preſents in the former ſtate, ſhe is alſo able to call up in the latter; all the ſame emotions may be excited, and we are often actuated by equal violence of paſſion; none of the tranſactions in which we are capable of engaging while awake is impoſſible in dreams: and while dreaming, we are not ſenſible of any diſtinction between our dreams and the events and tranſactions in which we are actually concerned in our intercourſe with the world.

Though in dreams the imagination appears to be free from all reſtraint, yet it is generally agreed, that the imaginary tranſactions of the dreamer bear always ſome relation to his particular character in the world, his habits of action, and the circumſtances of his life. The lover, we are told, dreams of his miſtreſs; the miſer of his money; the philoſopher renews his reſearches in ſleep often with the ſame pain and fatigue as when awake; and even the merchant, at times, returns to balance his books, and compute the profits of an adventure, when ſlumbering on his pillow. And not only do the more general circumſtances of a perſon's life influence his dreams; his paſſions and habits are nearly the ſame when aſleep as when awake. A perſon whoſe habits of life are virtuous, does not in his dreams plunge into a ſeries of crimes; nor are the vicious reformed when they paſs into this imaginary world. The choleric man finds himſelf offended by ſlight provocations as well in his dreams as in his ordinary intercourſe with mankind; and a mild temper continues pacific in ſleep. The character of a perſon's dreams is influenced by his circumſtances when awake in a ſtill more unaccountable manner. Certain dreams uſually ariſe in the mind after a perſon has been in certain ſituations. Dr. Beattie relates, that he once, after riding thirty miles in a high wind, paſſed a part of the ſucceeding night in dreams beyond deſcription terrible. The ſtate of a perſon's health, and the manner in which the vital functions are carried on, are thought to have a conſiderable influence in determining the character of dreams. After too full a meal, or after eating an unuſual kind of food, a perſon is ſaid to have dreams of a troubleſome and terrifying nature.

In dreaming, the mind for the moſt part carries on no intercourſe through the ſenſes with ſurrounding objects. Touch a perſon gently who is aſleep, he rarely feels the impreſſion. You may awake him by a ſmart blow; but when the ſtroke is not ſufficiently ſtrong to awake him, he remains inſenſible of it. We ſpeak ſoftly beſide a perſon aſleep, without fearing that he will overhear. His eye-lids are ſhut; and even though light ſhould fall upon the eye-ball, yet ſtill his powers of viſion are not awakened to active exertion, unleſs the light be ſo ſtrong as to rouſe him from ſleep. He is inſenſible both to ſweet and to diſagreeable ſmells. It is not eaſy to try whether his organs of taſte retain their activity, without awakening him; yet from analogy it may be preſumed that theſe too are inactive. With reſpect to the circumſtances here enumerated, it is indifferent whether a perſon be dreaming or buried in deep ſleep. Yet there is one remarkable fact concerning dreaming, which may ſeem to contradict what has been here aſſerted. In dreams, we are liable not only to ſpeak aloud in conſequence of the ſuggeſtions of imagination, but even to get up, and walk about, and engage in little enterpriſes, without awaking. Now, as we are in this inſtance ſo active, it ſeems that we cannot be then inſenſible of the preſence of ſurrounding objects. The ſleep-walker is really ſenſible in a certain degree of the preſence of the objects around him; but he does not attend to them with all their circumſtances, nor do they excite

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in him the ſame emotions as if he were awake. He feels no terror on the top of a houſe, or brink of a precipice; and, in conſequence of being free from fear, he is alſo without danger in ſuch ſituations, unleſs ſuddenly awaked. This is one of the moſt inexplicable phenomena of dreaming. There is alſo another fact not ſtrictly conſonant with what has been above advanced. It is ſaid, that in ſleep a perſon will continue to hear the noiſe of a cataract in the neighbourhood, or regular ſtrokes with a hammer, or any ſimilar ſound ſufficiently loud, and continued uninterruptedly from before the time of his falling aſleep. We know not whether he awakes on the ſudden ceſſation of the noiſe. This fact is aſſerted on ſufficient evidence, and is curious. Even when awake, if very deeply intent on any piece of ſtudy, or cloſely occupied in buſineſs, the ſound of a clock ſtriking in the neighbourhood, or the beating of a drum, will eſcape us unnoticed: and it is therefore the more ſurpriſing that we ſhould thus continue ſenſible to ſounds when aſleep.

Though dreams have been regarded among almoſt all nations of the world, as prophetic of future events; yet it does not appear that this popular opinion has been eſtabliſhed on good grounds. Chriſtianity teaches us to believe, that the Supreme Being may, and actually does, operate on our minds, and influence at times the determinations of our will, without making us ſenſible of the reſtraint to which we are thus ſubjected. And, in the ſame manner, no doubt, the ſuggeſtions which ariſe to us in dreams may be produced. The imaginary tranſactions in which we are then engaged, may be ſuch as are actually to occupy us in life; the ſtrange and ſeemingly incoherent appearances which are then preſented to the mind's eye, may allude to ſome circumſtances which are eventually to befal ourſelves or others. It is, therefore, by no means impoſſible, or inconſiſtent with the general analogy of nature, that dreams ſhould in ſome caſes have a reſpect to futurity. We have no reaſon to regard the dreams which are related in the Holy Scriptures to have been prophetic of future events, as not inſpired by Heaven, or to laugh at the idea of a prophetic dream as abſurd or ridiculous.

Various theories have been propoſed to explain what in dreams appears moſt inexplicable. The ingenious Mr. Baxter, in his Treatiſe on the Immateriality of the Human Soul, endeavours to prove that dreams are produced by the agency of ſome ſpiritual beings, who either amuſe or employ themſelves ſeriouſly in engaging mankind in all thoſe imaginary tranſactions with which they are employed in dreaming. This theory, however, is far from being plauſible. It leads us entirely beyond the limits of our knowledge. It requires us to believe without evidence. It is unſupported by any analogy. It creates difficulties ſtill more inexplicable than thoſe which it has been propoſed to remove. Till it appear that our dreams cannot poſſibly be produced without the interference of other ſpiritual agents, poſſeſſing ſuch influence over our minds as to deceive us with fancied joys, and involve us in imaginary afflictions, we cannot reaſonably refer them to ſuch a cauſe. Beſides, from the facts which are known concerning dreams, it appears that their nature depends both on the ſtate of the human body, and on that of the mind.

Wolfius, and after him M. Formey, have ſuppoſed, that dreams never ariſe in the mind, except in conſequence of ſome of the organs of ſenſation having been previouſly excited. Either the ear or the eye, or the organs of touching, taſting, or ſmelling, communicate information, ſomehow, in a tacit, ſecret, manner; and thus partly rouſe its faculties from the lethargy in which they are buried in ſleep, and engage them in a ſeries of confuſed and imperfect exertions. But what paſſes in dreams is ſo very different from all that we do when awake, that it is impoſſible for the dreamer himſelf to diſtinguiſh, whether his powers of ſenſation *perform* any part on the occaſion. It is not neceſſary that imagination be always excited by ſenſation. Fancy, even when we are awake, often wanders from the preſent ſcene. *Abſence of mind* is incident to the ſtudious: the poet and the mathematician many times forget where they are. We cannot diſcover, from any thing that a perſon in dreaming diſplays to the obſervation of others, that his organs of ſenſation take a part in the imaginary tranſactions in which he is employed. In thoſe inſtances, indeed, in which perſons aſleep are ſaid to hear ſounds; the ſounds which they hear are ſaid alſo to influence, in ſome manner, the nature of their dreams. But ſuch inſtances are ſingular. Since then it appears that the perſon who dreams is himſelf incapable of diſtinguiſhing either during his dreams, or by recollection when awake, whether any new impreſſions are communicated to him in that ſtate by his organs of ſenſation; that even by watching over him, and comparing our obſervations of his circumſtances and emotions, in his dreams, with what he recollects of them after awaking, we cannot, except in one or two ſingular inſtances, aſcertain this fact; and that the mind is not incapable of acting while the organs of ſenſation are at reſt, and on many occaſions refuſes to liſten to the information which they convey; we may, without heſitation, conclude, that the theory of Wolfius and Formey has been too incautiouſly advanced.

Some medical writers have aſſerted, that the mind, when we dream, is in a ſtate of delirium. Sleep, they ſay, is attended with what is called a *collapſe* of the brain; during which either the whole or a part of the nerves of which it conſiſts, are in a ſtate in which they cannot carry on the uſual intercourſe between the mind and the organs of ſenſation. When the whole of the brain is in this ſtate, we become entirely unconſcious of exiſtence, and the mind ſinks into inactivity: when only a part of the brain is *collapſed*, as they term it, we are then neither aſleep nor awake, but in a ſort of trance. This theory, like the preceding, ſuppoſes that we know the nature of a ſtate of which we cannot aſcertain the phenomena; it alſo contradicts a known fact, in repreſenting dreams as images of things around us, inſtead of fanciful combinations of things not exiſting together in nature or in human life. We muſt treat it, therefore, as a baſeleſs fabric.

Modern phyſiologiſts attribute the cauſe of dreams to the action of the nervous fluid; while other writers conceive it to ariſe from the ceaſeleſs vigilance of *thought*. Under this hypotheſis it is contended, that "thought is uniformly connected with a vaſt variety of our motions, where it is at the ſame time of ſo ſubtle a nature as nearly to elude our conſciouſneſs. It ſeems, for inſtance, to precede every ſtep we take; ſince we find, that if the attention be at any time ſtrongly bent upon a ſubject that is unconnected with the motion of our limbs, this motion will involuntarily be interrupted. The ſame remark may be applied to the act of ſwallowing our food, and in ſome inſtances to the function of reſpiration. Now, if by the aid of reaſoning we are able to detect the preſence of thought, where we had leaſt ſuſpected its exiſtence, why ſhould we be unwilling to ſuppoſe that it can be equally active during our ſleep, although it may ſometimes be ſo evaneſcent as altogether to eſcape our recollection? It may be aſked, how can we account for the very ſenſible refreſhment which the mind uſually derives from ſleep, whilſt we allow that it is then as continually occupied as in our waking ſtate? The anſwer is obvious. Sleep, by entirely ſuſpending the exertion of the voluntary muſcles, promotes the repoſe of the body; and this, from the intimate ſympathy that exiſts between the intellectual and the corporeal part of our frame, will be ſufficient to account, in a conſiderable degree, for the refreſhment of the mind.

"As an argument againſt the exiſtence of dreams which we are unable to recollect, it has often been urged, that in ſuch caſes the mind has been occupied to no purpoſe; for thought, it is ſaid, cannot anſwer any end which is immediately forgotten. To this it may readily be replied,

plied, that our not being able to aſcertain the end which may be anſwered by a ſuppoſed fact, can in no caſe operate as a weighty argument againſt its reality; ſince it is impoſſible for us to doubt the exiſtence of ſo many phenomena, the final cauſe of which we are, at the ſame time, perfectly at a loſs to diſcover. Beſides, theſe nocturnal impreſſions cannot but be allowed to happen to all men, although they ſhould be entirely effaced by the light of day. The long dream of human exiſtence ought not to be regarded as entirely deſtitute of at leaſt collateral evidence of this fact; although, at the concluſion of it, all its occurrences and variety of emotions are buried in the oblivion of the grave.

"It is commonly remarked, that the tendency to dreaming diminiſhes in proportion as we are leſs expoſed to cauſes of corporeal irritation. But theſe cauſes always operate in a certain degree; this tendency therefore can never be counteracted. In proportion as the ſtimuli of light, noiſe, &c. are removed, ſleep is obſerved to be accompanied with leſs ſenſibility; but theſe ſtimuli can in no caſe be entirely removed, conſequently this ſenſibility can in no caſe be entirely extinguiſhed: hence not only men, but brutes, are obſerved to dream. An objection may ariſe, that if the mind be in fact influenced by every impreſſion that is made upon the body, it muſt be ſubject to an inconceivable number of them every inſtant of our exiſtence. But this, however incredible it may ſeem, is really the fact, although it muſt be allowed that we are unable to attend to more than one idea at the ſame time; or, in other words, that, however vaſt the aſſemblage of ſimultaneous impreſſions, they invariably *coaleſce*, and aſſume in this way the appearance of unity. No impreſſion is *loſt*, although many are prevented from conveying a ſeparate report to the mind, by reaſon of the predominance of ſome more violent impreſſion. Every one of thoſe faint notes, which in a concert of muſic we are unable diſtinctly to perceive, has ſtill, there can be no doubt, an effect in ſwelling and modifying the prevailing ſound. That which acts in ſo ſlight a degree upon our bodies, that we ſhould not in general be at all aware of its operation, would be perceived diſtinctly by the mind, if we were placed in a ſituation that was quite inſulated from all other impreſſions. If, for inſtance, every ſenſe, except that of hearing, were completely cloſed, and all other ſound annihilated, the falling of a feather upon the earth would, beyond all doubt, be heard at an inconceivably greater diſtance than that at which we now perceive the report of a cannon.

"No one will deny, that thought is, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the expreſſion, *independent of the will*; ſince it is obvious, that at no time can we chooſe whether we will *think*, or not. But reſpiration, the circulation of the blood, and every other action of the ſyſtem which is independent of the will, continues during ſleep. Shall we then, contrary to analogy, preſume, that thought alone, of all the involuntary functions, is ſuſpended during that ſtate? That we never ceaſe to think, is an opinion we are juſtified in maintaining, until ſome argument can be brought to demonſtrate the negative of the propoſition. We cannot conceive of the ſoul as conſiſting in any thing but what we call *thought*; and hence *thought* appears to be the eſſence of the ſpirit or ſoul within us, which is, conſiſtently with its immortality, ever active and awake even during our ſoundeſt ſlumbers. Had the ingenious phyſiologiſt Andrew Baxter, attributed the impreſſion of dreams upon the dormant ſenſorium, to the active miniſtration of the ſoul or ſpirit within us, rather than to the miniſtration of ſpirits deſtined to attend upon it, there is little doubt but his hypotheſis would have been better received: for whatever it be that operates upon the mind in dreams, it has ſo completely the direction of the ſleeping body, as to make it perform actions far beyond its ability when awake; ſuch as to open caſements and climb the roofs of houſes; to deſcend the moſt difficult and dangerous precipices; to write even in the dark; and purſue paths and avenues in the dead of night, through which, when awake, it could not poſſibly proceed, without a lantern and a guide: witneſs the many aſtoniſhing though well-founded facts that are related of ſomnambuliſts, or ſleep-walkers."

Thoſe phyſiologiſts who contend that dreams are influenced by the nervous fluid, and that ſomnambuliſm is a diſeaſe proceeding from a morbid affection of the nerves, have, in a medical view, much reaſon in their theory. One of the moſt ſtriking inveſtigations of this kind, is extant in a report made to the Phyſical Society of Lauſanne, by a committee of gentlemen appointed to examine a young man who was accuſtomed to walk in his ſleep. "The diſpoſition to dream, ſeems, in the opinion of this committee, to depend on a particular affection of the nerves, which both ſeizes and quits the patient during ſleep. Under the influence of this affection, the imagination repreſents to him the objects that ſtruck him while awake, with as much force as if they really affected his ſenſes; but does not make him perceive any of thoſe that are actually preſented to his ſenſes, except in ſo far as they are connected with the dreams which engroſs him at the time. If, during this ſtate, the imagination has no determined purpoſe, he receives the impreſſion of objects as if he were awake; only, however, when the imagination is excited to bend its attention towards them. The perceptions obtained in this ſtate are very accurate, and, when once received, the imagination renews them occaſionally with as much force as if they were again acquired by means of the ſenſes. Theſe academicians ſuppoſe, that the impreſſions received during this ſtate of the ſenſes, diſappear entirely when the perſon awakes, and do not return till the return of the ſame diſpoſition in the nervous ſyſtem. Their remarks were made on the ſieur Devaud, a lad thirteen years and a half old, who lives in the town of Vevey, and who is ſubject to that ſingular affection or diſeaſe called *ſomnambuliſm*, or ſleep-walking. This lad poſſeſſes a ſtrong and robuſt conſtitution, but his nervous ſyſtem appears to be organiſed with peculiar delicacy, and to diſcover marks of the greateſt ſenſibility and irritability. His ſenſes of ſmell, taſte, and touch, are exquiſite; he is ſubject to fits of immoderate and involuntary laughter, and he ſometimes weeps without any apparent cauſe. He does not walk in his ſleep every night; ſeveral weeks ſometimes paſs without any appearance of ſuch a fit. He is ſubject to the diſeaſe generally two nights ſucceſſively, one fit laſting for ſeveral hours. The longeſt are from three to four hours, and they commonly begin about three or four o'clock in the morning. The fit may be prolonged, by gently paſſing the finger or a feather over his upper lip, and this ſlight irritation likewiſe accelerates it. Having once fallen aſleep upon a ſtaircaſe, his upper lip was thus irritated with a feather, when he immediately ran down the ſteps with great precipitation, and reſumed all his accuſtomed activity. This experiment was repeated ſeveral times.

"This young lad thinks he has obſerved, that, on the evenings previous to a fit, he is ſenſible of a certain heavineſs in his head, but eſpecially of a great weight in his eyelids. His ſleep is at all times unquiet, but particularly when theſe fits of ſomnambuliſm are about to ſeize him. During his ſleep, motions are obſervable in every part of his body, with ſtarting and palpitations; he utters broken words, ſometimes ſits up in his bed, and afterwards lies down again. He then begins to pronounce words more diſtinctly, he riſes abruptly, and acts as he is inſtigated by the dream that then poſſeſſes him. The departure of the fit is always preceded by a few minutes of calm ſleep. He then awakes like a perſon who has ſlept quietly. It is dangerous to awaken him during the fit, eſpecially if it is done ſuddenly; for then he ſometimes falls into convulſions. Having riſen one night with the intention of going to eat grapes, he left the houſe, paſſed through the town, and got into a vineyard. He was followed by perſons

ſons deputed to watch his actions, one of whom fired a piſtol, the noiſe of which inſtantly awakened him, and he fell down without ſenſe. He was carried home and brought to himſelf, when he recollected very well the having been awakened in the vineyard; but nothing more, except the fright at being found there alone, which had made him ſwoon.

"The ſubject of his dreams is circumſcribed in a ſmall circle of objects, that relate to the few ideas with which at his age his mind is furniſhed; ſuch as his leſſons, the church, the bells, and eſpecially tales of ghoſts. It is ſufficient to ſtrike his imagination the evening before a fit with ſome tale, to direct his ſomnambuliſm towards the object of it. There was read to him while in this ſituation the ſtory of a robber; he imagined the very next moment that he ſaw robbers in the room. However, as he is much diſpoſed to dream that he is ſurrounded with them, it cannot be affirmed that this was an effect of the reading. It is obſerved, that when his ſupper has been more plentiful than uſual, his dreams are more diſmal. Once he was obſerved dreſſing himſelf in perfect darkneſs. His clothes were on a large table, mixed with thoſe of ſome other perſons; he immediately perceived this, and, in his ſleep, complained of it much; at laſt a ſmall light was brought, and then he dreſſed himſelf with ſufficient preciſion. If he is teaſed or gently pinched, he is always ſenſible of it, except he is at the time ſtrongly engroſſed with ſome other thing, and wiſhes to ſtrike the offender; however, he never attacks the perſon who has done the ill, but an ideal being whom his imagination preſents to him, and whom he purſues through the chamber without running againſt the furniture, nor can the perſons whom he meets in his way divert him from his purſuit. While his imagination was employed on various ſubjects, he heard a clock ſtrike, which repeated at every ſtroke the note of the cuckoo. There are cuckoos here, ſaid he; and, upon being deſired, he imitated the ſong of that bird immediately. When he wiſhes to ſee an object, he makes an effort to lift his eyelids; but they are ſo little under his command, that he can hardly raiſe them a line or two, while he draws up his eyebrows; the iris at that time appears fixed, and his eye dim. When any thing is preſented to him, and he is told of it, he always half opens his eyes with a degree of difficulty, and then ſhuts them after he has taken what was offered to him.

"The gentlemen of the committee infer from theſe facts, and from many others relative to the different ſenſes, that their functions are not ſuſpended as to what the ſleep-walker wiſhes to ſee, that is, as to all thoſe perceptions which accord with the objects about which his imagination is occupied; that he may alſo be diſpoſed to receive thoſe impreſſions, when his imagination has no other object at the time; that in order to ſee, he is obliged to open his eyes as much as he can, but when the impreſſion is once made, it remains; that objects may ſtrike his ſight, without ſtriking his imagination, if it is not intereſted in them; and that he is ſometimes informed of the preſence of objects without either ſeeing or touching them. Having engaged him to write a theme, (ſay the committee,) we ſaw him light a candle, take pen, ink, and paper, from the drawer of his table, and begin to write, while his maſter dictated. As he was writing, we put a thick paper before his eyes, notwithſtanding which he continued to write and to form his letters very diſtinctly; ſhowing ſigns, however, that ſomething was incommoding him, which apparently proceeded from the obſtruction which the paper, being held too near his noſe, gave to his reſpiration. Upon another occaſion, the young ſomnambuliſt aroſe at five o'clock in the morning, and took the neceſſary materials for writing, with his copy-book. He meant to have begun at the top of a page; but finding it already written on, he came to the blank part of the leaf, and wrote ſome time from the following words, *Ils deviennent ignorans par la pareſſe*; and, what is remarkable, after ſeveral lines he perceived he had forgot the *s* in the word *ignorans*, and had put erroneouſly a double *r* in *pareſſe*; he then gave over writing, to add the *s* he had forgot, and to eraſe the ſuperfluous *r*. Another time he had made, of his own accord, a piece of writing, in order, as he ſaid, to pleaſe his maſter. It conſiſted of three kinds of writing, text, half text, and ſmall writ; each of them performed with the proper pen. He drew, in the corner of the ſame paper, the figure of a hat; he then aſked for a penknife to take out a blot of ink which he had made between two letters, and he eraſed it without injuring them. He alſo made ſome arithmetical calculations with great accuracy.

"In order to explain ſome of the facts obſerved by the academicians which we have here mentioned, they eſtabliſh two general obſervations, which reſult from what they have ſaid with reſpect to the ſenſes and the dreams of this ſleep-walker. 1. That he is obliged to open his eyes, in order to recogniſe objects which he wiſhes to ſee; but the impreſſion once made, although rapidly, is vivid enough to ſuperſede the neceſſity of his opening them again, to view the ſame objects anew; that is, the ſame objects are afterwards preſented to his imagination with as much force and preciſion as if he actually ſaw them. 2. That his imagination, thus warmed, repreſents to him objects, and ſuch as he figures to himſelf, with as much vivacity as if he really ſaw them; and, further, that all his ſenſes, being ſubordinate to his imagination, ſeem concentrated in the object with which it is occupied, and have at that time no perception of any thing but what relates to that object. Theſe two cauſes united ſeem to them ſufficient for explaining one of the moſt ſingular facts that occurred to their obſervation, to wit, how young Devaud can write, although he has his eyes ſhut, and an obſtacle before them. His paper is imprinted on his imagination, and every letter which he means to write is alſo painted there, at the place in which it ought to ſtand on the paper, and without being confounded with the other letters; now it is clear that his hand, which is obedient to the will of his imagination, will trace them on the real paper, in the ſame order in which they are repreſented on that which is pictured in his head. It is thus that he is able to write ſeveral letters, ſeveral ſentences, and entire pieces of writing; and what ſeems to confirm the idea, that he writes according to the paper painted on his imagination is, that a certain ſleep-walker, who is deſcribed in the French *Encyclopédie* (article Somnambuliſm), having written ſomething on a paper, another piece of paper of the ſame ſize was ſubſtituted in its ſtead, which he took for his own, and made upon this blank paper the corrections he meant to have made on the other which had been taken away, preciſely in the places where they would have been.

"It appears from the recital of another fact, that Devaud, intending to write at the top of the firſt leaf of a white paper book, *Vevey, le*—ſtopped a moment as if to recollect the day of the month, left a blank ſpace, and then proceeded to *Decembre* 1787; after which he aſked for an almanac: a little book, ſuch as is given to children, was offered to him; he took it, opened it, brought it near his eyes, then threw it on the table. An almanac which he knew, was then preſented to him; this was in German, and of a form ſimilar to the almanac of Vevey; he took it, and then ſaid, 'What is this they have given me; here, there is your German almanac.' At laſt they gave him the almanac of Berne; he took this likewiſe, and went to examine it at the bottom of an alcove that was perfectly dark. He was heard turning over the leaves, and ſaying 24, then a moment afterwards 34. Returning to his place, with the almanac open at the month of December, he laid it on the table and wrote in the ſpace which he had left blank the 24th. This ſcene happened on the 23d; but as he imagined it to be the 24th, he did not miſtake. The following is the explication given of this fact by the authors of the report: 'The dates 23d, 24th, and 25th, of the month of December,

had long occupied the mind of this young lad. The 23d and 25th were holidays, which he expected with the impatience natural to perſons of his age, for the arrival of thoſe moments when their little daily labours are to be ſuſpended. The 25th eſpecially was the object of his hopes; there was to be an illumination in the church, which had been deſcribed to him in a manner that quite tranſported him. The 24th was a day of labour, which came very diſagreeably between the two happy days. It may eaſily be conceived, how an imagination ſo irritable would be ſtruck with thoſe pleaſing epochs. Accordingly, from the beginning of the month he had been perpetually turning over the almanac of Vevey. He calculated the days and the hours that were to elapſe before the arrival of his wiſhed-for holidays; he ſhewed to his friends and acquaintance the dates of thoſe days which he expected with ſo much impatience; every time he took up the almanac, it was only to conſult the month of December. We now ſee why that date preſented itſelf to his mind. He was performing a taſk, becauſe he imagined the day to be the Monday which had ſo long engroſſed him. It is not ſurpriſing, that it ſhould have occurred to his imagination, and that on opening the almanac in the dark, he might have thought he ſaw this date which he was ſeeking, and that his imagination might have repreſented it to him in as lively a manner as if he had actually ſeen it. Neither is it ſurpriſing that he ſhould have opened the almanac at the month of December; the cuſtom of peruſing this month muſt have made him find it in the dark by a mere mechanical operation. Man never ſeems to be a machine ſo much as in the ſtate of ſomnambuliſm; it is then that habit comes to ſupply thoſe of the ſenſes that cannot be ſerviceable, and that it makes the perſon act with as much preciſion as if all his ſenſes were in the utmoſt activity. Theſe circumſtances deſtroy the idea of there being any thing miraculous in the behaviour of young Devaud with reſpect to the date and the month that he was in queſt of; and the reader, who has entered into our explanations, will not be ſurpriſed at his knowing the German almanac; the touch alone was ſufficient to point it out to him; and the proof of this is the ſhortneſs of the time that it remained in his hands.

"An experiment was made by changing the place of the inkſtand, during the time this youth, in his ſleep, was writing. He had a light beſide him, and had certified himſelf of the place where his ink-holder was ſtanding by means of ſight. From that time he continued to take ink with preciſion, without being obliged to open his eyes again: but the inkſtand being removed, he returned as uſual to the place where he thought it was. It muſt be obſerved, that the motion of his hand was rapid till it reached the height of the ſtandiſh, and then he moved it ſlowly, till the pen gently touched the table as he was ſeeking for the ink: he then perceived that a trick had been put on him, and complained of it; he went in ſearch of his inkſtand, and put it in its place. This experiment was ſeveral times repeated, and always attended with the ſame circumſtances. Does not what we have here ſtated prove, that the ſtandiſh, the paper, the table, &c. are painted on his imagination in as lively a manner as if he really ſaw them, as he ſought the real ſtandiſh in the place where his imagination told him it ought to have been? Does it not prove that the ſame lively imagination is the cauſe of the moſt ſingular actions of this ſleep-walker? And laſtly, does it not prove, that a mere glance of his eye is ſufficient to make his impreſſions as lively as durable?

"The committee, upon the whole, recommend to ſuch as wiſh to repeat ſimilar experiments, 1. To make their obſervations on different ſleep-walkers. 2. To examine often whether they can read books that are unknown to them in perfect darkneſs. 3. To obſerve whether they can tell the hours on a watch in the dark. 4. To remove, when they write, the inkſtand from its place, to ſee whether they will return to the ſame place in order to take ink. 5. To take notice whether they walk with the ſame confidence in a dark and unknown place, as in one with which they are acquainted. They likewiſe recommend to ſuch who would confirm or invalidate the above obſervations, to make all their experiments in the dark; becauſe it has been hitherto ſuppoſed that the eyes of ſleep-walkers are of no uſe to them."

Mr. Belſham, in his "Philoſophy of the Mind," publiſhed in 1801, explains the phenomena of dreams as follows: "Dreams are the imaginations or reveries of a ſleeping man; deducible, firſt, from impreſſions lately received; ſecondly, from the ſtate of the body, and particularly of the ſtomach and brain; and, thirdly, from aſſociation. This is evident from the frequent recurrence of impreſſions of the preceding day, from the dreams of ſick perſons, and from experience. Therefore, concerning dreams it may be obſerved: 1. That the ſcenes which preſent themſelves are miſtaken for real. This is owing, firſt, to the excluſion of real impreſſions with which they may be compared; ſecondly, to the increaſed vividneſs in the trains of viſible ideas, to whatever cauſe that phenomenon may be owing. 2. Dreams are wild and inconſiſtent: for the brain is in a very different ſtate from that of vigilance; and vibrations of the ſtomach, pleaſant or otherwiſe, being propagated to the brain, produce ſucceſſions of ideas, dependent indeed upon aſſociation, but very different from thoſe which would take place in a ſtate of vigilance. 3. We take no notice of, and are not offended at, theſe inconſiſtencies; for thoſe aſſociations which ſhould lead us to take notice of them, are as it were aſleep; and bodily cauſes hurry us into new trains ſucceſſively. But if the ſtate of the brain be ſuch as to favour ideas of anxiety and perplexity, the apparent inconſiſtencies give great uneaſineſs. 4. Perſons often appear to be transferred to different places by a kind of ſailing or flying motion. This is owing to the change of magnitude and poſition of viſible images, ſuch as would be effected by a change of diſtance. But if there are no ideas correſponding with the impreſſions of walking, we appear to ourſelves to fly, or ride. When perſons walk and talk in their ſleep, the vibrations deſcend into the motory muſcles; at the ſame time the brain is oppreſſed, and they have no memory. Similar to this is the caſe of a perſon reading inattentively, and forgetting every thing immediately. 5. Dreams conſiſt chiefly of viſible imagery; for vivid impreſſions are made perpetually upon the optic nerve during vigilance. Viſible ſcenes are made up of the fragments of the viſible images lately impreſſed. Theſe ſcenes are ſometimes repeated again and again, and by repetition coaleſce. 6. Many of the things preſented in dreams appear to be remembered by us and familiar to us, becauſe of the readineſs with which they ſucceed each other in the fancy. 7. Dreams are ſoon forgotten, becauſe of their incoherence, and of the change which takes place in the brain in paſſing from ſleep to vigilance. 8. Dreams preſented in the firſt part of the night, are more confuſed and irregular than morning dreams; for in the firſt caſe we approach to ſleep, in the latter to vigilance. 9. Many prophecies were communicated in dreams and trances, and the deſcriptions of them bear a ſtriking reſemblance to the phenomena of dreams, which Dr. Hartley regards as a conſiderable internal proof of their genuineneſs and credibility. 10. Dreams are uſeful by interrupting and breaking accidental aſſociations, which might by continuance be ſo cloſely cemented that nothing could diſjoin them; which would be madneſs. 11. A perſon may form a judgment of his health and temperance by the pleaſantneſs or unpleaſantneſs of his dreams, and likewiſe learn ſome uſeful hints relating to the ſtrength of the paſſions." This theory, however, ſeems inſufficient to explain the many very extraordinary caſes of ſomnambuliſm related by different writers.

Profeſſor Dugald Stewart ſuppoſes, that during ſleep, the influence of the will is ſuſpended, and that the phenomena of dreams are produced by the ſucceſſion of our thoughts

thoughts in ſleep, regulated by the ſame laws of aſſociation to which it is ſubjected while we are awake. The profeſſor does not ſeem to be aware, or perhaps is not willing to admit, that volition itſelf has been proved by Dr. Hartley to be a caſe of aſſociation, and the neceſſary reſult of previous circumſtances, which therefore may and actually does occur in dreaming like any other mental phenomenon.

DREAMER, *ſ.* One who has dreams; one who has fancies in his ſleep:

The viſion ſaid, and vaniſh'd from his ſight;
The *dreamer* waken'd in a mortal fright. *Dryden.*

An idle fanciful man; a viſionary:

Sometimes he angers me
With telling of the moldwarp and the ant,
Of *dreamer* Merlin, and his prophecies. *Shakeſpeare.*

A mope; a man loſt in wild imagination. A ſluggard: an idler:

The man of ſenſe his meat devours,
But only ſmells the peel and ſlow'rs:
And he muſt be an idle *dreamer*,
Who leaves the pie and gnaws the ſtreamer. *Prior.*

DREAM'INGLY, *adv.* Sluggiſhly.

DREAM'INGNESS, *ſ.* Sluggiſhneſs.

DREAM'LESS, *adj.* Without dreams.—The ſavages of Mount Atlas, in Barbary, were reported to be both nameleſs and *dreamleſs*. *Camden.*

DREAR, *ſ.* Dread; terror:

The ill-fac'd owl, death's dreadful meſſenger;
The hoarſe night raven, trump of doleful *drear*. *Spenſer.*

DREAR, *adj.* [ðɲeoɲiȝ, Sax. dreary.] Mournful; diſmal; ſorrowful:

In urns and altars round,
A *drear* and dying ſound
Affrights the flamens at their ſervice quaint. *Milton.*

DREAR'IHEAD, *ſ.* Horror; diſmalneſs: *a word not in uſe:*

She grew to hideous ſhape of *drearihead*,
Pined with grief of folly late repented. *Spenſer.*

DREAR'ILY, *adv.* Diſmally:

Comes the breme winter with chamfred brows,
Full of wrinkles and froſty furrows,
Drerily ſhooting his ſtormy dart,
Which cruddles the blood and pricks the heart. *Spenſer.*

DREAR'IMENT, *ſ.* Sorrow; diſmalneſs; melancholy:

I teach the woods and waters to lament
Your doleful *drearimenf*. *Spenſer.*

Horror; dread; terror. *Obſolete:*

Almighty Jove, in wrathful mood,
To wreak the guilt of mortal ſins is bent;
Hurls forth his thund'ring dart with deadly feud,
Inroll'd in flames and ſmouldring *drearimenf*. *Spenſer.*

DREAR'ING, *ſ.* Diſmalneſs.—All were myſelf thro' grief in deadly *drearing*. *Spenſer.*

DREA'RY, *adj.* [ðɲeoɲiȝ, Sax.] Sorrowful; diſtreſsful.—This word is ſcarcely uſed but in poetical diction:

The meſſenger of death, the ghaſtly owl,
With *dreary* ſhrieks did alſo yell;
And hungry wolves continually did howl
At her abhorred face, ſo horrid and ſo foul. *Spenſer.*

Gloomy; diſmal; horrid:

Obſcure they went thro' *dreary* ſhades, that led
Along the vaſt dominions of the dead. *Dryden.*

DREB'BER JACOBS, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Diepholz.

DREB'BER MARIEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Diepholz: five miles north of Diepholz.

DREDGE, *ſ.* [*To dretch*, in Chaucer, is to delay; perhaps a net ſo often ſtopped may be named from this.] A kind of net.—For oyſters they have a peculiar *dredge*; a thick, ſtrong, net, faſtened to three ſpills of iron, and drawn at the boat's ſtern, gathering whatſoever it meeteth lying in the bottom. *Carew.*—With farmers, oats and barley mixed together. *Aſh.*

To DREDGE, *v. a.* To gather with a dredge.—The oyſters *dredged* in the Lyne find a welcome acceptance. *Carew.*—To ſcatter flour on meat from a dredging-box.

DRED'GER, *ſ.* One who fiſhes with a dredge; a flour-box.

DRE'GEL, a town and caſtle of Hungary: twelve miles north-eaſt of Gran.

DREG'GINESS, *ſ.* Fulneſs of dregs or lees; foulneſs; muddineſs; feculence.

DREG'GISH, *adj.* Foul with lees; feculent.—To give a ſtrong taſte to this *dreggiſh* liquor, they fling in an incredible deal of broom or hops, whereby ſmall beer is rendered equal in miſchief to ſtrong. *Harvey.*

DREG'GY, *adj.* Containing dregs; conſiſting of dregs; muddy; feculent:

Theſe num'rous veins, ſuch is the curious frame,
Receive the pure inſinuating ſtream;
But no corrupt or *dreggy* parts admit,
To form the blood or feed the limbs unfit. *Blackmore.*

DREGS, *ſ.* [ðɲeȝȝen, Sax. *dreggian*, Iſlan.] The ſediment of liquors; the lees; the grounds; the feculence:

They often tread deſtruction's horrid path,
And drink the *dregs* of the revenger's wrath. *Sandys.*

We from the *dregs* of life think to receive
What the firſt ſprightly running could not give. *Dryden.*

Any thing by which purity is corrupted.—The king by this journey purged a little the *dregs* and leaves of the northern people, that were before in no good affections towards him. *Bacon.*—Droſs; ſweepings; refuſe.—What diffidence we muſt be under whether God will regard our ſacrifice, when we have nothing to offer him but the *dregs* and refuſe of life, the days of loathing and fatiety, and the years in which we have no pleaſure. *Rogers.*

Heav'n's favourite thou, for better fates deſign'd
Than we, the *dregs* and rubbiſh of mankind. *Dryden.*

Dreg in the ſingular number occurs in Troilus and Creſſida.—What too curious *dreg* eſpies my ſweet lady in the fountain of our love? *Act* iii. *ſc.* 2.

DREHE'MI, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Hodeida.

To DREIN, *v. n.* See DRAIN. To empty. The ſame with *drain*: ſpelt differently perhaps by chance.—She is the ſluice of her lady's ſecrets: 'tis but ſetting her mill agoing, and I can *drein* her of them all. *Congreve.*

'Tis *drein'd* and emptied of its poiſon now;
A cordial draught. *Southern.*

DRE'ITSCH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Neuſtadt: two miles north-eaſt of Neuſtadt.

DRE'LINCOURT (Charles), an eminent French proteſtant divine, born at Sedan, where his father occupied the poſt of regiſtrar to the ſupreme council. He was educated in the claſſics and theology in his native town; whence he was ſent to Saumur, to ſtudy philoſophy under the celebrated profeſſor Duncan. In 1618 he was admitted to the office of the miniſtry; and he removed to Paris in 1620, where he was induced to ſettle as paſtor with the church at Charenton. In 1625 he married the daughter of a merchant at Paris, by whom he had ſixteen children. In his pulpit ſervices he was very impreſſive and edifying; and, in his paſtoral viſits to his flock, particularly excelled in his manner of adminiſtering conſola-

tion

tion to the ſick and afflicted. But he ſerved the intereſts of religion not only by the zeal of his paſtoral labours, but the productions of an able and fertile pen. His works were partly practical and devotional, and partly controverſial. Of the former deſcription, his Treatiſe on the Preparation for the Lord's Supper, and his Conſolations againſt the Fears of Death, met with peculiar acceptance; and, beſides undergoing numerous impreſſions in the French, have been repeatedly publiſhed in the German, Flemiſh, Italian, and Engliſh, languages. His Charitable Viſits, alſo, in five volumes, and three volumes of Sermons, which he publiſhed, have contributed, from the vein of piety and fervent devotion which pervades them, to the edification and improvement of all claſſes of readers. Among his controverſial pieces, his Catechiſm, and his Abridgment of Controverſies, have been moſt frequently printed, and are likely to be longeſt remembered. The reſt of his polemical works were more particularly applicable to the controverſies of his day. Though he wrote with freedom and ſpirit in defence of the proteſtant cauſe, he never provoked the reſentment of his opponents by injurious aſperſions, unfair practices, or illiberal language; which greatly contributed, with the uniform rectitude and decorum of his conduct, and the inoffenſiveneſs of his manners, to ſecure the eſteem and friendly offices of all men. He died in 1669.

Of his ſons, the eldeſt, Laurence, was brought up to the miniſtry, and was ſettled as paſtor at Rochelle, and afterwards at Niort, where he died in 1681, in the fiftieth year of his age. He publiſhed ſeveral excellent Sermons, and alſo a collection of Chriſtian Hymns or Sonnets, ſaid to be very much eſteemed.

His third ſon, Charles, was bred to the medical profeſſion, and roſe by his merit to diſtinguiſhed eminence and reputation. He took his degree of M.D. at Montpellier, in 1654, ſoon after which he was appointed firſt phyſician to the king of France's armies in Flanders under the command of marſhal Turenne. The character which he acquired by his practice in that ſituation, and afterwards at Paris, recommended him to the curators of the univerſity of Leyden, who made him their profeſſor of phyſic in 1668. In ſuch repute was his medical ſkill, that the prince and princeſs of Orange, before their advancement to the throne of England, placed their chief confidence in his advice; as did likewiſe all the perſons of diſtinction at the court of the Hague. He died at Leyden in 1697, in the ſixty-fourth year of his age. His inaugural diſſertation refuted the uſual calumny againſt the medical profeſſion, of being addicted to impiety; and ſhewed that none were ſo likely to be rendered truly religious, by a contemplation of the works of God. In his *Apologia Medica*, Leid. 1672, he endeavoured to diſprove the injurious opinion, that phyſicians were baniſhed from Rome during the firſt ſix hundred years from its foundation. He wrote alſo, 1. *De Arthritide*, 1681. 2. *Obſervationes Medicæ circa Regimen Puerperarum & recens natorum*, 1684. 3. *De Variolis & Morbillis*. 4. *Sermo de Divinis apud Hippocratem Dogmatibus*, 1689; and ſeveral orations and diſputations.

DRE'NA, a town of Germany, in the county of Tyrol: ſeven miles north-eaſt of Riva.

To DRENCH; *v. a.* [ðrencean, Sax. to immerſe.] To waſh; to ſoak; to ſteep.—Our garments, being as they were *drenched* in the ſea, hold notwithſtanding their freſhneſs and gloſſes. *Shakeſpeare.*

Now dam the ditches, and the floods reſtrain;
Their moiſture has already *drench'd* the plain. *Dryden.*

To ſaturate with drink or moiſture: *in an ill ſenſe:*

Too oft, alas! has mutual hatred *drench'd*
Our ſwords in native blood. *Philips.*

To phyſic by violence.—If any of your cattle are infected, ſpeedily let both ſick and well blood, and *drench* them. *Mortimer.*

DRENCH, *ſ.* A draught; a ſwill: by way of abhorrence or contempt:

Let ſuch bethink them, if the ſleepy *drench*
Of that forgetful lake benumb not ſtill,
That in our proper motion we aſcend. *Milton.*

Phyſic for a brute.—A *drench* is a potion or drink prepared for a ſick horſe, and compoſed of ſeveral drugs in a liquid form. *Farrier's Dict.*

A *drench* of wine has with ſucceſs been us'd,
And thro' a horn the gen'rous juice infus'd. *Dryden.*

Phyſic that muſt be given by violence.—Their counſels are more like a *drench* that muſt be poured down, than a draught which muſt be leiſurely drank if I liked it. *King Charles.*—A channel of water.

DREN'CHER, *ſ.* One that dips or ſteeps any thing. One that gives phyſic by force.

DRENG'FURTH, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Natangen: forty-four miles ſouth-eaſt of Konigſberg.

DRENT, *part.* Probably corrupted from *drenched:*

What flames, quoth he, when I the preſent ſee
In danger rather to be *drent* than brent. *Spenſer.*

DRENTE, a quarter or diſtrict of Overiſſel, in the United Dutch States, now the Batavian republic.

DREN'TELBURG, or TRENTELBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe: eighteen miles north-north-weſt of Caſſel, and thirty-two eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Paderburn. Lat. 51. 23. N. lon. 26. 45. E. Ferro.

DRE'PANE, the ancient name of Corcyra, from the curvity of its figure, reſembling a ſcythe.

DRE'PANE, or DREPANUM, anciently a town of Bithynia, ſituated between the Sinus Aſtacenus and the Boſphorus Thracius; called *Helenopolis* by Conſtantine, in honour of his mother Nicephorus Calliſtus.

DRE'PANUM, *ſ.* in ancient geography, the promontory Rhium in Achaia; ſo called becauſe bent in the manner of a ſcythe.—Another Drepanum on the Arabic gulf, on the ſide of Egypt.—A third on the north ſide of Crete, ſituated between Cydonia and the Sinus Amphimallus.—A fourth on the weſt ſide of Cyprus.—A fifth, a promontory of Cyrenaica on the Mediterranean.

DRE'PANUM, a town and port on the weſt ſide of Sicily, and to the weſt of mount Eryx: now *Trepano*, a port-town on the weſternmoſt point of Sicily. Here Anchiſes died, on his voyage to Italy with his ſon Æneas; and near its coaſt the Romans under Cl. Pulcher were defeated, B. C. 249, by the Carthagenian general Adherbal.

DRES'BACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Erzgebirg: two miles north-weſt of Wolkenſtein.

DRES'DEN, a conſiderable city of Germany, and capital of the electorate of Saxony, ſituated at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weſeritz. It is the ſeat of the principal tribunals of the country; and divided into three towns, New Dreſden, or Dreſden; Old Dreſden, or Neuſtadt, and Frederickſtadt. New Dreſden was built in the year 1020, on the right bank of the Elbe, and became a town in 1216; here the elector of Saxony reſides in an ancient chatcau, the apartments of which are magnificent, and furniſhed with a numerous library, a rich cabinet of rare and precious articles, mathematical inſtruments, &c. Beſides a number of palaces, this quarter contains an opera-houſe, an arſenal, a foundry, three Lutheran churches, and one Roman-catholic church, of moſt beautiful architecture. In the fauxbourgs are the priſon, a houſe of orphans, two hoſpitals, a military hoſpital, a poor-houſe, a foundling hoſpital, a plate-glaſs manufacture, &c. Old Dreſden, or, as it is called, Neuſtadt, is united to New Dreſden by a ſtone-bridge, ſupported by nineteen piers. It owes its origin to a chateau, built by Charlemagne, in 808. It was of little conſequence till the year 1403, when it began to acquire importance. Here are extenſive barracks, the menagerie, a valuable

a valuable china manufacture, a church, a college, &c. In the ſquare is a ſtatue of Auguſtus II. king of Poland and elector of Saxony. An avenue of lime-trees reaches to Frederickſtadt. In the whole, Dreſden is ſuppoſed to contain between eighty and ninety thouſand inhabitants. The vineyards of Dreſden ſtretch over a tract about three leagues in length; that is to ſay, one league above the city, and nearly two leagues below it, next to the electoral-chateau of Pilnitz. Some of theſe vineyards are, in a manner, public, as they are open, at all times, to the curioſity of ſtrangers. Although this city has no very conſiderable commerce, it contains, nevertheleſs, a number of manufactures. A great exportation is made to foreigners of gold and ſilver lace, as likewiſe of the beautiful manufacture of paper-hangings, one of thoſe branches of induſtry wherein the German genius has taken the lead. The works of jewellery which are made at Dreſden are known through all Europe, as likewiſe the inſtruments of muſic, organs, hautbois, French-horns, hunting-horns, and German-flutes. The manufacture of macaroni enjoys a reputation, which ſcarcely yields to that of Italy; but the moſt conſiderable manufacture of the environs by far, and the moſt celebrated, is, unqueſtionably, that of porcelain. The other manufactures are fine cloth, ſerges, ſhalloons, ſtockings, linen, ſtuffs of linen and ſilk mixed, carpets, Morocco leather, plate-glaſs, &c. Hoſpitality towards ſtrangers is a ſtriking feature of the inhabitants of Dreſden. Both the men and the women are diſtinguiſhed by an agreeable cultivated mind; the ladies are in poſſeſſion of a correct pronunciation; their manners and converſation are replete with the moſt ſeductive graces; and, although great lovers of pleaſure, they cheerfully and ſucceſsfully apply themſelves to all the occupations of their ſex. The men are, in general, well-informed; and many ſpeak with facility ſeveral foreign languages.

In 1756, in the war between Pruſſia and Auſtria, the king of Pruſſia took poſſeſſion of Leipſic and Dreſden, in a ſtate of neutrality; towards the cloſe of the year 1758, the king of Pruſſia, being compelled to evacuate Saxony, marſhal Daun marched towards Dreſden, threatened to beſiege it, and, on the 9th of November, made an attempt on the ſuburbs, in which his troops were beaten back. Count Schmettau, who commanded in the city, ſet fire to the ſuburbs, which were greatly ſuperior to the city within the walls, and inhabited by the moſt wealthy of the inhabitants, with the richeſt and moſt conſiderable of the manufacturers. Count Schmettau acted as a ſoldier, entruſted with the command of a city, perhaps, ought to have done; he reſiſted the united prayers of the royal family, the magiſtrates, and citizens; combuſtibles were placed in ſeveral places, and the whole ſet on fire, after which they retired within the walls. Marſhal Daun retired on the 17th. On the 27th of July following, the imperial troops appeared again before the town, and Schmettau ſurrendered on capitulation, on the 4th of Auguſt. In 1760, the king of Pruſſia attempted to recover the place, but marſhal Daun ſeized the opportunity of throwing troops into the town, and ſupporting the beſieged with a numerous army, the Pruſſians retired, but not before a conſiderable number of houſes were conſumed by fire from the bombs. Dreſden is ſixty-two miles north-north-weſt of Prague, and 262 eaſt of Cologn. Lat. 51. N. lon. 31. 29. E. Ferro.

DRES'DEN, a townſhip of the American States, in Lincoln county, diſtrict of Maine, nine miles from Wiſcaſſet Point, fifteen from Fort Weſton at Hallowell, and 180 north by eaſt from Boſton. Swan Iſland is in this townſhip.

DRES'NICK, a town of Croatia: eighteen miles north-weſt of Bihacs.

To DRESS, *v. a.* [*dreſſer*, Fr.] To clothe; to inveſt with clothes:

The firſt requeſt
He made, was, like his brothers to be *dreſs'd*;
And, as his birth requir'd, above the reſt. *Dryden.*

To clothe pompouſly or elegantly. It is uſed with *up* and *out* to enforce it.—Lollia Paulina wore, in jewels, when *dreſſed out*, the value of three hundred twenty-two thouſand nine hundred and ſixteen pounds thirteen ſhillings and four-pence. *Arbuthnot.*

Few admir'd the native red and white,
Till poets *dreſs'd* them *up* to charm the ſight. *Dryden.*

To adorn; to deck; to embelliſh; to furniſh.—The mind loſes its natural reliſh of real truth, and is reconciled inſenſibly to any thing that can be *dreſſed up* into any faint appearance of it. *Locke.*—To cover a wound with medicaments.—In time of my ſickneſs another chirurgeon *dreſſed* her. *Wiſeman.*—To curry; to rub; a term of the ſtable.—Our infirmities are ſo many, that we are forced to *dreſs* and tend horſes and aſſes, that they may help our needs. *Taylor.*

Three hundred horſes, in high ſtables fed,
Stood ready, ſhining all, and ſmoothly *dreſs'd*. *Dryden.*

To break or teach a horſe: a term of horſemanſhip:

A ſteed
Well mouth'd, well manag'd, which himſelf did *dreſs*;
His aid in war, his ornament in peace. *Dryden.*

To rectify; to adjuſt:

Adam! well may we labour ſtill to *dreſs*
This garden; ſtill to tend plant, herb, and flow'r. *Milton.*

To prepare for any purpoſe.—In Orkney they *dreſs* their leather with roots of tormentil, inſtead of bark. *Mortimer.*—To trim; to fit any thing for ready uſe.—When he *dreſſeth* the lamps he ſhall burn incenſe. *Exod.* xxx.—When you *dreſs* your young hops, cut away roots or ſprigs. *Mortimer.*—To prepare victuals for the table:

Thus the voluptuous youth, bred up to *dreſs*
For his fat grandſire ſome delicious meſs,
In feeding high his tutor will ſurpaſs,
An heir apparent of the gourmand race. *Dryden.*

DRESS, *ſ.* Clothes; garment; habit.—*Dreſſes* laughed at in our forefathers wardrobes or pictures, when, by the circulation of time and vanity they are brought about, we think becoming. *Government of the Tongue.*

A robe obſcene was o'er his ſhoulders thrown,
A *dreſs* by fates and furies worn alone. *Pope.*

Splendid clothes; habit of ceremony.—Full *dreſs* creates dignity, augments conſciouſneſs, and keeps at diſtance an encroacher. *Clariſſa.*—The ſkill of adjuſting dreſs.—The men of pleaſure, *dreſs*, and gallantry. *Pope.*

To DRESS, *v. n.* To be over attentive to dreſs; to pay a due regard to dreſs.—Dance, *dreſs*, preſent yourſelf habitually well now, that you may have none of theſe things to think of hereafter. *Cheſterfield.*

My hair I'd powder in the women's way,
And *dreſs*, and talk of *dreſſing*, more than they. *Bramſton.*

DRES'SER, *ſ.* One employed in putting on the clothes and adorning the perſon of another:

She hurries all her hand-maids to the taſk;
Her head alone will twenty *dreſſes* aſk. *Dryden.*

One employed in regulating, trimming, or adjuſting, any thing.—Said he unto the *dreſſer* of his vineyard, Behold, theſe three years I come ſeeking fruit on this fig-tree, and find none. *Luke.*—The bench in a kitchen on which meat is dreſſed or prepared for the table:

A maple *dreſſer* in her hall ſhe had,
On which full many a ſlender meal ſhe made. *Dryden.*

DRES'SERUS (Matthew), an eminent German philoſophical profeſſor, of the Lutheran perſuaſion, born at Erfurt, the capital of Thuringia, in 1536. After receiving a preparatory education at Eiſleben, he commenced his firſt collegiate exerciſes at Wittemberg, under the inſtructions of Luther and Melancthon. Having taken his degree of M. A. in 1559, he delivered a private courſe of lectures on rhetoric. After that, he de-

livered public lectures in the college of Erfurt; and being admitted into the number of profeſſors of philoſophy, taught claſſical learning, and particularly the Greek tongue, with diſtinguiſhed reputation, for ſixteen years. In 1574 he removed to Jena to become the ſucceſſor of Lipſius, who had been the profeſſor of hiſtory and eloquence in that univerſity. His continuance at Jena was but ſhort, ſince, in the following year, he accepted of the ſituation of head of the college of Meiſſen, which he occupied for ſix years. In 1581 he was appointed to the profeſſorſhip of polite learning in the univerſity of Leipſic, and had a particular penſion aſſigned him to write a continuation of the hiſtory of Saxony. He ſpent the remainder of his life at Leipſic, and died there in 1607. He was the author of ſeveral publications, of which the principal are, 1. *Rhetoricæ Inventionis, Diſpoſitionis, & Elocutionis, Libri quatuor, &c.* 8vo. 1584. 2. *Tres Libri Progymnaſmatum Literaturæ Græcæ, Orationem, Epiſtolarum, &c.* 8vo. 3. *Iſagoge Hiſtorica per Millenarios diſtributa, & ad Annum uſque ad nonageſimum primum ſupra mille quingentos deducta,* 8vo. 1587. 4. *M. D. de Feſtis & præcipuis Anni Partibus, Liber, &c.* 8vo. 1584; and, 5. *De Feſtis Diebus Chriſtianorum Judæorum & Ethnicorum, Liber,* 8vo. 1597.

DRESS'ING, *ſ.* in ſurgery, the application made to a ſore or wound.—The ſecond day after we took off the *dreſſings*, and found an eſchar made by the catheretic.—*Wiſeman.*—Outward appearance:

Even ſo may Angelo,
In all his *dreſſings*, charaćts, titles, forms,
Be an arch villain. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRESS'ING-ROOM, *ſ.* The room in which clothes are put on.—Latin books might be found every day in his *dreſſing-room*, if it were carefully ſearched. *Swift.*

DRESS'INGS, *ſ.* a term in architećture, for certain decorations and enrichments introduced on the external and internal parts of buildings.

DRES'SY, *adj.* Showy in dreſs.

DREST, or DRESSED, *part.* [from *to dreſs, v. a.*]

In flow'ry wreaths the royal virgin *dreſt*
His bending horns, and kindly clapt his breaſt. *Addiſon.*

DRESVIA'NIA, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Tobolſk, on the Vagai: ſixty miles ſouth of Tobolſk.

DREUX, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Eure and Loire, on the Blaiſe. A battle was fought near this town, on the 18th of December, 1562, between the army of the king of France, commanded by the conſtable Montmorency, marſhal St. André, and the duke of Guiſe; and that of the proteſtants, commanded by the prince of Condé, admiral Coligny, and his brother, when the latter were defeated, and the prince of Condé taken priſoner. Henry IV. took it in the year 1593: ten poſts and a half weſt-ſouth-weſt of Paris. Lat. 48. 45. N. lon. 19. 2. E. Ferro.

DRE'YE, or DREIHE, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Hoya: five miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Bremen.

DRE'YEN, a ſmall iſland of Denmark, in the Little Belt: three miles ſouth-weſt of Middalfahrt.

DREY'GELHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz: five miles north-weſt of Bingen.

DREYS, or DREYSZ, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia: four miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Witlich.

DREYSAL'LIGKEIT, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: five miles north of Pettau.

To DRIB, *v. a.* [contracted from *dribble.*] To crop; to cut off; to defalcate. *A cant word:*

Merchants gains come ſhort of half the mart;
For he who drives their bargains *dribs* a part. *Dryden.*

To DRIB'BLE, *v. n.* [This word ſeems to have come from *drop* by ſucceſſive alterations, ſuch as are uſual in living languages: *drop, drip, dripple, dribble,* from thence *drivel,* and *driveller. Drip* may indeed be the original word, from the Daniſh *drypp.*] To fall in drops.—A *dribbling*, difficulty, and a momentary ſuppreſſion of urine, may be cauſed by the ſtone's ſhutting up the orifice of the bladder. *Arbuthnot.*—To fall weakly and ſlowly:

Believe not that the *dribbling* dart of love
Can pierce a complete boſom. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſlaver as a child or idiot.

To DRIB'BLE, *v. a.* To throw down in drops.—Let the cook follow with a ladle full of ſoup, and *dribble* it all the way up ſtairs. *Swift.*

DRI'BENTZ, a river of Pruſſia, which runs into the Viſtula: ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Thorn.

DRI'BLET, *ſ.* A ſmall ſum; odd money in a ſum:

Twelve long years of exile borne,
Twice twelve we number'd ſince his bleſt return;
So ſtrictly wert thou juſt to pay,
Even to the *driblet* of a day. *Dryden.*

DRI'EDO, or DRIDOENS (John), a learned Flemiſh divine, in the ſixteenth century, native of Turnhout in Brabant. He was a pupil of Adrian Florent, afterwards pope Adrian VI. who, when he obſerved him almoſt wholly attached to the ſtudy of human ſciences, knowing that he was deſigned for the church, adviſed him to pay his principal attention to the ſtudy of theology, the miſtreſs of ſcience, and more particularly ſo in the profeſſion on which he was about to enter. This advice he followed with diligence and ſucceſs; and, by the progreſs which he made, became qualified for the theological chair in the univerſity of Louvain. At the ſame time that he filled that poſt, he was rector of St. James's, and canon of St. Peter's, in that city. In the controverſy between the Lutherans and Catholics he took an active and vigorous part; and, according to the teſtimony of Eraſmus, diſputed both coolly and learnedly. He died at Louvain in 1535. He was the author of a variety of treatiſes on theological ſubjects, of which the moſt important are intitled, 1. *Lib. IV. De Scripturis & Dogmaticis Eccleſiaſticis.* 2. *Lib. II. De Gratia & Libero Arbitrio.* 3. *De Concordia Liberi Arbitrii & Prædeſtinations.* 4. *De Captivitate & Redemptione Generis Humani.* 5. *De Libertate Chriſtiana.* They have been frequently printed at Louvain in quarto and in folio, in four volumes.

DRI'ER, *ſ.* That which has the quality of abſorbing moiſture; a deſiccative.—There is a tale, that boiling of daiſy roots in milk, which it is certain are great *driers*, will make dogs little. *Bacon.*

DRIE'SEN, or DRESNO, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and New Mark of Brandenburg. This town was betrayed to the Swedes in the year 1639, but reſtored in 1650: twenty miles north-north-eaſt of Schwerin, and ninety eaſt-north-eaſt of Berlin.

DRIFF'BOR, a town of Norway: forty-ſix miles eaſt of Romſdal.

DRIF'FIELD, or GREAT DRIFFIELD, a town in Yorkſhire, formerly called *Dryfield*, ſituated in a fine ſporting part of the Eaſt Riding, twenty-three miles from the port of Scarborough, fourteen from the port of Bridlington, twenty-three from that of Hull, thirty from the city of York, and 195 from London. Upwards of 20,000 quarters of corn are annually ſent by the navigation from this town into the river Humber, and ſo into the weſt of Yorkſhire, from whence they return with coals. About a mile from the town is a large woollen manufactory, erected in 1792; alſo a large bleaching-ground, and a cotton manufactory of conſiderable extent, employs the poor of the town and neighbourhood. Here is a good market on Thurſdays for corn, calves, pigs, &c. and is well ſupplied with ſea-fiſh. It has four annual fairs, viz. Eaſter-Monday, Whit-Monday, Auguſt 26, and September 19, for ſheep, black cattle, horſes, &c. In 1784, the ſociety of antiquarians, having had information that the remains of king Alfred the Great, who died in 901, were

were depoſited in this pariſh-church, they deputed two of that learned body, accompanied by ſome other gentlemen, to take up and examine the ſame. After digging ſome time, they found a ſtone coffin, containing the entire ſkeleton of that great and pious prince, together with the greateſt part of his ſteel armour, the remainder of which had probably been corroded by the length of time. After ſatisfying their curioſity, the coffin and grave were again carefully cloſed. It appears that king Alfred, being wounded in the battle of Stamford Briggs, returned to Driffield, where he languiſhed of his wounds twenty days, and then expired, and was interred in the pariſh church thereof; during his ſickneſs he chartered the four fairs above-mentioned.

DRIFT, *ſ.* Force impellent; impulſe; overbearing influence.—A man being under the *drift* of any paſſion, will ſtill follow the impulſe of it till ſomething interpoſe, and, by a ſtronger impulſe, turn him another way. *South.*—Violence; courſe:

The mighty trunk, half rent with rugged rift,
Doth roll adown the rocks, and fall with fearful *drift*.
Spenſer.

Any thing driven at random:

Some log, perhaps, upon the waters ſwam,
An uſeleſs *drift*, which rudely cut within,
And hollow'd, firſt a floating trough became,
And croſs ſome riv'let paſſage did begin. *Dryden.*

Any thing driven or borne along in a body:

The ready racers ſtand;
Swift as on wings of wind upborne they fly,
And *drifts* of riſing duſt involve the ſky. *Pope.*

A ſtorm; a ſhower:

Our thunder from the ſouth
Shall rain their *drift* of bullets on this town. *Shakeſpeare.*

A heap or ſtratum of any matter thrown together by the wind: as, a *ſnowdrift*, a deep body of ſnow. Tendency or aim of action.—The particular *drift* of every act, proceeding eternally from God, we are not able to diſcern; and therefore cannot always give the proper and certain reaſon of his works. *Hooker.*

Their *drift* comes known, and they diſcover'd are;
For ſome, of many, will be falſe of courſe. *Daniel.*

Scope of a diſcourſe.—The main *drift* of his book being to prove, that what is true is impoſſible to be falſe, he oppoſes nobody. *Tillotſon.*

This, by the ſtile, the manner, and the *drift*,
'Twas thought could be the work of none but Swift. *Swift.*

In mining, a ſhaft or paſſage cut from one mine or ſhaft to another.

To DRIFT, *v. a.* To drive; to urge along.—Snow, no larger than ſo many grains of ſand, *drifted* with the wind in clouds from every plain. *Ellis.*—To throw together in heaps. *Not authoriſed:*

He wanders on
From hill to dale, ſtill more and more aſtray,
Impatient flouncing through the *drifted* heaps. *Thomſon.*

DRIFT OF THE FOREST, *ſ.* in law, a view or examination of what cattle are in a foreſt, chaſe, &c. that it may be known whether it be ſurcharged or not; and whoſe the beaſts are, and whether they are commonable. Theſe drifts are made at certain times in the year by the officers of the foreſt; when all the cattle of the foreſt are driven into ſome pound or place incloſed, for the purpoſes above-mentioned; and in order to diſcover whether any cattle of ſtrangers be there, which ought not to common. 32 *Hen.* VIII. c. 13. See the article FOREST.

DRIFT-LAND, *ſ.* in old writings, an early rent paid by ſome tenants for driving cattle through a manor.

DRIFT-SAIL, *ſ.* A ſail uſed under water to guide the head of a ſhip in a ſtorm.

DRIFT-WAY, *ſ.* A ſea term, the lee-way.

To DRILL, *v. a.* [*drillen*, Dut. ðɪɲlıan, Sax. from ðuɲh, through.] To pierce any thing with a drill.—The drill-plate is only a piece of flat iron, fixed upon a flat board, which iron hath an hole punched a little way into it, to ſet the blunt end of the ſhank of the drill in, when you *drill* a hole. *Moxon.*—To perforate; to bore; to pierce:

Tell, what could *drill* and perforate the poles,
And to th' attractive rays adapt their holes. *Blackmore.*

To make a hole.—When a hole is *drilled* in a piece of metal, they hold the drill-bow in their right hand; but, when they turn ſmall work, they hold the drill-bow in their left hand. *Moxon.*—To delay; to put off: in low phraſe; corrupted from *drawled.*—She has bubbled him out of his youth: ſhe hath *drilled* him on to five-and-fifty, and ſhe will drop him in his old age. *Addiſon.*—To draw from ſtep to ſtep. *A low phraſe.*—When by ſuch inſinuations they have once got within him, and are able to *drill* him on from one lewdneſs to another, by the ſame arts they corrupt and ſqueeze him. *South.*—To drain; to draw ſlowly:

Drill'd through the ſandy ſtratum every way.
The waters with the ſandy ſtratum riſe. *Thomſon.*

To form to arms; to teach the military exerciſe:

The foe appear'd drawn up and *drill'd*,
Ready to charge them in the field. *Hudibras.*

DRILL, *ſ.* An inſtrument with which holes are bored. It is a point preſſed hard againſt the thing bored, and turned round with a bow and ſtring.—*Drills* are uſed for the making ſuch holes as punches will not ſerve for; as a piece of work that hath already its ſhape, and muſt have an hole made in it. *Moxon.*—An ape; a baboon.—Shall the difference of hair be a mark of a different internal ſpecific conſtitution between a changeling and a *drill*, when they agree in ſhape and want of reaſon? *Locke.*—A ſmall dribbling brook; properly a *rill*:

Springs through the pleaſant meadows pour their *drills*,
Which ſnake-like glide between the bordering hills. *Sandys.*

DRILL-BOW, *ſ.* A bow uſed by watchmakers in turning the drill; the ſtring is ſome times neceſſarily ſo ſmall as to be made of a human hair.

DRILL-BOX, *ſ.* A name given to an inſtrument for ſowing land in the new method of horſe-hoeing huſbandry. See HUSBANDRY.

DRIL'LO, a river of Sicily, in the valley of Noto, which runs into the Mediterranean: ſix miles ſouth-eaſt from Terra Nuova.

DRIMA'NA POINT, a cape of Ireland, on the north coaſt of the Bay of Donegal: three miles ſouth of Killibegs.

DRIN, a river which riſes in the ſouth-weſt part of Servia, and runs into the Save thirty-two miles weſt of Sabatz.

DRIN'GENBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Paderburn: ſix miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Paderburn.

To DRINK, *v. n.* preter. *drank*, or *drunk*; part. paſſ. *drunk*, or *drunken*. [ðpuncan, Sax.] To ſwallow liquors; to quench thirſt.—She ſaid, *drink*, and I will give thy camels drink alſo; ſo I *drank*, and ſhe made the camels *drink* alſo. *Gen.* xxiv. 46.

Here, between the armies,
Let's *drink* together friendly, and embrace. *Shakeſpeare.*

To feaſt; to be entertained with liquors.—We came to fight you.——For my part, I am ſorry it is turned to a *drinking*. *Shakeſpeare.*—To drink to exceſs; to be an habitual drunkard:

Firſt for his ſon a gay commiſſion buys;
Who *drinks*, whores, fights, and in a duel dies. *Pope.*

To DRINK *to*. To ſalute in drinking; to invite to drink by drinking firſt:

I gave

I gave it you, and will maintain my word;
And thereupon I *drink unto* your grace. *Shakeſpeare.*

To wiſh well to in the act of taking the cup:

Give me ſome wine; fill full:
I *drink to* th' general joy of the whole table,
And to our dear friend Banquo, whom we miſs. *Shakeſp.*

To DRINK, *v. a.* To ſwallow: applied to liquids.—He had eaten no bread, nor *drunk* any water, three days and three nights. 1 *Sam.* xxx. 12.—We have *drunken* our water for money. *Lam.* v. 4.—To ſuck up; to abſorb:

Set rows of roſemary with flow'ring ſtem,
And let the purple violets *drink* the ſtream. *Dryden.*

To take in by any inlet; to hear; to ſee.—I *drink* delicious poiſon from thy eye. *Pope.*

My ears have yet not *drunk* a hundred words
Of that tongue's uttering, yet I know the ſound. *Shakeſp.*

To act upon by drinking.—Come, we have a hot veniſon paſty to dinner: come, gentlemen, I hope we ſhall *drink* down all unkindneſs. *Shakeſpeare.*—He will drown his health and his ſtrength in his belly; and, after all his *drunken* trophies, at length *drink* down himſelf too. *South.*—To make drunk.—Benhadad was *drinking* himſelf *drunk* in the pavilions. 1 *Kings.*—It is uſed with the intenſive particles *off*, *up*, and *in*. *Off*, to note a ſingle act of drinking.—One man gives another a cup of poiſon, a thing as terrible as death; but at the ſame time he tells him that it is a cordial, and ſo he *drinks* it *off*, and dies. *South.*—*Up*, to note that the whole is *drunk*.—Alexander, after he had *drank up* a cup of fourteen pints, was going to take another. *Arbuthnot.*—*In*, to enforce the ſenſe: uſually of inanimate things.—The body being reduced nearer unto the earth, and emptied, becometh more porous, and greedily *drinketh in* water. *Brown.*

DRINK, *ſ.* Liquor to be ſwallowed; oppoſed to *meat:*

When God made choice to rear
His mighty champion, ſtrong above compare,
Whoſe *drink* was only from the liquid brook! *Milton.*

Liquor of any particular kind.—We will give you rare and ſleepy *drinks*. *Shakeſpeare.*

O madneſs, to think uſe of ſtrongeſt wines,
And ſtrongeſt *drinks*, our chief ſupport of health! *Milton.*

DRINK'ABLE, *adj.* Potable; ſuch as may be drunk.

DRINK'ER, *ſ.* One that drinks to exceſs; a drunkard.—The *drinker* and debauched perſon is the object of ſcorn and contempt. *South.*—The urine of hard *drinkers* affords a liquor extremely fetid, but no inflammable ſpirit: what is inflammable ſtays in the blood, and affects the brain. Great *drinkers* commonly die apoplectic. *Arbuthnot.*

DRINK'ING, *ſ.* [from *to drink*, *v. n.*] The habit of drinking ſtrong liquors to exceſs.—I then conſidered *drinking* as a neceſſary qualification for a fine gentleman and a man of faſhion. *Cheſterfield.*

DRINK'LEAN, *ſ.* A contribution of tenants, in the time of the Saxons, towards a potation, or ale, provided to entertain the lord, or his ſteward.

DRI'NO BIAN'CA, or WHITE DRINO, a river of European Turkey, which riſes near Reehia, on the borders of Dalmatia, and joins the Drino Nero, fifteen miles north-weſt of Ibali, where they form one ſtream, called *Drino*.

DRI'NO NE'RO, or BLACK DRINO, a river of European Turkey, which riſes in a lake near Akrida; joining the Drino Bianea, it takes the name of *Drino* only, and runs into the Adriatic, about eight miles ſouth-weſt of Aleſſio, forming a bay at its mouth, called the *Gulf of Drino*.

DRI'NOVATZ, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria: twenty-eight miles ſouth of St. Viddin.

To DRIP, *v. n.* [*drippen*, Dut.] To fall in drops. To have drops falling from it:

The ſoil, with fatt'ning moiſture fill'd,
Is cloath'd with graſs, and fruitful to be till'd;
Such as in fruitful vales we view from high,
Which *dripping* rocks, not rolling ſtreams, ſupply. *Dryden.*

To DRIP, *v. a.* To let fall in drops:

Her flood of tears
Seem like the lofty barn of ſome rich ſwain,
Which from the thatch *drips* faſt a ſhow'r of rain. *Swift.*

To drop fat in roaſting.—Let what was put into his belly, and what he *drips*, be his ſauce. *Walton.*

His offer'd entrails ſhall his crime reproach,
And *drip* their fatneſs from the hazle broach. *Dryden.*

DRIP, *ſ.* That which falls in drops.—Water may be procured for neceſſary occaſions from the heavens, by preſerving the *drips* of the houſes. *Mortimer.*

DRIP'PING, *ſ.* The fat which houſewives gather from roaſt meat:

Shews all her ſecrets of houſekeeping;
For candles how ſhe trucks her *dripping*. *Swift.*

DRIP'PING-PAN, *ſ.* The pan in which the fat of roaſt meat is caught.—When the cook turns her back, throw ſmoaking coals into the *dripping-pan*. *Swift.*

DRIP'PLE, *adj.* [from *drip*.] This word is uſed by Fairfax for weak, or rare; *dripple ſhot*.

DRIPS, *ſ.* in architecture, the ſlopes or falls with which ſome roofs are conſtructed.

DRIP'SEY, a river of Ireland, which runs into the Lee ten miles weſt of Cork.

DRIS, a town of Perſia, in the province of Farſiſtan: ſeventy miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Schiras.

DRIS'SA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Polotſk, at the conflux of the Driſſa with the Dwina: twenty miles weſt-north-weſt of Polotſk, and 272 ſouth of Peterſburg.

DRIS'SA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Duna at the town of Driſſa.

DRIS'TRA, or SILISTRIA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near the Danube: 216 miles north of Conſtantinople, and 160 north of Adrianople. Lat. 44. 17. N. lon. 44. 55. E. Ferro.

DRIT'TEY, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola: ten miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Stein.

DRIVAS'TO, a town of European Turkey, in Albania: twenty miles north-eaſt of Duleigno.

To DRIVE, *v. a.* preterite *drove*, anciently *drave*; part. paſſ. *driven*, or *drove*; [*dreiban*, Goth. ᵭᵲᵻᵽᵃⁿ, Sax. *dryven*, Dut.] To produce motion in any thing by violence: as, the hammer *drives* the nail. To force along by impetuous preſſure:

On helmets helmets throng,
Shield preſs'd on ſhield, and man *drove* man along. *Pope.*

To expel by force from any place; with *from:*

Driven from his native land to foreign grounds,
He with a gen'rous rage reſents his wounds. *Dryden.*

To ſend by force to any place; with *to:*

Time *drives* the flocks from field *to* fold,
When rivers rage, and rocks grow cold. *Shakeſpeare.*

To chaſe; to hunt:

To *drive* the deer with hound and horn
Earl Percy took his way. *Chevy Chaſe.*

To force or urge in any direction.—He ſtood and meaſured the earth: he beheld, and *drove* aſunder the nations. *Hab.* iii. 6.—To impel to greater ſpeed. To guide and regulate a carriage.—He took off their chariot wheels, that they *drave* them heavily. *Exod.* xiv. 25.—To convey animals; to make animals march along under guidance:

There find a herd of heifers, wand'ring o'er
The neighb'ring hill, and *drive* 'em to the ſhore. *Addiſon.*

To clear any place by forcing away what is in it:

We come not with design of wasteful prey,
To *drive* the country, force the swains away. *Dryden.*

To force; to compel.—For the metre sake, some words in him sometime be *driven* awry, which require straighter placing in plain prose. *Ascham.*—To hurry on inconsiderately.—Most miserable, if such unskilfulness make them *drive* on their time by the periods of sin and death. *Taylor.*—He was *driven* by the necessities of times, more than led by his own disposition, to rigour. *King Charles.*—To distress; to straighten.—This kind of speech is in the manner of desperate men far *driven*. *Spenser.*—To urge by violence, not kindness:

He taught the gospel rather than the law,
And forc'd himself to *drive*, but lov'd to draw. *Dryden.*

To impel by influence of passion.—It is better to marry than to burn, says St. Paul; where we may see what *drives* men into a conjugal life: a little burning pushes us more powerfully than greater pleasures in prospect. *Locke.*—To urge; to press to a conclusion.—To *drive* the argument farther, let us inquire into the obvious designs of this divine architect. *Cheyne.*—To carry on; to keep in motion.—As a farmer cannot husband his ground so well, if he sit at a great rent; so the merchant cannot *drive* his trade so well, if he sit at a great usury. *Bacon.*

Your Pasimond a lawless bargain *drove*,
The parent could not sell the daughter's love. *Dryden.*

To purify by motion: so we say to *drive* feathers.—His thrice-*driven* bed of down. *Shakespeare.*—The one's in the plot, let him be never so innocent; and the other is as white as the *driven* snow, let him be never so criminal. *L'Estrange.*

To DRIVE *out*. To expel.—Tumults and their exciters *drave* myself and many of both houses out of their places. *King Charles.*

To DRIVE, *v. n.* To go as impelled by any external agent:

Love, fixt to one, still safe at anchor rides,
And dares the fury of the winds and tides;
But losing once that hold, to the wide ocean born,
It *drives* away at will, to every wave a scorn. *Dryden.*

To rush with violence.—The wolves scampered away as hard as they could *drive*. *L'Estrange.*

As a ship which winds and waves assail,
Now with the current *drives*, now with the gale;
She feels a double force, by turns obeys
Th' imperious tempest, and th' impetuous seas. *Dryden.*

To pass in a carriage; to regulate the course of a carriage:

Thy flaming chariot-wheels, that shook
Heav'n's everlasting frame, while o'er the necks
Thou *drov'st* of warring angels disarray'd. *Milton.*

To tend to; to consider as the scope and ultimate design.—Authors *drive* at these, as the highest elegancies, which are but the frigidities of wit. *Brown.*—We cannot widely mistake his discourse, when we have found out the point he *drives* at. *Locke.*—To aim; to strike at with fury.—Four rogues in buckram let *drive* at me. *Shakespeare.*

At Auxur's shield he *drove*, and at the blow
Both shield and arm to ground together go. *Dryden.*

To *drive*, in all its senses, whether active or neuter, may be observed to retain a sense compounded of violence and progression.

DRIVE BAY, a bay of the river St. Lawrence, on the south coast of Canada. Lat. 48. 52. N. lon. 68. 20. W. Greenwich.

DRIVE-BOLT, *s.* A particular kind of bolt used in ship-building.

To DRI'VEL, *v. n.* [from *drip*, *dripple*, *dribble*, drivel.] To slaver; to let the spittle fall in drops, like a child, an idiot, or a dotard.—A *driveling* old fellow, lean, shaking both of head and hands, already half earth, and yet then most greedy of earth. *Sidney.*—To be weak or foolish; to dote:

I hate to see a brave bold fellow sotted,
Made sour and senseless, turn'd to whey, by love;
A *driveling* hero, fit for a romance. *Dryden.*

DRI'VEL, *s.* Slaver; moisture shed from the mouth.—A fool; an idiot; a driveller:

Besides th' eternal *drivel*, that supplies
The dropping beard, from nostrils, mouth, and eyes. *Dryden.*

DRI'VELLER, *s.* A fool; an idiot; a slaverer.—I have heard the arrantest *drivellers* commended for their shrewdness, even by men of tolerable judgment. *Swift.*

DRI'VEN, part. of *drive*.—They were driven forth from among men. *Job*, xxx. 5.

DRI'VER, *s.* The person or instrument who gives any motion by violence. One who drives beasts—The multitude or common rout, like a drove of sheep, or an herd of oxen, may be managed by any noise or cry which their *driver* shall accustom them to. *South.*

He from the many-peopled city flies.
Contemns their labours, and the *driver*'s cries. *Sandys.*

One who drives a carriage:

Not the fierce *driver* with more fury lends
The sounding lash, and, ere the stroke descends,
Low to the wheels his pliant body bends. *Dryden.*

To DRIZ'ZLE, *v. a.* [*driselen*, Germ. to shed dew.] To shed in small slow drops, as winter rains.—When the sun sets, the air doth *drizzle* dew. *Shakspeare.*

Though now this face of mine be hid
In sap-consuming winter's *drizzled* snow,
And all the conduits of my blood froze up,
Yet hath my night of life some memory. *Shakespeare.*

To DRIZ'ZLE, *v. n.* To fall in slow drops.—The neighbouring mountains, by reason of their height, are more exposed to the dews and *drizzling* rains than any of the adjacent parts. *Addison.*

DRIZ'ZLY, *adj.* Shedding small rain:

This during winter's *drizzly* reign be done,
Till the new ram receives th' exalted sun. *Dryden.*

DRO'CI, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Calabria Ultra: nine miles south-south-east of Nicotera.

DROCK, *s.* in husbandry, the upright piece of timber in a plough, to which the earth-board is fixed.

DROF'LAND, or DRYFLAND, *s.* [Saxon.] A tribute or yearly payment formerly made by some tenants to the king, or their landlords, for driving their cattle through a manor to fairs or markets. *Cowel.*

DROG'HEDA, a sea-port town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, situated on the Boyne, on the borders of the county of Meath, (near which the prince of Orange obtained a complete victory over the army of James II. called the battle of the Boyne,) and a county of itself, holding its own assizes. It is a well-built town on both sides of the river Boyne, and increases in wealth and commerce, and the number of its inhabitants, which amount to more than ten thousand. This port supplies the neighbouring country, for many miles round, with English coals, and other heavy goods; and exports very considerable quantities of corn, the produce of the adjacent and of several of the inland counties. Here is also a celebrated school, with a good endowment. It is twenty-three miles north of Dublin. Lat. 53. 43. N. lon. 6. 22. W. Greenwich.

DROGIE'ZYN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Bielsk: thirty-six miles south-west of Bielsk.

DROGO'NE, a river of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, which runs into the bay of Squillace.

DROIL, *s.* [by Junius, understood a contraction of *drivel*.] A drone; a sluggard.

To DROIL, *v. n.* To work ſluggiſhly and ſlowly; to plod.—The *droiling* peaſant ſcarcely thinks there is any world beyond the neighbouring markets. *Government of the Tongue.*

DROIT, *ſ.* [Fr.] Right, juſtice, equity.

DROIT'WICH, an ancient borough-town in Worceſterſhire, ſituate on the river Salwarp; it has four churches, though only three are made uſe of. It is diſtant from London ninety-five miles, from Worceſter ſeven, Bromſgrove ſix, Kidderminſter twelve, and Alceſter twelve. It ſends two members to parliament. This borough is governed by a recorder, town-clerk, two ſerjeants at mace, two third-boroughs, and a crier. The right of election is in two bailiffs, the recorder, and eleven burgeſſes, who are ſtiled The Corporation of the Salt-ſprings of Droitwich. It was originally incorporated by king John, and afterwards by charter of *inſpeximus* of James the Firſt. The number of voters is fourteen. The town conſiſts of about 400 houſes, chiefly inhabited by poor people. The principal manufacture carried on here is making fine white ſalt, which is by far the fineſt and whiteſt in all Europe. In Domeſday-book it is ſaid, that every week, in the ſeaſon of wealing, they paid off a tax of ſixteen bullions; which is ſufficient to prove, that ſalt was made here long before the Conqueror's ſurvey was compiled. Mention is alſo made, in the reign of king Athelſtan, of the ſalt produced in this town. The brine-pits at Droitwich are immenſe, and continually running over, owing to the greatneſs of the ſprings. The brine is ſuppoſed to be the ſtrongeſt ever known, containing about one-fourth ſalt, whilſt thoſe of Nantwich in Cheſhire yield only one-ſixth; and thoſe of Weſton in Staffordſhire only one-ninth part. The annual amount of the duty on ſalt made here is from 150,000l. to 200,000l. which is paid regularly every Wedneſday into the collector's hands, by the different proprietors of the works. See the article SALT. This town was known to the Romans, and under the Saxons gave name to the whole country. It was populous in the time of the Conqueror. In 1290, St. Andrew's church, and the greateſt part of the town, was burnt. It had great privileges from king John, ſome of which it ſtill retains, and was much favoured by Henry III. and other princes. The exchequer-houſe was built in 1580, whoſe windows have ſome curious painted glaſs. Here is an hoſpital, founded in 1688. A canal, about ſeven miles long, goes from this town into the river Severn, at a place called Hawford, within three miles of the city of Worceſter; it was begun in 1756; and is navigable for veſſels carrying from ſixty to ſixty-three tons burthen. By this canal the greateſt part of the ſalt manufactured in this town is conveyed into the Severn, and from thence to different parts of the kingdom. By this alſo the town is ſupplied with coal; great quantities of which are conſumed in the ſalt-works. The coal, which chiefly comes from Dudley, is about twelve ſhillings or twelve ſhillings and ſixpence per ton. The market is on Friday; fairs, April 13, June 18, September 22 and 24, and December 21. The market-houſe was built in 1628.

DROLL, *ſ.* [*droler*, Fr.] One whoſe buſineſs is to raiſe mirth by petty tricks; a jeſter; a buffoon; a jack-pudding:

Democritus, dear *droll!* reviſit earth,
And with our follies glut thy heighten'd mirth. *Prior.*

A farce; ſomething exhibited to raiſe mirth:

Some as juſtly fame extols,
For lofty lines in Smithfield *drolls*. *Swift.*

To DROLL, *v. n.* [*dröle*, Fr.] To jeſt; to play the buffoon.—Men that will not be reaſoned into their ſenſes, may yet be laughed or *drolled* into them. *L'Eſtrange.*

DROL'LERY, *ſ.* Idle jokes; buffoonery.—They hang between heaven and hell, borrow the Chriſtians faith, and the atheiſts *drollery* upon it. *Government of the Tongue.*—A puppet-ſhow. To which alludes the following expreſſion in *Shakeſpeare.*—A living *drollery*. *Tempeſt.*

DROLS'HAGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and the duchy of Weſtphalia: thirty-four miles eaſt of Cologn, and forty-eight eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Duſſeldorp.

DRO'MA, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coaſt, noted for its market for pepper.

DROME, a department of France, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhone, which takes its appellation from the river Drome, which croſſes it. Valence is the capital.

DROME, a river of France, which riſes near Valdrome, paſſes by Die, Pontaix, Saillans, Creſt, Livron, &c. and falls into the Rhone, about eleven miles ſouth of Valence.

DROM'EDARY. See the article CAMELUS, vol. iii. p. 649.

DROM'EUS, *ſ.* in ancient authors, the dromedary, the ſtag, ſo called on account of their ſwiftneſs.

DRO'MO, *ſ.* [from δρομων, Gr.] A caraval, a ſwift bark; a very ſwift fiſh. *Scott.*

DRO'MO, a ſmall iſland in the Grecian Archipelago. Lat. 39. 28. N. lon. 41. 46. E. Ferro.

DROMO'RE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Down, the ſee of a biſhop, ſaid to have been erected in the ſixth century. The cathedral is ſmall, but the epiſcopal palace, erected ſome years ſince, is handſome and convenient: ſeventeen miles eaſt of Armagh, and fifteen ſouth-weſt of Belfaſt.

DROMO'RE, a townſhip of the American States, in Lancaſter county, Pennſylvania.

DROM'WA PE'TRI, a town of Africa, on the Ivory Coaſt.

DRONE, *ſ.* [ðnoen, Sax.] The bee which makes no honey, and is therefore driven out by the reſt. See APIS, vol. i. p. 792, &.

All, with united force, combine to drive
The lazy *drones* from the laborious hive. *Dryden.*

A ſluggard; an idler.—It is my misfortune to be married to a *drone*, who lives upon what I get, without bringing any thing into the common ſtock. *Addiſon.*—The hum, or inſtrument of humming:

Here while his canting *drone-pipe* ſcann'd
The myſtic figures of her hand,
He tipples palmeſtry, and dines
On all her fortune-telling lines. *Cleaveland.*

To DRONE, *v. n.* To live in idleneſs; to dream:

What have I loſt by my forefathers fault!
Why was not I the twentieth by deſcent
From a long reſtive race of *droning* kings? *Dryden.*

To give a heavy dull tone:

Melfoil and honeyſuckles pound,
With theſe alluring ſavours ſtrew the ground,
And mix with tinkling braſs the ſymbal's *droning* ſound.
Dryden.

DRONE-BEE, *ſ.* The male bee.

DRONE-FLY, *ſ.* A two-winged inſect reſembling the drone-bee.

DRONE'RO, a town of Piedmont, in the marquiſate of Saluzzo, on the Maira: fourteen miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Saluzzo.

DRON'FIELD, a neat and pleaſant town in Derbyſhire, four miles weſt of Bolſover, and 153 north-weſt of London, ſituated among the mountains at the edge of the peak. It is ſurrounded, except on the weſtern ſide, with verdant eminences crowned with trees of various hues, and beautifully interſperſed with luxuriant corn-fields. The fineſt ſprings iſſue abundantly from the rocks, and wind in ſerpentine directions, almoſt through every part. Here too is plenty of coal at a very reaſonable rate, and every neceſſary of life on moderate terms. The church, dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt, is a handſome edifice, about 132 feet in length, exactly correſponding with the height of the ſpire; and the chancel is ſaid far to exceed any other in the county. Henry Fanſhawe, eſquire, remembrancer

membrancer of the xchequer during the reign of queen Elizabeth, founded and liberally endowed a free-ſchool here in 1567. This town had a market on Thurſdays; but, owing to its vicinity to Cheſterfield and Sheffield, the effect of it is totally done away. It has one annual fair, on the 25th of April.

DRO'NISH, *adj.* Idle; ſluggiſh; dreaming; lazy; indolent; unactive:

The *droniſh* monks, the ſcorn and ſhame of manhood,
Rouſe and prepare once more to take poſſeſſion,
To neſtle in their ancient hives again. *Rowe.*

DRO'NISHLY, *adv.* Slothfully.

DRO'NISHNESS, *ſ.* Slothfulneſs.

DRONNE, a river of France, which riſes about ſix miles from Thiviers, in the department of the Dordogne, and joins the Ille, near Coutras, in the department of the Gironde.

DRONT'HEIM, a town of Norway, formerly the capital, and the uſual reſidence of the kings, ſituated on a gulf of the North Sea, to which it gives name, at the mouth of the Nidder; nearly ſurrounded by the ſea and lofty mountains, with a well-frequented ſeaport, but not capable of receiving large veſſels, on account of rocks at the entrance of the harbour: it has neither ditches nor fortifications, but is encloſed by a wall, and defended by a caſtle, by no means ſtrong. It was taken by the Swedes, in 1658, after a ſiege of a few days, but retaken by the Danes the ſame year. It was erected into an archbiſhopric by pope Eugenius III. Near it are mines of copper and ſilver. The principal exports are maſts, fir-timber, copper, iron, pitch, tar, ſtock-fiſh, ſkins, potaſh, &c. In exchange, they receive and import ſpices, wine, ſalt, brandy, corn, tobacco, cloth, &c. The territory, or province, extends nearly 500 miles in length along the coaſt of the North Sea; the whole was ceded to Sweden in 1658, but by the peace of Copenhagen was confirmed to Denmark. Lat. 63. 26. N. lon. 10. 38. E. Greenwich.

DROOG, *ſ.* [Indian.] A term in Hindooſtan for a fort erected upon the ſummit of a hill. They form the principal mode of defence on the borders of the different provinces in India.

To DROOP, *v. n.* [*droef*, Dut. ſorrow.] To languiſh with ſorrow:

I *droop* with ſtruggling ſpent;
My thoughts are on my ſorrows bent. *Sandys.*

To faint; to grow weak; to be diſpirited.—I ſaw him ten days before he died, and obſerved he began very much to *droop* and languiſh. *Swift.*

When factious rage to cruel exile drove
The queen of beauty and the court of love,
The muſes *droop'd* with their forſaken arts. *Dryden.*

I'll animate the ſoldiers *drooping* courage
With love of freedom and contempt of life. *Addiſon.*

To ſink; to lean downwards; commonly by weakneſs or grief:

On her heav'd boſom hung her drooping head,
Which with a ſigh ſhe rais'd, and this ſhe ſaid. *Pope.*

DROOP'INGLY, *adv.* Faintly; languiſhingly.

DROP, *ſ.* [ðnoppa, Sax.] A globule of moiſture; as much liquor as falls at once when there is not a continual ſtream:

Meet we the med'cine of our country's weal,
And with him pour we, in our country's purge,
Each *drop* of us. *Shakeſpeare.*

Diamond hanging in the ear:

The *drops* to thee, Brillante, we conſign;
And, Momentilla, let the watch be thine. *Pope.*

To DROP, *v. a.* [ðnoppan, Sax.] To pour in drops or ſingle globules.—His heavens ſhall *drop* down dew. *Deut.* xxxiii. 28.—To let fall from a higher place:

Others o'er chimney tops and turrets row,
And *drop* their anchors on the meads below. *Dryd'n.*

To let go; to diſmiſs from the hand, or the poſſeſſion:

Though I could
With barefac'd power ſweep him from my ſight,
And bid my will avouch it; yet I muſt not,
For certain friends that are both his and mine,
Whoſe loves I may not *drop*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To utter ſlightly or caſually.—*Drop* not thy word againſt the houſe of Iſaac. *Amos.*—To inſert indirectly, or by way of digreſſion.—St. Paul's epiſtles contain nothing but points of Chriſtian inſtruction, amongſt which he ſeldom fails to *drop* in the great and diſtinguiſhing doctrines of our holy religion. *Locke.*—To intermit; to ceaſe.—Where the act is unmanly or immoral, we ought to *drop* our hopes, or rather never entertain them. *Collier.*—To quit a maſter.—I have beat the hoof till I have worn out theſe ſhoes in your ſervice, and not one penny left me to buy more; ſo that you muſt even excuſe me if I *drop* you here. *L'Eſtrange.*—To let go a dependant, or companion, without farther aſſociation.—She drilled him on to five-and-fifty, and will *drop* him in his old age, if ſhe can find her account in another. *Addiſon.*—To ſuffer to vaniſh, or come to nothing.—Opinions, like faſhions, always deſcend from thoſe of quality to the middle ſort, and thence to the vulgar, where they are *dropped* and vaniſh. *Swift.*—To bedrop; to ſpeckle; to variegate with ſpots, *Variis ſtellatus corpora* guttis:

Or ſporting, with quick glance,
Shew to the ſun their wav'd coats, *dropp'd* with gold.
Milton.

To DROP, *v. n.* To fall in drops, or ſingle globules:

The quality of mercy is not ſtrain'd;
It *droppeth* as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath. *Shakeſpeare.*

To let drops fall; to diſcharge itſelf in drops.—The heavens *dropped* at the preſence of God. *Pſalm* lxvii. 8.

While cumber'd with my *dropping* cloaths I lay,
The cruel nation, covetous of prey,
Stain'd with my blood th' unhoſpitable coaſt. *Dryden.*

To fall; to come from a higher place.—In every revolution, approaching nearer and nearer to the ſun, this comet muſt at laſt *drop* into the ſun's body. *Cheyne.*—To fall ſpontaneouſly:

So may'ſt thou live, till, like ripe fruit, thou *drop*
Into thy mother's lap; or be with eaſe
Gather'd, not harſhly pluck'd. *Milton.*

To fall in death; to die ſuddenly:

It was your preſurmiſe,
That in the dole of blows your ſon might *drop*. *Shakeſp.*

To die.—Nothing, ſays Seneca, ſo ſoon reconciles us to the thoughts of our own death, as the proſpect of one friend after another *dropping* round us. *Digby.*—To ſink into ſilence; to vaniſh; to come to nothing: a familiar phraſe.—I heard of threats occaſioned by my verſes: I ſent to acquaint them where I was to be found, and ſo it *dropped*. *Pope.*—To come unexpectedly:

Either you come not here, or, as you grace
Some old acquaintance, *drop* into the place,
Careleſs and qualmiſh, with a yawning face. *Dryden.*

To fall ſhort of a mark.—Often it *drops* or overſhoots by the diſproportions of diſtance or application. *Collier.*

"Many DROPS make a ſhower." The Germans ſay, *Nale pfennige machen einen thaler:* Many pennies make a dollar. The Scots ſay, Many a little makes a mickle. Intimating, that if by care and economy our ſavings are ever ſo ſmall and trivial, they will in the end amount to ſuch a ſum as will amply reward our frugality.

DROP SERENE, *ſ.* [*gutta ſerena*, Lat.] A diſeaſe of the eye, proceeding from an inſpiſſation of the humour:

So

So thick a *drop ſerene* hath quench'd their orbs,
Or dim ſuffuſion veil'd. *Milton.*

DRO'PACISM, or DROPAX, *ſ.* [from δρεπω, to remove.] A medicine to deſtroy or remove hair; the application of the ſame.

DRO'PACIST, *ſ.* [from *dropax.*] One that uſes the dropax, or dropaciſm.

DRO'PALACH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carinthia: twelve miles ſouth of Saxenburg.

DRO'PAX, *ſ.* See DROPACISM.

DROP'LET, *ſ.* A little drop:

Thou abhorr'dſt in us our human griefs,
Scorn'd our brine's flow, and thoſe our *droplets*, which
From niggard nature fall. *Shakeſpeare.*

DROP'PING, *ſ.* That which falls in drops:

Thrifty wench ſcrapes kitchen-ſtuff,
And barrelling the *droppings* and the ſnuff
Of waſting candles. *Donne.*

That which drops when the continuous ſtream ceaſes:

Strain out the laſt dull *droppings* of your ſenſe,
And rhyme with all the rage of impotence. *Pope.*

DROPS, *ſ.* in architecture, an ornament repreſenting drops or little bells.

DROP'STONE, *ſ.* Spar formed into the ſhape of drops. *Woodward.*

DROP'SICAL, *adj.* Diſeaſed with a dropſy; hydropical; tending to a dropſy.—The diet of nephritic and *dropſical* perſons ought to be ſuch as is oppoſite to, and ſubdueth, the alkaleſcent nature of the ſalts in the ſerum of the blood. *Arbuthnot.*

DROP'SIED, *adj.* Diſeaſed with a dropſy:

Where great addition ſwells, and virtue none,
It is a *dropſied* honour: good alone
Is good. *Shakeſpeare.*

DROP'SY, *ſ.* [*hydrops*, Lat. whence anciently *hidropiſy*, thence *dropiſy*, *dropſy.*] A collection of water in the body, from too lax a tone of the ſolids, whereby digeſtion is weakened, and all the parts ſtuffed. For the medical treatment of this diſorder, ſee the article MEDICINE.

DROP'WORT, *ſ.* in botany. See SPIRÆA and OENANTHE.

DROS'CHOLM, a town of Denmark, in the iſland of Zealand: twelve miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Nyekiobing, and forty weſt of Copenhagen.

DRO'SENDORF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, on the river Taya: fifteen miles weſt of Znaym, and forty-ſix north-weſt of Vienna. Lat. 48. 45. N. lon. 33. 24. E. Ferro.

DRO'SERA, *ſ.* [δροσερος, dewy, from δροσος, dew; drops hanging on the leaves, like dew.] SUNDEW; in botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order pentagynia, natural order gruinales, (capparides, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaſed, five-cleft, ſharp, upright, permanent. Corolla: funnel-form; petals five, ſomewhat ovate, obtuſe, rather larger than the calyx, and alternate with it. Stamina: filaments five, ſubulate, length of the calyx, and alternate with the petals; antheræ ſmall, growing to the filaments. Piſtillum: germ ſuperior, roundiſh; ſtyles five, ſimple, length of the ſtamens; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: capſule ſurrounded with the calyx, ſomewhat ovate, one-celled, three, four, or five-valved at the tip. Seeds: very many, very ſmall, ſomewhat ovate, ſcabrous, fixed to a branching looſe receptacle in the centre at bottom. —*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, five-cleft; petals, five; capſule, one-celled, five (or three) valved at the tip; ſeeds, very many.

Species. 1. Droſera acaulis, or ſtemleſs ſundew: flower radical, without any ſcape, ſolitary; leaves oblong. 2. Droſera cuneifolia, or wedge-leaved ſundew: ſcapes radicate, leaves wedge-form-rounded. Theſe are herbs of a ſmall ſize, and ſingular ſtructure. The leaves, in moſt of the ſpecies, only next the root, furniſhed with glandulous hairs on the upper ſurface, and fringed with them round the edge: theſe hairs have each a ſmall globule of a pellucid liquor like dew, continuing even in the hotteſt part of the day, and in the fulleſt expoſure to the ſun. Hence their Engliſh name of *ſundew.* The two firſt ſpecies are natives of the Cape of Good Hope, where they were firſt obſerved by Thunberg.

3. Droſera rotundifolia, or round-leaved ſundew: ſcapes radicate; leaves orbiculate, ſtyles ſix. Root perennial, black; flowers from ſix to eleven in number, white; they are open from nine to twelve; the young leaves, before they are expanded, are rolled inwards, and at the ſame time bent in to the very peduncle. Droſera and Utricularia are the only two plants which are common to Sweden and the Eaſt Indies, and they are both water plants: Linnæus remarks that Droſera is a native of all the four continents, on bogs. The Eaſt Indian plant, however, is probably different from the European, and Vahl has ſeparated it under the name of *Droſera Burmanni.* It is diſtinct from the preceding ſpecies D. cuneifolia, in the ſmoothneſs of the ſcape and pedicels, and in being only one third of the ſize. With us, D. rotundifolia flowers in July and Auguſt; and is found on Hampſtead heath; at Battle's well near Harefield, and Iver heath; on Hinton and Teverſham moors, and Gamlingay bogs in Cambridgeſhire; on Malvern chace; Birmingham heath; Selborne, in Hampſhire; Ludgvan Lee, on the Barton and Moors; and Senan, in Torvorian Commons, Cornwall; Halſton in Northamptonſhire; near Mansfield and Oxton in Nottinghamſhire; and in Scotland frequent.

The whole plant is acrid, and ſufficiently cauſtic to erode the ſkin; ſome ladies, however, know how to mix the juice with milk, ſo as to make it an innocent and ſafe application to remove freckles and ſun-burn. The juice that exſudes from it unmixed will deſtroy warts and corns. The plant has the ſame effect upon milk as the *pinguicula vulgaris*; and like that, too, is ſuppoſed to occaſion the rot in ſheep. Is not the ſour coagulated milk of the Syrians, called *leban* or *leven*, at firſt prepared with ſome plant of this kind? It is called in Engliſh *ſundew, youth-woort*; in the north parts *red-rot*, and in Yorkſhire *mooregraſſe*; in German, *ſonnenthau, findaw, loffleinkraut*; in Dutch, *zonnedaauw*, or *loopighruid*; in Daniſh, *ſoeldug* or *himmeldug*; in Swediſh, *Mariæfileſhar*; in Smoland, *daggort*; in Italian, *rugiada del ſole*; in Spaniſh, *rociada* or *rocio del ſol*; in Portugueſe, *roſſolina*; in Ruſſian, *ſolneznaja trawa.*

4. Droſera longifolia, or long-leaved ſundew: ſcapes radicate; leaves ovate-oblong. Linnæus is of opinion that this is ſcarcely ſpecifically diſtinct from the foregoing, ſince they agree in every thing except the form of the leaves. Scopoli does not heſitate to join this and the round-leaved ſundew together, and affirms that he has many ſpecimens ſhewing a gradual change from the one to the other. Haller will not allow that they ever change one to the other. This ſeems not to be ſo common as the round-leaved ſort; Mr. Woodward, however, informs us that it is frequent in Norfolk; and Mr. Lightfoot, that it is ſo alſo in Scotland; on Brigſtear moſs, near Kendal, it grows to twice or thrice the ſize it does about London; it is alſo found on Hinton moor near Cambridge; on Bagſhot heath in Surrey; and at Selborne in Hants.

β. *D. Anglica*, or great ſundew, which Mr. Hudſon makes a diſtinct ſpecies, becauſe it is larger, has eight ſtyles, and four-valved capſules: is common, as he informs us, in the northern counties; alſo in Devonſhire, Hampſhire, and Norfolk; three miles from Carliſle towards Scotland, where Mr. Dickſon found it near Fort Auguſtus; near Elleſmere in Shropſhire, and in Ireland. The variety deſcribed by Ray, was found by Thomas

Williſel in Yorkſhire, between Doncaſter and Bautrey; and by Mr. J. Sherard on Weſtfield down, near Haſtings.

Theſe plants have the ſame property with *Dionæa muſcipula*, of entrapping ſmall inſects within their folded leaves. It was diſcovered by Mr. Whately, a ſurgeon, in Auguſt 1780. On inſpecting ſome of the contracted leaves, he obſerved a fly in cloſe impriſonment; and on centrically preſſing other leaves, yet in their expanded form, with a pin, he obſerved a ſudden elaſtic ſpring of them, ſo as to become inverted upwards, and as it were encircling the pin. The ſame account occurs in a German author (Wroth. beytrog. p. 64.) in July 1779. An ant was placed on the middle of a leaf; the inſect endeavoured to eſcape, but was held faſt by the clammy juice at the points of the hairs; in ſome minutes the ſhort hairs on the diſk of the leaf began to bend, then the long hairs, and laid themſelves upon the ant: after a while the leaf began to bend, and in ſome hours the end of the leaf was ſo bent inwards as to touch the baſe. The ant died in fifteen minutes.

5. Droſera Capenſis, or Cape ſundew: ſcapes radicate; leaves lanceolate, ſcabrous underneath. Root putting out ſpiral threads; flowers violet-coloured. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

6. Droſera Luſitanica, or Portugueſe ſundew: ſcapes radicate; leaves ſubulate, convex underneath, flowers ten-ſtamened. Ray will not allow it to be a ſpecies of this genus. Alſtroemer obſerved that it had conſtantly ten ſtamens; and therefore it would be an *Oxalis*, if the flowers were in an umbel, and the peculiar property of the leaves, together with its one-celled capſule, did not detain it in this genus. Native of Portugal; collected there by Tournefort.

7. Droſera ciſtiflora, or ciſtus-flowered ſundew: ſtem ſimple, leafy; leaves lanceolate. Stems a foot high, pubeſcent. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

8. Droſera Indica, or Indian ſundew: ſtem branched, leafy; leaves linear. Native of the Eaſt-Indies: the Ceyloneſe call it *kandulaeſſa*, from *kandula*, a tear; the leaves being ſurrounded by drops, as in our European ſpecies. The ſtem is half a foot high, and very ſlender.

9. Droſera umbellata, or umbellated ſundew: ſcapes rooted; leaves ovate, flowers umbelled. Stem none; leaves next the ground only on long petioles. Native of China.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are not eaſily preſerved in gardens. They muſt be taken from their native bogs, with a ſufficient quantity of bog-earth and water-moſs, and planted in pots, ſet in pans, conſtantly ſupplied with water. They will ſucceed better if defended from the ſun, and well enveloped in moſs kept conſtantly wet.

DRO'SING, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles eaſt of Ziſterſdorf.

DROSO'MELI, *ſ.* [of δρόσος, dew, and μελι, honey.] Honey-dew, or manna.

DROSS, *ſ.* [ɒnoꝛ, Sax.] The recrement or deſpumation of metals:

Some ſcumm'd the *droſs* that from the metal came,
Some ſtirr'd the molten ore with ladles great,
And every one did ſwink, and every one did ſweat. *Spenſer.*

Ruſt; incruſtation upon metal.—An emperor, hid under a cruſt of *droſs*, after cleanſing, has appeared with all his titles freſh and beautiful. *Addiſon.*—Refuſe; leavings; ſweepings; any thing remaining after the removal of the better part; dregs; feculence; corruption.—Such precepts exceedingly diſpoſe us to piety and religion, by purifying our ſouls from the *droſs* and filth of ſenſual delights. *Tillotſon.*

Fair proud, now tell me why ſhould fair be proud,
Sith all world's glory is but *droſs* unclean;
And in the ſhade of death itſelf ſhall ſhroud,
However now thereof ye little ween? *Spenſer.*

DROS'SEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and New Mark of Brandenburg: twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Cuſtrin, and fourteen eaſt of Francfort on the Oder.

DROS'SENFELD, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and principality of Culmbach, on the Maine: ſix miles ſouth of Culmbach.

DROS'SINESS, *ſ.* Foulneſs; feculence; ruſt.—The furnace of affliction refines us from earthly *droſſineſs*, and ſoftens us for the impreſſion of God's ſtamp. *Boyle.*

DROS'SY, *adj.* Full of ſcorious or recrementitious parts: full of droſs.—So doth the fire the *droſſy* gold refine. *Davies.*—For, by the fire, they emit not only many *droſſy* and ſcorious parts, but whatſoever they had received either from earth or loadſtone. *Brown.*—Worthleſs; foul; feculent:

Your intention hold,
As fire theſe *droſſy* rhymes to purify,
Or as elixir to change them into gold. *Donne.*

DROT, a river of France, which runs into the Garonne at Gironde.

DROT'CHELL, *ſ.* [corrupted perhaps from *dretchel*. *To dretch*, in *Chaucer*, is to *idle*, to *delay*. *Droch*, in Friſick, is *delay*.] An idle wench; a ſluggard. In Scottiſh it is ſtill uſed.

DROT'NINGHOLM, a royal palace of Sweden, ſituated in an iſland about ſeven miles from Stockholm.

DROTZ'DORF, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Neyſza: three miles ſouth of Grotkaw.

DRO'VA-DRUE, or Drou, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coaſt: ſixty miles north-weſt of Cape Palmas.

DROU'AIS (M.) a young painter of eminence in the French ſchool, who, even when a boy, diſcovered uncommon enthuſiaſm for painting. He was placed under David, a moſt diſtinguiſhed painter of the city of Paris. Drouais, in 1783, enliſted among the competitors for the academical prize, but cut his picture to pieces when it only wanted the finiſhing ſtroke, and ſhewed to his maſter ſome remnants of it. "What have you done!" cried David, "you deprive yourſelf of the prize." "I am ſufficiently rewarded," replied the pupil, "by meeting with your approbation: next year I ſhall endeavour to be ſtill more worthy of you." He kept his word, for he obtained the prize of 1784, which was awarded to him by the academy; and had not the regulations of the academy oppoſed it, he would have been immediately admitted of their body: but he was conducted in triumph to his maſter, and thence to his mother. On David's tour to Rome, Drouais accompanied him. Although he poſſeſſed a yearly revenue of 20,000 livres, the uſual pleaſures of youth had no charms for him, whoſe idol was Raphael. He would be at his ſtudies from four in the morning till night. "Painting, or nothing," was the uſual reply which he made to David, who frequently remonſtrated with him on his too unremitted application. "Firſt, fame; then, amuſement;" he would often add. David leaving him at Rome, Drouais ſhortly afterward completed his Marius, a picture which aſtoniſhed all Paris: but while he was engaged in a ſubject, the execution of which promiſed the greateſt honour to him, his conſtitution began to decline. His glowing zeal for his profeſſion had dried up the vital juices of his frame, and he died of a putrid fever at the age of twenty-five.

DROU'E, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Montdoubleau: nine miles north-eaſt of Montdoubleau.

DROVE, *ſ.* A body or number of cattle: generally uſed of oxen or black cattle.—They brought to their ſtations many *droves* of cattle; and within a few days were brought out of the country two thouſand muttons. *Hayward.*—A number of ſheep driven. To an *herd* of oxen we regularly oppoſe, not a *drove*, but a *flock*, of ſheep.—

A *drove* of ſheep, or an herd of oxen may be managed by any noiſe or cry which the drivers ſhall accuſtom them to. *South.*—Any collection of animals:

The ſounds and feas, with all their finny drove,
Now to the moon in wavering morrice move. *Milton.*

A crowd; a tumult:

But if to fame alone thou doſt pretend,
The miſer will his empty palace lend,
Set wide with doors, adorn'd with plated braſs,
Where *droves*, as at a city-gate, may paſs. *Dryden.*

DRO'VEN, *part.* from *drive*. *Not now uſed:*

This is fought indeed;
Had we ſo done at firſt, we had *droven* them home
With clouts about their heads. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRO'VER, *ſ.* One that fats oxen for ſale, and drives them to market:

The *drover*, who his fellow *drover* meets
In narrow paſſages of winding ſtreets. *Dryden.*

A boat driven by the current:

At laſt when droncke with drowſineſs he woke
And ſaw his *drover* drive along the ſtreame,
He was diſmay'd. *Spenſer.*

This word ſeems to have been fabricated only for the occaſion. *Maſon's Supplement.*

DROUGHT, *ſ.* [ꝺꝛuȝoꝺe, Sax.] Dry weather; want of rain.—Upon a ſhower, after a *drought*, earth-worms and land-ſnails innumerable come out of their lurking-places. *Ray.*—Thirſt; want of drink:

O earth! I will befriend thee more with rain
Than youthful April ſhall with all his ſhowers:
In ſummer's *drought* I'll drop upon thee ſtill. *Shakeſpeare.*

Thirſt, want of drink:

One whoſe *drought*
Yet ſcarce allay'd, ſtill eyes the current ſtream
Whoſe liquid murmur heard new thirſt excites. *Milton.*

DROUGH'TINESS, *ſ.* The ſtate of wanting rain.

DROUGH'TY, *adj.* Wanting rain; ſultry.—That a camel, ſo patient of long thirſt, ſhould be bred in ſuch *droughty* and parched countries, where it is of ſuch eminent uſe for travelling over thoſe dry and ſandy deſarts where no water is to be had, muſt be acknowledged an act of Providence and deſign. *Ray.*—Thirſty; dry with thirſt:

If the former years
Exhibit no ſupplies, alas! thou muſt
With taſteleſs water waſh thy *droughty* throat. *Philips.*

DROU'IN (René), a learned French dominican monk, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the controverſy between the Janſeniſts and the Jeſuits. For ſome time he was profeſſor of theology at Chamberry, and afterwards at Verceil, and died in 1742, at Ivrea in Piedmont, in the ſixtieth year of his age. He was the author of a profound and learned work, in conſiderable eſtimation among the catholics, and intitled, A dogmatical and moral Treatiſe on the Sacraments; which was publiſhed at Venice in 1737, in two volumes folio, and has ſince been reprinted at Paris, in 1775, in nine volumes 12mo.

DROUNE, a river of France, which runs into the Dordogne, between Libourne and Fronſac.

DROUX, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Vienne: five miles ſouth-eaſt of Dorat.

To DROWN, *v. a.* [from *drunden*, below, German, *Skinner*; from ꝺꝛuncman, Sax. Mr. *Lye.*] To ſuffocate in water.—They would ſoon *drown* thoſe that refuſed to ſwim down the popular ſtream. *King Charles.*

When of God's image only eight he found
Snatch'd from the wat'ry grave, and ſav'd from nations *drown'd*. *Prior.*

To overwhelm in water.—Gallcys might be *drowned* in the harbour with the great ordnance, before they could be rigged. *Knolles.*—To overflow; to bury in an inundation; to deluge:

Betwixt the prince and parliament we ſtand,
The barriers of the ſtate on either hand:
May neither overflow, for then they *drown* the land.
Dryden.

To immerge; to loſe in any thing:

Moſt men being in ſenſual pleaſures *drown'd*,
It ſeems their ſouls but in their ſenſes are. *Davies.*

To loſe in ſomething that overpowers or covers.—My private voice is *drown'd* amid the ſenate. *Addiſon.*

Some aged man who lives this act to ſee,
And who in former times remember'd me,
May ſay, the ſon, in fortitude and fame,
Outgoes the mark, and *drowns* his father's name. *Dryden.*

To DROWN, *v. n.* To be ſuffocated in the waters:

Methought what pain it was to *drown!*
What dreadful noiſe of waters in my ears! *Shakeſpeare.*

DROWN'ED LANDS, a conſiderable tract of flat country in North America, in the ſtate of New York, amounting to near 50,000 acres, annually overflowed by waters which fall from the neighbouring hills in the winter; this adds much to the fertility of the ſoil, but makes the air unhealthy, and produces inflammatory and intermitting fevers among the inhabitants: ſituated weſtward of Hudſon's River, on the borders of Jerſey.

DROW'NING, *ſ.* The act of ſuffocation by water. For the moſt effectual means of recovering DROWNED PERSONS, ſee the article MEDICINE.

To DROWSE, *v. a.* [*drooſen*, Dut.] To make heavy with ſleep:

There gentle ſleep
Firſt found me, and with ſoft oppreſſion ſeiz'd
My *drowſed* ſenſes uncontroll'd. *Milton.*

To DROWSE, *v. n.* To ſlumber; to grow heavy with ſleep:

All their ſhape
Spangled with eyes, more numerous than thoſe
Of Argus; and more wakeful than to *drowſe*,
Charm'd with Arcadian pipe. *Milton.*

To look heavy; not cheerful:

They rather *drows'd*, and hung their eyelids down,
Slept in his face, and render'd ſuch aſpect
As cloudy men uſe to their adverſaries. *Shakeſpeare.*

DROW'SIHED, *ſ.* Sleepineſs; inclination to ſleep. *Obſolete:*

The royal virgin ſhook off *drowſihed*;
And riſing forth out of her baſer boure,
Look'd for her knight. *Spenſer.*

DROW'SILY, *adv.* Sleepily; heavily; with an inclination to ſleep:

The air ſwarms thick with wand'ring deities,
Which *drowſingly* like humming beetles rife. *Dryden.*

Sluggiſhly; idly; ſlothfully; lazily.—We ſatisfy our underſtanding with the firſt things, and, thereby ſatiated, ſlothfully and *drowſily* ſit down. *Raleigh.*

DROW'SINESS, *ſ.* Sleepineſs; heavineſs with ſleep; diſpoſition to ſleep.—He that from his childhood has made riſing betimes familiar to him, will not waſte the beſt part of his life in *drowſineſs*, and lying a-bed. *Locke.*

In deep of night, when *drowſineſs*
Hath lock'd up mortal ſenſe, then liſten I
To the celeſtial ſyren's harmony. *Milton.*

Idleneſs; indolence; inactivity.—It falleth out well, to ſhake off your *drowſineſs*; for it ſeemed to be the trumpet of a war. *Bacon.*

DROW'SY, *adj.* Sleepy; heavy with ſleep; lethargic.—Men are *drowſy*, and deſirous to ſleep, before the fit of an ague, and do uſe to yawn and ſtretch. *Bacon.*

The

The flowers, call'd out of their beds,
Start and raiſe up their *drowſy* heads. *Cleaveland.*

Heavy; lulling; cauſing ſleep:

While thus ſhe reſted, on her arm reclin'd,
The hoary willows waving with the wind,
And purling ſtreams that through the meadow ſtray'd,
In *drowſy* murmurs lull'd the gentle maid. *Addiſon.*

Stupid; dull.—Thoſe inadvertencies, a body would think, even our author, with all his *drowſy* reaſoning, could never have been capable of. *Atterbury.*

DROW'SY-FLIGHTED, *adj.* Moving drowſily:

Gave reſpite to the *drowſy-flighted* ſteeds
That draw the litter of cloſe-curtain'd ſleep. *Milton.*

DROYE, a river of Pruſſia, which runs into the Pregel, four miles weſt of Inſterburg.

DROYS'ZIG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia: ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Stoſſen.

DRU, *ſ.* in Doomſday-book, a thicket or wood. A man's name.

To DRUB, *v. a.* [*druber*, to kill, Dan.] To threſh; to beat; to bang; to thump; to thwack; to cudgel. *A word of contempt.*—The little thief had been ſoundly *drubbed* with a good honeſt cudgel. *L'Eſtrange.*

He that is valiant, and dares fight,
Though *drubb'd*, can loſe no honour by't. *Hudibras.*

DRUB, *ſ.* A thump; a knock; a blow.—By ſetting an unfortunate mark on their followers, they have expoſed them to innumerable *drubs* and contuſions. *Addiſon.*

DRUCK'EBACH, a river of Germany, in the Upper Bavaria, which runs into the Inn, about three miles below Kufſtein.

To DRUDGE, *v. a.* [ðnæccan, to vex, Sax. *draghen*, to carry, Dut.] To labour in mean offices; to toil without honour or dignity; to work hard; to ſlave.—Advantages obtained by induſtry, directed by philoſophy, can never be expected from *drudging* ignorance. *Glanville.*

Proffering for hire his ſervice at the gate,
To *drudge*, draw water, and to run or wait. *Dryden.*

DRUDGE, *ſ.* One employed in mean labour; a ſlave; one doomed to ſervile occupation.—The hard maſter makes men ſerve him for nought, who rewards his *drudges* and ſlaves with nothing but ſhame, and ſorrow, and miſery. *Tillotſon.*

He is content to be their *drudge*,
And on their errands gladly trudge. *Hudibras.*

DRUD'GER, *ſ.* A mean labourer. An oiſter-fiſher. The drudging-box; the box out of which flour is thrown over meat. See DREDGER.

DRUD'GERY, *ſ.* Mean labour; ignoble toil; diſhonourable work; ſervile occupation.—Paradiſe was a place of bliſs, as well as immortality, without *drudgery*, and without ſorrow. *Locke.*

Even *Drudgery* himſelf,
As at the car he ſweats, or duſty hews
The palace ſtone, looks gay. *Thomſon.*

DRUD'GING-BOX, *ſ.* The box out of which flour is ſprinkled upon roaſt meat, &c.

But if it lies too long, the crackling's pall'd,
Not by the *drudging-box* to be recall'd. *King.*

DRUD'GINGLY, *adv.* Laboriouſly; toilſomely.—He does now all the meaneſt and triflingeſt things himſelf *drudgingly*, without making uſe of any inferior or ſubordinate miniſter. *Ray.*

DRU'ENT, a town of the principality of Piedmont: four miles ſouth-weſt of Turin.

DRUG, *ſ.* [*drogue*, Fr.] An ingredient uſed in phyſic; a medicinal ſimple. See MATERIA MEDICA, and PHARMACY.—In the names of *drugs* and plants, the miſtake in a word may endanger life. *Baker.*

Judicious phyſic's noble art to gain,
He *drugs* and plants explor'd, alas! in vain. *Smith.*

Bright Helen mix'd a mirth-inſpiring bowl,
Temper'd with *drugs* of ſov'reign uſe, t'aſſuage
The boiling boſom of tumultuous rage. *Pope.*

It is uſed ſometimes for poiſon:

Mortal *drugs* I have; but Mantua's law
Is death to any he that utters them. *Shakeſpeare.*

And yet no doubts the poor man's draught controll;
He dreads no poiſon in his homely bowl:
Then fear the deadly *drug*, when gems divine
Enchaſe the cup, and ſparkle in the wine. *Dryden.*

Any thing without worth or value; any thing of which no purchaſer can be found:

Each noble vice ſhall bear a price,
And virtue ſhall a *drug* become:
An empty name, was all her fame,
But now ſhe ſhall be dumb. *Dryden.*

A drudge. *This ſeems the meaning here:*

He from his firſt ſwath proceeded
Thro' ſweet degrees that this brief world affords,
To ſuch as may the paſſive *drugs* of it
Freely command. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DRUG, *v. a.* To ſeaſon with ingredients, commonly medicinal. To tincture with ſomething offenſive:

Oft they aſſay'd,
Hunger and thirſt conſtraining; *drugg'd* as oft
With hatefuleſt diſreliſh, writh'd their jaws
With foot and cinders fill'd. *Milton.*

DRUG-DAMNED, *adj.* Infamous for poiſons.—That *drug-damn'd* Italy hath out-crafted him. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRUG'GET, *ſ.* A ſlight kind of woollen ſtuff:

In *druggets* dreſt, of thirteen pence a-yard,
See Philip's ſon amidſt his Perſian guard. *Swift.*

DRUG'GIST, *ſ.* One who ſells phyſical drugs. A dealer in medicine.

DRUG'STER, *ſ.* One who ſells phyſical ſimples.—Common oil of turpentine I bought at the *drugſter's*. *Boyle.*—They ſet the clergy below their apothecaries, the phyſician of the ſoul below the *drugſters* of the body. *Atterbury.*

DRU'IA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: ſixteen miles north-eaſt of Braſlaw.

DRU'IA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Polotſk, on the Duna: fifty miles north-weſt of Polotſk, and 260 ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Peterſburgh.

DRU'IDÆ, or DROIUM, a very ancient town, the principal place of the Druids in Gaul: now *Dreux*. Here they met annually, in a conſecrated grove, according to Cæſar. The town was alſo called *Durocaſes*.

DRU'IDS, DRUIDES, or DRUIDÆ, *ſ.* Prieſts or miniſters of religion among the ancient Celtæ or Gauls, Britons, and Germans. Some authors derive the word from the Hebrew דרושים *deruſſim* or *druſſim*, which they tranſlate *contemplatores*. Picard, Celtopæd. lib. ii. p. 58, believes the druids to have been thus called from *Druis*, or *Dryius*, their leader, the fourth or fifth king of the Gauls. Pliny, Salmaſius, Vigenere, &c. derive the name from δρυς, oak; on account of their teaching in groves, or under oaks. Menage derives the word from the old Britiſh *drus*, dæmon, magician. Borel, from the old Britiſh *dru*, or *derw*, oak, whence he takes δρυς to be derived; which is the moſt probable ſuppoſition. Becanus, lib. i. takes *druis* to be an old Celtic and German word, formed from *trowis* or *truwis*, "a doctor of the truth and the faith;" which etymology Voſſius adopts and approves.

The accounts we have of the druids, from different writers, are extremely various and contradictory, mingled with much childiſh ſuperſtition and fable. The moſt rational conjectures relative to their eſtabliſhment and deſignation, are to be collected from Julius Cæſar, Pliny, Strabo,

Strabo, and Diodorus Siculus. They were divided into different claſſes, called bardi, or bards, eubages, vates, ſemnothei, ſarronides, and ſamothei. They were held in the greateſt veneration by the people. Their life was auſtere and recluſe from the world, their dreſs peculiar to themſelves, and they generally appeared with a tunic which reached a little below the knee. The chief power was lodged in their hands; they puniſhed as they pleaſed, and could declare war and make peace at their option. Their power was extended not only over private families, but they could depoſe magiſtrates and even kings, if their actions in any manner deviated from the laws of the ſtate. They had the privilege of naming the magiſtrates which annually preſided over the cities, and the kings were created only with their approbation. They were entruſted with the education of youth, and all religious ceremonies, feſtivals, and ſacrifices were under their peculiar care. They taught the doctrine of the metempſychoſis, or tranſmigration, and believed the immortality of the ſoul. They were profeſſionally acquainted with the art of magic; and from their knowledge of aſtrology they drew omens, and fancied they ſaw futurity revealed before their eyes. In their ſacrifices they often immolated human victims to their gods, a barbarous cuſtom which continued long among them, and which the Roman emperors in vain attempted to aboliſh. The power and privileges which they enjoyed were beheld with admiration by their countrymen; and as their office was open to every rank and every ſtation, there were many who daily propoſed themſelves as candidates to enter upon this important function. The rigour, however, and ſeverity of a long noviciate, deterred many, and few were willing to attempt a labour, which enjoined them during fifteen or twenty years to load their memory with the long and tedious maxims of druidical religion.

There has been much abſurd controverſy concerning their origin, and the places of their religious ceremonies, temples, altars, &c. but the moſt rational concluſion is, that they uniformly officiated under the ſolemn ſhades of trees and groves. Mr. Pinkerton, in his Deſcription of Empires, &c. publiſhed in 1802, inveſtigates this part of the druidical hiſtory, and detects ſome of the errors which have crept into it. He ſays, "A radical miſtake in the ſtudy of Engliſh antiquities, has ariſen from the confuſion of the Celtic and Belgic languages and monuments. The druids have deſervedly attracted much curioſity and reſearch; but it would be erroneous to impute to them, as is uſual, the whole of our earlieſt remains. Cæſar ſpeaks of druidiſm as a recent inſtitution; and ſuch being the caſe, it is probable that it originated from the Phœnician factories, eſtabliſhed in wooden fortreſſes on the coaſt, the uſual practice of commercial nations, when trading with ſavage or barbarous races. The tenets correſpond with what little exiſts of Phœnician mythology, and the miſſionaries of that refined people might be not a little zealous in their diffuſion. However this be, the ancient authors, from whom we derive our ſole authentic information concerning the druids, minutely deſcribe their religious rites, but are totally ſilent concerning any monuments of *ſtone* being uſed among them. On the contrary, they mention gloomy groves, and ſpreading oaks, as the only ſcenes of the druidic ceremonies. Yet our antiquaries have inferred that Stonehenge is a druidic monument, though it be ſituated in an extenſive plain, where not a veſtige of wood appears, and where the very ſoil is reputed adverſe to its vegetation.

"It might, perhaps, be a vain effort of inveſtigation, to attempt to diſcriminate the remains of the earlieſt inhabitants from thoſe of the druidic period; indeed, if we ſet aſide the authorities of modern antiquaries, too commonly viſionary and diſcordant, there is no foundation whatever for any ſound or real knowledge on the ſubject. The following have been eſteemed druid monuments by Borlaſe: 1. Single ſtones erect. 2. Rock idols and pierced ſtones. 3. Rocking-ſtones uſed as ordeals. 4. Sepulchres of two, three, or more, ſtones. 5. Circular temples, or rather circles of erect ſtones. 6. Barrows or tumuli. 7. Cromlechs, or heaps of ſtones. 8. Rock-baſons, imagined to have been uſed in druidic expiations. 9. Caves, uſed as places of retreat in time of war. But as moſt of theſe relics may alſo be found in Germany and Scandinavia, it becomes hazardous to pronounce whether they be Gothic or Celtic; and, as we learn from ancient authors that the Germans had no druids, to beſtow the name of druidic upon ſuch monuments, is the mere wantonneſs of conjecture. It is, however, moſt probable, that the earlieſt inhabitants, as is ever the practice in the infancy of ſociety, made uſe of wood, *not ſtone*, in their religious as well as in their domeſtic erections. If we ſurvey the various ſavage regions of the globe, we ſhall ſeldom or never perceive the uſe of ſtone; and it is certainly juſt to infer, that the ſavages of the weſt were not more ſkilful than thoſe of the eaſt; nor thoſe of the old continents and iſlands than thoſe of the new. A learned ignorance upon ſuch topics, is preferable to an aſſumed and imaginary knowledge.

"But as many of theſe monuments are found in Germany, Scandinavia, and Iceland; and as the Icelandic writers in particular, often indicate their origin and uſe, which are unknown in the Celtic records, there is every reaſon to attribute them to a more advanced ſtage of ſociety, when the Belgic colonies introduced agriculture, and a little further progreſs in the rude arts of barbariſm. The nature of this work will not admit a formal inveſtigation of ſuch topics, but a few remarks may be offered on Stonehenge, a ſtupendous monument of barbaric induſtry. Inigo Jones, in attempting to prove that it is Roman, only evinces that no talents can avail when ſcience is wanting, and that antiquities require a ſevere and peculiar train of ſtudy. Doctor Stukeley aſſigns Stonehenge to the druids; while Dr. Charlton, perceiving that ſuch monuments are found in Denmark, aſcribed it to the Danes. If the latter had conſidered that the Belgæ were a Gothic nation, of ſimilar language and inſtitutions, he might with more juſtice have extended its antiquity. From the Icelandic writers, we learn, that ſuch circles were called *domh-ringr*, that is, literally, *doom-ring*, or circle of judgment, being the ſolemn places where courts were held, of all kinds and dignities, from the national council down to the baronial court, or that of a common proprietor of land, for adjuſting diſputes between his *villani* and ſlaves. The magnificence of Stonehenge loudly pronounces that it was the ſupreme court of the nation, equivalent to the *champs de Mars et de Mai* of the Franks, where the king and chiefs aſſembled in the circle, and the men capable of arms in the open plain; nor is it improbable that the chiefs aſcended the tranſverſe ſtones, and declared their reſolves to the ſurrounding crowd, who, in the deſcription of Tacitus, diſſented by loud murmurs, or applauded by claſhing their ſhields. This idea receives confirmation from the circumſtance that the Belgæ peculiarly ſo called, as being the chief and ruling colony of that people, were ſeated in the ſurrounding province; and Sorbiodunum, now Old Sarum, was their capital city.

"Similar circles of ſtone, but far inferior in ſize, are found in many parts of Great Britain and Ireland; and ſeveral undoubtedly as late as the Daniſh inroads and uſurpations, the practice being continued by that people at leaſt till their converſion to Chriſtianity, in the tenth and eleventh centuries. Some of the ſmalleſt, as we learn from the northern antiquaries, were merely places of family ſepulture. At a later period the circles of judgment, which had been polluted with human ſacrifices, and other pagan rites, were abandoned; and the great courts were held on what were called *moot-hills*, or hills of meeting, many of which ſtill exiſt in the Britiſh dominions, and in the Netherlands. They commonly conſiſt of a central eminence, on which ſat the judge and

his aſſiſtants; beneath was an elevated platform for the parties, their friends, and conpurgators, who ſometimes amounted to a hundred or more; and this platform was ſurrounded with a treneh to ſeeure it from the aeeeſs of mere ſpectators. Of the other monuments of this period, a more brief eonſideration will ſuffiee. When a monarch, or diſtinguiſhed general, was buried, a barrow or hilloek was erected to preſerve his name and memory to future ages: the ſize depending on the reputation of the perſon, which attracted a ſmaller or larger number of operators. Sueh monuments are very aneient, and even to this day, aeeording to Dallaway, Morritt, and others, denote the ſepulchres of ſome of the heroes of the Trojan war. In later times a large ſingle ſtone erected was eſteemed a ſuffieient memorial: ſuch ſingle ſtones alſo ſometimes appear as monuments of remarkable battles, or merely as boundaries."

Dr. Bryant has endeavoured to ſhew, that the religion of the druids was the worſhip of the ſun, whieh prevailed univerſally over all nations of the earth in thoſe primitive ages, when the people had apoſtatiſed from the worſhip of the true God, and reſorted to "groves" and "high plaees;" ſo much depreeated in the holy ſcriptures. "High groves, and aneient woods of oak, (ſays this author,) were named *ſaron*; and as oaks were ſtiled *ſaronides*, ſo likewiſe were the aneient druids, by whom the oak was held ſo saered. Henee Diodorus Sieulus, ſpeaking of the prieſts of Gaul, ſtiles them φιλοσοφοι, θεολογοι—περιτ῎λως τιμωμενοι, ους ΣΑΡΩΝΙΔΑΣ ονομαζουσι. This is one proof among many how far the Amonian religion, or worſhip of the ſun, was extended: and how little we know of druidieal worſhip, either in reſpect to its eſſenee or its origin. The praetiee of ſhewing a reverential regard to huge ſtones, and fragments of roeks, whieh were particularly uneouth and horrid, prevailed alſo in many eountries. It was uſual with much labour to place one vaſt ſtone upon another for a religious memorial. The ſtones thus plaeed, they oftentimes poized ſo equably, that they were affected with the leaſt external foree: nay, a breath of wind would ſometimes make them vibrate. We have many inſtanees in our own eountry; and they are to be found in other parts of the world: and wherever they oeeur we may eſteem them of the higheſt antiquity. All ſueh works we generally refer to the Celts, and druids; under the ſanction of whieh names we ſhelter ourſelves, whenever we are ignorant and bewildered. But they were the operations of a very remote age; probably before the time, when the druids, or eeltæ, were firſt known. I queſtion, whether there be in the world a monument, whieh is much prior to the eelebrated Stonehenge. There is reaſon to think, that it was erected by a foreign eolony; one of the firſt, whieh eame into the iſland. Here is extant at this day, one of thoſe roeking ſtones, of whieh I have been ſpeaking.

"The ancients diſtinguiſhed ſtones erected with a religious view by the name of *amber*; by which was ſignified any thing ſolar and divine. The Grecians called them πε῎ρει αμβροσιαι; and there are repreſentations of ſuch upon coins. Stonehenge is compoſed of theſe amberſtones: henee the next town is denominated *Ambros-bury*; not from a Roman Ambroſius, for no ſueh perſon exiſted; but from the *ambroſiæ petræ*, in whoſe vieinity it ſtands. Some of theſe were roeking ſtones; and there was a wonderful monument of this ſort near Penzanee in Cornwall. It ſtill retains the name of *main-amber*, by whieh is ſignified the *ſacred ſtones*. The like myſteries, aeeording to Artemidorus, prevailed in one of the Britiſh iſlands; in whieh, he ſays, that the worſhip of Damater was carried on with the ſame rites as in Samothracia. *Strabo*, l. 4. I make no doubt, but that this hiſtory was true, and that theſe rites prevailed in many parts of Britain, eſpeeially in the iſle of Mona, i. e. Angleſey; where, in aftertimes, was the chief ſeat of the faronides, or druids. Monai ſignifies *inſula ſelenites*. It was ſometimes expreſſed Menai; as is evident from the frith between the iſland and the main land being ſtiled *Aber Menai*, at this day. Aber Men Ai ſignifies *fretum inſulæ dei lunæ*; which iſland undoubtedly had this name from its rites. The ſame worſhip was probably extended to ſome of the Seottiſh iſles, the Hebrides of the aneients, and partieularly into that ealled Columbkil." For a further elueidation, ſee the articles ANGLESEY, vol. i. p. 700; BARD, vol. ii. p. 716; and BARROW, p. 758.

DRUI'DICAL, *adj.* Relating to the druids.—Any *druidical* anecdotes I can meet with I will be ſure to ſend you. *Gray.*

DRU'IDISM, *ſ.* The religion of the druids.—It was reſerved for Dr. Borlaſe to lay open the whole ſyſtem of *druidiſm*. *Gough.*

DRUM, *ſ.* [*tromme*, Dan. *drumme*, Erſe.] An inſtrument of military muſic, conſiſting of vellum ſtrained over a broad hoop on each ſide, and beaten with ſtieks.—*Kettle Drums* are in the ſhape or form of large baſons of eopper or braſs, rounded in the bottom, and eovered with vellum or goat ſkin, whieh is kept faſt by a eircle of iron round the body of the drum. They are uſed among the cavalry, and in eoneerts of muſie, &c. The drum is by Le Clere ſaid to have been an oriental invention, and to have been brought by the Moors into Spain.—Let's mareh without the noiſe of threatening *drums*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Now no more the *drum*
Provokes to arms, or trumpet's clangor ſhrill
Affrights the wives, and chills the virgin's blood. *Philips.*

The tympanum of the ear, or the membrane which perceives the vibration of the air, or of ſound. A fine fieve.—A word once in vogue for a large aſſembly of viſitors—From the dueheſs at her *drum* to the landlady behind her bar. *Fielding.*

And oft though Juno begg'd ſhe'd come
To Mount Olympus, to her *drum*,
Yet ſhe refus'd. *Maſon.*

To DRUM, *v. n.* To beat a drum; to beat a tune on a drum. To beat with a pulſatory motion:

Now, heart,
Set ope thy ſluiees, ſend the vigorous blood
Through every active limb for my relief;
Then take thy reſt within the quiet eell,
For thou ſhalt *drum* no more. *Dryden.*

DRUM, a town of Bohemia, in the eirele of Leitzmeritz: three miles ſouth of Leypa.

DRUM, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Waterford: three miles ſouth-weſt of Dungarvan.

DRUM POINT, a cape of the American States, on the north ſide of the Patuxen, at the mouth oppoſite Cedar Point.

To DRUM'BLE, *v. n.* To drone; to be ſluggiſh. *Hanmer.*—Take up theſe elothes here quickly: where is the eowiſtaff? Look, how you *drumble!* earry them to the landreſs in Datchet Mead. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRUM'BOTE, a town in Ireland, in the county of Monaghan, and provinee of Ulſter.

DRUMLANRI'G, a town of Scotland, in the county of Dumfries, ſituated on the Nith: thirteen miles north of Dumfries.

DRUMMA'JOR, *ſ.* The chief drummer of a regiment:

Sueh company may chanee to ſpoil the ſwearing,
And the *drummajor*'s oaths, of bulk unruly,
May dwindle to a feeble— *Cleaveland.*

DRUM'MAKER, *ſ.* He who deals in drums.—The *drummaker* uſes it, and the cabinetmaker. *Mortimer.*

DRUM'MER, *ſ.* He whoſe offiee is to beat the drum.—*Drummer*, ſtrike up, and let us mareh away. *Shakeſpeare.*

Here rows of *drummers* ſtand in martial file,
And with their vellum-thunder ſhake the pile. *Gay.*

DRUM'MING, *part. adj.* Beating a drum; diſcarding by beat of drum.

DRUM'MOND (William), an elegant Scottiſh poet,

ſon of ſir John Drummond of Hawthornden, born in 1585. He was educated at the high ſchool, and afterwards at the univerſity of Edinburgh. When he had finiſhed his academical ſtudies, he ſpent four years in foreign travel; during part of which he reſided at Bourges, for the ſtudy of the civil law. On his return to Scotland, inſtead of following the profeſſion for which he had qualified himſelf, he choſe to devote his time to mental improvement, and the cultivation of polite literature. The affecting circumſtance of being deprived by a fever of a beautiful young lady, to whom he was going to be married, threw him into a melancholy, which rendered his home inſupportable, and drove him for relief again to foreign travel. He remained abroad eight years, viſiting the principal cities and univerſities of Germany, France, and Italy, and cultivating an acquaintance with men of letters. Upon his return he employed himſelf in compoſing his Hiſtory of the five Jameſes, Kings of Scotland, which work did not appear till after his death. As his principles were highly monarchical and epiſcopalian, he was much afflicted when his country broke out into civil war againſt Charles I. and he wrote many pieces in ſupport of the regal and eccleſiaſtical claims. The fatal event of the conteſt is thought to have ſhortened his days. He died in December, 1649, in his ſixty-fourth year. From the preceding narrative it appears that Drummond poſſeſſed that gentle and unambitious diſpoſition which fits a man for the retired walks of life, and becomes a votary of the muſes. It is almoſt ſolely as a poet that Drummond is now remembered; and in that claſs he may claim as high a rank as almoſt any of his contemporaries, without requiring any allowance for provinciality of language. In fact, his diction is Engliſh of the moſt cultivated kind then in uſe, and muſt have been derived to him from the ſtudy of the beſt models. The ſweetneſs and melody of his verſe in many inſtances are ſcarcely to be exceeded; and though in the thoughts there is a tinge of the conceit of the Italian ſchool, yet much real beauty of imagery and truth of feeling are to be found.

DRUM'STICK, *ſ.* The ſtick with which a drum is beaten.

DRUNK, *adj.* Intoxicated with ſtrong liquor; inebriated.—We generally conclude that man *drunk*, who takes pains to be thought ſober. *Spectator.*—Drenched or ſaturated with moiſture.—I will make mine arrows *drunk* with blood. *Deut.*

DRUNK'ARD, *ſ.* One given to exceſſive uſe of ſtrong liquors; one addicted to habitual ebriety.—God will not take the *drunkard*'s excuſe, that he has ſo long accuſtomed himſelf to intemperate drinking, that now he cannot leave it off. *South.*

DRUNK'EN, *adj.* Intoxicated with liquor; inebriated:

O monſtrous beaſt! how like a ſwine he lies!
Sirs, I will practiſe on this *drunken* man. *Shakeſpeare.*

—*Drunken* men imagine every thing turneth round; they imagine that things come upon them; they ſee not well things afar off; thoſe things that they ſee near hand, they ſee out of their place, and ſometimes they ſee things double. *Bacon.*—Given to habitual ebriety. Saturated with moiſture.—Then let the earth be *drunken* with our blood. *Shakeſpeare.*—Done in a ſtate of inebriation:

When your carters, or your waiting vaſſals,
Have done a *drunken* ſlaughter, and defac'd
The precious image of our dear Redeemer,
You ſtraight are on your knees for pardon. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRUNK'ENLY, *adv.* In a drunken manner:

My blood already, like the pelican,
Haſt thou tapt out, and *drunkenly* carous'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRUNK'ENNESS, *ſ.* Intoxication with ſtrong liquor. Every going off from our natural and common temper, and our uſual ſeverity of behaviour, is a degree of *drunkenneſs*. *Taylor.*—Habitual ebriety.—The Lacedemonians trained up their children to hate *drunkenneſs*, by bringing a drunken man into their company. *Watts.*—Intoxication or inebriation of any kind; diſorder of the faculties.—Paſſion is the *drunkenneſs* of the mind, and therefore in its preſent workings not controulable by reaſon. *Spenſer.*

Drunkenneſs, ſays Mr. Paley, is a ſocial feſtive vice, the example of which, like an influenza, may corrupt others, until a whole neighbourhood be infected with the contagion. The fatal conſequences of this vice cannot be enough abhorred, nor ſufficiently deplored: nor is it eaſy to imagine, after ſo many ſhocking inſtances of revengeful cruelty and infamous conduct which ſtand upon record as reſulting from drunkenneſs, how any human being in theſe enlightened days, can ſuſtain the indignity and folly of ſuch a vice. Drunkenneſs was the higheſt diſgrace to the court of Alexander the Great; who, according to Seneca, died of a debauch. Being carouſing with twenty gueſts at table, in the city of Babylon, he drank to the health of every perſon in company, and then pledged them ſeparately. After this, calling for Hercules's cup, which held an incredible quantity, it was filled, when he poured it all down, drinking to a Macedonian, Proteus by name; and afterwards pledged him again, in the ſame extravagant bumper. He had no ſooner ſwallowed it, than he fell ſenſeleſs upon the floor. "Here, then, (cries Seneca,) this hero, unconquered by all the toils of prodigious marches, expoſed to the dangers of ſieges and combats, to the moſt violent extremes of heat and cold; here he lies ſubdued by his intemperance, and ſtruck to the earth by the fatal cup of Hercules." In this condition he was ſeized with a fever, which, in a few days, terminated in death. No one, ſays Plutarch and Arrian, ſuſpected then that Alexander had been poiſoned; the true poiſon which brought him to this diſgraceful end was wine, which has killed many thouſands beſides Alexander.

The vice of drunkenneſs is ſeverely reprehended in the holy ſcriptures. It is repeatedly forbidden by St. Paul: *Be not drunk with wine, wherein is exceſs. Let us walk honeſtly as in the day, not in rioting and drunkenneſs. Be not deceived: neither fornicators, nor drunkards, nor revilers, nor extortioners, ſhall inherit the kingdom of God.* Eph. v. 18. Rom. xiii. 13. 1 Cor. vi. 9. 10. The ſame apoſtle likewiſe condemns drunkenneſs, as peculiarly inconſiſtent with the Chriſtian profeſſion: *They that be drunken, are drunken in the night; but let us, who are of the day, be ſober.* 1 Theſſ. v. 7, 8. By the law of England, drunkenneſs is conſidered as an aggravation rather than an excuſe for any criminal behaviour. A drunkard, ſays ſir Edward Coke, who is *voluntarius dæmon*, hath no privilege thereby; but what hurt or ill ſoever he doth, his drunkenneſs doth aggravate it: *nam omne crimen ebrietas, et incendit, et detergit.* For the offence of drunkenneſs, a man may be puniſhed in the eccleſiaſtical court, as well as by juſtices of the peace. And, by 4 Jac. I. c. 5. and 21 Jac. I. c. 7. if any perſon ſhall be convicted of drunkenneſs by the view of a juſtice, or oath of one witneſs, &c. he ſhall forfeit five ſhillings for the firſt offence, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of his goods; and for want of a diſtreſs, ſhall ſit in the ſtocks ſix hours: and, for the ſecond offence, he is to be bound with two ſureties in ten pounds each, to be of good behaviour, or to be committed. And he who is guilty of any crime through his own voluntary drunkenneſs, ſhall be puniſhed for it as if he had been ſober. It has been held that drunkenneſs is a ſufficient cauſe to remove a magiſtrate: and the proſecution for this offence by the ſtatute of 4 Jac. I. c. 5. was to be, and ſtill may be, before juſtices of peace in their ſeſſions by way of indictment. Equity will not relieve againſt a bond, &c. given by a man when drunk, unleſs the drunkenneſs is occaſioned through the management or contrivance of him to whom the bond is given. *Co. Lit.* 247. 3 *P. Wil.* 130.

The baneful effects of drunkenneſs on the human frame and conſtitution are conſtantly before our eyes, and yet operate not at all in diminiſhing the evil. Vinous particles abſorbed into the ſyſtem muſt diſtend the blood in the

the veins and ſinuſes, compreſs the medullary ſubſtance, and diſpoſe to ſleep, and to a paralytic affection of the nervous ſyſtem.

"What ſoberneſs conceals, DRUNKENNESS reveals." The Latins ſay; *Quod in corde ſobrii, in lingua ebrii:* What is in the heart of the ſober man, is in the tongue of the drunkard; or, *In vino veritas.* Gr. Εν οινω αληθεια, In wine is truth. Fr. *Le vin fait dire la verité:* When wine is in, the wit is out. A proverb calculated to guard all men againſt placing any confidence in drunkards.

DRUPACE'Æ, *ſ.* in botany, the thirty-eighth order in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method: containing thoſe trees which bear a drupe or plum.

DRUPA'CEOUS, *adj.* [*drupa*, Lat. ripe fruit.] In botany, trees bearing ripe fruit with a fleſhy pericarpium.

DRUPE, *ſ.* [*drupa*, Lat.] In botany, a pulpy pericarp or fruit without valves, containing a nut or ſtone with a kernel: as plum, apricot, peach, almond, olive, cherry, &c.

DRU'RYD, a river of Wales, in the county of Merioneth, which runs into the Iriſh ſea, about two miles north-north-weſt of Harlech.

DRU'SES, or DRUZES, a remarkable nation in Paleſtine, inhabiting between Mount Lebanon and the Mediterranean Sea, and about Keſroan, under the ſovereignty of the grand emir of Deir al Camer; and of whoſe origin and hiſtory a very entertaining detail is given in the writings of M. Volney. The proper and diſtinctive character of the Druſes is a ſort of republican ſpirit, which gives them more energy than any other ſubjects of the Turkiſh government, and an indifference for religion, which forms a ſtriking contraſt with the zeal of the Mahometans and Chriſtians. In other reſpects, their private life, their cuſtoms and prejudices, are the ſame with other orientals. They may marry ſeveral wives, and repudiate them when they chooſe; but, except by the emir and a few men of eminence, that is rarely practiſed. Occupied with their rural labours, they experience neither artificial wants, nor thoſe inordinate paſſions which are produced by the idleneſs of the inhabitants of cities and towns. The veil, worn by their women, is of itſelf a preſervative againſt thoſe deſires which are the occaſion of ſo many evils in ſociety. No man knows the face of any other woman than his wife, his mother, his ſiſter, and ſiſters-in-law. Every man lives in the boſom of his own family, and goes little abroad. The women, thoſe even of the ſhaiks, make the bread, roaſt the coffee, waſh the linen, cook the victuals, and perform all domeſtic offices. The men cultivate their lands and vineyards, and dig canals for watering them. In the evening they ſometimes aſſemble in the court, the area, or houſe of the chief of the village or family. There, ſeated in a circle, with legs croſſed, pipes in their mouths, and poniards at their belts, they diſcourſe of their various labours, the ſcarcity or plenty of their harveſts, peace or war, the conduct of the emir, or the amount of the taxes; they relate paſt tranſactions, diſcuſs preſent intereſts, and form conjectures on the future. Their children, tired with play, come frequently to liſten; and a ſtranger is ſurpriſed to hear them, at ten or twelve years old, recounting, with a ſerious air, why Djezzar declared war againſt the emir Youſef, how many purſes it coſt that prince, what augmentation there will be of the miri, how many muſkets there were in the camp, and who had the beſt mare. This is their only education. They are neither taught to read the pſalms as among the Maronites, nor the koran like the Mahometans. But if their mind be deſtitute of uſeful or agreeable information, at leaſt it is not pre-occupied by falſe and hurtful ideas; and, without doubt, ſuch natural ignorance is worth all our artificial folly. This advantage reſults from it, that their underſtandings being nearly on a level, the inequality of conditions is leſs perceptible. For, in fact, we do not perceive among the Druſes that great diſtance which, in moſt other ſocieties, degrades the inferior, without contributing to the advantage of the great. All, whether ſhaiks or peaſants, treat each other with that rational familiarity which is equally remote from rudeneſs and ſervility. The grand emir himſelf is not a different man from the reſt: he is a good country gentleman, who does not diſdain admitting to his table the meaneſt farmer. In a word, their manners are thoſe of ancient times, and of that ruſtic life which marks the origin of every nation; and prove that the people among whom they are ſtill found are as yet only in the infancy of the ſocial ſtate. According to Volney, they practiſe neither circumciſion, prayers, nor faſting; they obſerve neither feſtivals nor prohibitions; they drink wine; and allow marriage between brothers and ſiſters, but not between parents and children, nor with ſtrange women. They ſubmit with implicit obedience to the government of their emirs, and are ſaid to make the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh empire. They are divided into a profane and a ſacred caſt, and make a diſtinction between clean and unclean food. They ſwear not at all; and only corroborate their affirmations with an "I have ſaid it." Their ſabbath is kept on the Friday. Their iman, or chief prieſt, is elective. They are Unitarians; but they acknowledge ſeven holy law-givers, or prophets, Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moſes, Jeſus, Muhamed, and Sain. They maintain that the ſame celeſtial ſpirit, divine mind, holy ghoſt, or angelic ſoul, was ſucceſſively incarnate in each of theſe human bodies. They believe the ſouls of the four evangeliſts to have in like manner re-appeared among them, in the forms of Iſmael, Aleolamoch, Ali, and Behardin. They permit exterior conformity to the rights of other ſects, in thoſe who travel; but forbid the revelation of their own tenets to the heathens. Their Muhamed flouriſhed in 1017, and was alſo called *Druſi*, whence they take their name; but they value ſtill higher a later prophet, whom they not only call Sain, but Hamſa, and whom they conſider as the real Meſſiah. See C. W. Ludeeke's Deſcription of the Turkiſh Empire, 1780; and Eichhorn's Repertory, part xii.

DRUSIL'LA, [Gr. *i. e.* dewy eyes.] A proper name of women.

DRU'SIUS (John), a proteſtant writer of great learning, born at Oudenarde, in Flanders, in 1555. He was deſigned for the ſtudy of divinity; but his father being outlawed, and deprived of his eſtate, they both retired to England, where the ſon became profeſſor of the oriental languages at Oxford: but, upon the pacification of Ghent, they returned to their own country, where Druſius was ſoon appointed profeſſor of the oriental languages. From thence he removed to Frieſland, where he was admitted Hebrew profeſſor in the univerſity of Franeker; the functions of which he diſcharged with great honour till his death in 1616. His works ſhew him to have been well ſkilled in Hebrew; and the ſtates-general employed him to write notes on the moſt difficult paſſages in the Old Teſtament, with a penſion of 400 florins a-year: but, being frequently diſturbed in this undertaking, it was not publiſhed till after his death. He held a vaſt correſpondence with the learned; for, beſides letters in Hebrew, Greek, and other languages, there were found 2300 Latin letters among his papers. He had a ſon John, who died in England, aged only twenty-one, and was a prodigy for his early acquiſition of learning; he wrote Notes on the Proverbs of Solomon, with many letters and verſes in Hebrew.

DRU'SUS, a valiant Roman, ſon of Tiberius and Vipſania, who made himſelf famous by his intrepidity and courage in the provinces of Illyricum and Pannonia. He was raiſed to the greateſt honours of the ſtate by his father, but a blow which he gave to Sejanus, an audacious libertine, proved his ruin. Sejanus corrupted Livia the wife of Druſus, and in conjunction with her he cauſed him to be poiſoned by an eunuch, A. D. 23.—A ſon of Germanicus and Agrippina, who enjoyed offices of the greateſt truſt under Tiberius. His enemy Sejanus, how-

ever, effected his ruin by his infinuations; Druſus was confined by Tiberius and deprived of all aliment. He was found dead nine days after his confinement, A. D. 33. —A ſon of the emperor Claudius, who died by ſwallowing a pear thrown in the air.—M. Livius, a celebrated Roman who renewed the propoſals of the Agrarian laws, which had proved fatal to the Gracchi. He was murdered as he entered his houſe, though he was attended by a number of clients and Latins, to whom he had propoſed the privileges of Roman citizens, 190 years before Chriſt. *Cic. ad Her.* 4, c. 12.—Nero Claudius, a ſon of Tiberius Nero and Livia, adopted by Auguſtus. He was brother to Tiberius, who was afterwards made emperor. He greatly ſignalized himſelf in his wars in Germany and Gaul againſt the Rhæti and Vindelici, and was honoured with a triumph. He died of a fall from his horſe in the thirtieth year of his age, nine years before Chriſt. He left three children, Germanicus, Livia, and Claudius, by his wife Antonia. The plebeian family of the Druſi produced eight conſuls, two cenſors, and one dictator. The ſurname of Druſus was given to the family of the Livii, as ſome ſuppoſe, becauſe one of them killed a Gauliſh leader of that name. *Virgil, in Æn.* vi. 824, mentions the Druſi among the illuſtrious Romans, and that perhaps more particularly becauſe the wife of Auguſtus was of that family.

DRUS'WER, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: fourteen miles weſt of Braſlaw.

DRUT'ISCHKEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania, on the Rominte: four miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Gumbinen.

DRUTZ, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Dnieper, at Rogatchev, in the government of Mogilev.

DRU'YN, or DREVIN PETRI, or GRAND DREVIN, a town of Africa, on the Ivory coaſt, at the mouth of the river St. Andre. Lat. 5. N. lon. 4. 5. W. Greenwich.

DRUYSKID'WAR, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: eight miles north-eaſt of Braſlaw.

DRU'YE, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of St. Fargeau: ſixteen miles ſouth of Auxerre.

DRU'ZENHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, on the Zorn, taken by the imperial troops in 1704, and retaken by the French two years after: four leagues and a half north-north-eaſt of Straſburg.

DRY, *adj.* [ðpiȝ, Sax.] Arid; not wet; not moiſt.—If the pipe be a little wet on the inſide, it will make a differing ſound from the ſame pipe *dry*. *Bacon.*

When God ſaid,
Be gather'd now, ye waters under heav'n,
Into one place, and let *dry* land appear! *Milton.*

Not rainy.—A *dry* March and a *dry* May portend a wholeſome ſummer, if there be a ſhowering April between. *Bacon.*—Not ſucculent; not juicy.—I will drain him *dry* as hay. *Shakeſpeare.*—Wine that, by reaſon of age, is pretty well dephlegmated, or has loſt much of its wateriſh quality.—Being without tears:

Dry mourning will decays more more deadly bring,
As a north wind burns a too forward ſpring;
Give ſorrow vent, and let the ſluices go. *Dryden.*

Thirſty; a-thirſt:

Void of a bulky charger near their lips,
With which, in often interrupted ſleep,
Their frying blood compels to irrigate
Their *dry* furr'd tongues. *Philips.*

Jejune; barren; plain; unembelliſhed; without pathos; without flowers.—As we ſhould take care that our ſtile in writing be neither *dry* nor empty, we ſhould look again if it be not winding or wanton with far-fetched deſcriptions: either is a vice. *Ben Jonſon.*—Hard; ſevere. [*Drien* anciently to *endure*; *dree*, Scottiſh.]

Hard *dry* baſtings us'd to prove
The readieſt remedies of love;
Next a *dry* diet. *Hudibras.*

"He who drinks when he is not DRY, will be DRY when he has no drink." That is, will conſume his ſubſtance in drunkenneſs and folly, and thereby render himſelf incapable of providing for his common neceſſities.

"DRY bargains are ſeldom ſucceſsful." Spoken when people are about a bargain, and propoſe doing it over the bottle or bowl. The Latins ſay: *Venalia, fine vino, expediri non poſſunt.*

"To DRY ſnow in an oven." The Germans ſay: *Soknee in ofen doerren.* There are many proverbs to the ſame purpoſe, calculated to ſhew the folly of attempting impoſſibilities; as, *To waſh a blackmoor white*; *To draw water in a ſieve*; *to kick againſt the pricks*, &c.

To DRY, *v. a.* To free from moiſture; to rareſy; to exſiccate.—Herbs and flowers, if they be *dried* in the ſhade, or *dried* in the hot ſun a ſmall time, keep beſt. *Bacon.*

The running ſtreams are deep:
See, they have caught the father of the flock,
Who *dries* his fleece upon the neighbouring rock. *Dryden.*

To exhale moiſture:

'Twas grief no more, or grief and rage were one
Within her ſoul: at laſt 'twas rage alone;
Which, burning upwards in ſucceſſion, *dries*
The tears that ſtood conſidering in her eyes. *Dryden.*

To wipe away moiſture.—Then with her veſt the wound ſhe wipes and *dries*. *Denham.*—To ſcorch with thirſt.—Their honourable men are famiſhed, and their multitude *dried* up with thirſt. *Iſaiah*, v. 13.—To drain; to exhauſt:

Raſh Elpenor, in an evil hour,
Dried an immeaſurable bowl, and thought
T' exhale his ſurfeit by irriguous ſleep,
Imprudent: him death's iron ſleep oppreſt. *Philips.*

To DRY *up*. To deprive totally of moiſture; to take all moiſture away.—The water of the ſea, which formerly covered it, was in time exhaled and *dried up* by the ſun. *Woodward.*

To DRY, *v. n.* To grow dry; to loſe moiſture; to be drained of its moiſture.

DRY EXCHANGE, *ſ.* [*cambium ſiccum*, Lat.] A term invented in former times for the diſguiſing and covering of uſury; in which ſomething was pretended to paſs on both ſides, whereas nothing paſſed but on one ſide, in which reſpect it was called *dry*: puniſhed by ſtat. 3 Hen. VII. c. 5.

DRY-FOOT, *ſ.* [a term of the chace.] Hunting by the ſcent of the foot.—A hound that runs counter, and yet draws *dry-foot* well. *Shakeſpeare.*

DRY HARBOUR, a bay on the north coaſt of the iſland of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 30. N. lon. 77. 16. W. Greenwich.

DRY-ROT, *ſ.* a term lately given by ſome modern ſurveyors to what is called "an *infectious* diſeaſe in timber," ſaid to ariſe from an infection in the ground, or from the infectiouſneſs of old houſes. Others contend that this decay of the timber in buildings, ariſes from nothing more than a conſtant *moiſture* or *damp*, either internal or external, which encourages the growth of a ſpecies of fungus, or other cryptogamian plant, of which the ſeeds are capable of taking root, on coming in contact with the wood; and which, by drawing moiſture from the atmoſphere, and conveying it inwardly by means of its inſinuating and ſpreading property, thus produces a decay. Analogous to this, a communication has been made from Robert Batſon, eſq. of Limehouſe, near London, to the Society for the encouragement of Arts, who have long offered premiums for the diſcovery and cure of the dry-rot in timber; and in which view Mr. Batſon ſtates to the ſociety as follows: "The dry-rot having taken place in

in one of my parlours, in ſuch manner as to require the pulling down part of the wainſcot every third year, and perceiving that it aroſe from a *damp* ſtagnated air, and from the moiſture of the earth, I determined, in the month of June, 1783, to build a narrow cloſet next the wall through which the damp came to the parlour, which had the deſired effect; but, though it put a total ſtop to the rot in the parlour, the evil ſoon appeared in the cloſet; fungi of a yellow colour aroſe, to a great degree, in various parts of it. In the autumn of the year 1786, the cloſet was locked up about ten weeks; on opening it, numerous fungi were obſerved about the lower part of it, and a white mould was ſpread by a plant reſembling a vine or ſea-weed, and the whole of the inſide, china, &c. was covered with a fine powder of the colour of brick-duſt. It being then cleaned out, I ſoon perceived that the evil had impregnated the wood ſo far as to run through every ſhelf therein, and the brackets that ſupported them; it had alſo ſeized upon, and deſtroyed, a moveable board for breaking ſugar on. I therefore, in the beginning of the year 1787, determined to ſtrip the whole cloſet of lining and floor, and not leave a particle of the wood behind; and alſo to dig and take away about two feet of the earth in depth, and leave the walls to dry, ſo as to deſtroy the roots or ſeeds of the evil. When, by time, and the admiſſion of air, and good bruſhing, it had become ſufficiently dry and cleanſed, I filled it, of ſufficient height for my joiſts, with anchor-ſmith's aſhes; knowing that no vegetable would grow in them. My joiſts being ſawed off to their proper lengths, and fully prepared, they and the plates were well charred, and laid upon the aſhes; particular directions being given that not any ſcantling or board might be cut or planed in the place, leſt any duſt or ſhavings might drop among the aſhes. My flooring-boards being very dry, I cauſed them to be laid cloſe, to prevent the dirt getting down, which I thought in a courſe of time might bring on vegetation. The framing for lining the cloſet was then fixed up, having all the lower pannels let in to be faſtened with buttons only; that, in caſe any vegetation ſhould ariſe, the pannels might with eaſe be taken out to examine them. This having now been done upwards of ſix years, and no vegetation or damp appearing, the whole of the pannels and floor remaining in the ſame ſtate as when firſt put in, I ſhall have a ſatisfaction in taking a part of the floor up, if the ſociety think proper to appoint a committee to examine the place."

In conſequence of the foregoing letter, a committee was appointed by the ſociety, to examine and report the ſtate of the cloſet, who met on the 15th of May, 1794; the wainſcot being taken down, and the flooring-boards taken up, they were all found entirely free from any appearance of the rot; and from all the circumſtances then obſerved, it was the opinion of the committee, that the method adviſed by Mr. Batſon, when fully and completely put in execution, appeared to have anſwered every intention mentioned in his letter; and this opinion ſeemed the more juſtly founded, as two pieces of wood (yellow fir) which had been driven into the wall as plugs, without being previouſly charred, were affected by the rot.

The ſociety, however, appear not to feel ſatisfied that the above experiment detects the radical cauſe of the evil; and therefore, in their Tranſactions of the year 1802, vol. xx. p. 32, they award "To the perſon who ſhall diſcover to the ſociety the cauſe of the dry-rot in timber, and diſcloſe a certain method of prevention ſuperior to any hitherto known, the gold medal, or thirty guineas."

To DRY-RUB, *v. a.* To rub clean without wetting:

At twelve years old the ſprightly youth is able
To turn a pancake, or *dry-rub* a table. *Anon. in Dodſley.*

DRY'ADES, nymphs that preſided over the woods. Oblations of milk, oil, and honey, were offered to them; and ſometimes the votaries ſacrificed a goat. *Virgil.*— They are uſually painted of a brown or tawny complexion, hair thick like moſs, and their garments of a dark green.

DRYAN'DRA, *ſ.* [ſo named by Thunberg in honour of his friend *Jonas Dryander*, M. A. a Swede, and moſt excellent botaniſt; now librarian to ſir Joſeph Banks, and the Royal and Linnæan Societies.] In botany, a genus of the claſs dioecia, order monodelphia, natural order tricoccæ, (euphorbiæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: perianthium two-leaved: diviſions ovate, acute, ſhorter than the corolla. Corolla five-petalled; petals obovate-oblong, from reflex patulous, unguicular. Stamina: filaments nine, united below into one body, unequal, ſhorter by half than the corolla; antheræ minute. II. Female. Pericarpium: tricoccous or tetracoccous, three-grooved or four-grooved, wrinkled, fleſhy. Seeds: ſolitary, oblong. What Thunberg calls the corolla, Juſſieu names the calyx.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx two-leaved; corolla five-petalled; (or, calyx five-leaved, reſembling a corolla, ſurrounded by a two or three-leaved calycle;) ſtamina nine; fruit three or four-grained.

Dryandra cordata, or wrinkled dryandra. Stem arboreous, a fathom or more in height. Branches round, with a wrinkled back, dotted, ſmooth. Leaves at the ends of the twigs, approximate, alternate, petioled, cordate, acute, entire, five-nerved, the nerves branching, ſmooth, paler underneath, ſpreading, a hand in length and breadth. Flowers yellow. From the ſeeds they expreſs an oil for lamps, and the table. The elæococca of Commerſon, commonly called *arbre d'huile*, or oil-tree, if not the ſame with this, is of this genus. By Thunberg obſerved in Japan, where it is called *abraſin.*

DRY'AS, *ſ.* [ſo called by Linnæus, from the *Dryades*, or nymphs of the oaks; the leaves bearing ſome reſemblance to thoſe of the oak.] In botany, a genus of the claſs icoſandria, order polygynia, natural order of ſenticoſæ, (roſaceæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, eight-parted; diviſions ſpreading, linear, obtuſe, equal, a little ſhorter than the corolla. Corolla: petals eight, oblong, emarginate, ſpreading, inſerted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments numerous, capillary, ſhort, inſerted into the calyx; antheræ ſmall. Piſtillum: germs many, crowded, ſmall; ſtyles capillary, inſerted into the ſide of the germ; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: none. Seeds: numerous, roundiſh, compreſſed, furniſhed with extremely long woolly ſtyles. —*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five to ten-cleft; petals five to eight; ſeeds tailed, hairy.

Species. 1. Dryas anemonoides, or five-petalled dryas: five-petalled; leaves pinnate, with all the pinnas diſtinct. This is a very ſmall plant, native of Siberia; the radical leaves are commonly ternate, compound, conſiſting of a middle leaflet longer than the reſt, and two lateral ones: ſometimes the leaves have more than three diviſions; they are of a bright green, and very ſmooth; the foot-ſtalk is round; the ſtalk is terminated by a ſingle flower, which is large in proportion; the calyx is outwardly green, and inwardly lanuginous, and of a ſilvery appearance; the corolla is pale yellow, the petals ſtriated; the ſtamens are extremely numerous, and ſhort; the germs converge into a globe, and are coated with a white down.

2. Dryas octopetala, or eight-petalled dryas: eight-petalled; leaves ſimple. This delicate ever-green plant, with its ſnow-white bloſſoms, is a great ornament to alpine heights. The ſtalk and branches are woody and perennial, lying flat upon the ground, and ſpreading wide about the root in tufts. Leaves ever-green, ovate, turned back at the edge, ending very obtuſely, and ſometimes emarginate, deeply and bluntly ſerrate, or more properly crenate, wrinkled on the upper ſide, and hoary underneath, having woolly foot-ſtalks, and a large halbert-ſhaped ſtipule to each, embracing the ſtem. The ſtructure of the ſtipules renders this genus the connecting link between roſa and the reſt of the ſenticoſæ. Villars ſays, it has the leaves of germander, the petals and fruit of anemone, the calyx and ſtamens of geum, with which genus it might be united. It forms large tufts, like arbutus alpina, but the leaves are crenate and ſmaller, and the

flowers are very different. Native of high mountains in Lapland, Denmark, Swifferland, where Ray obſerved it on Thuiri, one of the higheſt points of mount Jura; the Griſons, Savoy, Auſtria, Carniola, Stiria, Carinthia, Germany, France, Italy, Siberia, Ireland, Scotland, and the north of England; as between Gort and Galloway, where it was found by Mr. Heaton, and near Sligo in Ireland; Breadalbane, iſle of Skye; Roſsſhire; Sutherland, and Argyleſhire, in Scotland; Arncliff Clowder in Littendale, near Kilnſay; and near Settle, in Yorkſhire. It flowers in June. No cattle eat it.

Dryas pentapetala, mentioned by Sibbald as growing in the den of Bethaick, four miles from Perth, is not now to be found there; poſſibly the potentilla argentea was miſtaken for it. See GEUM POTENTILLOIDES.

DRY'BURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Paderburn: ſeven miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Paderburn.

DRY'DEN (John), one of the moſt eminent of the Britiſh poets, born, as is ſuppoſed, in 1631, in the pariſh of Aldwinkle-All-Saints, in Northamptonſhire. His father, Eraſmus Driden, (ſo the name was then ſpelt,) was the third ſon of ſir Eraſmus Driden, bart. of Canons-Aſhby in the ſame county. He poſſeſſed a ſmall eſtate, acted as a juſtice of peace during the uſurpation, and appears to have been a preſbyterian. John, after ſome early education in the country, was ſent to Weſtminſter ſchool, of which Buſby was maſter, and was thence elected to a ſcholarſhip in Trinity-college, Cambridge, in 1650. Neither at ſchool nor at the univerſity does it appear that he diſtinguiſhed himſelf for brilliancy of parts. In the latter he took his degrees of bachelor and maſter of arts; but though he had written two ſhort copies of verſes about the time of his admiſſion, his name is not found among the academical poets of that period. His father died in 1654, and John, as his eldeſt ſon, ſucceeded to the eſtate. He removed to the metropolis, and made his entrance into public life under the auſpices of his kinſman, ſir Gilbert Pickering, a man of influence at that time, one of Cromwell's council and houſe of lords, and ſtaunch in his religious and political principles to the party then predominant. Dryden is ſaid to have been his clerk or ſecretary; and there is no reaſon to ſuppoſe that he did not voluntarily concur in the opinions and practices adopted by his family. In the hiſtory of the changes of the human mind, few facts will appear more extraordinary than that Milton ſhould have been deſcended from a catholic and loyaliſt family, and Dryden from a ſectarian and republican one. On the death of Oliver Cromwell, Dryden joined the band of poets who celebrated his memory; and wrote on the occaſion, Heroic Stanzas, which are among the earlieſt of his printed verſes, and are ſtrongly marked with the loftineſs of expreſſion and variety of imagery which characteriſed his matureſt efforts. After the reſtoration, Dryden loſt no time in endeavouring to obliterate former politics. He greeted the king's return with a poem intitled *Aſtræa Redux*; and followed it up by A Panegyric on the Coronation, both written in ſtrains of fervent loyalty. In 1662 he paid another homage, in ſome lines addreſſed to lord chancellor Clarendon. It was probably on account of ſome elegant verſes in praiſe of modern improvements in philoſophy, which he prefixed to Dr. Charleton's treatiſe on Stonehenge, that he was elected a member of the then newly-formed royal ſociety. About this time he appears as a writer for the ſtage; and his comedy of The Wild Gallant was acted in February, 1663. It was unfavourably received by the public, notwithſtanding the patronage of Barbara Villiers, afterwards ducheſs of Cleaveland, who, however, procured for it a kind reception at court. He then raiſed his dramatic ſtrain, and wrote the tragi-comedy of The Rival Ladies, and the tragedy of The Indian Emperor; and aſſiſted ſir Robert Howard in his Indian Queen. By theſe attempts, if he did not prove himſelf a firſt-rate favourite of the theatric muſe, he diſplayed a facility of harmonious verſification, and a ſplendour of poetic diction. The ſuſpenſion of dramatic entertainments, in conſequence of the plague and the fire of London, gave him leiſure, in a rural retirement, to compoſe an Eſſay on Dramatic Poeſy, which proved him to be an elegant writer in proſe, and an ingenious critic. His marriage with lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the earl of Berkſhire, is ſuppoſed to have taken place during this interval, in 1665. Some circumſtances attended this connection which rendered it leſs propitious to his advancement in life than might have been expected from ſo noble an alliance.

In 1667, Dryden publiſhed one of his moſt ſingular poems, the *Annus Mirabilis*, the ſubjects of which were the naval war with the Dutch, and the fire of London. It is written in quatrains, or four-line ſtanzas, or what is now called the elegiac meaſure; but which at that time, from the example of Davenant's Gondibert, and other pieces, ſeems to have been rather appropriated to heroic topics. This piece could not fail of adding to the author's poetical fame, for it abounds in images of high and genuine poetry, though intermixed with many extravagances. At this period of his life he became profeſſionally a writer for the ſtage; for it appears that he entered into a contract with the patentees of the king's theatre to furniſh them with three plays in a-year, upon the condition of being allowed the profit of one ſhare and a quarter, out of twelve ſhares and three-quarters, into which the theatrical ſtock was then divided. This is aſſerted to have brought him in between 300l. and 400l. per ann. and was probably the principal part of his income. Dryden ſeems never to have had, or to have required, any other inſpirer of his poetical exertions, than either the call of party, or the regular demand of pecuniary employment; and he well deſerves to be noted as an illuſtrious example of one who, poſſeſſing the character of true genius, was yet able to reduce the labour of his mind to a mechanical exactneſs, and could bring all his intellectual powers into action whenever he found it neceſſary. This neceſſity, indeed, is ſuppoſed frequently to have rendered his productions leſs perfect than they might have been with the expenditure of more time and attention; and it is certain, that of the plays written upon the contract above-mentioned, a ſmall proportion have kept their place on the ſtage or in the cloſet. He did not, however, keep to his engagement as to number; and it is computed, that during the greateſt vigour of his exertions he produced fewer than two dramatic pieces within the year. On the death of ſir W. Davenant in 1668, Dryden obtained the poſt of poet-laureat. He alſo obtained the ſinecure place of hiſtoriographer; and the joint ſalaries amounted to 200l. which, however, in that needy reign do not ſeem to have been paid with exactneſs. The tragedies written by Dryden in his earlier periods were compoſed in rhyme, as were alſo thoſe of ſeveral contemporary poets. This circumſtance probably contributed to that poetical rant by which they were too much characteriſed, and which tended to vitiate the dramatic taſte both of writers and auditors. For the purpoſe of correcting this fault, Villiers duke of Buckingham, in conjunction with other wits, wrote in 1671 the celebrated burleſque drama, entitled The Rehearſal, of which Dryden, under the name of Bayes, was made the hero. In order to point the ridicule, Dryden's dreſs, phraſeology, and manner of recitation, were exactly mimicked by the actor. But although the town enjoyed the laugh raiſed againſt him, it does not appear that his ſolid reputation as a poet was injured by the attack. He had the candour to acknowledge that ſeveral of the ſtrokes in it were juſt, and he wiſely refrained from making any direct reply to it. "I anſwered not the Rehearſal, (ſays he,) becauſe I knew the author ſat to himſelf when he drew the picture, and was the very Bayes of his own farce: becauſe alſo I knew that my betters were more concerned than I was in that ſatire." In fact, more of the parodied

paſſages

JOHN DRYDEN.

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paſſages and the inſtances of abſurdity are drawn from other writers than from Dryden. In 1679, in conjunction with lord Mulgrave, he publiſhed an Eſſay upon Satire, in verſe. Some very ſevere lines in this piece againſt lord Rocheſter, provoked from that peer the retaliation of a cudgelling inflicted upon Dryden by means of hired ruffians, as he was returning home one evening from the coffee-houſe. The ducheſs of Portſmouth is ſaid to have joined in this outrage, in revenge of ſome ſatire beſtowed in the piece upon "the royal miſtreſſes."

In 1681, at the king's expreſs deſire, as is aſſerted, he wrote his famous political poem, Abſalom and Achitophel, an adaptation of the incidents in the life of king David to thoſe of the reign of Charles II. relative to the duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury. Its poetry and ſeverity cauſed it to be read with great eagerneſs; and as it raiſed the author to high favour with the court party, ſo it involved him in irreconcileable enmity with its opponents. This was ſtill embittered by his Medal, a Satire on Sedition, written the ſame year on occaſion of a medal ſtruck by the whig party, when a grand jury returned *ignoramus* to an indictment preferred againſt lord Shafteſbury for high treaſon. The rancour of this piece is not eaſily to be paralleled among party poems. It is ſaid to have been rewarded by the king with the gift of a hundred broad pieces. A circumſtance relative to the Abſalom and Achitophel, has occaſioned ſome fruitleſs ſpeculation. In the ſecond edition he added ſome lines to the portrait of Shafteſbury, liberally praiſing him for his judicial conduct in his capacity of chancellor. It has been enquired what could have been the motive for a compliment which, according to the king's opinion, injured the poem; and a ſuppoſed preſentation of a ſcholarſhip in the Charter-houſe to one of Dryden's ſons, by Shafteſbury, has been ſuggeſted. But Mr. Malone ſeems to have proved that this preſentation came from the king himſelf; and whether the compliment was a voluntary tribute to candour, or a return for ſome favour conferred, is ſtill undecided.

As he had ſhewn his eminent powers in political ſatire, ſo in 1682 he gave an admirable ſpecimen of literary ſatire in his Mac-Flecknoe, a ſhort piece ridiculing his rival Shadwell. One of his moſt ſerious poems, the *Religio Laici*, appeared in the ſame year. Its purpoſe is to give a compendious view of the arguments for revealed religion, and to aſcertain in what the authority of revelation eſſentially conſiſts. Many of the ſentiments are candid and judicious; and though he dwells ſtrongly upon the difficulty of a right interpretation of the ſcriptures, and therefore admits the weight of early opinion and tradition, yet he was at this time far from aſſenting to the excluſive claims of the Romiſh church, as will appear from the following lines reſpecting the Papiſts:

When want of learning kept the laymen low,
And none but prieſts were authoris'd to know;
When what ſmall knowledge was, in them did dwell,
And he a *god* who could but write and ſpell;
Then mother church did mightily prevail:
She parcell'd out the Bible by retail;
But ſtill expounded what ſhe ſold or gave,
To keep it in her power to damn or ſave:
Scripture was ſcarce, and to the market went;
Poor laymen took ſalvation on content,
As needy men take money good or bad:
God's word they had not, but the *prieſt's* they had.
In thoſe dark times they learn'd their knack ſo well,
That by long uſe they grew infallible.

Soon after this he ceaſed to write for the ſtage. Probably his dramatic vein was exhauſted; for the patentees had already made complaints of his dilatorineſs, and demurs had ariſen about the payment of his ſalary. His circumſtances were diſtreſſed; and it is to this period that Mr. Malone refers a letter written by him to Hyde earl of Rocheſter, in which, with modeſt dignity, he pleads merit enough not to deſerve to ſtarve, and requeſts ſome ſmall employment in the cuſtoms or exciſe, or, at leaſt, the payment of half a year's penſion for his preſent neceſſities. "I have (he ſays) three ſons, growing to man's eſtate. I breed them all up to learning, beyond my fortune; but they are too hopeful to be neglected, though I want——. I am going to write ſomewhat by his majeſty's command; and cannot ſtir into the country for my health and ſtudies, till I ſecure my family from want." Such was the condition of this champion for loyalty under Charles II. though he was by no means an extravagant, and was certainly an induſtrious, man! He never obtained any of the requeſted places, and was doomed to find the bookſellers his beſt patrons. The work to which he alludes is ſuppoſed to have been a tranſlation of Maimbourg's Hiſtory of the League, which was probably thought by the king to afford an inſtructive parallel to the fanatical opponents of his government. Some tranſlations from the claſſics, and the publication of two volumes of Miſcellany Poems, were his other literary occupations, till the king's death, in February, 1685. On that occaſion he compoſed *Threnodia Auguſtalis*, a funeral Pindaric Poem, which is not one of his happieſt effuſions.

A ſhort time after the acceſſion of James II. Dryden conformed to the religion of the new ſovereign. This ſtep has been the ſource of much obloquy againſt him on the one ſide, while, on the other, he has not wanted advocates in favour of the ſincerity of his converſion. But if the period of its taking place be contraſted with his opinion of popery, declared in the lines above quoted, and the bitter ſarcaſms beſtowed on its clergy in his Spaniſh Friar, it will ſurely require an uncommon ſtretch of candour to ſuppoſe that its immediate motive was any thing more than intereſt. It may, indeed, be alleged, that in changing his profeſſion he encountered little difficulty from his convictions. He had habitually treated religion with very little reverence in his works; and where he conſiders it ſeriouſly in his *Religio Laici*, he ſeems wavering between different ſyſtems, and not excluſively attached to any. It is therefore very credible that he might regard the Roman-catholic as a true church, and at leaſt of as good authority as any other; nor, in reality, is it ever to be wondered at, that one who is convinced of the duty of making reaſon ſubmit to faith, ſhould adopt that mode of faith which is ſupported by the moſt ſpecious authorities. It is ſuppoſed that Dryden's lady had long been a catholic, as her brother the earl of Berkſhire was. The adherence of the poet to his new religion till the end of his life, notwithſtanding the inconveniences he afterwards underwent from it, can ſcarcely be adduced as a proof of his conviction, without ſuppoſing him ſo deſtitute of ſhame, that he would have been ready to recant a ſecond time. An additional penſion of 100l. per annum was the reward he obtained for his compliance; and to this ſeems to have been annexed an expectation that he ſhould employ his pen in the ſervice of popery. He wrote a defence of a paper left at her deceaſe by Anne Hyde ducheſs of York, ſtating the motives of her converſion; and he appears, at the king's recommendation, to have undertaken a tranſlation of the Hiſtory of Revolutions in matter of Religion, by Varillas, though the diſcredit of that author prevented it from being given to the public. But the capital taſk which he executed in the ſame intention was his elaborate controverſial poem of The Hind and Panther, the longeſt ſingle piece he ever compoſed. This work, written upon a very unpromiſing ſubject, and on a plan of ſignal abſurdity, affords a ſtriking proof of the power of Dryden's verſe. It was publiſhed in 1687, was read with avidity, criticiſed, ridiculed, and bore every mark of occupying the public attention. At preſent, the admirers of Dryden's muſe will probably concur in regretting that he ſhould have employed the vigour of his mature faculties on ſuch a deſign. The birth of a prince in June, 1688, called forth a congratulatory poem, entitled *Britannia Redivivæ*,

diviva, from the courtly bard, who ventured on the occaſion to uſe the poet's privilege of prophecy, and foretold a commencing era of proſperity to the nation and the church from this auſpicious event. It is ſcarcely poſſible for the *devotion* of loyalty to be carried farther than is done in Dryden's celebration of The Venerable Infant; indeed, the poetry (as is not unfrequent in his compoſitions) ſometimes trenches upon the piety, and his thoughts borrow more from heatheniſm than from Chriſtianity. But, equally to the confuſion of the poet and his patrons, the revolution took place within a few months, and the hopes of the party were blaſted for ever. Poor Dryden was an early and ſevere ſufferer from the change. His poſts and penſions were taken away, and to increaſe the mortification, the poetical laurel was conferred upon his inſignificant rival Shadwell. The earl of Dorſet, it is ſaid, would gladly have retained Dryden in his ſtation, but this was impoſſible. It would, however, have been worthy of a government eſtabliſhed upon the principles of freedom, to have ſhewn ſome generous regard to the literary merit of ſo diſtinguiſhed a perſon, notwithſtanding his political demerits.

Dryden now, in advanced life, was to depend upon his own exertions for a ſecurity from abſolute indigence: for his other reſources appear to have been inadequate to a decent ſupport. His faculties were equal to the exigence; and it will ſurpriſe ſome theoriſts to be told, that the ten concluding years of his life, in which he actually wrote for bread, and compoſed at a certain rate per line, were thoſe of the compoſition of ſome of the pieces which have moſt contributed to immortalize his name. Probably, as one of the moſt lucrative ſpecies of writing, he reſumed that for the ſtage. In 1690, he brought out Don Sebaſtian, one of the beſt of his tragedies, which was received with great applauſe. Cleomenes, written the next year, underwent ſome political obſtacles in its way to the ſtage, but was at length acted. A tragi-comedy concluded his theatric labours in 1693, and its unfavourable reception muſt have convinced him that he had lingered on the ſtage too long. In 1692, the production of an elegy on Eleonora counteſs of Abingdon, a lady whom he never ſaw, written at the requeſt of a nobleman with whom he had no perſonal acquaintance, atteſted that facility of mercenary praiſe, which leſs honoured his genius than it degraded his moral character. He ſhewed in the ſame year that he had been better employed, by the publication of a tranſlation of the ſatires of Juvenal and Perſius, of which three ſatires of the firſt, and the whole of the laſt, were executed by himſelf. He prefixed to the volume a large diſcourſe on ſatire, dedicated to lord Dorſet. We ſhall paſs over ſome other works, and proceed to that great undertaking, the entire tranſlation of Virgil. It ſeems to have been intended by his admirers that this ſhould be a work of emolument to him, as well as of reputation, and accordingly a ſubſcription, at that time an unuſual thing, was entered into for its encouragement. He began it in 1694, and it was ſent to the preſs in 1697, a period which muſt be reckoned ſhort for ſuch a labour. He himſelf has aſſerted, that "it would require ſeven years to tranſlate Virgil exactly;" and it cannot be denied that his work in various reſpects bears the marks of haſte. It nevertheleſs maintains an exalted rank amid the performances of this kind with which the Engliſh language is enriched, and has greatly contributed towards the author's poetical fame. The emolument he derived from it is ſuppoſed to have been twelve or thirteen hundred pounds. It is aſſerted that his ſon, and Tonſon the bookſeller, urged him to dedicate his tranſlation to king William, but he rejected the propoſal. Soon after the appearance of his Virgil, he was ſolicited by the ſtewards of the muſical celebration of St. Cecilia's Day, to write a ſecond ode for the purpoſe: he had written the firſt in 1687, which did immortal honour to his name. The next requeſt produced his celebrated Alexander's Feaſt, which ſtands, perhaps, at the head of all the lyric poems in the Engliſh language. Whether it was, as ſome aſſert, "ſtruck off at a heat," or whether it occupied a fortnight in its completion, it is certainly a wonderful proof of the fire of genius preſerved in full vigour to a late period of life. It appears that about this time he meditated a tranſlation of Homer, of which he actually wrote the firſt Iliad; but this deſign gave way to that of modernizing ſome of Chaucer's tales, which he undertook in 1698. He ſoon proceeded ſo far in the taſk, as to venture upon a contract with his bookſeller, in 1699, to furniſh him with 10,000 lines for the ſum of 300l. a ſpecies of bargain which may be deemed as *unpoetical* as can well be conceived. Yet ſo rich and ductile was the verſifying faculty of Dryden, that it produced the collection called his Fables, which contains ſome of the moſt entertaining and perhaps the moſt truly poetical pieces he ever compoſed. Theſe are not taken from Chaucer alone, but comprife ſtories from Boccace, Ovid, &c. This was the laſt of his great works, for death cut ſhort the time for writing more; otherwiſe, there was ſtill enough of the poet left in him to have made important additions to the liſt. His conſtitution ſeems gradually to have declined; but the immediate cauſe of his diſſolution was an inflammation in one of his toes, terminating in a mortification, which, ſpreading rapidly, put an end to his life on the 1ſt of May, 1700. Of a romantic account of his funeral, publiſhed by Mrs. Thomas, the following facts appear to have been the only foundation: The corpſe was conveying in a private manner for interment, at the expence of Mr. Montague, afterwards earl of Halifax; when lords Dorſet and Jeffries, with ſome others, thinking the funeral unworthy of ſo great a poet, prevailed upon the attendants to ſuffer the body to be taken for embalment to an undertaker's; and in the mean time applied to the college of phyſicians for leave to ſuffer it to be depoſited in their hall till it ſhould be conveyed to Weſtminſter-abbey. It accordingly lay there in ſtate for ten days; after which period, a Latin oration having been pronounced over the remains by Dr. Garth, and the ode of Horace, beginning *Exegi monumentum ære perennius*, having been ſung, a proceſſion, very honourably attended, ſet out for the abbey, in which, with due ſolemnity, the body of Dryden was interred next to that of Chaucer. The place was undiſtinguiſhed by a monument, till a plain one, with his buſt, was erected at the expence of Sheffield duke of Buckingham. The inſcription, with good taſte, contains the name of the poet, without addition or eulogy.

With reſpect to private character, Dryden ſeems to have been of a cold and reſerved temper; and, as he himſelf denominated it, of a ſaturnine caſt. Yet, from Congreve's teſtimony, he was friendly and humane, eaſy of acceſs, and prompt to reconciliation after a quarrel. He was backward in perſonal advances to the great, and rather heavy in converſation. Though his pen was extremely licentious, his manners appear to have been decently regular. He was domeſtic in his habits, and affectionate towards his family. With a due ſenſe of his own ſuperior merit, he was ſenſible of his defects, and patient under criticiſm. That he was capable of the utmoſt bitterneſs of party rancour, and unbounded in the diſtribution of venal praiſe, his writings too plainly teſtify. His real ſentiments of men and things appear to have been free, and it would be eaſy to deduce from his works ſtrong expreſſions of ſcorn and indignation relative to every ſpecies of tyranny exerciſed over mankind; but theſe are ſingularly contraſted by the doctrines of paſſive ſubmiſſion, civil and religious, which it was his taſk to ſupport. Few writers have ſo much delighted in approaching the verge of profaneneſs; whence it may be fairly inferred, that, though religion was an intereſting topic of diſcuſſion to him, he had very little of its ſpirit in his heart. Yet he was not proof againſt ſuperſtition: he was a believer in judicial aſtrology, and formed predictions from nativities caſt by himſelf. The character

of

of Dryden has been admirably drawn by Dr. Johnſon in his Lives of the Poets: it will here ſuffice to ſketch an outline. Dryden was a man of various and extenſive, rather than of deep and accurate, learning. He had a propenſity to diſplay all that he poſſeſſed, whence he abounds in alluſions derived from every branch of ſcience and ſcholaſtic knowledge then cultivated. But his copiouſneſs of ideas ſurpaſſed his judgment and ſenſe of propriety in the uſe of them; and his erudition is often ridiculous from the mouth which is made to utter it. In tranſlation he is frequently unfaithful to the ſenſe of his author; and, what is, perhaps, worſe, he ſometimes deviates widely from his character, and what may be called his *coſtume*. As a dramatic writer, he has wit, force, and majeſty; but not much of nature or propriety. He long ſupported the practice of writing tragedies in rhyme, and forming them into what he called *Heroic Plays*, the model of which was undoubtedly falſe and extravagant. Of comedy, he ſeems to have had no juſt idea, as may be judged by his depreciating every comic writer in compariſon of Jonſon. It has already been mentioned that few of his plays ſurvive; perhaps the Spaniſh Friar, Don Sebaſtian, and All for Love, are the only ones. The laſt of theſe is regarded as his maſter-piece, and he has ſaid that it was the only one which he wrote for himſelf; but it has leſs true character than Shakeſpeare's upon the ſame ſtory. As a general poet, he ſtands, perhaps, unrivalled in point of verſification; for though more correctneſs in the formation of rhyme couplet has ſince been attained, yet it is generally acknowledged that for fulneſs and variety of harmony, for the free flow and reſiſtleſs current of numbers, he has never had an equal. The ſenſe often overflows to a third line with fine effect; and triplets and alexandrines contribute to vary the meaſure, though theſe, perhaps, occur with too much frequency. The poetical character of the diction is not leſs ſtriking than the harmony of the verſe; and more happineſs of expreſſion are found in Dryden than perhaps in any other poet. With great ſplendour, there is alſo a ſpirit and familiarity of language, ſometimes ſinking to coarſeneſs, but often conducing to wonderful ſtrength. There is ſcarcely any ſpecies of poetry in which he has not excelled. Perhaps he was leaſt fitted for the pathetic. He delights in the grand and ſwelling, which ſometimes deviates into bombaſt, or loſes itſelf in rhapſody.

His ſtyle in proſe deſerves great praiſe. It is eaſy, elegant, and animated, full of variety and energy, and ſo far idiomatic as to afford perhaps the beſt ſpecimen of genuine Engliſh. He chiefly exerciſed it in the critical eſſays prefixed to many of his works. Theſe are performances of extraordinary vigour and comprehenſion of mind, abounding in juſt thoughts beautifully elucidated, but written haſtily, and without the accuracy which would now be required in ſimilar compoſitions. They are rather effuſions than regular treatiſes, but bear as ſtrong a ſtamp of his own peculiar genius, as the moſt elaborate of his poems. They greatly contributed to the progreſs of critical diſcernment and juſt taſte in this country, which was only then beginning to ſpeculate upon ſuch topics. His panegyrical dedications exhibit many graces of writing, but the fulſomeneſs of their praiſe muſt diſguſt every reader poſſeſſed of manly ſentiments.

Dryden's reputation has loſt nothing by age, though ſome of his pieces, once popular, are now perhaps little read, on account of the temporary nature of their ſubjects. He is ſtill one of the heroes of Engliſh poetry, which preſents ſcarcely two or three names of greater celebrity. The preſent age pardons him as a man, and venerates him as a poet.

DRY'DEN, a military townſhip of the American States, the ſtate of New York, having Ulyſſes weſt, and Virgil on the eaſt; and on the ſouth the town of Owego, in Tioga county: eight miles from the ſouth end of Cayuga lake.

DRY'ER, *ſ.* That which has the quality of abſorbing moiſture.—The ill effects of drinking are relieved by this plant, which is a great *dryer* and opener, eſpecially by perſpiration. *Temple.*

DRY'EYED, *adj.* Without tears; without weeping:

Sight ſo deform'd what heart of rock could long
Dryeyed behold? Adam could not, but wept. *Milton.*

DRY'ING, *part. adj.* Making dry.

DRY'ING, *ſ.* [from the *part.*] The act of making dry.

DRY'LY, *adv.* Without moiſture. Coldly; frigidly; without affection:

Wouldſt thou to honour and preferments climb,
Be bold in miſchief, dare ſome mighty crime,
Which dungeons, death, or baniſhment deſerves;
For virtue is but *dryly* prais'd, and ſtarves. *Dryden.*

Jejunely; barrenly; without ornament or embelliſhment:

Some *dryly* plain, without invention's aid,
Write dull receipts how poems may be made. *Pope.*

DRY'NESS, *ſ.* Want of moiſture; ſiccity.—The marrow ſupplies an oil for the inunction of the bones and ligaments in the articulations, and particularly of the ligaments, preſerving them from *dryneſs* and rigidity, and keeping them ſupple and flexible. *Ray.*

Such was the diſcord which did firſt diſperſe
Form, order, beauty, through the univerſe;
While *dryneſs* moiſture, coldneſs heat reſiſts,
All that we have, and that we are, ſubſiſts. *Denham.*

Want of ſucculence.—The difference of muſcular fleſh depends upon the hardneſs, tenderneſs, moiſture, or *dryneſs*, of the fibres. *Arbuthnot.*—Want of embelliſhment; want of pathos; jejuneneſs; barrenneſs.—Be faithful where the author excels, and paraphraſe where penury of fancy or *dryneſs* of expreſſion aſk it. *Garth.*—Want of ſenſibility in devotion; want of ardour; aridity.—It may be, that by this *dryneſs* of ſpirit, God intends to make us the more fervent and reſigned in our direct and ſolemn devotions, by the perceiving of our weakneſs. *Taylor.*

DRY'NURSE, *ſ.* A woman who brings up and feeds a child without the breaſt. One who takes care of another: with ſome contempt of the perſon taken care of.—Mrs. Quickly is his nurſe, or his *drynurſe*, or his cook, or his laundry, his waſher, and his wringer. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DRY'NURSE, *v. a.* To feed without the breaſt:

As Romulus a wolf did rear,
So he was *drynurs'd* by a bear. *Hudibras.*

DRYOPE'IA, an anniverſary day obſerved at Aſine in Argolis, in honour of Dryops, the ſon of Apollo.

DRY'OPES, a people of Greece, near Mount Œta. They afterwards paſſed into the Peloponneſus, where they inhabited the towns of Aſine and Hermione in Argolis. When they were driven from Aſine by the people of Argos, they ſettled among the Meſſenians, and called a town by the name of their ancient habitation *Aſine*. Some of their deſcendants went to make a ſettlement in Aſia Minor, together with the Ionians. *Herodotus.*

DRY'OPIS, or DRYOPIDA, in ancient geography, a ſmall country at the foot of Mount Œta in Theſſaly. Its true ſituation is not well aſcertained. According to Pliny, it bordered on Epirus. It was for ſome time in the poſſeſſion of the Hellenes, after they were driven from Hiſtiæotis by the Cadmeans. *Herodotus.*

DRYOP'TERIS, *ſ.* in botany. See ASPLENIUM and POLYPODIUM.

DRY'PIS, *ſ.* [απο του δρυπτειν, Gr. from its prickly tearing quality.] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order trigynia, natural order caryophyllei. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, tubular, half five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: petals five; claws length of the calyx, narrow; border flat; plates two-parted; diviſions, linear, obtuſe; throat crowned with the two toothlets of each petal. Stamina: filaments five, length of the corolla; antheræ ſimple, oblong, incumbent. Piſtillum: germ obovate, compreſſed; ſtyles

ſtyles three, ſimple, patulous; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: capſule roundiſh, covered by the calyx, one-celled, ſmall, clipped round. Seed: ſingle, kidney-form, gloſſy.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, five-toothed; petals five; capſule clipped round, one-ſeeded.

Drypis ſpinoſa, a ſingle ſpecies. The ſtems are procumbent, four-cornered, brachiate; the laſt dichotomous and flower-bearing. Freſh green branches puſh forth in the ſpring from the dry ones of the former year, the extreme ones are dichotomous, and bear flowers. Biennial. Native of Barbary, Italy, Iſtria, &c. It is named *ſperage thiſtle* by Johnſon in Gerarde; in Italy they call it *erba ciuccia*, or aſs-herb, becauſe that animal feeds freely on it. See CUCUBALUS and SALSOLA.

DRYS'DALE (John), an eminent miniſter of the church of Scotland, born at Kirkaldy, in the county of Fife, April 29, 1718. He was the third ſon of the rev. J. Dryſdale, miniſter of Kirkaldy, and of Anne Fergu ſon, daughter of William Fergu ſon, eſq. provoſt or chief magiſtrate of the ſame town. He received the elements of claſſical learning at a ſchool in the ſame town, under David Miller, a man who had alſo the honour of inſtructing the celebrated Adam Smith, and James Oſwald of Dunikeir, perſons who have reflected ſo much luſtre on their country, the one as a philoſopher and man of letters, and the other as an eminent ſtateſman. While at ſchool, John Dryſdale greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a claſſical ſcholar; inſomuch that he was ſent very early to the univerſity of Edinburgh. He there proſecuted his ſtudies with great ſucceſs, and ſoon attracted the notice of the profeſſors. After paſſing through the ordinary courſes of languages and philoſophy, he engaged in the ſtudy of divinity, the ultimate object of his repairing to the univerſity; and, in 1740, he was employed as aſſiſtant miniſter in the college church at Edinburgh. In 1743, he obtained a crown-preſentation to the church of Kirkliſton in Weſt Lothian. Won by his amiable manners, and ſedulous to reward profeſſional piety and virtue, the mariſchal college of Aberdeen, without his ſolicitation or knowledge, conferred on him the degree of doctor in divinity, by diploma, bearing date the 15th of April 1765: and the following year, the death of Dr. John Jardine having produced a vacancy in the Tron church, Dr. Dryſdale was tranſlated thither; and by royal warrant he was appointed one of his majeſty's chaplains, with one-third of the emoluments of the deanry of the chapel royal, on the recommendation of the late marquis of Rockingham. In 1773, Dr. Dryſdale's numerous friends thought it due time to raiſe him to the dignity of moderator of the general aſſembly; the greateſt mark of reſpect which an eccleſiaſtical commonwealth can beſtow on any of its members; and, being accordingly choſen without oppoſition, he diſcharged the duties of the office with great ſatisfaction to the venerable court, and with infinite credit to himſelf. In 1784, Dr. Dryſdale was, by a very great majority of votes, ſeated a ſecond time in the moderator's chair. But he did not long ſurvive this double honour; for he died on the 16th of June 1788; leaving behind him a moſt valuable collection of Sermons, publiſhed in London, in 1793, in 2 vols. 8vo.

DRY'SHOD, *adj.* Without wet feet; without treading above the ſhoes in the water:

Has honour's fountain then ſuck'd back the ſtream?
He has; and hooting boys may *dryſhod* paſs,
And gather pebbles from the naked ford. *Dryden.*

To DRY'STITCH, *v. a.* in ſurgery, is when by means of a piece of linen-cloth with ſtrong glue, ſtuck on each ſide a wound, its lips are drawn together.

DRYSWI'ATY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: ſixteen miles ſouth-weſt of Braſlaw.

DRZEWIC'ZE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz: twenty-four miles weſt-north-weſt of Sandomirz.

DSAP'RONG, or TCHAPRONG, a town of Aſia, in the country of Thibet, on the Lantchau: 345 leagues weſt of Laſſa.

DSA'RIN, a lake of Thibet, about twelve leagues in circumference. Lat. 32. 10. N. lon. 95. 10. E. Ferro.

DSAT'CHOU, or TSATCHOU, or SAICHOU, a river of Aſia, which riſes in Thibet, and paſſes into the Chineſe province of Yun-nan, where it changes its name to Lant-ſan; after croſſing the province of Yun-nan, it takes the name of Kiou-long.

DSEP'TONG, or SEPTONG, a town of Aſia, in Thibet: eight leagues weſt-north-weſt of Rimbou.

DSCHIK'KETAEI, or wild mule. See EQUUS.

DSJAB'BE TAR, a ſmall iſland of Arabia, in the Red Sea, about forty miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Loheia. Lat. 15. 32. N. lon. 41. 35. E. Greenwich.

DSJAB'BEL, a ſmall iſland in the Red Sea, about eight leagues from the coaſt of Arabia. Lat. 14. 4. N. lon. 43. 34. E. Greenwich.

DSJA'LIE, a town of Arabia: twenty-four miles ſouth-eaſt of Loheia.

DSJAR, a town of Arabia: eighty miles ſouth-weſt of Medina.

DSJE'BI, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: fifty-ſix miles eaſt of Hodeida. Lat. 14. 44. N. lon. 43. 40. E. Greenwich.

DSJEL'LEDI, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twenty-four miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Chamir.

DSJOB EL ALA, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: forty miles ſouth-weſt of Sana.

DSJO'BLA, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: ſixty miles north-eaſt of Mocha.

DSOU'KIOAG, a lake of Thibet, fifteen leagues in circumference. Lat. 30. 30. N. lon. 92. 10. E. Ferro.

DU'AL, *adj.* [*dualis*, Lat.] Expreſſing the number two.—Modern languages have only one variation, and ſo the Latin; but the Greek and Hebrew have one to ſignify two, and another to ſignify more than two: under one variation the noun is ſaid to be of the *dual* number, and under the other of the plural. *Clarke.*

DUA'BOS (Los), a town of the iſland of Cuba: thirty-ſix miles eaſt of Villa del Principe.

DUA'NESBURGH, a townſhip of the American States, in Albany county, New York, containing 1470 inhabitants; of whom 260 are electors.

DU'ARCHY, *ſ.* [of δυω and αρχη, Gr.] A form of government where two rule jointly.

DUA'RE, a town of Venetian Dalmatia, taken from the Turks in 1646, and loſt to them again ſoon after. It was again taken by the Venetians in 1652: twenty miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Spalatro.

DUA'REN (Francis), an eminent French lawyer, born near the beginning of the ſixteenth century, at St. Brieu in Britany. He was an intimate friend of the learned Budé, and acquired from him much knowledge of the Greek tongue, and of Roman antiquities, which he repaid by inſtructing the children of Budé. He ſtudied the civil law at Bourges under Alciatus, and afterwards practiſed at the bar of the parliament of Paris. At length he became profeſſor of law at Bourges, where he acquired great fame as a teacher and writer. De Thou accounts him the moſt learned juriſt of the age, next to Alciatus. When advanced in life he had to ſuſtain a warm competition from Cujas, then riſing into notice; and the univerſity of Bourges was ſo divided between their diſciples, that ſerious effects might have followed, had not Cujas retired to Valence. Duaren had an indifferent memory, ſo that he was obliged to read his harangues, which in ſome meaſure injured his reputation abroad. His works were much eſteemed, even by his rival Cujas; though after his death ſome pieces, not meant for the preſs, were injudiciouſly added from notes taken by his ſcholars. The principal are: 1. *Pro libertate Eccleſiæ Gallicæ adverſus Romanam, Defenſio Pariſienſis Curiæ.* 2. *De ſacris Eccleſiæ Miniſteriis ac Beneficiis.* 3. Commentaries on the Code and the Digeſt. The works of Duaren were printed

printed together at Lyons, 2 vols. folio, 1578, and at Geneva, folio, 1603. He died about the age of fifty, in 1559.

DUARZE, a river of Spain, in the province of Guipuſcoa, which runs into the Orio, at Toloſa.

DU'AULT-QUELIN, a town of France, in the department of the North Coaſts, and principal place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Roſtrenen: three leagues north-weſt of Roſtrenen.

To DUB, *v. a.* [ðubban zo ꝥbeꝑe, Sax. *addubba till riddara*, Iſlan. to dub a knight. *Addubba*, in its primary ſenſe, ſignifies to *ſtrike*, knights being made by a blow on the ſhoulder with a ſword.] To make a man a knight.—The king ſtood up under his cloth of ſtate, took the ſword from the lord protector, and *dubbed* the lord mayor of London knight. *Hayward.*

Knight, knight, good mother! Baſiliſco like.
What! I am *dubb'd*; I have it on my ſhoulder. *Shakeſp.*

To confer any kind of dignity or new character.—A plain gentleman, of an ancient family, is of better quality than a new knight, though the reaſon of his *dubbing* was meritorious. *Collier.*

A man of wealth is *dubb'd* a man of worth;
Venus ſhall give him form, and Anſtis birth. *Pope.*

DUB, *ſ.* A blow; a knock:

As ſkilful coopers hoop their tubs
With Lydian and with Phrygian *dubs*. *Hudibras.*

DUB'BA FETTEE, a river of Hindooſtan, one of the branches of the Sinde.

DUBCHES'KIAIA, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Toboliſk, on the Eniſei: 164 miles north-north-eaſt of Eniſeiſk.

DUB'DU, a town of Africa, in the country of Fez. It was at one time an independent ſtate, and governed by a prince who took the title of king: eighty miles eaſt of Fez.

DU'BEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Leipſic, on the Mulda: eighteen miles north-north-eaſt of Leipſic.

DU'BENINKEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania: four miles eaſt of Goldapp.

DU'BENOW, a town of the duchy of Courland: twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Seelburg.

DU'BICE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty miles weſt-north-weſt of Lida.

DUBIEC'Z, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lemberg: fifty-two miles weſt of Lemberg.

DUBIN'KY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty-four miles north of Wilna.

DUBIO'SITY, *ſ.* A thing doubtful. *Not uſed.*—Men often ſwallow falſities for truths, *dubioſities* for certainties, feaſibilities for poſſibilities, and things impoſſible for poſſible. *Brown.*

DU'BIOUS, *adj.* [*dubius*, Lat.] Doubting; not ſettled in an opinion. Uncertain; that of which the truth is not fully known.—No quick reply to *dubious* queſtions make. *Denham.*—Not plain; not clear:

Satan with leſs toil, and now with eaſe,
Wafts on the calmer wave, by *dubious* light. *Milton.*

Having the event uncertain:

His utmoſt pow'r with adverſe pow'r oppos'd,
In *dubious* battle, on the plains of heav'n. *Milton.*

DU'BIOUSLY, *adv.* Uncertainly; without any determination.—Authors write often *dubiouſly*, even in matters wherein is expected a ſtrict definitive truth. *Brown.*

DU'BIOUSNESS, *ſ.* Uncertainty; doubtfulneſs.—She ſpeaks with *dubiouſneſs*, not with the certainty of a goddeſs. *Broome.*

DU'BITABLE, *adj.* [*dubito*, Lat.] Doubtful; uncertain; what may be doubted.

DUBITA'TION, *ſ.* [*dubitatio*, Lat.] The act of doubting; doubt.—Many of the ancients denied the antipodes; but the experience of our enlarged navigation can now aſſert them beyond all *dubitation*. *Brown.*

DU'BITZA, a town and fortreſs of Croatia on the Unna: eleven miles north-eaſt of Kaſtanovitz.

DUB'KI, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Peterſburg, on the gulf of Finland: ſixteen miles north-north-weſt of Peterſburg.

DUBLIN, a county of Ireland, bounded on the north by the county of Meath, on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, on the ſouth by the county of Wicklow, and on the weſt by the counties of Meath and Kildare; twenty-five miles in extent from north to ſouth, and from nine to ſixteen broad from eaſt to weſt. It contains about 142,050 acres, and, in the year 1790, 25,510 houſes, and 107 pariſhes, twenty of which are in the city of Dublin. This county is in general flat, except towards the ſouth, where it is mountainous and rocky; towards the ſea it is broken into bays and creeks, with ſeveral places of reſort for ſea-bathing. The principal river is the Liffey.

DUB'LIN, the metropolis of Ireland, ranks as the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions, and the fifth for magnitude in Europe, is ſituated in the province of Leinſter, in the county of Dublin, at the bottom of a large bay. The river Liffey, which here diſembogues itſelf into the ocean, divides the town into nearly two equal parts. Formerly the city of Dublin was confined to the ſouth ſide of the river, and was a place of great antiquity. Ptolemy, who flouriſhed in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year 140, ſays, it was anciently called *Aſchcled*. In 155, Alpinus, whoſe daughter Auliana was drowned in the Liffey, changed the name from *Aſchcled* to *Auliana*. It was afterwards named *Dublana*, and Ptolemy calls it *Eblana*. *Dublana*, whence comes *Dublinum* and *Dublin*, is evidently derived from *Dub-leana*, "the place of the black harbour or lake," or rather "the lake of the ſea," the bay of Dublin being frequently ſo called. This city has had a variety of names. The Iriſh call it *Drom-choll-coil*, "the brow of a hazle wood;" and in 181, Eogan king of Munſter, being on a royal tour, paid a viſit to this place, which was then called *Atha Cliath-Dubb-Line*, "the paſſage of the ford of hurdles over the black pool."

The city of Dublin is ſeated in view of the ſea on the eaſt, and a fine country which ſwells into gently riſing eminences on the north and weſt, while it towers boldly up in lofty mountains that bound the horizon on the ſouth. The city itſelf cannot be ſeen to full advantage on entering the harbour: but the approach to it from thence exhibits a fine proſpect of the country for improvement and cultivation, interſperſed with numerous villas, that have a moſt agreeable effect to enliven this delightful ſcene, which, beginning at the water's edge, is continued all over the coaſt to the northward of the bay as far as the eye can reach, and is finely contraſted by a diſtant view of the Wicklow mountains to the ſouth, where the conical hills, called the *ſugar-loaves*, contribute not a little, by the ſingularity of their appearance, to embelliſh the landſcape, ſo extenſive and picturеſque as not to be equalled by any natural ſcenery in Europe, but the entrance of the bay of Naples, to which it bears a very ſtriking reſemblance. The form of Dublin is nearly a ſquare, a figure that includes the largeſt area proportioned to its circumference. The length is two miles and an half, and its greateſt breadth is computed to be of the ſame extent: hence the city is about ten miles in circumference. It is ſaid to contain about 22,000 houſes, whoſe inhabitants are eſtimated at 156,000.

The river Liffey is croſſed by ſix bridges; the ſides are embanked with ſpacious quays, ſo that veſſels can load and unload before the houſes of the merchants. The bay is about ſeven miles broad, and unſafe in ſtormy weather, but the channel is confined for three miles on each ſide by a broad ſtone wall, for the protection of ſhips in the road. Veſſels which draw more than ſeven feet cannot come up to the quay. A floating light has been erected on the north ſide of the harbour, to prevent accidents,

cidents, and lighted every night; and, in the day time, a flag is conſtantly hoiſted from half flood to half ebb. In this city are twenty pariſhes, and eighteen churches, ſome chapels of eaſe, beſides the cathedral and collegiate church. Dublin is the ſee of an archbiſhop, erected in the year 1152; it was a biſhopric in the ſeventh century, and, in 1214, the biſhopric of Glandalough, which was founded in the ſixth century, was incorporated with Dublin. The ſee of Dublin has, therefore, two cathedrals, both within the city: Chriſtchurch, founded for regular canons, and converted into a collegiate church for a dean and chapter by Henry VIII. in 1541; and St. Patrick, for thirteen, now twenty-two, prebendaries. The univerſity was firſt projected in 1311, but did not flouriſh till the reign of queen Elizabeth, who granted it a charter. James I. endowed it with large eſtates in the province of Ulſter. Charles I. was likewiſe a benefactor, and, in the year 1637, granted it a new charter and ſtatutes. It conſiſts of a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, provoſt, vice-provoſt, twenty-two fellows, and five royal profeſſorſhips of divinity, common law, civil law, phyſic, and Greek; beſides theſe, three others were founded by ſir Patrick Dun, of phyſic, chirurgery, and pharmacy; there are likewiſe profeſſorſhips of mathematics, oriental languages, oratory, hiſtory, and natural philoſophy: the number of ſtudents is uſually about four hundred, including ſeventy on the foundation. Many other public buildings and laudable inſtitutions decorate and dignify the city of Dublin. The cuſtom-houſe is a magnificent ſtructure. It has four handſome fronts, all differing from each other; the ſouth, next the river Liffey, is of Portland ſtone, in the centre of which is erected a cupola, of very beautiful architecture, terminating upon the top by a finely ſculptured figure of commerce leaning upon her bales and her anchor. Another elegant and well-conſtructed pile, contains the courts of public juſtice, or, as they are called, in Dublin, the *four courts*, i. e. the courts of chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer, all opening into a moſt beautiful circular hall, richly decorated by architectural and ſtuccoed ornaments, highly picturеſque and emblematic of thoſe courts of juſtice. The hall is covered by a dome, and above that riſes a cupola, which, from its deſign, forms an external elevation, not only partially beautiful to the building, but generally beautiful to the *tout enſemble* of the whole city. This edifice is enriched with ſome ſtatues, excellently ſculptured; the principal of which is a fine figure of Moſes, which ſtands upon the top of the pediment, over a very chaſte and beautiful inverted ſemi-circular colonnade, or portico, of a fancied order, nearly Corinthian, in the act of promulgating the law. Immediately attached to this building, are all the ſubordinate offices dependent upon and belonging to the reſpective courts. In Trinity college two beautiful buildings have lately been erected, each having a portico of columns in the Corinthian order. The one is an amphitheatre for public examinations, in which are ſome excellent portraits of literary characters, painted by eminent artiſts, ſome by the late ſir Joſhua Reynolds; as alſo a very fine monument to the memory of the late doctor Baldwin, formerly provoſt of this univerſity, executed in Italy, by an Iriſh ſculptor, Hewetſon; it poſſeſſes much animation, ſpirit, and correctneſs; the expence was two thouſand guineas. The other building, which ſtands directly oppoſite, and which is exactly ſimilar externally, is a beautiful chapel. The library is ſpacious, grand, and valuable, adorned with many buſtos in white marble. Here is alſo what is called the anatomy-houſe, a moſt curious and wonderful production of human ingenuity, of no leſs magnitude, labour, and ſcience, than a cabinet of wax models, large as life, and coloured as in nature, repreſenting all the ſtages of geſtation, from conception to the birth of the child, moſt exquiſitely executed, and long ſanctioned by the moſt able profeſſors, as an unrivalled production of excellence and illuſtration. What is called the royal hoſpital of Kilmainham, is a large, plain, brick building, forming a hollow ſquare, finely elevated, at the weſtern extremity of Dublin, amidſt a well-planted piece of ground, inhabited by invalid officers and ſoldiers; for whoſe aid, together with a ſmall penſion from the crown, it was eſtabliſhed and founded, ſimilar to Chelſea hoſpital. In a part of this building, is a commodious ſuite of apartments, occupied by the commander in chief of the army in Ireland (for the time being), at which place the chief governor, or lord lieutenant, was frequently entertained. Another capital charity is the Blue-coat hoſpital, founded for the maintenance and education of the ſons of decayed free citizens of Dublin. The next hoſpital which claims our notice is that inſtituted for the relief of poor lying-in-women. It was founded by Dr. Moſs, and continues to be patronized by almoſt every benevolent lady in Ireland (Dublin in particular), as well as by the humane public. The number of women under this deſcription relieved in this houſe, has been, in forty years, 37,615; and the number of children born there in that ſpace of time, 38,291; viz. 20,082 boys, and 18,209 girls. Of theſe women, 667 had twins; eleven had three, and one had four children at a birth.

There are, beſides, a great number of inferior charities in this capital; but their external appearance does not claim the attention of travellers. There is, however, one whoſe inſtitution is very recent, and whoſe growth has been wonderfully rapid, as if foſtered by the providential and merciful dew of heaven. This is the orphan-houſe for deſtitute female children, a receptacle of plain and humble architecture. This inſtitution was opened upon the firſt day of January 1790, in conſequence of a truly pious and charitable woman, who, in the daily habit of ſeeking out wretchedneſs for the purpoſe of adminiſtering relief, diſcovered a number of deſtitute infants, at different times, expoſed to periſh in ditches and upon dunghills. With her own private purſe ſhe began to form an aſylum againſt ſuch barbarity; which was ſoon perfected by the humane public. Here are, beſides theſe, fourteen other hoſpitals, chiefly ſupported by voluntary contributions. The churches in Dublin (which has each its parochial ſchool), exhibit no external beauty, nor yet much internal decoration. St. Patrick's cathedral, from its antiquity, is worth inveſtigation; and its ſteeple is much loftier than any of the others.

The city of Dublin has been rapidly improving ſince the union of the ſiſter kingdoms. Within the laſt two years, there has been completed a very noble undertaking, namely, docks of great magnitude, erected by the company of undertakers of the grand canal. The *two*, or rather *one* great floating-dock, (there being no lock dividing them,) the only diviſion being a drawbridge of a peculiarly light, yet durable, conſtruction, is capable of containing eight hundred ſail of merchant-ſhips, and give ſufficient ſpace for each to carry on their trade with ample room; there are beſides attached to this dock, three graving docks for building or repairing ſhipping; the dimenſions of the largeſt is 180 feet long by ſixty feet wide; and they appear to be built upon the ſame improved conſtruction as that of the great dock at Portſmouth, finiſhed about the year 1795. The walls which incloſe, or, in other words, the embankments of theſe docks, are built in the moſt perfect and durable manner, and reflect infinite honour upon the ſpirit of the grand canal company of Dublin. That inland navigation is now ſo far completed, as to form a perfect water-carriage from St. George's Channel, or the Iriſh Sea, on the eaſtern ſide of Dublin, into the river Shannon, which empties itſelf into the Atlantic Ocean at the weſtern ſide of Ireland, and thus completely interſects the whole kingdom through its centre. Theſe docks were opened, upon the 23d of April, 1796, (being St. George's day,) with much pomp and ceremony.

The general appearance of the city of Dublin, is extremely beautiful, from the number of public buildings, &c.

&c. the principal ſtreets are well paved and lighted, and the flagged way on either ſide, with ſome few exceptions, is broad and tolerably clean. The places which form ſquares, are St. Stephen's Green, in the centre of which is an equeſtrian ſtatue of George the Second, finely executed in copper, and elevated upon a large pedeſtal; the ground in this ſquare is one mile in circumference. Merrion-ſquare is delightfully ſituated; moſt of the houſes having a view of Dublin bay and Wicklow mountains; the centre is incloſed by an iron paliſado, erected upon a handſome cut-ſtone plinth and baſe, and a neat ſhrubbery running round the whole, immediately within-ſide the railing; the houſes are all of a very large ſize; much uniformity has been preſerved in building them; and the appearance altogether is highly improved by Leinſter-houſe, and lawn, forming the weſt ſide of this ſquare. Rutland-ſquare, from its lofty trees and handſome walks, ſituated upon the declivity of a hill, adds much to the beauty of Dublin; and Mountjoy-ſquare is beautifully ſituated, and commands various delightful proſpects.

Hoſpitality reigns throughout Dublin with as much profuſion as in the reſt of the kingdom; the people of faſhion can no where be found more refined and ſplendid. The only public entertainment is a badly-attended theatre, open about eight months in the year. Vice ſeems not to have arrived at that pitch of audacity in Dublin, as in London; a courtezan would not be ſuffered to mix with the company in the lower boxes of the theatre, they muſt go aloft; nor is the Cyprian tribe there either proportionably numerous, or alluring; the Iriſh women are characteriſtically induſtrious and virtuous.

The Phœnix park, belonging to the crown, and which takes its name from a lofty pillar in white marble, of the Corinthian order, with a phœnix on the top, is ſituated at the weſtern extremity of Dublin, extending weſtward upwards of three miles, and about two from north to ſouth; in this park is the phœnix lodge, which was purchaſed by government about the year 1782, for the ſummer reſidence of the lord lieutenants. And here alſo is the ſalute battery, on which is erected twenty-two pieces of cannon, which are fired upon all occaſions of public rejoicing; and a little to the weſtward is the magazine of ammunition for his majeſty's forces, a ſtrong fortification, always occupied by an officer's guard of the royal Iriſh artillery, and latterly conſiderably augmented. In the eaſtern part of this park there has been, a few years ſince, erected a ſimple but beautiful building, an infirmary for the ſoldiery, which is moſt pleaſingly ſituated upon an elevated piece of ground, and adds much to the *tout enſemble* of this charming ſpot. This extenſive place is the Hyde Park of Dublin, being open to the public, and much frequented by equeſtrians, as well as pedeſtrians; and here are performed all military reviews.

The caſtle of Dublin is ſituated nearly in the centre of the city: it was not uſed as a palace, or reſidence of the viceroy, till the reign of Elizabeth, when it was repaired and beautified by ſir Henry Sidney, lord deputy. The parliament houſe, now diſuſed, is a magnificent building, erected between the years 1729 and 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. The Royal Exchange coſt likewiſe 40,000l. and was ten years in building, from the year 1769 to the year 1779. The royal college of phyſicians was eſtabliſhed in 1679; the royal college of ſurgeons in 1785; the academy for the advancement of ſcience, polite literature, and antiquities, in 1786. Other ſocieties are for ſoldiers' orphans; the marine ſociety; ſociety for promoting the linen and hemp manufacture; for improving agriculture, &c. The houſe of induſtry alſo merits regard, as being the beſt regulated, and perhaps the moſt productive, in coming nearer the original deſign, than any other in Europe. The civil government of Dublin is executed by a lord mayor, recorder, two ſheriffs, twenty-four aldermen, and a common-council, formed of repreſentatives from the twenty-five corporations. The mayor tries all offences, even capital ones, except murder and treaſon, and matters of property for any ſum under twenty pounds. A new police, lately eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, under a chief and three aſſiſtant commiſſioners and four diviſional juſtices, who are aldermen of the city, conſiſts of forty horſe, and four hundred foot, well armed, trained, and clothed, ſtationed in watch-houſes, and patrolling the ſtreets every night. Beſides the ſilk, woollen, and worſted, manufactures carried on in that quarter of the ſuburbs called *the earl of Meath's liberty*, and conſiderably improved within theſe few years, other branches of uſeful manufacture are eſtabliſhing in different parts of the metropolis; and though the trade in Dublin has heretofore conſiſted chiefly in the importation of foreign commodities, yet now that the reſtriction of its woollen and moſt other goods are removed, it is expected that the daily enlargement of the export trade will cauſe a proportional increaſe of opulence. Dublin is remarkably well ſupplied with proviſions; with coals, chiefly from Scotland and Cumberland, and with water from the Liffey, by machines curiouſly conſtructed at Iſland-bridge on the north, and from a fine reſervoir on the ſouth. The atmoſphere being chiefly moiſt and wet, contributes to give the ſtreets a dirty appearance. Lat. 53. 21. N. lon. 6. 15. W. Greenwich.

The vicinity of Dublin is rich in cultivation, and majeſtically adorned with ſeats and noble manſions. From the weſtern gate of the Phœnix park, the approach commands a view of a moſt beautiful valley, taking in the villages of Chapel-izod and Palmerſtown, through which the river Liffey grandly glides, forming different caſcades, and the whole terminated by the finely-ſituated houſe of lord Donoughmore. Proceeding to the top of Knockmaroon hill, a village about three miles from Dublin, we have a moſt delightful proſpect; and, deſcending more to the weſtward, we enter one of the moſt beautifully-ſituated roads perhaps in the world, called the *low road* to Lucan, being about four miles in length; it is through a winding valley on the right hand of which is, for the moſt part, a very high hill, richly cultivated, and from its ſouthern aſpect is extenſively planted with ſtrawberries, which fruit it produces in great abundance, and in conſtant ſucceſſion, from May until September, both months incluſive. The road is ſhadowed by plantations of oak, elm, and aſh trees; and all along the left hand, from Knockmaroon, is the river Liffey ſilently flowing its courſe, the grandeur of which is ſometimes interrupted by mill-weirs croſſing the river, but which amply compenſate the feaſt of the eye, by the caſcades which they form; and hence it is that the navigation of the river Liffey is in this part impeded. Farther to the left hand, and to the end of this road, beyond the river, the ground riſes in a gradual aſcent; in ſome parts next the water are mills, in others bleach-greens for linens; but, for the moſt part, the ſide of the hill preſents the highly decorated improvements of lord Leitrim, lord Carhampton, and lord Pery, which terminating by a bridge, we arrive at the village of Lucan, ſituated between ſix and ſeven miles weſt from Dublin. Here is the celebrated Lucan ſpa, much reſorted to, and deemed extremely efficacious in ſcorbutic and nervous complaints; the ſpa has lately been decorated, and is now ſheltered by a building, forming a ninegon, neatly executed; and upon the top of the pump is placed a handſome urn. There is a rural thatched ſeat for the water drinkers; near which is Lucan Houſe, finiſhed in 1780, in an elegant ſtyle, enriched with medallions from the deſigns of Angelica Kauffman. About a mile to the weſt is a neat and beautiful village, called Leixlip, inhabited by an humble ſet of people, who, in addition to their induſtry in huſbandry, let lodgings in the ſummer ſeaſon, to ſuch as reſort there for the benefit of the Lucan ſpa. In a part of this demeſne is a moſt grand water-fall, called the *ſalmon leap*, about eighteen feet high; the top of the ridge is paſſable when the water is low, and with the aſſiſtance of a ruined arch, a

communication is formed with the oppoſite ſide of the river; the breadth of the whole is about 180 feet. In floods which fall from the mountains, this cataract's height is ſometimes increaſed to thirty feet. The ſalmon generally begin to run in March or April, and to return in Auguſt and September, when many perſons frequent this place to ſee them leap. Soon as they arrive at the bottom of the fall, they riſe juſt above the water for near half a minute, as if to obſerve the height and diſtance; then ſinking, they preſently dart ſtraight up from the ſurface, ſhaking their fins and tails with a quick motion, and often clear the leap at the firſt ſpring; but frequently the force of the falling water throws them back upon the ſhelving rocks, from whence they leap back again, and wait ſome time before they make a ſecond attempt. On the 25th of Auguſt, 1797, one hundred ſalmon were ſeen to leap this fall in the ſpace of two hours. Theſe fiſh are taken in great abundance, and the citizens of Dublin are at all times ſupplied with ſalmon at a very low price. Upon a richly planted hill, oppoſite the fall, is erected a very handſome Gothic temple, which commands a full view of the ſalmon leap, and adds much to the beauty of this charming ſcene.

About eight miles from Dublin, is that grand promontory, the Hill of Howth, magnificently placed in St. George's channel; this is the firſt land which appears to the mariner when ſteering direct from Holyhead, Parkgate, or Liverpool, for the bay of Dublin: upon the ſummit of this hill is erected a very excellent light-houſe, whoſe brightneſs affords much ſafety to all the ſhipping ſteering thither by night. Many perſons aſſert, that they have ſeen the Welch mountains with the naked eye from the ſummit of this hill upon a clear day, being a diſtance of twenty-one leagues.

DUB'LIN, a townſhip of the American States, in Cheſhire county, New Hampſhire, on a branch of Aſhuelot river, and north of the Great Monadnock, containing 901 inhabitants. It is twenty-eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Charleſtown, and eighty-two weſt of Portſmouth: incorporated in 1771.

DUB'LIN, a pleaſant town of North America, in Philadelphia county, Pennſylvania, ten miles north-eaſt of Philadelphia, and as far ſouth-weſt of Briſtol. Alſo, a townſhip in Huntingdon county, in Pennſylvania.

DUB'NO, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia: twenty-four miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Lucko.

DUB'NO, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Belcz; forty miles north of Belcz.

DOBO'JA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzeſc: ten miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Brzeſc.

DUBOI'S, (William), an extraordinary example of corrupt elevation; the ſon of an apothecary at Brive-la-Gaillarde, in Limoſin. He was born in 1656, and received the rudiments of education in the ſchool of his birth-place. He early diſtinguiſhed himſelf for quickneſs of parts and vivacity of temper, attended with a great propenſity to falſehood. He went young to Paris, and entered into the college of St. Michael; but ſuch was his indigence, that he was obliged for his ſupport to ſerve the principal as his valet. After having acquired ſome knowledge of philoſophy and the languages, he ſucceſſively occupied the poſts of preceptor in different families, till at length he was recommended to M. de Saint-Laurent, ſub-governor to the young duke de Chartres, afterwards the regent duke of Orleans. This was the circumſtance which introduced Dubois to the path of fortune. By his ſupple and inſinuating diſpoſition he ingratiated himſelf with Saint-Laurent, who cauſed him to be decently clad, and then placed him with the young prince as teacher of the elements of the Latin language. Dubois performed his duty with credit, and at the ſame time acquired the favour of ſome of the young nobles who had places about the prince; ſo that, upon the death of Saint-Laurent, he was made preceptor and reader, with a conſiderable ſalary. He gave ſatisfaction at court by the attention he paid towards bringing forward his pupil in his ſtudies, and at the ſame time he ſecured an aſcendancy over his mind by corrupting his principles. He accompanied the duke de Chartres in his campaigns in Flanders, where he diſplayed conſiderable intrepidity, and rendered himſelf agreeable to the officers by dextrous flattery and lively converſation. Such was his influence over the duke, that he was the perſon chiefly employed by the court in order to induce him to marry the king's natural daughter, madame de Blois; and his ſucceſs in this negociation was rewarded by the abbacy of St. Juſt. In 1717 he was ſent as ambaſſador plenipotentiary into England, where he ſigned the triple alliance. On his return he was made miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, and he acquired the entire management of that department. The archbiſhopric of Cambray, one of the richeſt in the kingdom, becoming vacant, Dubois wiſhed to obtain it; and he was conſecrated archbiſhop in a pompous ceremony, at which the regent himſelf and all his court aſſiſted. This ſhameful profuſion of court favours was aggravated by his elevation to the cardinalate in the next year, 1721, not without a long reſiſtance on the part of pope Innocent XIII. whoſe forced compliance was thought to have ſhortened his days. The cardinal was admitted into the council of regency in 1722, and ſoon after was declared firſt miniſter of ſtate. He alſo thought it ſuitable to his dignity to be admitted among the members of the French academy, and his vanity led him to make a point of being received by the title of *monſeigneur*, which had been given to no academician before him. Thus arrived at the ſummit of power and place, rolling in opulence, and having ſeen every thing great by rank and title crouch beneath his meanneſs, he was attacked by a fatal diſeaſe, the conſequence of his early debaucheries, which, after a painful chirurgical operation, put a ſpeedy end to his life. He died in Auguſt, 1723, at the age of ſixty-ſeven. A moſt magnificent mauſoleum (the maſter-piece of the ſculptor Couſtou) was erected for him in the church of St. Honoré. After the enumeration of all his titles and employments, the inſcription ends thus: "What are all theſe titles and honours but the changing bow of heaven, and the vapour that melts into air! Paſſenger, intreat of Heaven, for the deceaſed, more ſolid and more ſubſtantial bleſſings." Dubois was a man of parts, but not of abilities equal to the great poſts he occupied. He was haſty and impatient, purſuing the buſineſs of the moment with an ardour which obliterated every thing elſe. His papers were never kept in any order; ſo that he uſed frequently, in ſearching after any thing he wanted, to ſwear exceſſively. One of his clerks told him, "Your eminence had better hire a man to ſwear for you, and then you will gain ſo much time." No man had ever a more corrupt heart; and ſuch was his contempt of virtue, that he ſcorned to practiſe hypocriſy. Yet he had little enjoyment of his wonderful elevation, and was uſed to ſay to Fontenelle, with whom he loved to converſe, "I wiſh I lived in a ſecond floor at Paris, with an old nurſe, and only five hundred crowns a-year!"

DUBO'S (Charles-Francis), a French eccleſiaſtic, born in 1661, in the dioceſe of St. Flour in Auvergne. He was ſent for education to Paris, where, after he had gone through a courſe of claſſical learning and philoſophy, he devoted himſelf to the ſtudy of theology, and took his degrees in the college of the Sorbonne, with uncommon reputation. He became a favourite of M. Barillon, biſhop of Luçon, who made him principal archdeacon of his church. After the death of the biſhop, ſeveral other prelates wiſhed to attach him to their intereſts, but he choſe to continue his connection with the ſee of Luçon; and on a vacancy taking place in the deanery, he was unanimouſly elected to that dignity by the chapter, under very honourable circumſtances. In that ſituation he remained until his death, in 1724, in the ſixty-fourth year of his age. He lived honoured and beloved by all ranks;

ranks; and his loſs was much lamented by the poor, to whom he had been a kind and active benefactor. He reſumed the publication of the celebrated Luçon Conferences, which had been commenced by M. Louis, ſubdean of Luçon, but after the appearance of five volumes was ſuſpended for about ten years. M. Dubos added ſeventeen volumes to that collection, which were publiſhed in 12mo, at different periods, and left materials in the hands of his executors for at leaſt fifteen volumes more. He was alſo the author of "A Sketch of the Life of M. Barillon, Biſhop of Luçon," publiſhed in 1700, 12mo, to which are annexed ſome ſmall treatiſes, the productions of that prelate.

DUBO'S (John-Baptiſt), abbot of Reſons, an eſteemed French writer, born in 1670, at Beauvais, of which place his father was a merchant and magiſtrate. He was ſent young to Paris for the ſtudy of civil law, hiſtory, and politics. He made himſelf known in 1695 by his Hiſtory of the four Gordians proved and illuſtrated by Medals, 12mo; in which he attempted to prove the exiſtence of a fourth of this imperial family, in addition to the three uſually reckoned. But though he diſplayed erudition and ingenuity in ſupport of this opinion, it has not been received by the learned. He ſoon after attracted the notice of M. de Torci, miniſter for foreign affairs, who took him into his office, and employed him in various negociations abroad. He was ſent on a ſecret miſſion to England, in order to diſpoſe the nation to make peace with France. For that purpoſe he wrote a work intitled The Intereſts of England ill underſtood in the preſent War, Amſt. 1704, which was much applauded by the French miniſtry, and was circulated with great induſtry by the Jacobite party, but made little impreſſion upon the Engliſh nation. It is remarkable for a prediction of the future ſeparation of the North-American colonies, in caſe England ſhould become maſter of that continent. In the midſt of his political engagements he found leiſure to publiſh, in 1709, a Hiſtory of the League of Cambray againſt the Venetian Republic, of which an improved edition appeared in 1728, in two vols. 12mo. an acute and well-written work. His Critical Reflections on Poetry and Painting, 1719, two vols. 12mo. (ſeveral times reprinted,) gained him high reputation as an elegant writer and a man of taſte. It procured him an entrance into the French academy in 1720, and that body elected him their perpetual ſecretary in 1722, in the place of Andrew Dacier. He next employed himſelf in elaborate enquiries relative to early French hiſtory, which produced his Critical Hiſtory of the Eſtabliſhment of the French Monarchy in Gaul, three vols. quarto, 1734; reprinted in 1743, with additions and corrections, in two vols. quarto, and four vols. 12mo. He died in March, 1742.

DUBOV'KA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Saratov, on the weſt ſide of the Volga: ſixty miles ſouth of Kamiſchin.

DUBOV'KA, a fort of Ruſſian Tartary, in the government of Caucaſus, on the Malwa: twelve miles weſt of Kizliar.

DU'BRAVITZ, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Moldavia: thirty-ſix miles north-weſt of Galatz.

DUBRAW', or DUBRAVIUS SCALA (John), a German prelate, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, in the ſixteenth century, born at Pilſen in Bohemia. He was educated in Italy, where he received the degree of doctor of laws; and afterwards entered into the ſuite of Staniſlaus biſhop of Olmutz in Moravia. After the death of Zanbeck biſhop of Olmutz, he was raiſed to that ſee, which he enjoyed about ſix years. At different periods he was nominated ambaſſador to Sileſia and to Bohemia, and he was made preſident of the chamber appointed by the imperial court to conduct proceſſes againſt ſuch perſons as had joined in the proteſtant league at Smalcalde. He died in 1553. Dubraw was the author of various works; and, among others, of a Hiſtory of Bohemia, in thirty-three Books, publiſhed in 1552, which is commended for fidelity and accuracy. The beſt editions of this hiſtory are, one publiſhed by Thomas Jourdaine in 1574, with the addition of genealogical tables, and chronological and hiſtorical notes; and another publiſhed at Frankfort in 1688, accompanied with the Hiſtory of Bohemia, by Æneas Sylvius.

DU'BRIS, anciently a town of Britain; now DOVER, from the *Dovoria* of the lower age.

DUBRO'WA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: ſeventy-four miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Wilna.

DUBROWI'CA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzeſc: forty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Brzeſc.

DUC (Fronton du, in Latin *Fronto Ducæus*), a learned French Jeſuit, born at Bourdeaux, in 1558. He entered as a novice in the order at Verdun, in 1577, and ſoon recommended himſelf to his ſuperiors by the talents which he diſcovered, and his indefatigable application to the different ſtudies which were aſſigned him, particularly the belles-lettres, and the Latin and Greek languages. In 1597, he was ſent to teach theology in the Jeſuits' college, at Bourdeaux; and it was at this place that he began to communicate to the public the fruits of his laborious ſtudies. His firſt production of importance was a Latin tranſlation of The Works of St. Chryſoſtom, in ſix vols. folio, with notes. He was one of the moſt learned men and ableſt critics of his day, and was at the ſame time unaſſuming, modeſt, and pious. His correſpondence was courted by the moſt diſtinguiſhed literary characters among the proteſtants, as well as in his own communion, and they entertained not only a great reſpect, but a high eſteem, for his character. He died in 1624. Beſides his edition of Chryſoſtom's works already mentioned, and the treatiſes in a controverſy with M. Mornay du Pleſſis, he publiſhed *Bibliotheca Veterum Patrum, ſeu Scriptorum Eccleſiaſticorum, Græco-Latinus, &c.* in 1624, in two vols. folio; *L'Hiſtoire tragique de la Pucelle de Dom-Remy, outrement d'Orleans, departie par Actes, &c.* 1581, quarto; and a vaſt number of new editions of ancient authors, particularly the Greek and Latin fathers, with notes and corrections, of which a particular detail is given in father Niceron's Memoirs.

DUC (Nicholas le), a French prieſt, in the dioceſe of Rouen, at firſt ſettled on a benefice at Trouville en Caux, which he quitted in order to remove to Paris. He was for fifteen years vicar of St. Paul's, in that city; but in 1731, being accuſed of Janſeniſm, and interdicted by the archbiſhop from engaging in his clerical functions, he devoted himſelf entirely to a ſtudious life. To his labours were the public indebted for a conſiderable part of the tranſlation of Preſident de Thou's Hiſtory, in 16 vols. 4to. He was alſo the author of a work intitled *L'Année Eccleſiaſtique*, in 15 vols. 12mo; of tranſlations of ſome of cardinal Bona's religious treatiſes, &c.

DU'CA, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Bari: ſix miles north-weſt of Bari.

DU'CAL, *adj.* Pertaining to a duke: as, a *ducal* coronet.

DUCA'PE, *ſ.* A ſort of ſilk uſed for womens garments. *Bailey.*

DUCA'REL (Andrew Coltee), a diſtinguiſhed antiquary, born in 1713, at Caen, in Normandy. He came to England with his father at an early age, and was educated at Eton ſchool, whence he removed to St. John's college, Oxford. He took the degree of bachelor of laws in that univerſity, and, after leaving it in 1742, became a member of the college of Doctors'-commons in 1743. He made a tour in his native country in 1752, of which he publiſhed an account in 1754, afterwards reprinted in an enlarged form under the title of Anglo-Norman Antiquities, folio, 1767. In 1755 he was elected commiſſary or official of the peculiar juriſdiction of the collegiate church of St. Catharine, near the Tower of London. He was made librarian of the palace of Lambeth

beth in 1757; and in the next year was appointed commiſſary and official of the city and dioceſe of Canterbury. He had been admitted into the ſociety of antiquaries in 1737, and was one of the firſt fellows nominated upon its incorporation in 1755. To this body he addreſſed A Series of above two hundred Anglo-Gallic or Norman and Aquitaine Coins of the ancient Kings of England, exhibited in ſixteen Copper-plates, and illuſtrated in twelve Letters, quarto, 1757. In making this collection he had the aſſiſtance of M. de Boze, keeper of the king of France's medals. He printed, in 1760, A Biographical Account of Browne Willis, the Antiquary, read before the ſociety. Having been elected into the royal ſociety in 1762, he contributed to its memoirs a letter to prove that the cheſnut is indigenous to England, and an account of the early cultivation of botany in this country. In 1763 he was appointed by the commiſſioners of the treaſury, in conjunction with ſir Joſ. Ayloffe and Mr. Aſtle, to methodiſe the records in the ſtate-paper-office in Whitehall, and in the augmentation-office. He contributed to ſeveral antiquarian works in the enſuing years; and in 1779 he had a large ſhare in the Account of Alien Priories, two vols. 8vo, printed by Mr. Nichols. In 1782 he publiſhed The Hiſtory of the Royal Hoſpital and Collegiate Church of St. Catharine, 4to, with plates. He publiſhed, in 1783, Some Account of the Town, Church, and Archiepiſcopal Palace, of Croydon, 4to; and in the Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica he gave The Hiſtory and Antiquities of the Archiepiſcopal Palace of Lambeth, from its Foundation to the Year 1785. He alſo contributed largely to the Hiſtory of the Pariſh of Lambeth, publiſhed in 1786. He continued his application to his favourite ſtudies till his death, which happened at his houſe in South Lambeth, in May, 1785.

DU'CAS, a learned Greek, who wrote an hiſtory of what paſſed under the laſt emperors of Conſtantinople, till the ruin of that city. This work, which is much eſteemed, was printed at the Louvre, in 1649, with the Latin tranſlation and notes of Boillaud.

DUCAS'SE (Francis), a celebrated French canoniſt, native of the dioceſe of Leictoure. His firſt eccleſiaſtical promotion was the appointment of grand-vicar and official of Carcaſſone. Afterwards he became canon, archdeacon, and official, of Condom, where he died in 1706. He is repreſented to have been profoundly ſkilled in ſcriptural learning, the writings of the fathers, and the works of ancient and modern canoniſts; and in his conduct and manners to have conducted himſelf with credit to his character and profeſſion. He was the author of two treatiſes, much eſteemed by canon-lawyers; the firſt intitled *De la Juriſdiction Eccleſiaſtique contentieuſe*, 8vo, 1695; and the other *De la Juriſdiction voluntaire*, 8vo, 1697.

DU'CAT, *ſ.* [from *duke*.] A coin ſtruck by dukes: in ſilver, valued at about four ſhillings and ſixpence; in gold, at nine ſhillings and ſixpence:

I cannot inſtantly raiſe up the groſs
Of full three thouſand *ducats*. *Shakeſpeare.*

The origin of ducats is referred to Longinus, governor of Italy; who, revolting againſt the emperor Juſtin the Younger, made himſelf duke of Ravenna, and called himſelf *Exarcha*, i. e. without lord or ruler; and, to ſhow his independence, ſtruck pieces of money of very pure gold in his own name, and with his own ſtamp, which were called *ducati*, ducats.

DUCATOO'N, *ſ.* A ſilver coin, ſtruck chiefly in Italy; particularly at Milan, Venice, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Mantua, and Parma. They are valued at about four ſhillings and eightpence ſterling. There is alſo a gold ducatoon, ſtruck chiefly in Holland: it is equivalent to twenty florins, of one ſhilling and elevenpence halfpenny the florin.

DUCE, or DEUCE, *ſ.* [*deux*, Fr. of *duo*, Lat.] The two on cards or dice.

DUCE *take you*, [probably from *bueȝ*, Sax. a ſpectre.] The devil take you.

DUCENA'RIUS, *ſ.* in antiquity, an officer in the Roman army, who had the command of two hundred men. In the inſcription at Palmyra, the word *ducenarius*, in Greek δεκεναρίος, occurs very often.

DUCENTE'SIMA, *ſ.* in antiquity, a tax of the two hundredth penny, exacted by the Romans.

DU'CES TE'CUM, *ſ.* in law, a writ commanding a perſon to appear at a certain day in the court of chancery, and to bring with him ſome writings, evidences, or other things which the court would view. So *ſubpœnas duces tecum*, are often ſued out at common law, to compel witneſſes to produce, on trials at *niſi prius*, deeds, bonds, bills, notes, books, or memorandums, &c. which are in their cuſtody or power, and which relate to the iſſue in queſtion. But if they are in the poſſeſſion or power of the adverſe party or his attorney, it is cuſtomary to give notice to the attorney to produce them, and on proof made in open court, before the judge of niſi prius, of ſuch notice, the court generally compels the attorney, or his client, to produce the ſame, if material. If not produced, parol evidence may be given of their contents.

DUCES TECUM LICET LANGUIDUS, a writ directed to the ſheriff, upon a return that he cannot bring his priſoner without danger of death, he being *adeo languidus*; then the court grants a habeas corpus, in the nature of a *duces tecum licet languidus*. But this is now out of uſe; for where the perſon's life would be endangered by removal, the law will not permit it to be done.

DU'CEY, a town of France, in the department of the Channel, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Avranches: one league and a half ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Avranches.

DU'CHAL (James), an eminent Iriſh nonconformiſt divine, born moſt probably at or near Antrim, in 1697. His collegiate ſtudies he purſued at the univerſity of Glaſgow, where he continued till he was of a proper ſtanding to take the degree of maſter of arts. Soon afterwards he entered upon the work of the miniſtry, and had his firſt ſettlement with a ſmall congregation at Cambridge. To the diligence with which, during this period, he cultivated ethics and divinity, and other branches of learning more immediately connected with his profeſſion, may in a conſiderable degree be attributed the reputation by which he was afterwards diſtinguiſhed among the Iriſh nonconformiſt divines. Whilſt he was at Cambridge he publiſhed, in 1728, three valuable ſermons, intitled The Practice of Religion recommended, in 8vo. Upon the death of Mr. Abernethy, in 1740, he became that gentleman's ſucceſſor, and ſettled with the proteſtant diſſenting congregation in Wood-ſtreet, Dublin. In 1752, Mr. Duchal publiſhed a very excellent collection of diſcourſes, abounding in judicious and pointed reaſoning, ſound philoſophy, and liberality of ſentiment. It is intitled Preſumptive Arguments for the Truth and Divine Authority of the Chriſtian Religion; in ten Sermons: to which is added, a Sermon upon God's Moral Government, 8vo. Soon after the appearance of this work, the author had the degree of doctor in divinity conferred upon him by the univerſity in which he had been educated. He died in 1761, deeply regretted by numerous friends. His character appears to have been truly eſtimable for piety, morality, modeſty, candour, and benevolence. Since his death three volumes of his ſermons have been publiſhed, taken, for the greateſt part, indiſcriminately from the vaſt maſs which he left behind him. Beſides ſermons, Dr. Duchal is ſaid to have been the author of various occaſional publications, both in England and Ireland, which moſt probably related to the theological controverſies of the times: and in the ſecond volume of The Theological Repoſitory may be found two eſſays by him, one On the Obligation of Truth, and the other On the Doctrine of Atonement.

DUCHA'T (Jacob le), an eſtimable man of letters, born at Metz, in 1658. His father was a commiſſary at war, of a family from Troyes in Champagne, which had become refugees on account of proteſtantiſm. Duchat ſtudied law at Straſburg, and purſued it profeſſionally till the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He then retired to Berlin, where he was made counſellor of the upper court of French judicature, and member of the Royal Academy of Sciences. He lived in celibacy, devoted to the purſuit of literature and the ſociety of his friends, and died in 1735. Duchat was well acquainted with the old French authors who wrote previouſly to the reign of Henry IV. He gave editions of ſeveral of them, enriched with notes and anecdotes, of which the principal are: 1. *Confeſſion Catholique du Sieur de Sancy*, 1693, 1720. 2. *La Satyre Menippée*, 1696, 1714. 3. *Les Oeuvres de Rabelais*, 5 vols. 8vo. 3 vols. 4to. 1715. 4. *Les Aventures du Baron de Feneſte*, 1729. 5. *Les Quinze Joies du Mariage*, 1734. 6. *L'Apologie pour Herodote*, 1735. After his death were publiſhed *Ducatiana*, 2 vols. 8vo, a compilation of his remarks, &c.

DUCHE' DE VANCY (Joſeph Francis) a French poet, born at Paris, in 1668. He was brought up to letters, and wrote ſome poems, which ſo much pleaſed madame de Maintenon, that ſhe made choice of him to compoſe ſacred poems for the young ladies of St. Cyr. He was of an amiable character, and cheriſhed in ſociety, which he enlivened by an extraordinary talent for declamation. He was admitted into the academy of inſcriptions and belles-lettres, and died in 1704, at the age of thirty-ſeven. He compoſed, in imitation of Racine, ſome tragedies from ſcripture ſubjects; of which his Abſalom contained ſome pathetic ſcenes, which gave it a permanent place on the ſtage. He alſo wrote a collection of Ediſying Hiſtories. Of the pieces he wrote at an early period, the beſt is his Iphigenia in Tauris, an opera in the grand ſtyle, which, according to Voltaire, affords a lively idea of the beſt parts in the Greek tragedies.

DU'CHESS, or DUTCHESS, [*ducheſſe*, Fr.] The lady of a duke. A lady who has the ſovereignty of a dukedom:

The gen'rous god who wit and gold refines,
And ripens ſpirits as he ripens mines,
Kept droſs for *ducheſſes*, the world ſhall know it,
To you gave ſenſe, good humour, and a poet. *Pope.*

The only remedy for theſe evils, was concluded to be the eſpouſals of the *dutcheſs* of Britanny and the king of France. *Hume.*—A title of dignity for a female:

What think you of a *dutcheſs?* have you limbs
To bear that load of title? *Shakeſpeare.*

DU'CHESS COUNTY, a county of the American States, in the ſtate of New York, on the eaſt ſide of Hudſon river. It has the ſtate of Connecticut on the eaſt, Weſt Cheſter on the ſouth, and Columbia county on the north. It is about forty-eight miles long and twenty-three broad, and contains fifteen townſhips, of which Poughkeepſie and Fiſh Kill are the chief. It contains 45,266 inhabitants; and ſends ſeven repreſentatives to the aſſembly of the ſtate. In 1792, a remarkable cavern was diſcovered in this county, at a place called by the Indians Sepaſcot, at Rhynbeck. A lad, by chance, paſſing near its entrance, which lies between two huge rocks, on the declivity of a ſteep hill, on prying into the gloomy receſs, ſaw the top of a ladder, by which he deſcended about ten feet, and found himſelf in a ſubterraneous apartment, more capacious than he choſe to inveſtigate. He found, however, that it had been the abode of perſons, who, probably, during the American war, had taken ſhelter here, as bits of cloth and pieces of leather were ſcattered about its floor. Like many other caverns in the United States, it poſſeſſes a petrifying quality; and the water, which is conſtantly percolating through the roofs of its apartments, has formed a variety of tranſparent and beautiful ſtalactites. But what is moſt to be admired is the ſkeleton of a large ſnake, turned into ſolid ſtone by the petrifying quality of the water, yet having all its parts as perfect and complete as in real life.

DU'CHESS (La), a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Abruzzo Ultra: eleven miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Aquila.

DU'CHY, *ſ.* [*duché*, Fr.] A territory which gives title to a duke, or has a duke for its ſovereign.

DU'CHY COURT, *ſ.* A court wherein all matters belonging to the duchy or county palatine of Lancaſter are decided. See the article CHANCELLOR of the DUCHY of LANCASTER, vol. iv. p. 87.

DUCHOVTSCHI'NA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Smolenſk: twenty-four miles north of Smolenſk, and 300 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg.

DUCK, *ſ.* [*ducken*, Dut. to dip.] A water-fowl, both wild and tame. See ANAS, vol. i. p. 515.

The *ducks*, that heard the proclamation cry'd,
And fear'd a proſecution might betide,
Full twenty mile from town their voyage take,
Obſcure in ruſhes of the liquid lake. *Dryden.*

A word of endearment, or fondneſs:

Will you buy any tape or lace for your cap,
My dainty *duck*, my dear-a? *Shakeſpeare.*

A declination of the head; ſo called from the frequent action of a duck in the water:

Back, ſhepherds, back; enough your play
Till next ſunſhine holyday;
Here be without *duck* or nod,
Other trippings to be trod. *Milton.*

A ſtone thrown obliquely on the water, ſo as to ſtrike it and rebound.—Neither croſs and pile, nor *ducks* and drakes, are quite ſo ancient as handy-dandy. *Arbuthnot.*

To DUCK, *v. n.* To dive under water as a duck:

Let the labouring bark climb hills of ſeas
Olympus high, and *duck* again as low
As hell's from heaven. *Shakeſpeare.*

To drop down the head, as a duck:

When at a ſkirmiſh firſt he hears
The bullets whiſtling round his ears,
Will *duck* his head aſide, will ſtart,
And feel a trembling at his heart. *Swift.*

To bow low; to cringe. In Scottiſh, *duyk*, or *juyk*, to make obeiſance, is ſtill uſed:

The learned pate
Ducks to the golden fool. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DUCK, *v. a.* To put under water.

DUCK, a river of North America, in Tenneſſee, which riſes on the north-weſt ſide of the Cumberland mountain. It runs a north-weſt courſe, and empties into the Tenneſſee in north lat. 36. It is 200 yards wide five miles from its mouth, which is fifty-ſeven miles weſterly of Naſhville; and is boatable ninety miles.

DUCK ISLAND, a ſmall iſland in the Atlantic, near the coaſt of Main, in North America, belonging to the American States. Lat. 44. 45. N. lon. 67. 43. W. Greenwich.

DUCK'S-FOOT. See PODOPHYLLUM.

DUCK'S-MEAT. See LEMNA.

DUCK'CREEK, a town of the American States, in the ſtate of Delaware, now named SALISBURY.

DUCK'COY, *ſ.* Any means of enticing and enſnaring.—Seducers have found it the moſt compendious way to their deſigns, to lead captive ſilly women, and make them the *duckcoys* to their whole family. *Decay of Piety.*

DUCK'ER, *ſ.* A diver; one that ducks another. A cringer.

DUCK'INGSTOOL, *ſ.* A chair in which ſcolds are tied,

tied, and put under water. See the article CASTIGATORY, vol iii. p. 884.—Reclaim the obſtinately opprobrious and virulent women, and make the *ducking ſtool* more uſeful. *Addiſon.*

DUCK'LEGGED, *adj.* Short legged:

Ducklegged, ſhort waiſted, ſuch a dwarf ſhe is,
That ſhe muſt riſe on tiptoes for a kiſs. *Dryden.*

DUCK'LING, *ſ.* A young duck; the brood of the duck:

Ev'ry morn
Amid the *ducklings* let her ſcatter, corn. *Gay.*

DUCK'STEIN, *ſ.* [Germ.] A white calcareous ſtone, formed by the depoſition of chalk from water, in which it is diffuſed. It is generally formed on branches or roots of trees, and ſtones of different kinds, and differs from the ſtalactites in its mode of formation, this laſt being depoſited by water in the act of evaporation as it tranſudes through the roofs of caverns.

DUCK'TRAP, a town of the American States, in the diſtrict of Maine, where a poſt-office is kept, in Hancock county, containing 278 inhabitants; twelve miles from Belfaſt, and thirty-two from Penobſcot.

DU'CLER, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Caudebec: three leagues and a half weſt-ſouth-weſt of Rouen.

DU'CLOS (Charles Dineau), an eminent French writer, born in 1705, ſon of a hatter at Dinant in Britanny. He received a liberal education at Paris, where he ſoon made himſelf known as a writer, and was admitted into the academy of inſcriptions in 1739, and into the French academy in 1747. Of the latter he was made perpetual ſecretary on the death of Mirabaud. His native place nominated him its firſt magiſtrate in 1744; and, when the king, in recompence for the patriotic zeal diſplayed by the province of Britanny, propoſed to confer honours on ſome of its members who ſhould be recommended, Duclos was unanimouſly nominated by the third eſtate, and was in conſequence ennobled by letters patent. He was alſo penſioned, and obtained the poſt of hiſtoriographer of France. It was ſaid of him, that he was at the ſame time *droit & adroit*, honeſt and dextrous. He wrote ſeveral novels, which are ingenious and intereſting, though the incidents and characters are rather fanciful than natural. The beſt of theſe is, *Confeſſions du Comte de* . . . . . His Hiſtory of Louis XI. 3 vols. 12mo. 1745; and Supplement, 1 vol. 1746, is a work of curious reſearch, written in a conciſe and elegant ſtile, but too much in the ſententious manner of Tacitus. His moral work, intitled *Conſiderations ſur les Mœurs de ce Siècle*, is much eſteemed for the truth and correctneſs of its maxims, and the ingenuity of its diſcuſſions. His Remarks on the Grammar of the Port Royal, and ſeveral diſſertations in the Memoirs of the Academy of Belles Lettres, do honour to his judgment and erudition. He had a large ſhare in the Dictionary of the French Academy; and, ſince his death, there have appeared under his name, Secret Memoirs of the Reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. in 2 vols. 8vo. 1791, which are accounted authentic, and contain many free and curious particulars of the periods treated of. The following he recommends as the beſt maxims of human life: "Mankind are ſo much indebted to each other, that they owe mutual attention; they owe each other a politeneſs worthy of themſelves, worthy of thinking beings, and varied according to the different ſentiments that ſhould dictate it. The politeneſs of the great, therefore, ſhould be that of humanity; and that of inferiors gratitude, if the great deſerve it; that of equals eſteem and mutual ſervices; far from endeavouring to encourage incivility, it is much to be wiſhed, that the politeneſs ariſing from ſoftneſs of manners ſhould be added to that which proceeds from goodneſs of heart."

"The moſt pernicious effect of the common politeneſs of the world is, that it teaches us to do without thoſe virtues which it imitates. Were we but taught by our education to be humane and benevolent, we ſhould either poſſeſs politeneſs, or could do very well without it. We ſhould not, perhaps, have that politeneſs which announces itſelf by the graces, but we ſhould have that which announces the honeſt man and the man of honour. We ſhould then have no occaſion to have recourſe to mere appearances. Inſtead of being artificial to pleaſe, it would then be ſufficient that we were good men; inſtead of being diſſemblers to flatter the weakneſs of others, it would be enough for us only to be indulgent to them. Thoſe to whom we behaved in this manner would neither be rendered inſolent nor corrupted by it; they would only be grateful and become better."

It was an obſervation of Duclos, "That rogues always leagued together, whilſt honeſt men kept themſelves iſolated." "Impious and profligate writings (ſaid he) are read once for their novelty, and, except on account of the bad principles they contain, they would never have been taken the leaſt notice of; like thoſe obſcure criminals whoſe names are known only by their crimes and their puniſhments." Duclos died in 1772. He was a man of much integrity, a faithful friend, and a patron of merit.

DUCT, *ſ.* [*ductus*, Lat.] Guidance; direction.—This doctrine, by faſtening all our actions by a fatal decree at the foot of God's chair, leaves nothing to us but only to obey our fate, to follow the *duct* of the ſtars, or neceſſity of thoſe irony chains which we are born under. *Hammond.*—A paſſage through which any thing is conducted: a term chiefly uſed by anatomiſts.—It was obſerved that the chyle, in the thoracic *duct*, retained the original taſte of the aliment. *Arbuthnot.*

DUCTABI'LITY, *ſ.* Eaſineſs of belief, the quality of being eaſily led.

DUC'TABLE, or DUCTIBLE, *adj.* [from the Lat. *duco*, to lead.] Eaſy of belief, eaſy to be led, ductile.

DUC'TILE, *adj.* [*ductilis*, Lat.] Flexible; pliable:

Thick woods and gloomy night
Conceal the happy plant from human ſight:
One bough it bears; but, won'drous to behold!
The *ductile* rind and leaves of radiant gold. *Dryden.*

Eaſy to be drawn out into length, or expanded.—All bodies *ductile* and tenſile, as metals, that will be drawn into wires; wool and tow, that will be drawn into yarn or thread; have the appetite of not diſcontinuing ſtrong. *Bacon.*—Tractable; obſequious; complying; yielding:

He generous thoughts inſtils
Of true nobility; forms their *ductile* minds
To human virtues. *Philips.*

DUC'TILENESS, *ſ.* Flexibility; ductility:

I, when I value gold, may think upon
The *ductileneſs*, the application;
The wholeſomeneſs, the ingenuity,
From ruſt, from ſoil, from fire, ever free. *Donne.*

DUCTI'LITY, *ſ.* Quality of ſuffering extenſion; flexibility. Obſequiouſneſs; compliance.—Yellow colour and *ductility* are properties of gold: they belong to all gold, but not only to gold; for ſaffron is alſo yellow, and lead is *ductile*. *Watts.*—This term is almoſt excluſively applied to ſuch bodies as are capable of being beaten, preſſed, drawn, or ſtretched forth, without breaking; or by which they are capable of great alterations in their figure and dimenſions, and of gaining in one way what they loſe in another. Such are metals, which, being urged by the hammer, gain in length and breadth what they loſe in thickneſs; or, being drawn into wire through holes in iron, grow longer as they become more ſlender. Such alſo are gums, glues, reſins, and ſome other bodies; which, though not malleable, may yet be denominated ductile, in as much as, when ſoftened by water, fire, or ſome other menſtruum, they

may be drawn into threads. Some bodies are ductile both when they are hot and cold, and in all circumſtances: ſuch are metals, and eſpecially gold and ſilver; other bodies are ductile only when they have a certain degree of heat; ſuch as glaſs and wax; others again are ductile only when cold, and brittle when hot; as ſome kinds of iron, viz. thoſe called by workmen redſhot, as alſo braſs, and ſome metallic alloys.

The cauſe of ductility is very obſcure; as depending much on hardneſs, a quality whoſe nature we know but little about. It is true, it is uſual to account for hardneſs from the force of attraction between the particles of the hard body; and for ductility, from the particles of the ductile body being, as it were jointed, and entangled with each other. But without dwelling on any fanciful hypotheſes about ductility, we may inform ourſelves of ſome truly amazing circumſtances and phenomena of it, in the inſtances of gold, glaſs, ſpider's webs, &c. obſerving, however, that the ductility of metals decreaſes in the following order: gold, ſilver, copper, iron, tin, lead.

Gold is ſaid to be the moſt ductile of all bodies; of which the gold-beaters and gold-wire-drawers furniſh us with abundant proofs. Merſenne, Rohault, Dr. Halley, &c. have made computations of it; but they truſted to the reports of the workmen. M. Reaumur, in the *Memoires de l'Academie Royale des Sciences*, anno 1713, took a ſurer way; he made the experiment himſelf. A ſingle grain of gold, he found, even in the common gold-leaf, uſed in moſt of our gildings, is extended into thirty-ſix and a half ſquare inches; and an ounce of gold, which, in form of a cube, is not half an inch either high, broad, or long, is beat under the hammer into a ſurface of 146 and a half ſquare feet; an extent almoſt double to what could be done in former times. In Merſenne's time, it was deemed prodigious, that an ounce of gold ſhould form 1600 leaves; which, together, only made a ſurface of 105 ſquare feet. But the diſtenſion of gold under the hammer (how conſiderable ſoever) is nothing to that which it undergoes in the drawing-iron. There are gold leaves in ſome parts ſcarcely the $\frac{1}{360000}$ part of an inch thick; but $\frac{1}{360000}$ part of an inch is a conſiderable thickneſs, in compariſon of that of the gold ſpun on ſilk in our gold thread. To conceive this prodigious ductility, it is neceſſary to have ſome idea of the manner in which the wire-drawers proceed. The wire and thread we commonly call gold-thread, &c. (which is only ſilver-wire gilt, or covered over with gold,) is drawn from a large ingot of ſilver, uſually about thirty pounds weight. This they round into a cylinder, or roll, about an inch and a half in diameter, and twenty-two inches long, and cover it with the leaves prepared by the gold beater, laying one over another, till the cover is a good deal thicker than that in our ordinary gilding; and yet, even then, it is very thin; as will be eaſily conceived from the quantity of gold that goes to gild the thirty pounds of ſilver: two ounces ordinarily do the buſineſs; and, frequently, little more than one. In effect, the full thickneſs of the gold on the ingot rarely exceeds $\frac{1}{400}$ or $\frac{1}{500}$ part; and ſometimes not $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch. But this thin coat of gold muſt be yet vaſtly thinner: the ingot is ſucceſſively drawn through the holes of ſeveral irons, each ſmaller than the other, till it be as fine or finer than a hair. Every new hole leſſens its diameter; but it gains in length what it loſes in thickneſs; and, of conſequence, increaſes in ſurface: yet the gold ſtill covers it; it follows the ſilver in all its extenſion, and never leaves the minuteſt part bare, not even to the microſcope. Yet, how inconceivably muſt it be attenuated while the ingot is drawn into a thread, whoſe diameter is 9000 times leſs than that of the ingot.

M. Reaumur, by exact weighing, and rigorous calculation, found, that one ounce of the thread was 3232 feet long; and the whole ingot 1,163,520 feet, Paris meaſure, or ninety-ſix French leagues; equal to 1,264,400 Engliſh feet, or 240 miles Engliſh; an extent which far ſurpaſſes what Merſenne, Furetiere, Dr. Halley, &c. ever dreamt of. Merſenne ſays, that half an ounce of the thread is 100 toiſes, or fathoms long; on which footing, an ounce would only be 1200 feet; whereas M. Reaumur finds it 3232. Dr. Halley makes ſix feet of the wire one grain in weight, and one grain of the gold ninety-eight yards; and, conſequently, the ten thouſandth part of a grain, above one-third of an inch. The diameter of the wire he found one-186th part of an inch; and the thickneſs of the gold one-154,500th part of an inch. But this, too, comes ſhort of M. Reaumur; for, on this principle, the ounce of wire would only be 2680 feet. But the ingot is not yet extended to its full length. The greateſt part of our gold-thread is ſpun, or wound on ſilk; and, before it is ſpun, they flat it, by paſſing it between two rolls, or wheels of exceedingly well poliſhed ſteel; which wheels, in flatting it, lengthen it by above one-ſeventh. So that our 240 miles are brought to 274. The breadth, now, of theſe laminæ, or plates, M. Reaumur finds, is only one-eighth of a line, or one-ninety-ſixth of an inch; and their thickneſs one-3072d. The ounce of gold, then, is here extended to a ſurface of 1190 ſquare feet; whereas the utmoſt the gold-beaters can do, we have obſerved, is to extend it to 146 ſquare feet. But the gold, thus exceedingly extended, how thin muſt it be! From M. Reaumur's calculus, it is found to be one-175,000th of a line, or one-2,100,000th of an inch; which is ſcarcely one-thirteenth of the thickneſs of Dr. Halley's gold. But, he adds, that this ſuppoſes the thickneſs of the gold every where equal, which is no ways probable; for in beating the gold-leaves, whatever care they can beſtow, it is impoſſible to extend them equally. This we eaſily find, by the greater opacity of ſome parts than others; for, where the leaf is thickeſt, it will gild the wire the thickeſt.

M. Reaumur, computing what the thickneſs of the gold muſt be where thineſt, finds it only one-3,150,000th part of an inch. But what is the one-3,150,000th part of an inch? Yet this is not the utmoſt ductility of gold; for, inſtead of two ounces of gold to the ingot, which we have here computed upon, a ſingle one might have been uſed; and, then, the thickneſs of the gold, in the thineſt places, would only be the 6,300,000th part of an inch. And yet, as thin as the plates are, they might be made twice as thin, yet ſtill be gilt; by only preſſing them more between the flatter's wheels, they are extended to double the breadth and proportionably in length. So that their thickneſs, at laſt, will be reduced to one-thirteen or fourteen millionth part of an inch. Yet, with this amazing thinneſs of the gold, it is ſtill a perfect cover for the ſilver: the beſt eye, or even the beſt microſcope, cannot diſcover the leaſt chaſm, or diſcontinuity. There is not an aperture to admit alcohol of wine, the ſubtileſt fluid in nature, or even light itſelf, unleſs it be owing to cracks occaſioned by repeated ſtrokes of the hammer. And, if a piece of this gold-thread, or gold-plate, be laid to diſſolve in aquafortis, the ſilver will be all excavated, or eat out, and the gold left entire, in little tubules. It ſhould be obſerved, that gold, when it has been ſtruck for ſome time by a hammer, or violently compreſſed, as by gold-wire-drawers, becomes more hard, elaſtic, and ſtiff, and leſs ductile, ſo that it is apt to be cracked or torn: the ſame thing happens to the other metals by percuſſion and compreſſion. But ductility and tractability may be reſtored to metals in that ſtate, by annealing them, or making them red-hot. Gold ſeems to be more affected by percuſſion and annealing, than any other metals.

As to the ductility of ſoft bodies, it is not yet carried to that pitch. The reader, however, muſt not be ſurpriſed that, among the ductile bodies of this claſs, we give the firſt place to the moſt brittle of all other, glaſs. We all know that, when well penetrated with the heat of the fire, the workmen can figure and manage glaſs like ſoft wax; but, what is moſt remarkable, it may be drawn, or ſpun out into threads, exceedingly fine and long. Our ordinary ſpinners do not form their threads of ſilk, flax,

or the like, with half the eaſe and expedition that glaſs-ſpinners do threads of this brittle matter. We have ſome of them uſed in plumes for children's heads, and divers other works, much finer than any hair, and which bend and wave like it with every wind. Yet nothing is more ſimple and eaſy than the method of making them: there are two workmen employed; the firſt holds one end of a piece of glaſs over the flame of a lamp; and, when the heat has ſoftened it, a ſecond operator applies a glaſs hook to the metal thus in fuſion; and, withdrawing the hook again, it brings with it a thread of glaſs, which ſtill adheres to the maſs: then, fitting his hook on the circumference of a wheel about two feet and a half in diameter, he turns the wheel as faſt as he pleaſes; which, drawing out the thread, winds it on its rim; till, after a certain number of revolutions, it is covered with a ſkain of glaſs-thread.

The maſs in fuſion over the lamp diminiſhes inſenſibly: being wound out, as it were, like a pelotoon, or clue of ſilk, upon the wheel; and the parts, as they recede from the flame, cooling, become more coherent to thoſe next to them; and this by degrees: the parts neareſt the fire are always the leaſt coherent, and, of conſequence, muſt give way to the effort the reſt make to draw them towards the wheel. The circumference of theſe threads is uſually a flat oval, being three or four times as broad as thick: ſome of them ſeem no bigger than the thread of a ſilk-worm, and are ſurpriſingly flexible. If the two ends of ſuch threads be knotted together, they may be drawn and bent, till the aperture, or ſpace in the middle of the knot, doth not exceed one-fourth of a line, or one-forty-eighth of an inch diameter. Hence M. Reaumur advances, that the flexibility of glaſs increaſes in proportion to the fineneſs of the threads; and that, probably, had we but the art of drawing threads as fine as a ſpider's web, we might weave ſtuffs and cloths of them for wear. Accordingly he made ſome experiments this way; and found he could make threads fine enough, viz. as fine, in his judgment, as ſpider's thread, but he could never make them long enough to uſe in a loom. The ductility and fineneſs of the ſpider's web, ſurpaſſes all that has been ſtated above; and ſome of them are ſo fine, as ſcarcely to be diſcerned without a microſcope. See the article ARANEA, vol. ii. p. 31.

DUC'TION, *ſ.* The act of leading. *Not much uſed.*

DUD, a town of Africa, in the country of Moſambique, where the king reſides.

DU'DA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty-eight miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Lida.

DU'DAIM, *ſ.* in botany. See CUCUMIS.

DUD'DEN, a river of England, which runs into the Iriſh ſea, about three miles ſouth from Dalton, in Lancaſhire.

DU'DEN, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Caramania: ten miles north of Satalia.

DU'DEN, a river of Aſiatic Turkey, which runs into the ſea near Satalia.

DU'DENHOFEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Hanau Munzenberg: ſeven miles ſouth of Hanau.

DU'DERSTADT, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and territory of Eichsfield; containing three churches; ceded to the elector of Mentz in 1365, by Otho, ſon of Henry, duke of Brunſwick. The principal trade is in beer and tobacco: forty-ſix miles north weſt of Erfurt, and twenty weſt of Nordhauſen.

DUD'GEON, *ſ.* [*dolch*, Germ.] A ſmall dagger:

It was a ſerviceable *dudgeon*,
Either for fighting or for drudging. *Hudibras.*

Malice; fullenneſs; malignity; ill will.—The cuckoo took this a little in *dudgeon*. *L'Eſtrange.*

Civil *dudgeon* firſt grew high,
And men fell out they knew not why. *Hudibras.*

DU'DITH (Andrew), a learned Hungarian prelate, born at Buda in 1533. Being deſcended from a noble and opulent family, he enjoyed all the advantages of a liberal education, and ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the brightneſs of his parts, and the proficiency which he made in the different branches of literature. He was ſent to Breſlau in Sileſia, to be initiated in claſſical learning, and to become acquainted with the German tongue. At eighteen years of age he was removed to Verona, where he made ſuch a rapid progreſs in the Latin and Greek languages, in the ſtudy of eloquence, and in other departments of the belles-lettres, that he acquired very high reputation among the Italian literati. From Italy he went to France, to make himſelf maſter of the Hebrew and the other oriental languages. From Paris he returned again to Italy, and ſtudied for ſome years at Padua. When, in the year 1554, cardinal Pole was nominated papal legate to the court of England, Dudith was engaged by him to become one of his train, and recommended himſelf to the notice and eſteem of queen Mary and her ſiſter Elizabeth. Not long afterwards he returned into his native country, and was appointed provoſt of Oberbaden, and canon of Gran. Here he tranſlated into Latin, The Judgment of Dionyſius Halicarnaſſenſis on the Hiſtory of Thucydides, and laid the foundation of ſome other literary works. In 1560, Dudith repaired to the court of Vienna, where his merits occaſioned his being appointed one of the privy-councillors to the emperor Ferdinand II. and were, in a ſhort time, further honoured by his nomination to the biſhopric of Tina in Dalmatia. In 1662, he was deputed by the clergy of Hungary to be one of their repreſentatives in the council of Trent. The emperor afterwards ſent him his ambaſſador into Poland, to the court of Sigiſmund Auguſtus; and on his return tranſlated him to the biſhopric of five churches. After the death of Ferdinand, his ſon and ſucceſſor, Maximilian II. who entertained the ſame opinion of his character and abilities with his father, ſent him alſo as his ambaſſador into Poland. By this time Dudith had undergone a revolution in his religious opinions, and was determined to withdraw from the communion of the church of Rome. This event drew on his head the thunders of the Vatican; but he treated them with contempt, and, retaining ſtill the eſteem and confidence of the emperor, was appointed his reſident in Poland, where he publicly profeſſed the proteſtant religion. From hence he returned to Breſlau, where he died in 1589, in the ſixtieth year of his age. Dudith was unqueſtionably one of the moſt learned and eminent men of the ſixteenth century. His life was regular and virtuous, his manners polite and conciliating, and his benevolence warm and unconfined. He was the author of numerous treatiſes in controverſy, phyſics, and poetry. His Diſcourſes pronounced at the Council of Trent, An Apology for the Emperor Maximilian II. A Treatiſe in Favour of the Marriage of the Clergy, together with ſome other pieces, and his Life by Reuter, were publiſhed in quarto, in 1610. The principal of his other works are, A Treatiſe on Comets, with Diſſertations on the ſame Subject, 1579; *Epiſtolæ Medicinales*, publiſhed in the *Epiſtolæ Philoſophicæ, Medicæ, & Chymicæ*, of Laurence Scholzius, 1598; Latin Poems, inſerted in the two volumes of The Beauties of German Poetry; *Notæ Duplices in Fauſti Socini Diſputationem de Baptiſmo Aquæ, &c.* 1613, 8vo. and other controverſial pieces, letters, &c.

DUDLEY, an ancient town in Worceſterſhire, diſtant 120 miles from London, with a market on Saturdays; fairs May 8, Auguſt 5, October 2. The inhabitants have an extenſive manufacture for nails and other iron-wares. Here are three charity ſchools, one for fifty boys, another for fifty girls, and the other a free grammar ſchool. At a little diſtance from the town are the ruins of Dudley priory, built in 1160. It is ſituated on the road from Birmingham to Bridgnorth, ten miles from the former, and ſixteen from the latter. Dudley caſtle is adjacent to the town, though in the county of Stafford. It was originally built in the year 700, but was demoliſhed by Hen-

ry II.

ry II. The modern caſtle is a ſpacious building, with trenches hewn out of the rock, and ſtands on a lofty hill, having an extenſive proſpect into five counties, and a great part of Wales. Oldbury chapel is one mile eaſt of Dudley caſtle, where Tame has its riſe. Near it is a Roman camp, and the portway paſſed near it.

DUD'LEY, a townſhip of the American States, in Worceſter county, Maſſachuſetts, containing 1114 inhabitants: eighteen miles ſouthward of Worceſter, and fifty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Boſton.

DUD'LEY (Edmund), an eminent lawyer and ſtateſman, in the reign of Henry VII. who, with ſir Richard Empſon, another lawyer of the ſame complexion, aſſiſted in filling that rapacious monarch's coffers by arbitrary proſecutions of the people on old penal ſtatutes. They were beheaded on the acceſſion of Henry VIII. to pacify the clamours of the people for juſtice.

DUD'LEY (John), duke of Northumberland, ſon of the above, a ſtateſman; memorable in the Engliſh hiſtory for his unſucceſsful attempt to place the crown on the head of his daughter-in-law, lady Jane Grey, who fell a victim to his ambition, was born in 1502, and beheaded in 1553. Ambroſe his eldeſt ſon was a brave general and able ſtateſman under queen Elizabeth; and received the appellation of *the good earl of Warwick*. Henry, the duke's ſecond ſon, was killed at the ſiege of St. Quintin. Robert, the third ſon, was created earl of Leiceſter; and was one of queen Elizabeth's favourites. His fourth ſon was the unfortunate lord Guildford Dudley, whoſe only crime was his being the huſband of lady Jane Grey, for which he was beheaded in 1554.

DUD'LEY (Robert), earl of Leiceſter, third ſon of John duke of Northumberland, above-mentioned, born anno 1532. He was admitted early into the ſervice and favour of Edward VI. but with the reſt of his family fell into diſgrace at the acceſſion of Mary; no ſooner, however, did Elizabeth ſucceed, than he was received at court as a principal favourite; in a ſhort ſpace he was maſter of the horſe, knight of the garter, and privy-counſellor, and was propoſed by queen Elizabeth (though probably not ſeriouſly) as a proper huſband for the queen of Scots, an offer which was generally thought to have been made, to afford Elizabeth an excuſe for taking him herſelf; the death of Dudley's lady at this period gave riſe to many dark ſuſpicions; ſhe was conducted by her huſband to the houſe of a domeſtic at Cumnor, in Berkſhire, where, as it was ſaid, after ſome attempts to poiſon her had proved inefficacious, ſhe was firſt ſtrangled, and then thrown from a high ſtair-caſe, that her death might appear to have been occaſioned by the fall. In 1564, he was created baron Denbigh, and earl of Leiceſter, and elected chancellor of the univerſity of Oxford; about this time he married the dowager baroneſs of Sheffield, but afterwards, fearing it would occaſion the diminution of his influence over Elizabeth, he exerted himſelf by various means to induce his lady to deſiſt from her pretenſions; finding her, however, immoveable, he recurred to his former expedient of poiſon, which the ſtrong conſtitution of the lady ſo far reſiſted as to enable her to eſcape with the loſs of her hair and nails; ſhe had a ſon whom Leiceſter called his baſe ſon, but to whom he left the bulk of his fortune. In 1575, the queen paid him a viſit at Kenilworth, where he entertained her ſeventeen days, at the expence of ſixty thouſand pounds. At this period appeared a pamphlet written with great force, entitled, A Dialogue between a Scholar, a Gentleman, and a Lawyer, in which the whole of Leiceſter's conduct was inveſtigated with equal truth and bitterneſs; the queen herſelf cauſed letters to be written from the privy-council, denying the charges, and vindicating her favourite's innocence; the pamphlet, however, was not the leſs read nor credited. In 1585, he was ſent as generaliſſimo to the Low Countries, where his conduct was ſuch a tiſſue of inſolence and caprice, that he was recalled, but loſt nothing in his miſtreſs's favour, who conſulted him on the arduous affair of Mary, queen of Scots, and it is reported his advice was to have recourſe to his old expedient poiſon. He died in September 1588, after having been appointed lieutenant-general under the queen, of the army aſſembled at Tilbury. With one of the blackeſt hearts, this man affected great regularity in religious duties; he was thoroughly converſant in the Latin and Italian languages, ſpoke well, and wrote at leaſt equal to any man of his time.

DUD'LEY (ſir Robert), natural ſon of Robert earl of Leiceſter, mentioned in the preceding article, born at Sheen in 1573. He was educated at Chriſt church college, Oxford, and acquired the character of one of the moſt learned and accompliſhed among the young men of quality in England. His enterpriſing diſpoſition prompted him to undertake a voyage of adventure and diſcovery; and he planned an expedition at his own expence to the South Seas, with a ſmall ſquadron under his own command, in 1594, and ſailed up the river Oronoque; in which expedition he took and deſtroyed ſeveral Spaniſh ſhips. An account of it, written by himſelf, was publiſhed in Hackluyt's collection. He was preſent at the taking of Cadiz in 1596, and diſtinguiſhed his courage in that glorious action, ſo as to obtain the honour of knighthood. He now made an attempt to eſtabliſh the legitimacy of his birth; but was oppoſed by the counteſs-dowager of Leiceſter, who found means to put a ſtop to his proceedings. In conſequence of this diſappointment, he reſolved to take up his reſidence at Florence, where he was made chamberlain to the wife of the grand duke Coſmo II. ſiſter to the emperor Ferdinand. Through her intereſt he was created a duke of the holy Roman empire, and thereupon aſſumed his grandfather's title of Northumberland, and was afterwards enrolled among the Roman nobility. He is ſaid to have been of great uſe to the duchy of Tuſcany, by means of various projects for improving navigation and commerce; and, in particular, the draining of the moraſs between Piſa and the ſea, and the improvement of the port of Livorno, or Leghorn, and raiſing it to a free port, is imputed to him by the Engliſh writers. He publiſhed a large work, entitled *Del Arcano del Mare*, &c. in two volumes folio, Flor. 1630 and 1646, full of charts, plans, and ſchemes, and ſuggeſting a great variety of projects relative to maritime affairs, which are ſaid to diſplay great extent of knowledge and fertility of invention. He died at his ſeat near Florence in 1649, leaving a numerous foreign poſterity. Among the various talents and inventions of this ſingular character, he is ſaid to have been the firſt who broke ſetting-dogs.

DUD'MAN, *ſ.* A malkin, a ſcare-crow; a hobgoblin, a ſpright. *Bailey.*

DUE, *adj.* The part. paſſ. of *owe*; [*dû*, Fr.] Owed; that which any one has a right to demand in conſequence of a compact, or for any other reaſon.—Mirth and cheerfulneſs are but the *due* reward of innocency of life. *More.*—There is a reſpect *due* to mankind, which ſhould incline even the wiſeſt of men to follow innocent cuſtoms. *Watts.*—Proper; fit; appropriate.—Opportunity may be taken to excite, in perſons attending on thoſe ſolemnities, a *due* ſenſe of the vanity of earthly ſatisfactions. *Atterbury.*—Exact; without deviation:

And Eve within, *due* at her hour, prepar'd
For dinner ſavoury fruits. *Milton.*

Conſequent to, occaſioned or effected by. *Proper, but not uſual.*—The motion of the oily drops may be in part *due* to ſome partial ſolution made by the vinous ſpirit, which may tumble them to and fro. *Boyle.*

DUE, *adj.* Exactly; directly; duly. The courſe is *due* eaſt, or *due* weſt:

Like the Pontic ſea,
Whoſe icy current, and compulſive courſe,
Ne'er feels retiring ebb, but keeps *due* on
To the Propontic and the Helleſpont. *Shakeſpeare.*

DUE, *ſ.* That which belongs to one; that which may be juſtly claimed.—The *due* of honour in no point omit. *Shakeſpeare.*

I take this garland, not as given by you,
But as my merit and my beauty's *due*. *Dryden.*

Right; juſt title:

The key of this infernal pit by *due*,
And by command of heaven's all-powerful King,
I keep. *Milton.*

Whatever cuſtom or law requires to be done.—They pay the dead his annual *dues*. *Dryden.*—Cuſtom; tribute; exactions; legal or cuſtomary perquiſites.—In reſpect of the exorbitant *dues* that are paid at moſt other ports, this deſervedly retains the name of free. *Addiſon.*

"He who loſes his DUE, gets no thanks." Spoken of thoſe who unpardonably neglect their own affairs, and thus ſuffer others to defraud or impoſe upon them. The Latins ſay, *Bona nomina male ſiunt, ſi non exigas.* High Germ. *Eine gute ſchuld verdirbt, die man nicht bald erwirbt.* The Spaniſh ſay, *Ni tomes cohécho, ni perdas derécho:* Take no bribe, nor loſe no due.

To DUE, *v. a.* To pay as due; perhaps for *endow:* found only in this ſingle paſſage:

This is the lateſt glory of their praiſe,
That I thy enemy *due* thee withal. *Shakeſpeare.*

DU'E CASTEL'LI, a town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mincio, on the river Molinella, where an obſtinate battle was fought, in the beginning of September, 1796, between a detachment of Auſtrians, from the city of Mantua, and the French republican army; the latter remained maſters of the field: five miles north-eaſt of Mantua.

DU'E TOR'RE, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Bari: ſix miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Bari.

DU'EFUL, *adj.* Fit:

All which that day in order ſeemly good
Did on the Thames attend, and waited well
To do their *ducful* ſervice, as to them befel. *Spenſer.*

DUE'GNAS, or DUENNAS, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the Piſuerga, on the frontiers of Old Caſtile: three leagues ſouth of Palencia.

DU'EL, *ſ.* [*duellum*, Lat.] In our ancient law this was a legal fight between perſons in a doubtful caſe, for the trial of the truth. See the article BATTEL, vol. ii. p. 809. But this kind of duel is diſuſed; and what we now call a duel, is a fighting between two, upon ſome quarrel precedent; wherein, if a perſon is killed, both the principal and his ſeconds are guilty of murder, whether the ſeconds fight or not. *Hawk. P. C.* 47, 51. If two perſons quarrel over night, and appoint to fight the next day; or quarrel in the morning, and agree to fight in the afternoon; or ſuch a conſiderable time after, by which it may be preſumed the blood was cooled; and then they meet and fight a duel, and one kill the other, it is in the eye of law wilful murder. 3 *Inſt.* 52. And whenever it appears, that he who kills another in a duel, or fighting on a ſudden quarrel, was maſter of his temper at the time, he is guilty of murder; as if after the quarrel he fall into another diſcourſe, and talk calmly thereon; or allege that the place where the quarrel happens is not convenient for fighting; or that his ſhoes are too high, if he ſhould fight at preſent, &c. *Kel.* 56. 1 *Lev.* 180. If one challenge another, who refuſes to meet him, but tells him that he ſhall go the next day to ſuch a place about buſineſs, and then the challenger meets him on the road, and aſſaults the other; if the other in this caſe kill him, it will be only manſlaughter; for here is no acceptance of the challenge, or agreement to fight: and if the perſon challenged refuſeth to meet the challenger, but tells him that he wears a ſword, and is always ready to defend himſelf; if then the challenger attack him, and is killed by the other, it is neither murder nor manſlaughter, if neceſſary in his own defence. *Kel.* 56. See the article CHALLENGE TO FIGHT, vol. iv. p. 76.

DUEL is alſo uſed for any contention between two:

Victory and triumph to the Son of God.
Now ent'ring his great *duel*, not of arms,
But to vanquiſh by wiſdom helliſh wiles. *Milton.*

To DU'EL, *v. n.* To fight a ſingle combat.—He muſt at length, poor man! die dully at home, when here he might ſo faſhionably and genteely have been *duelled* or fluxed into another world. *South.*—The challenging and fighting with a man is called *duelling*. *Locke.*

To DU'EL, *v. a.* To attack or fight with ſingly:

Who ſingle
Duell'd their armies rank'd in proud array,
Himſelf an army, now unequal match
To ſave himſelf againſt a coward arm'd,
At one ſpear's length. *Milton.*

DU'ELLA, *ſ.* The third part of an ounce. *Scott.*

DU'ELLER, *ſ.* A ſingle combatant.—They perhaps begin as ſingle *duellers*, but then they ſoon get their troops about them. *Decay of Piety.*

DU'ELLIST, *ſ.* A ſingle combatant:

Henceforth let poets, ere allow'd to write,
Be ſearch'd like *duelliſts* before they fight. *Dryden.*

One who profeſſes to ſtudy the rules of honour:

His bought arms Mung not lik'd; for his firſt day
Of bearing them in field, he threw 'em away;
And hath no honour loſt, our *duelliſts* ſay. *Ben Jonſon.*

DUEL'LO, *ſ.* [Ital.] The duel; the rule of duelling.—The gentleman will for his honour's ſake, have one bout with you: he cannot by the *duello* avoid it. *Shakeſ.*

DUEN'NA, *ſ.* [Span.] An old woman kept to guard a younger.—I felt the ardour of my paſſion increaſe as the ſeaſon advanced, till in the month of July I could no longer contain: I bribed her *duenna*, was admitted to the bath, ſaw her undreſſed, and the wonder diſplayed. *Arbuthnot.*

DUE'REN, or DUREN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Juliers, one of the handſomeſt and richeſt in the duchy, ſurrounded with walls in 1124, and conſidered as an imperial town. It is a place of ſome trade, and has a manufacture of cloth: ſeven miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Juliers. Lat. 50. 52. N. lon. 24. E. Ferro.

DUE'RO, DOUERO, or DOURO, a river which riſes near Agreda, in Spain, and taking its courſe weſtwardly, paſſes Oſma, Aranda-de-Duero, Toro, Zamora, &c. in Spain; reaching the borders of Portugal, it paſſes by Miranda, when, taking a direction ſouth-weſt, it ſeparates the province of Tra-los-Montes from Spain, till, a little below Eſpadacenta, it again takes a weſterly courſe acroſs the kingdom of Portugal, having the province of Tra-los-Montes, and Entre-Duero-e-Minho, on the north, and Beira on the ſouth, and diſcharges its waters into the Atlantic a little below Oporto.

DUE'ROZHOF, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola: four miles eaſt of Gurkfield.

DUE'SME, a town of France, in the department of the Cote d'Or: ten miles weſt of Chatillon ſur Seine.

DU'ET, *ſ.* [from *due*, Ital. two.] A ſong or air in two parts.

DUF'FEL, a free town of Brabant, between Malines and Liere: four miles from the latter.

DUF'HORN, a village of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Luneburg, having a very celebrated medicinal ſpring: three miles ſouth of Walſrode.

DUG, *ſ.* [*deggia*, Iſlan. to give ſuck.] A pap; a nipple; a teat: ſpoken of beaſts, or in malice or contempt of

of human beings.—They are firſt fed and nouriſhed with the milk of a ſtrange *dug*. *Raleigh*.

Then ſhines the goat, whoſe bruitiſh *dugs* ſupply'd
The infant Jove, and nurſt his growing pride. *Creech*.

It ſeems to have been uſed formerly of the breaſt, without reproach:

As mild and gentle as the cradle-babe,
Dying with mother's *dug* between its lips. *Shakeſpeare*.

DUG, *pret.* and *part. paſſ.* of *dig*.—They had often found medals, and pipes of lead, as they *dug* among the rubbiſh. *Addiſon*.

DUFRES'NY (Charles Riviere), a man of various talents, but chiefly known as a comic writer, born at Paris in 1648. He paſſed for a grandſon of Henry IV. and is ſaid to have reſembled him. He diſplayed a general taſte for the arts, without having ſtudied any. He wrote and ſet ſongs, made curious landſcapes, and excelled in laying out gardens; which talent procured him from Louis XIV. (to whom he was a ſervant of the bed-chamber) the office of comptroller of the royal gardens. He had alſo the patent for the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Such, however, was his extravagance, that he was reduced to ſell all his places and privileges. Dufreſny, after quitting the court, began to write for the ſtage in company with Regnard. Though he did not attain to the excellence of this writer, he compoſed many pieces which agreeably entertained the public. His reputation was high enough to have induced D'Alembert, in his academical eulogy of Deſtouches, to give a refined and elaborate compariſon of his ſubject and Dufreſny, with reſpect to their comic talents. He died poor, in 1724. His works were collected in 1731, in 6 vols. 12mo. Beſides his dramatic pieces, they contain cantatas ſet by himſelf, ſongs, ſerious and comic amuſements, hiſtorical anecdotes, &c. in all which are ſtrokes of a lively and ſingular imagination.

DUG'DALE (ſir William), an eminent Engliſh antiquary, ſon of a Warwickſhire gentleman of Shuſtoke near Coleſhill, where he was born in 1605. He was educated at the free-ſchool in Coventry, and received inſtructions in law and hiſtory under his father, after whoſe death he purchaſed Blythe-hall in Shuſtoke, and there fixed his reſidence. His acquaintance with ſome gentlemen attached to antiquarian purſuits, engaged him in ſimilar ſtudies, and he began to make collections for a hiſtory of his native county. In 1638 he viſited London, and was introduced to ſir Henry Spelman, and other learned antiquaries. Through their recommendation he obtained a purſuivant's place in the herald's office, where he came to reſide in 1640. He made uſe of the opportunities this afforded him, to enlarge his collections from the records in the Tower and other repoſitories. He ſucceeded to the place of Cheſter-herald in 1644. He continued at Oxford till its ſurrender in 1646, where he employed himſelf in ſearching the Bodleian and other libraries, and laying up materials for the Monaſticon, in which he was engaged along with Mr. Roger Dodſworth. This great work afterwards employed them both in London; and Dugdale paying a viſit to Paris with lord Hatton in 1648, obtained the peruſal of the collections of Andrew du Cheſne, whence he copied many things relative to the priors alien in England. The firſt volume of the *Monaſticon Anglicanum*, or Account of all the Religious Houſes in England, from their Foundation to their Diſſolution, was publiſhed in 1655, folio. This, and the ſecond volume, publiſhed in 1661, were entirely written by Dodſworth; but Dugdale took great pains in methodizing and digeſting them. The third volume did not appear till 1673. We are told that the publication of the Monaſticon produced the effect of cauſing many law-ſuits, in conſequence of the old writings it brought to light; and that it gave great alarm and offence to the puritans, as tending to bring back popery. Two volumes of additions were printed by John Stephens in 1722 and 1723; and Mr. Peck promiſed another volume, which has never appeared. The whole is a valuable collection of national matter, and is now become ſcarce. In 1656, Dugdale publiſhed his Antiquities of Warwickſhire illuſtrated, folio, a work of twenty years labour, and characterized by Mr. Gough as "ſtanding at the head of all our county hiſtories." A ſecond edition of it by William Thomas, D. D. appeared in 1730, in 2 vols. He employed his reſidence in London, during the printing of this work, in collecting materials for a Hiſtory of St. Paul's cathedral in London, publiſhed in 1658, folio. Upon the reſtoration he was advanced to the office of Norroy king of arms. His induſtry was next employed in the Hiſtory of Embanking and Draining of divers Fens and Marſhes, both in foreign Parts and in this Kingdom, 1662, folio. He edited, in 1664, the ſecond volume of Sir Henry Spelman's Councils, and the ſecond part of his Gloſſary. A compilation which he had made from his frequent examinations of records, &c. relative to the Engliſh courts of juſtice, their forms, rules, and offices, with chronological tables of all the principal law offices, appeared in 1666, under the title of *Origines Judiciales*, folio: this is recommended by biſhop Nicolſon as an uſeful introduction to the legal hiſtory of England. Another great performance in which he appeared as a genealogiſt and hiſtorian, was the Baronage of England, or an Account of all the Families of Nobility, in 3 vols. folio, 1675, 1676. This work has incurred ſome ſevere criticiſms from his brother antiquaries, on account of numerous miſtakes and deficiencies; yet it is allowed by candid judges to poſſeſs great merit as a foundation for an hiſtorical peerage, which after-reſearches might render more perfect. In 1677, he was advanced to the higheſt heraldic poſt, that of Garter principal king of arms; to which was joined the honour of knighthood; an honour, which the ſmallneſs of his eſtate rendered him unwilling to accept. He proceeded in publiſhing the fruits of his various enquiries; of which were, 1. A ſhort View of the late Troubles in England, with a perfect Narrative of the Treaty of Uxbridge, 1681, folio. 2. The ancient Uſage in bearing Arms, with a Catalogue of the Nobility, and of Knights of the Garter and Baronets, 1681, 8vo. 3. A perfect Copy of all Summons of the Nobility to the great Councils and Parliaments, from 49 Hen. III. to the preſent Times, 1685, folio. He compiled a number of other volumes, which he left in manuſcript to the univerſity of Oxford, and the herald's college. This very induſtrious writer, who appears to have had a conſiderable ſhare of worldly trouble, died at his houſe of Blythe-hall, in his eighty-firſt year, in February 1686. He left a ſon, John, who alſo belonged to the heraldic profeſſion, and was knighted. He had a daughter, married to the well-known Elias Aſhmole.

DUG'GA, or TUGGA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis: ſeventy miles ſouth-weſt of Tunis.

DUGIN'SKOI, a cape of Ruſſian Siberia, in the ſea of Ochotſkoi. Lat. 59. 15. N. lon. 167. E. Ferro.

DU'GNY, a town of France, in the department of the Meuſe, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Verdun: three miles ſouth of Verdun.

DU'GUET (James Joſeph), a French prieſt, much eſteemed among the favourers of the Janſeniſt tenets, born at Montbriſon, near Lyons, in 1649. He early diſcovered an aſtoniſhing ſtrength of memory and aptitude at acquiring learning; and after paſſing through the uſual preliminary courſes, he was ſent to Saumur, to ſtudy theology. In 1671, he was appointed by the fathers profeſſor of philoſophy in their college at Troyes; where the admirable and ſucceſsful manner in which he diſcharged the duties of that office, did ample juſtice to the diſcernment of thoſe who had ſelected him for it. It was while he retained this profeſſorſhip that he eſtabliſhed his celebrated eccleſiaſtical conferences, which were attended with crowded audiences, and procured him a high reputation for extenſive knowledge, judgment, and piety.

He

He died at Paris in 1733, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. The ſtyle of his writings is commended in general, for perſpicuity, purity, and elegance. Among the various productions of his fertile pen, are, 1. Commentaries on the Works of Six Days, and on the Book of Geneſis, in ſix vols. 12mo. compoſed at the requeſt of the celebrated Rollin. 2. An Expoſition of the Book of Job, in four vols. 12mo. 3. An Expoſition of Seventy-five Pſalms, in ſix vols. 12mo. 4. An Expoſition of the Prophecies of Iſaiah, of Jonas, and Habakkuk, in ſeven vols. 12mo. 5. An Expoſition of the Books of Kings, of Eſdras, and of Nehemiah, in ſeven vols. 12mo. 6. An Expoſition of the Song of Songs, and of the Book of Wiſdom, in two vols. 12mo. 7. Rules for the Underſtanding of the Sacred Scriptures, in 12mo. 8. Of the Education of a Prince, in 4to. and in four vols. 12mo. 9. Eccleſiaſtical Conferences, in two vols. 4to. conſiſting of ſixty-ſeven diſſertations on the writers, the councils, and the diſcipline, of the firſt ages of the church. 10. A Treatiſe on the Principles of the Chriſtian Faith, in three vols. 12mo. 11. A Collection of Letters on Piety and Morality, in nine vols. 12mo. Together with a vaſt number of religious and devotional tracts, controverſial pieces, reſolutions of caſes of conſcience, &c.

DU'HAM, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleſlaw: twenty miles weſt-north-weſt of Jung Buntzlau.

DUHOKUN'DA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Jemarrow.

DUIL'LIA LEX, *ſ.* was enacted by M. Duillius, a tribune, in the year of Rome 304. It made it a capital crime to leave the Roman people without its tribunes, or to create any new magiſtrate without a ſufficient cauſe. Another Duillian law paſſed in 392, to regulate the intereſt for money lent.

DUIL'LIUS (C. ſurnamed *Nepos*), the firſt Roman who obtained a naval victory, was conſul before Chriſt 260. After his colleague Cn. Corn. Scipio had been taken at ſea by the Carthaginians in the firſt Punic war, he proceeded with a new-built Roman fleet to Sicily in queſt of the enemy. Conſcious of the ſuperiority of the Carthaginians in naval ſkill, he employed a machine invented by an engineer, called the *corvus*, or crow, by means of which he could grapple with the enemy's veſſels as they approached, and thus convert the combat into a ſort of land-fight. Through the aid of this contrivance he entirely defeated the Punic fleet, taking eighty ſhips, and deſtroying thirteen. This victory was ſo important, that Duillius was received at Rome with the greateſt applauſe, and enjoyed a triumph. A naval column was erected in the forum to his memory; which was ſtanding in Pliny's time, and was found again, with its inſcription, in 1560. Duillius alſo obtained from the people the diſtinction of being accompanied with torches and muſic whenever he returned by night from an entertainment.

DUI'NA, or DUNA, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes from a lake, ſixteen miles north-eaſt from Toropetz, in the province of Pſkov, paſſes by Veliz, Suraz, Vitepſk, Polotſk, Dinaburg, Riga, &c. and empties itſelf into the Baltic at Riga. This river formed the boundaries between Ruſſia and Poland, as ſettled in the year 1773.

DUIN'GEN, or DUIN, or DUDINGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Calenberg: eighteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Hameln.

DUI'NO, or DOINO, or TYBEIN, a ſea-port town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola: eight miles north-weſt of Trieſte, and 174 ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Vienna. Lat. 45. 55. N. lon. 31. 32. E. Ferro.

DU'ISBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Cleves, ſituated near the eaſt bank of the Rhine; formerly imperial and Hanſeatic; it yet enjoys great privileges, and has a voice and ſeat at the provincial diets. It contains two churches, three convents, and an univerſity, founded for proteſtants, in 1655. It is a ſtaple for iron manufactures and cloth: fourteen miles north of Duſſeldorp, and twenty-nine ſouth eaſt of Cleves. Lat. 51. 28. N. lon. 24. 9. E. Greenwich.

DU'ISBURG (Peter de), an ancient chronicler, native of the town of that name in the duchy of Cleves. He flouriſhed towards the beginning of the fourteenth century, and was a prieſt of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia. He wrote in Latin a Chronicle of Pruſſia from 1226 to 1325, which has been continued by an anonymous writer to 1426. The learned Hartknock gave an edition of the original in 1679, Frankf. 4to. illuſtrated by nineteen diſſertations, which throw great light upon the hiſtory of Pruſſia.

DU'ITZ, or DUYTZ, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Berg, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, oppoſite Cologn, chiefly inhabited by Jews, who are not permitted to dwell at Cologn, or even enter that city, without permiſſion.

DUKA'NA, a river of Ruſſian Siberia, which, united with the Ancha, forms the Juna.

DUKE, *ſ.* [*duc*, Fr. *dux*, Lat.] One of the higheſt order of nobility in England, in rank a nobleman next to the royal family. The title of *duke* is originally a Roman dignity, denominated *a ducendo*, leading or commanding. Accordingly the firſt dukes, *duces*, were the *ductores exercituum*, commanders of armies. Under the emperors, the governors of provinces in war-time were intitled *duces*. In after-times the ſame denomination was alſo given to the governors of provinces in time of peace. The firſt governor under the name of *duke* was a duke of the Marchia Rhætica, or Griſons, whereof mention is made in Caſſiodorus; and there were afterwards thirteen dukes in the eaſtern empire, and twelve in the weſtern. The Goths and Vandals, upon their over-running the provinces of the weſtern empire, aboliſhed the Roman dignities wherever they ſettled. But the Franks, &c. to pleaſe the Gauls, who had long been uſed to that form of government, made it a point not to change any thing therein: and accordingly they divided all Gaul into duchies and counties; and gave the names ſometimes of dukes, and ſometimes of counts, *comites*, to the governors thereof. In England, during the Saxon times, as Camden obſerves, the officers and commanders of armies were called dukes, *duces*, after the Roman manner, without any other addition. After the Conqueror came in, the title lay dormant till the reign of Edward III. who created his ſon Edward, firſt called the *Black Prince*, duke of Cornwall; which hath ever ſince been the peculiar inheritance of the king's eldeſt ſon during the life of his father; ſo that he is *dux natus, non creatus*. After whom there were more made, in ſuch manner as that their titles deſcended to their poſterity. See the article HERALDRY.

DUKE's COUNTY, a county of the American States, in Maſſachuſetts, comprehending Martha's Vineyard iſland, Chabaquiddick iſland, Norman's iſland, and the Elizabeth iſlands; ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the ſtate. The number of inhabitants by the cenſus of 1796, is 3265. They ſend three repreſentatives, and, in conjunction with Nantucket iſland, one ſenator, to the general court. The chief town is Edgarton.

DUKE OF GLOUCESTER ISLAND, an iſland in the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 19. 11. S. lon. 140. 11. W. Greenwich.

DU'KEDOM, *ſ.* The ſeigniory or poſſeſſions of a duke.—The cardinal never reſigned his purple for the proſpect of giving an heir to the *dukedom* of Tuſcany. *Addiſon.*—The title or quality of a duke.

DUKE'E, or DUKI, a town of Aſia, in the country of Candahar, in the road from Candahar to Moultan: 180 miles ſouth-eaſt of Candahar.

DU'KLA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz: ſixty miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Sandomirz.

DUKO'VA, a town of Lithuania, in the province of Minſk: ſixteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Minſk.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Caermarthen, which runs into the Briſtol Channel, four miles ſouth-eaſt of Kidwelly.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Caermarthen, which runs into the Towy, about one mile and a half ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Langadok.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Brecknock, which runs into the Wye, near Hay.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Radnor, which runs into the Ithon, near Llanbeder.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Montgomery, which runs into the Severn, near Llanidios.

DU'LAS, a river of Wales, in the county of Montgomery, which runs into the Severn, near Newtown.

DU'LAS, a river of North Wales, in the iſland of Angleſea, which runs into the Iriſh Sea, forming a bay and harbour at its mouth, with a village of the ſame name: ten miles north-weſt of Beaumaris.

DULA'SHE, a river of South Wales, in the county of Caermarthen, which runs into the Towy, ſeven miles above Caermarthen.

DUL'BRAINED, *adj.* Stupid; doltiſh; fooliſh:

This arm of mine hath chaſtis'd
The petty rebel, *dulbrain'd* Buckingham. *Shakeſpeare.*

DULCAMA'RA, *ſ.* in botany. See SOLANUM.

DULCAR'NON, *ſ.* [Arab.] A certain propoſition, found out by Pythagoras, upon the account of which he ſacrificed an ox to the gods, in token of thankfulneſs. Whence Chaucer, &c. uſe it to ſignify any knotty point or queſtion. *Bailey.*

To be at DULCAR'NON, *v. n.* To be nonpluſſed; to be at one's wits end.

DUL'CET, *adj.* [*dulcis*, Lat.] Sweet to the taſte; luſcious:

From ſweet kernels preſs'd,
She tempers *dulcet* creams; nor theſe to hold
Wants ſhe fit veſſels pure. *Milton.*

Sweet to the ear; harmonious; melodious:

I ſat upon a promontory,
And heard a mermaid, on a dolphin's back,
Uttering ſuch *dulcet* and harmonious breath,
That the rude ſea grew civil at her ſong. *Shakeſpeare.*

DULCIFICA'TION, *ſ.* The act of ſweetening; the act of freeing from acidity, ſaltneſs, or acrimony.—In colcothar, the exacteſt calcination, followed by an exquiſite *dulcification*, does not reduce the remaining body into elementary earth. *Boyle.*

To DUL'CIFY, *v. a.* [*dulcifier*, Fr.] To ſweeten; to ſet free from acidity, ſaltneſs, or acrimony of any kind.—Spirit of wine *dulcifies* ſpirit of ſalt. *Arbuthnot.*

DULCI'GNO, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Albania, on the coaſt of the Adriatic, containing about 7000 or 8000 ſouls. The harbour ſerves as a retreat for corſairs: fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Scutari. Lat. 42. 23. N. lon. 36. 42. E. Ferro.

DULCI'LOQUY, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *dulcis*, ſweet, and *loquor*, to ſpeak.] A ſoft and ſweet manner of ſpeaking.

DUL'CIMER, *ſ.* [*dolcimello*, Skinner.] A muſical inſtrument played by ſtriking the braſs wires with little ſticks.—Ye hear the ſound of the cornet, flute, harp, ſackbut, pſaltery, *dulcimer*, and all kinds of muſic. *Dan.* iii. 5.—In Beverly minſter is an elegant ſculpture-example of a female figure playing on the dulcimer.

DULCI'NO, [Ital.] A ſmall kind of baſſoon.

DULCI'NUS, a bold leader of a religious ſect who oppoſed the authority of the church of Rome in the fourteenth century, was a native of Novara, in the duchy of Milan. The original founder of this ſect, who are ſometimes called by the name of the ſect of the *Apoſtles*, and ſometimes by that of *Dulciniſts*, was Gerard Sagarelli, who was burnt alive for his hereſy at Parma, in the year 1300. Upon the cruel death of Sagarelli, Dulcinus became the head of his followers, and not only publicly profeſſed his opinions, but took up arms to defend himſelf and fellow-believers againſt their perſecutors. The conſequence was, a dreadful ſtruggle for more than two years, between the Dulciniſts and the ſupporters of the papal intereſts, which terminated in the overthrow of the former, and the capture of their leader after he had ſignaliſed his courage and intrepidity in ſeveral obſtinate and bloody battles. He was put to death at Vercelli, in the moſt barbarous manner, in the year 1307. The tragical end of Dulcinus was not immediately followed by the entire extirpation of his ſect, of which there were ſome remains in France, in Germany, and in other countries, until the beginning of the fifteenth century.

DUI'CIS RA'DIX, *ſ.* in botany. See GLYCYRRHIZA.

DULCI'SONANT, *adj.* [*dulciſonans*, Lat.] Sounding ſweetly.

DUL'CITUDE, *ſ.* [*dulcitudo*, Lat.] Sweetneſs.

To DUL'CORATE, *v. a.* [from *dulcis*, Lat.] To ſweeten.—The ancients, for the *dulcorating* of fruit, do commend ſwine's dung above all other dung. *Bacon.*—To make leſs acrimonious.—Turbith mineral, as it is ſold in the ſhops, is a rough medicine; but, being ſomewhat *dulcorated*, firſt procureth vomiting, and then ſalivation. *Wiſeman.*

DULCORA'TION, *ſ.* The act of ſweetening.—Malt gathereth a ſweetneſs to the taſte, which appeareth in the wort: the *dulcoration* of things is worthy to be tried to the full; for *dulcoration* importeth a degree to nouriſhment. *Bacon.*

DUL'HEAD, *ſ.* A blockhead; a wretch fooliſh and ſtupid; a dolt.—This people be fools and *dulheads* to all goodneſs; but ſubtle, cunning, and bold in any miſchief. *Aſcham.*

DU'LIA, *ſ.* [δουλεια.] An inferior kind of adoration.—Paleotus ſaith, that the ſame worſhip which is given to the prototype may be given to the image; but with the different degrees of latria and *dulia*. *Stillingfleet.*

DULI'CHIUM, in ancient geography, an iſland of the Ionian ſea, oppoſite the Achelous. It was part of the kingdom of Ulyſſes. *Martial.*

DUL'KEN, or DULCKEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Juliers: twenty miles north-north-weſt of Juliers.

DULL, *adj.* [*dwl*, Welſh; dole, Sax. *dol*, mad, Dut.] Stupid; doltiſh; blockiſh; unapprehenſive; indocile; ſlow of underſtanding.—He that hath learned no wit by nature, nor art, may complain of groſs breeding, or comes of a very *dull* kindred. *Shakeſpeare.*—Blunt; obtuſe:

Meeting with Time, ſlack thing, ſaid I,
Thy ſcythe is *dull*; whet it, for ſhame. *Herbert.*

Unready; awkward.—Memory is ſo neceſſary to all conditions of life, that we are not to fear it ſhould grow *dull* for want of exerciſe, if exerciſe would make it ſtronger. *Locke.*—Hebetated; not quick.—This people's heart is waxed groſs, and their ears are *dull* of hearing. *Matt.* xiii. 15.—Sad; melancholy. Sluggiſh; heavy; ſlow of motion:

Thenceforth the waters waxed *dull* and ſlow,
And all that drunk thereof did faint and feeble grow. *Spenſer.*

Groſs; cloggy; vile:

She excels each mortal thing
Upon the *dull* earth dwelling. *Shakeſpeare.*

Not exhilarating; not delightful: as, *to make dictionaries is* dull *work*. Not bright: as, *the mirror is* dull, *the fire is* dull. Drowſy; ſleepy:

I'll not be made a ſoft and *dull*-eyed fool,
To ſhake the head, relent, and ſigh, and yield
To Chriſtian interceſſors. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DULL, *v. a.* To ſtupify; to infatuate:

Thoſe drugs ſhe has
Will ſtupify and *dull* the ſenſe awhile. *Shakeſpeare.*

To blunt; to obtund.—Borrowing *dulls* the edge of induſtry. *Shakeſpeare.*—This entrance of the battle did whet the courage of the Spaniards, though it *dulled* their ſwords.

Bacon.—To ſadden; to make melancholy. To hebetate; to weaken:

Now forc'd to overflow with brackiſh tears,
The troublous noiſe did *dull* their dainty ears. *Spenſer.*

To damp; to clog.—Prayers were ſhort, as if darts thrown out with a ſudden quickneſs, leſt that vigilant and erect attention of mind, which in prayer is very neceſſary, ſhould be waſted or *dulled* through continuance. *Hooker.*—To make heavy, or ſlow of motion.—Uſury *dulls* and damps all induſtries, wherein money would be ſtirring, if it were not for the ſlug. *Bacon.*—To fully brightneſs.—The breath *dulls* the mirror. *Bacon.*

DULLAE'RT (Heyman), a Dutch painter of merit, born in 1636 at Rotterdam, where his father was a picture-merchant. He early diſplayed a lively genius, and made a proficiency in languages and the ſciences, but his peculiar turn was to painting. His father ſent him to the ſchool of Rembrandt, and he caught the manner and ſtyle of his maſter ſo happily, that their works are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable. Dullaert painted with a free and bold pencil, and in an admirable tone of colouring; but the delicate ſtate of his health would not allow him to apply cloſely, whence his pieces are rare. One of the fineſt is a hermit on his knees, in Rembrandt's beſt manner. He amuſed himſelf with muſic and poetry, in both of which he excelled. He died in 1684.

DUL'LARD, *ſ.* A blockhead; a dolt; a ſtupid fellow; a dunce.—What! mak'ſt thou me a *dullard* in this act? *Shakeſpeare.*

DUL'LY, *adv.* Stupidly; doltiſhly.—It is not ſufficient to imitate nature in every circumſtance *dully*, literally, and meanly; but it becomes a painter to take what is moſt beautiful. *Dryden.*—Slowly; ſluggiſhly.—The air, if it be moiſt, doth in a degree quench the flame, and howſoever maketh it burn more *dully*. *Bacon.*—Not vigorouſly; not gaily; not brightly; not keenly:

Not that I think thoſe pantomimes,
Who vary action with the times,
Are leſs ingenious in their art
Than thoſe who *dully* act one part. *Hudibras.*

DUL'MEN, or DULMAN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Munſter: thirteen miles ſouth-weſt of Munſter.

DUL'NESS, *ſ.* Stupidity; weakneſs of intellect; indocility: ſlowneſs of apprehenſion.—Nor is the *dulneſs* of the ſcholar to extinguiſh, but rather to enflame, the charity of the teacher. *South.*

Shadwell alone my perfect image bears,
Mature in *dulneſs* from his tender years. *Dryden.*

Want of quick perception.—Nature, by a continual uſe of any thing, groweth to a ſatiety and *dulneſs* either of appetite or working. *Bacon.*—Drowſineſs; inclination to ſleep:

Here ceaſe more queſtions;
Thou art inclin'd to ſleep. 'Tis a good *dulneſs*,
And give it way. *Shakeſpeare.*

Sluggiſhneſs of motion. Dimneſs; want of luſtre. Bluntneſs; want of edge.

DULO'CRACY, *ſ.* [of δουλος, a ſervant, and κρατος, power, Gr.] A government where ſervants and ſlaves have ſo much licence and privilege, that they domineer.

DUL'VERTON, a ſmall town of Somerſetſhire, on the borders of Devonſhire, with a bridge on the Dunſbrook, near its fall into the Exe; 169 miles from London, twenty-four from Barnſtaple, and twenty-ſeven from Bridgewater. It is a place of good accommodation; and has a market on Saturdays, and fairs on July 10 and November 8. There are ſome lead-mines near this town; but the ore is hard and barren, and the lead that comes from it harder than that of the Mendip-hills. Here is likewiſe a manufactory of coarſe woollen cloth and blankets.

DUL'WICH, a delightful village of Surrey, in the pa- of Camberwell, on the borders of Kent, five miles from London, celebrated for its medicinal waters, called the *Sydenham wells*. Here is alſo a noble charity, called Dulwich college, founded in 1614, by Mr. Edward Alleyn, who named it *the College of God's Gift*. This gentleman was an actor in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and the principal performer in many of Shakeſpeare's plays. He founded this college for a maſter and wardens, who were always to be of the name of Alleyn or Allen, with four fellows, three of whom were to be divines, and the fourth an organiſt; and for ſix poor men, as many poor women, and twelve poor boys, to be educated by two of the fellows. When the boys arrive at a proper age, they are ſent to the univerſities, or placed out apprentices. Mr. Alleyn conſtituted for viſitors, the churchwardens of St. Botolph, Biſhopſgate; St. Giles, Cripplegate; and St. Saviour, Southwark; who, upon occaſion, were to appeal to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, before whom all the members were to be ſworn at their admiſſion. To this college belongs a chapel, in which the founder himſelf is buried.

The Dulwich waters are remarkably clear, obſcurely brackiſh, and taſte a little bitter in the throat. A gallon at one time yielded two, at another three, drams of ſolid matter, containing a ſmall portion of calcareous earth, and a vitriolated magneſia, mixed with a portion of marine ſalt. From one to two pints in a morning is a doſe.

DU'LY, *adv.* Properly; fitly; in the due manner.—In the body, when the principal parts, as the heart and liver, do their offices, and all the inferior ſmaller veſſels act orderly and *duly*, there ariſes a ſweet enjoyment upon the whole, which we call health. *South.*—Regularly; exactly:

Seldom at church, 'twas ſuch a buſy life;
But *duly* ſent his family and wife. *Pope.*

DUM FU'IT IN'FRA Æ'TATEM, in law, a writ whereby an infant who had made a feoffment of his lands, when he came of full age, might recover thoſe lands and tenements which were ſo aliened: and within age, he might enter into the land, and take it back again, and by his entry he ſhould be remitted to his anceſtor's right. *New Nat. Br.* 426. If the huſband and wife alien the wife's land, during the nonage of both of them, the wife at her full age after the death of the huſband, ſhall have a writ of *dum fuit infra ætatem. M.* 14 *Edw.* III. By this writ to the ſheriff, he ſhall command A. that he render to B. who is of full age, two meſſuages and lands, &c. which B. demiſed to him, while he was within age, as he ſaith; or into which the ſaid A. hath not entered, but by C. to whom the ſaid B. the ſame demiſed, &c. *F. N. B.* 477.

DUM NON FU'IT COM'POS MEN'TIS, in law, a writ that lay where a man not of ſound memory aliened any lands or tenements, againſt the alienee. And he ſhall allege that he was not of ſane memory, but being viſited with infirmity, loſt his diſcretion for a time, ſo as not to be capable of making a grant, &c. *New Nat. Br.* 449.

DU'MA, a town of Arabia: 240 miles weſt of Cathem.

DU'MA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, on a river of the ſame name, which ſoon after runs into the Wipper: fourteen miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Duſſeldorp.

DU'MAH, [from the Hebrew, ſignifying ſilence.] A city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah: ſituated in the mountains. *Joſh.* xv. 52.

DU'MAH, (*Iſaiah* xxi. 11.) A city of the Iſhmaelites, ſo named, it is thought, from *Dumah*, ſon of Iſhmael. *Gen.* xxv. 14.

DU'MAL, *adj.* [from the Lat. *dumus*, a buſh.] Pertaining to briars, buſhy.

DU'MAS (Hilary), a French eccleſiaſtic and doctor of the Sorbonne, in the ſeventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century. Although we are not furniſhed with any particulars reſpecting his life and character, he is entitled to this brief notice on account of his being the author of a well-written Hiſtory of the Five Propoſitions of

of Janſenius, publiſhed in 1702, in three volumes 12mo. This work has been attributed to the celebrated father Tellier; but is diſtinguiſhed by greater temper and moderation than are diſplayed in any known writings of that jeſuit. Abbé Dumas was alſo the author of a tranſlation of Thomas à Kempis's treatiſe On the Imitation of Jeſus Chriſt, and other pieces, in leſs eſtimation than his hiſtory.

DU'MARING, a town of the iſland of Borneo, on the eaſt coaſt. Lat. 2. 10 N. lon. 117. 30. E. Greenwich.

DUMB, *adj.* [דום, he was ſilent; *dumbs*, Gothic; *bumbe*, Saxon; *dum*, Daniſh; *dom*, Dutch, dull.] Mute; incapable of ſpeech. See the article DEAF AND DUMB, vol. v. p. 627.—It hath pleaſed himſelf ſometime to unlooſe the very tongues even of *dumb* creatures, and to teach them to plead in their own defence, leſt the cruelty of man ſhould perſiſt to afflict them. *Hooker.*

They ſpake not a word;
But like *dumb* ſtatues, or unbreathing ſtones,
Star'd each on other. *Shakeſpeare.*

Depriv'd of ſpeech.—Some poſitive terms ſignify a negative idea: blind implies a privation of ſight, *dumb* a denial of ſpeech. *Watts.*

They ſung no more, or only ſung his fame;
Struck *dumb*, they all admir'd the godlike man. *Dryden.*

Mute; not uſing words.—Nothing is more common than for lovers to complain, relent, languiſh, deſpair, and die in *dumb* ſhew. *Addiſon.*

Her humble geſtures made the reſidue plain,
Dumb eloquence perſuading more than ſpeech. *Roſcomm.*

Silent; refuſing to ſpeak:

The good old ſeer withſtood
Th' intended treaſon, and was *dumb* to blood;
Till tir'd with endleſs clamours, and purſuit
Of Ithacus, he ſtood no longer mute. *Dryden.*

To DUMB, *v. a.* To ſilence.—Deep clerks ſhe *dumbs*. *Pericles.*

"As DUMB as a fiſh."—A proverb founded on a ſuppoſition that fiſh are mute and emit no ſound, the contrary of which has been abundantly proved by modern ichthyologiſts. The Latins ſay: *Magis mutus quam piſcis.* The Gr. Ἀφωνοτερος των ιχθυων. The Fr. *Muet comme un poiſſon.*

DUMB-DISCOUR'SIVE, *adj.* Silently pleading:

There lurks a ſtill and *dumb-diſcourſive* devil.
That tempts moſt cunningly. *Shakeſpeare.*

DUMBAR'TON, or LENOX, a county of Scotland, bounded on the north by the counties of Argyle and Perth, on the eaſt by the counties of Perth and Stirling, on the ſouth by Lanerkſhire and Renfrewſhire, and on the weſt by Argyleſhire, from which it is for the moſt part divided by Loch Long, in the form of a creſcent, the horns lying north and ſouth, and the concave ſide to the eaſt; about forty-five miles in length, and from ſix to fifteen in breadth. The eaſtern part is fertile in corn, the other parts feed great flocks of ſheep; but the principal riches ariſe from the fiſheries in the lochs in and about its coaſts. Loch Lomond, Loch Long, and Loch Garte are the chief; the principal town is Dumbarton. It ſends one member to the imperial parliament.

DUMBAR'TON, a town of Scotland, and capital of Dumbartonſhire, ſituated on the north coaſt of the Clyde, at the mouth of the Leven. It is ancient, large, but not well built, and defended by a caſtle, ſituated cloſe to the river, on a vaſt rock, formerly deemed impregnable, and now the reſidence of a garriſon. There is in this town a conſiderable crown and bottle glaſs manufactory, which employs upwards of one hundred hands. Extenſive print-fields in the neighbouring pariſhes alſo employ ſome of the inhabitants of Dumbarton. This town was erected into a royal burgh by king Alexander II. in 1221; it has a good harbour, where large brigs lie ſafe in all weathers. About two thouſand tons of ſhipping belong to this place, which employ many ſeamen. The town is entirely free of all impoſts, or borough taxes; but is by no means in a flouriſhing or increaſing ſtate, owing to the letters of deaconry preventing ſtrangers from working at their trades without coſtly entries; the number of ſouls is about two thouſand: thirteen miles weſt of Glaſgow, and eight north-weſt of Paiſley. Lat. 55. 58. N. lon. 1. 27. W. of Edinburgh.

DUMBLA'NE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Perth, formerly the ſee of a biſhop, founded by David I. part of the cathedral, which yet remains, ſerves for a pariſh church. In 1715, a battle was fought near this town, between the troops of George I. under the command of the duke of Argyle, and the troops of the chevalier prince Charles, under the command of the earl of Mar. About five hundred were killed on each ſide, but the victory was doubtful: four miles north of Stirling, and twenty-one ſouth-weſt of Perth.

DUMB'LY, *adv.* Mutely; ſilently; without words.

DUMB'NESS, *ſ.* Incapacity to ſpeak. Omiſſion of ſpeech; muteneſs.—There was ſpeech in their *dumbneſs*, language in their very geſture: they looked as they had heard of a world ranſomed, or one deſtroyed. *Shakeſpeare.* Refuſal to ſpeak; ſilence:

'Tis love, ſaid ſhe; and then my downcaſt eyes,
And guilty *dumbneſs*, witneſs'd my ſurprize. *Dryden.*

Dumbneſs, or a total defect of ſpeech, is the natural conſequence of deafneſs from infancy; and is the cauſe of that want of intelligence or inexpanſion of the reaſoning faculty, obſervable in perſons who grow up in it. Language is not merely the expreſſion of thought, it is alſo the medium of thinking: without which man would ſcarcely be a rational being. Under the article DEAF and DUMB, vol. v. p. 627, we have ſtated various methods adopted by different perſons for teaching ſuch unfortunate perſons to ſpeak and read. And we there noticed a new and benevolent inſtitution on a large ſcale, the ASYLUM, founded in 1792, at Bermondſey near London, for the ſupport and education of the deaf and dumb children of the poor, who are admitted from nine years of age till fourteen. The modes of inſtruction adopted on this occaſion, have been kindly communicated to us by Mr. Watſon, maſter and teacher in the above inſtitution; the principles of which we ſhall preſent to our readers in his own words.

"Sight, the moſt noble and refined of all the external ſenſes, is not only of infinite importance for the correct notions with which it furniſhes us of things from without, but is alſo, in a great meaſure, capable, as far as language is concerned, of ſupplying the place of *hearing*, the ſenſe next to it in refinement and importance, by admitting, as that ſenſe does, of arbitrary ſigns aſſociable in the underſtanding, with the impreſſions tranſmitted, through its own medium, or the medium of the other ſenſes to the ſenſorium, by external objects, or, with the operations of the mind itſelf. Hence *words*, which are the ſigns alluded to, are objects either of the *eye* or *ear*; for they are either *viſible characters* or *audible ſounds*, and derive their ſignification in either caſe from being aſſociated or linked with our ſenſations, or our ideas, by which ſort of connection the one ſuggeſts the other.

Children who hear, firſt learn the *meaning* of a word in this way, *i. e.* by *hearing* it frequently applied to ſome perſon or thing which had already attracted their notice; and then, by imitation, learn to ſpeak it. Thus it becomes, as it were, a part of themſelves, and enlarges the ſphere of their conceptions; and, by uſing it at pleaſure, they diſcover that they have not only the ready means of raiſing images in their own minds, but alſo in the minds of others. One ſtep leads on to another, and the confidence and exertion of the little learners increaſe with their ſucceſs; till they can imitate, almoſt, any articulation as ſoon as they hear it. This is a ſhort ſketch of the

natural

natural proceſs of learning a language by thoſe who hear: with thoſe who are deaf, the proceſs neceſſarily differs; but, if properly managed, the reſult will be the ſame, *i. e.* they will learn to imitate, not the articulations they *hear*, but thoſe they *ſee* and *feel*. Children who hear, learn words, as it were, *en gros*, while thoſe who are deaf muſt purſue a more detailed method, and begin, not with *words*, but with their conſtituent parts. Thus, inſtead of ſhewing them *words*, and endeavouring to make them pronounce or comprehend *them*, we begin with the moſt ſimple ſounds, and do not attempt to combine theſe till the act of producing them ſeparately becomes familiar.

The firſt ſtep in the proceſs of teaching a deaf and dumb perſon to ſpeak, is to obtain a clear and diſtinct ſound from the throat, as of *a*, heard in the word *wall*, &c. To effect this, and to habituate the pupil to connect the ſound when he has learnt to produce it, with the letter, from henceforth to be its repreſentative, it is diſtinctly traced on paper, and he is made to obſerve it for a minute; he then looks up with anxiety, as if he would enquire what he is to do with it. The ſound is then fully and ſlowly pronounced, or uttered, and the learner made to look attentively at the poſition and motion of the mouth, and to feel the aſtriction of the muſcles of the larynx, by placing his hand upon the throat, carefully making him perceive the beginning and concluſion of the ſound, which he can eaſily do by the vibratory motion excited in the parts during its continuance, and which of courſe ceaſes with it. Having made theſe obſervations for a ſhort time, he will ſeldom fail to attempt an imitation of what he has been obſerving, and that, for the moſt part, ſucceſsfully. When the contrary happens, nothing more is requiſite than patient and good-natured perſeverance; for, if he perceive that his failure has excited chagrin or diſappointment in his teacher, he will make another effort with great reluctance.

The ſound, once acquired, muſt be practiſed for a ſufficient length of time, to avoid the danger of loſing it; great care being neceſſary all through his progreſs never to proceed to a new ſound till the preceding has become familiar, and unattended with doubt as to the manner of producing it. A contrary practice would lead to confuſion and endleſs vexation; while too much pains cannot be taken to keep the learner in good humour, and to make him ſuppoſe that he is doing well beyond expectation: nothing is more diſcouraging than to put him back. In the ſame manner we teach the other ſimple ſounds, which are but few in number, yet, by combination, are ſuſceptible of great variety.

The vowels being acquired, we proceed to the conſonants, in their order, teaching only the *powers* of them; and that through the means of *ſeeing* and *feeling*, as in the vowels, always applying the ſcholar's finger to the muſcles concerned in their formation, and employing his eyes in alternately obſerving the letter, and the poſitions and motions of the external organs of ſpeech. By theſe means deaf and dumb perſons not only learn to ſpeak themſelves, but acquire wonderful facility in knowing what others ſay, by the help of the eyes only.

The power of the conſonants, it may be neceſſary to obſerve, mean only the poſition and action of the organs employed in their formation, without the addition of any diſtinct vocal ſound; for, though it is neceſſary to ſound in the throat in the formation of many of them, yet the ſound is ſo confined by the poſition of the organs, as not to partake of the nature of any of the open ſounds repreſented by the vowels. Thus, for inſtance, by cloſing the lips, ſounding gently in the throat, forcing them aſunder by the emiſſion of the breath, and carefully avoiding to let any of it paſs through the noſe, we have the power of *b*. After the ſame manner is formed the power of *p*, but without ſound in the throat. Theſe formations muſt be ſlowly and carefully pointed out to the learner, with the precautions above noticed, till all the conſonants be gone through, and properly acquired. It is evident, when the power of a conſonant is attained, that it need only to be joined with the vowels to form ſyllables, as *ba*, *be*, *ab*, *eb*, &c. theſe the learner will pronounce almoſt at ſight. From the eaſieſt combinations we proceed to the moſt complex; and, by practice, he will ſoon acquire readineſs in pronouncing the longeſt polyſyllables.

This may ſerve to convey a general idea of the method purſued in teaching the dumb to ſpeak; a work of labour and nicety, it is true, on the part of the teacher; and what has been ſaid may alſo obviate the miſtake in a notion, taken up by ſome uninformed perſons, that the proceſs is attended with pain on the part of the learner; on the contrary it is an amuſement to him; and, were it otherwiſe, the importance of the acquiſition would well repay him for ſome pains. The very habit of regarding written or printed characters as the ſigns of certain mechanical actions of the organs of ſpeech, paves the way for conſidering combinations of thoſe actions or characters as the ſigns of things, *i. e.* ſignificant *words* written or articulate. We, who hear, conſider words as ſounds; the deaf, when taught to ſpeak, regard them as actions. In the inſtruction of the deaf and dumb, ſpeech is of the utmoſt importance; it not only ſerves them as it does others, to communicate their thoughts, when they have acquired a knowledge of language, but it contributes much to that acquiſition, by greatly facilitating the retention of words in the memory.

The learner having attained the uſe of ſpeech, in a certain degree, which is to be carefully and daily improved by practice: he is ſhewn words of the moſt familiar ſort at firſt; that is to ſay, only the names of perſons or things, (nouns,) or of actions, (verbs,) that can readily be ſhewn with the words; as, for inſtance, the parts of the body, and ſuch common articles of furniture as ſurround him, the names of the perſons of the family, and actions ſignified by the words *walk*, *run*, *eat*, *play*, &c. Having got a pretty good ſtock of ſuch words, and the meaning of them being perfectly underſtood, we proceed to conſider the perſons, things, or actions, deſignated by them in their relations to other perſons or things, of the ſame, or different ſorts; this furniſhes us with opportunities of declining or varying the words according to the relations we perceive in the things they ſignify either by ſome addition or alteration in the word itſelf, or by ſome other word joined with it. This brings into uſe prepoſitions, conjunctions, adverbs, auxiliary verbs, &c. Things have attributes or qualities, (adjectives,) the table is round, or ſquare, one is large, another is ſmall; an apple is ſweet or ſour, &c. Theſe attributes are perceived by ſome of our ſenſes as exiſting in the ſubjects; hence we eaſily underſtand the words that deſignate them.

There is a natural propenſity in the human mind to generalize and claſſify its perceptions: after a number of examples of the application of the word ſweet, for inſtance, to an apple, to an orange, ſugar, &c. a perſon who had been deaf and dumb will be prepared to underſtand the word ſweetneſs, having already begun to conſider the quality abſtractedly, and ſo on for other abſtract terms, as goodneſs, truth, juſtice, &c. After this ſimple and natural manner are the deaf and dumb brought to ſpeak, read, write, and underſtand a language.

The firſt year of a learner's progreſs is nearly conſumed in acquiring the pronunciation and orthography of words, *i. e.* a vocabulary, conſiſting of a variety of nouns, or the names of animals and things; and alſo verbs, all eaſily ſhewn to him; and their variations or declenſions. Where the capacity is good, at the end of this period he will be fit to enter upon the exemplification of the uſes and application of the words he has learnt, in the conſtruction of ſuch ſimple ſentences as are neceſſary to expreſs his rude thoughts. His reaſon and his knowledge of language go on expanding together, mutually unfolding each other, till he becomes capable of taking ſome part in the tranſactions and duties of that ſociety, on which he originally

promiſed to be a heavy and helpleſs burthen. His mind aſſumes the appellation of rational; for it is fitted for the reception and cultivation of uſeful knowledge; and all the conſoling and exalted views that Chriſtianity opens to mankind, break in upon his ſoul through the channel that has been opened!"

The ſucceſs which attends Mr. Watſon's mode of inſtruction, is beyond the conception of any one who has not been an eye-witneſs of the readineſs of his ſcholars, who anſwer both by ſpeech and writing with wonderful facility. If you aſk one of them a queſtion in a flow and diſtinct manner, letting the deaf youth ſee the motion of your lips and mouth, you immediately receive an anſwer in the ſame manner, and without any ſign or interference from the maſter. Sometimes they will imitate the motion of your lips as you ſpeak, and thus repeat the queſtion, as it were, to themſelves. Thoſe who have been ſome time in the ſchool will open a book, and read diſtinctly any paſſage you point out, as well and as diſtinctly as ſchoolboys in general do; which was very ſatisfactorily obſerved by the editor of this work. A gentleman put his watch to the ear of one of the pupils. The youth ſhook his head; he heard nothing. The edge of the watch-caſe was then put againſt his teeth. "Now do you hear it?" ſays the gentleman: "I feel it," replies the boy. The children are of both ſexes. Some pieces are publicly recited by them at the anniverſary meeting of the patrons of the inſtitution. May ſuch an inſtitution never want patrons!

DUM'DAH, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Ruttunpour country: ſixty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Ruttunpour, and 112 eaſt of Nagpour.

DUMEI'DSJ, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: thirty-ſix miles north-north-eaſt of Chamir.

DUMFERM'LINE. See DUNFERMLINE.

To DUM'FOUND, *v. a.* To confuſe; to ſtrike dumb.—They had like to have *dumfounded* the juſtice; but his clerk came in to his aſſiſtance. *Spectator.*

DUMFRI'ES, a county of Scotland, bounded on the north by the counties of Lanerk, Peebles, and Selkirk, on the eaſt by Roxburgſhire, on the ſouth by the Frith of Solway, which divides it from England, and the county of Kircudbright, and on the weſt by Airſhire. The country is generally mountainous, with ſome fertile valleys on the ſides of the rivers called *Nithſdale*, or *Niddiſdale*, *Annandale*, and *Eſkdale*; about fifty miles in length, and from ten to thirty broad. The principal towns are Dumfries and Annan; and the chief rivers are the Eſk, the Annan, and the Nid. It ſends one member to the Imperial parliament.

DUMFRI'ES, a town of Scotland, and capital of the county to which it gives name, ſituated on an eminence, near the river Nid, about ten miles from its mouth, in the Solway Frith; with a reſpectable grammar-ſchool, and an infirmary. It is a royal borough, and aſſiſts, with ſome other towns, to ſend a member to the Imperial parliament. About eight or ten coaſting veſſels belong to this town, beſides ſeveral which are employed in the Baltic, and in the wine trade. Forty years ago, a conſiderable tobacco trade was carried on at Dumfries. At an average of four years, 1250 hogſheads were then annually imported. It is alleged, that the importation was conſiderably greater, and that in conſequence of the detection of ſome attempts at ſmuggling, the trade in this article came to be diſcouraged. The coaſting veſſels bring in lime, coals, and merchant goods of various ſorts; they export potatoes and grain. About a mile eaſtward from the town is a craig, or rock, curiouſly hollowed, known by the name of the *Maidenbower Crag*. It is ſaid to have been famous in the times of druidiſm; and may have received its name from being the ſcene of ſome rites practiſed as a teſt of virginity. The preſent population of the town, as appears from an enumeration lately taken, may be fairly eſtimated at 5600 ſouls: twenty-one miles north-eaſt of Kircudbright, and fifty-three ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh. Lat. 55. 8. N. lon. 4. 25. W. Greenwich.

DUMFRIE'S, a port of entry and poſt town of the American States, in Virginia, and chief town of Prince William county, ſituated on the north ſide of Quantico creek, four miles above its entrance into the Potowmack, and ten miles from Colcheſter. Its public edifices are an epiſcopal church, a court-houſe, and jail. The exports from this port for one year, ending the 30th of September 1794, amounted in value to 85,635, dollars: twenty-eight miles north by eaſt of Fredericſburg, and 185 ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia.

DUM'ME, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and marquiſate of Brandenburg, which runs into the Jetze, at Wuſtro.

DUM'MER, a townſhip of the American States, in Grafton county, New Hampſhire, incorporated in 1773. It is to the ſouth-weſt of lake Umbagog, on the waters of Upper Amonooſuck and of Androſcoggin rivers.

DUM'MER SEA, a lake of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Diepholz, about twelve miles in circumference: four miles ſouth of Diepholz.

DUM'MERSTON, a townſhip of the American States, in Windham county, Vermont, north of Brattleborough, containing 1501 inhabitants.

DUMMOO'DA, a river of Hindooſtan, which runs into the Hoogly, twenty-eight miles below Calcutta.

DUMO'NT (John), baron of Carleſcroon, an hiſtorical and political writer, after ſerving ſome time in France, became a refugee in Holland, and was made hiſtoriographer to his imperial majeſty. He died about 1726. His principal works are: 1. *Mémoires Politiques pour ſervir à l'Intelligence de la Paix de Ryſwick*, 4 vols. 12mo. 1699. 2. *Voyages en France, en Italie, en Allemagne, en Malte, & en Turquie*, 4 vols. 12mo, 1699. 3. *Corps univerſel diplomatique du Droit des Gens*, 8 vols. folio, 1726; this contains all the treaties of alliance, peace, and commerce, from the peace of Munſter to 1709. 4. *Lettres Hiſtoriques, depuis Janvier, 1652, juſqu'en 1710.* He publiſhed ſeveral other collections and compilations. His ſtile is flat and incorrect; but his works contain very uſeful matter.

DUMO'SÆ, *ſ.* [from *dumus*, Lat. a buſh.] In botany, the nineteenth order in Linnæus's Fragments; and the forty-third of the natural orders in his Genera Plantarum.

DUMO'SE, *adj.* [from the Lat *dumus*, a briar.] Full of briars, full of buſhes.

DUMO'SITY, *ſ.* The ſtate of being overgrown with buſhes. *Scott.*

DUMP, *ſ.* [from *dom*, Dut. ſtupid.] Sorrow; melancholy; ſadneſs; a ditty or other ſong:

Viſit by night your lady's chamber window
With ſome ſweet conſort; to their inſtruments
Tune a deploring *dump*: the night's dead ſilence
Will well become ſuch ſweet complaining grievance.
Shakeſpeare.

Play me ſome merry *dump* to comfort me. *Romeo and Juliet.*—Abſence of mind; reverie. *Locke* uſes *dumps* ſingularly.—This ſhame *dumps* cauſes to well-bred people, when it carries them away from the company. *Locke.*

DUMP'ISH, *adj.* Sad; melancholy; ſorrowful.—The life which I live at this age is not a dead, *dumpiſh*, and ſour, life; but cheerful, lively, and pleaſant. *Herbert.*

DUMP'ISHLY, *adv.* In a melancholy manner.

DUM'PLING, *ſ.* [from *dump*, heavineſs.] A ſort of pudding.—Pudding and *dumpling* burn to pot. *Dryden.*

DUM'PLING-EATER, *ſ.* One that eats dumplings.—Nor can he fail of cuſtom, who has hung out a ſign to all true *dumpling-eaters*. *Arbuthnot.*

DUN, *adj.* [dun, Sax.] A colour partaking of brown and black.—Such as might ariſe from a mixture of light and darkneſs, or from white and black; that is, a grey, or *dun*, or ruſſet brown. *Newton.*—Dark; gloomy:

Come thick night!
And pall thee in the *dunneſt* ſmoke of hell. *Shakeſpeare.*

To DUN, *v. a.* [dunan, Sax. to clamour.] To claim a debt with vehemence and importunity.—Borrow of thy back, and borrow of thy belly; they'll never aſk thee again. I ſhall be *dunning* thee every day. *Bacon.*

When thou *dunn'ſt* their parents, ſeldom they,
Without a ſuit before the tribune, pay. *Dryden.*

DUN, *ſ.* A clamorous, importunate, troubleſome, creditor:

Thus, while my joyleſs minutes tedious flow,
With looks demure, and ſilent pace, a *dun*,
Horrible monſter! hated by gods and men,
To my aerial citadel aſcends. *Philips.*

DUN, or BURGH, *ſ.* The name of an ancient tower of a circular form, common in the Orkney and Shetland iſles, the Hebrides, and northern parts of Scotland. The latter term points out the founders, who at the ſame time beſtowed on them their name of *borg*, a defence or caſtle; and the Highlanders univerſally apply to theſe places the Celtic name *dun*, ſignifying a hill defended by a tower. They are confined to the countries once ſubject to the crown of Norway. With few exceptions, they are built within ſight of the ſea, and one or more within ſight of the other; ſo that, on a ſignal by fire, by flag, or by trumpet, they could give notice of approaching danger, and yield a mutual ſuccour. Along the Orkney and Shetland ſhores, they almoſt form a chain; and by that means not only kept the natives in ſubjection, but were ſituated commodiouſly for covering the landing of their countrymen, who were perpetually roving on piratical expeditions. No buildings ſimilar to theſe are to be found, except in Scandinavia. On the mountain Swal-Berg, in Norway, is one; the Stir-biſkop, at Upſal in Sweden, is another; and Umſeborg, in the ſame kingdom, is a third.

DUN, a town of France, in the department of the Meuſe, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Stenay, on the Meuſe: five leagues north-north-weſt of Verdun, and two ſouth of Stenay.

DUN PALLETEAU', a town of France, in the department of the Creuze, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of La Souterraine: four leagues north-weſt of Gueret.

DUN LE ROY, a town of France, and ſeat of a tribunal, in the department of the Cher, on the Auron. It contains about 1500 inhabitants: fourteen miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Bourges, and fifteen weſt of Sancois.

DU'NA, *ſ.* in old records, a bank of earth thrown out of a ditch.

DU'NAMOND, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Riga, ſituated at the mouth of the Duina: it formerly belonged to the duchy of Courland, and was taken by the Swedes, commanded by count Mansfield, during their war with the Poles. It was again taken by the Swedes, in 1618, while Sigiſmond, king of Poland, and by birth-right king of Sweden, was contending with Guſtavus Adolphus, who had been called to the throne by the voice of the ſenate. In 1700 it was taken by the Poles, commanded by general Flemming; but the next year the Swedes, commanded by their king, Charles XII. took it after a long ſiege. The czar, Peter the Great, after taking Riga, in 1710, made himſelf maſter of this place: fifteen miles north-weſt of Riga, and twenty north of Mittau. Lat. 57. 5. N. lon. 41. 27. E. Ferro.

DU'NAN POINT, a cape on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland of Skye. Lat. 57. 9. N. lon. 3. 5. W. Edinburgh.

DUNBAR', a ſea-port town of Scotland, on the north-eaſt coaſt of the county of Haddington, on the German ſea, with a good harbour: the chief trade of the place is the Greenland and herring fiſhery; formerly defended by a caſtle, ſituated on a cliff above the ſea, but now in ruins, to which Edward II. fled after his defeat at Bannockburn; but, being purſued, he was compelled to proceed to Berwick in an open boat. In 1297, the Scots were defeated near Dunbar by the Engliſh, under the command of earl Warenne, with great ſlaughter. In 1650, the troops of Charles II. were defeated near this town by Oliver Cromwell: twenty miles weſt of Edinburgh. Lat. 56. N.

DUNBAR' (William), an early Scottiſh poet of conſiderable merit, born, probably, about 1465, at Salton in Eaſt Lothian. He ſeems to have travelled in his youth in the quality of a preaching friar of the Franciſcan order. He returned to Scotland about 1490, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet; and died about 1530. He wrote a number of pieces, ſerious and comic, in which he diſplayed facility of invention, and great force and richneſs of deſcription. One of his principal poems is the Thiſtle and Roſe, a kind of viſion, the ſubject of which is the marriage of James IV. of Scotland with Margaret daughter of Henry VII. of England. The Golden Terge, a moral allegory, in which the ſhield of reaſon is employed to reſiſt the attacks of the amorous paſſion. Another of his longer pieces is the Daunce, which is a viſion of heaven and hell in a comic ſtile of painting. There are many more, printed in the collection of ancient Scottiſh poems by ſir David Dalrymple, 1770.

DUNBAR'TON, a townſhip of the American States, in Hillſborough county, New Hampſhire, incorporated in 1765, and containing 917 inhabitants: nine miles ſouth of Concord, and fifty-three weſt of Portſmouth.

DUNBE'ATH, a river of Scotland, in the county of Caithneſs, which runs into the German ocean, eight miles north-eaſt from the Ord of Caithneſs.

DUN'CAN (William), a learned Scotch profeſſor of philoſophy, born at Aberdeen in 1717. His grammatical education he received in his native town; and, in 1733, he entered a pupil at the mariſchal college of Aberdeen. He left the univerſity in 1739, and removed to London, where for ſeveral years he was chiefly employed in different literary undertakings. The firſt is a well-executed tranſlation of thoſe ſelect orations of Cicero which occur in the common Dauphin edition, accompanied with ſhort but judicious explanatory notes. Another work, which has deſervedly met with a favourable reception, is, The Elements of Logic, originally written to form a part of Dodſley's Preceptor, publiſhed in 1748. Theſe elements are drawn up with that judgment, perſpicuity, and conciſeneſs, that juſtly entitle them to be recommended as one of the beſt introductions to the ſtudy of philoſophy and the mathematics in the Engliſh, or perhaps any other, language. The laſt production of Mr. Duncan is a tranſlation of Cæſar's Commentaries, which was firſt publiſhed in 1752, in one volume, folio, adorned with a variety of beautiful illuſtrative engravings; and has ſince appeared in octavo. In the ſame year Mr. Duncan was appointed by the king profeſſor of philoſophy in the mariſchal college of Aberdeen. Owing to increaſing infirmities, and the duties of his profeſſorſhip, he was prevented from completing ſome works which he had undertaken; among which was a new tranſlation of Plutarch's Lives, and the continuation of Dr. Blackwell's Court of Auguſtus. He died in 1760, in the forty-third year of his age.

DUN'CAN BAY, a bay on the north coaſt of the iſland of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 31. N. lon. 77. 23. W. Greenwich.

DUNCAN'NON, a fort and village of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, on the eaſt coaſt of Waterford harbour: ſeven miles eaſt ſouth-eaſt of Waterford.

DUN'CANSBOROUGH, a townſhip of the American States, in Vermont, on the weſt ſide of lake Memphremagog.

DUN'CANSBY HEAD, a cape of Scotland, at the north-eaſt extremity of Great Britain, in the county of Caithneſs. Lat. 58. 33. N. lon. 0. 19. E. Greenwich.

DUNCE, *ſ.* [A word of uncertain etymology; perhaps from *dum*, Dutch, ſtupid.] A dullard; a dolt; a thickſcull; a ſtupid, indocile, animal.—I never knew this.

this town without *dunces* of figure, who had credit enough to give riſe to ſome new word. *Swift.*

Dunce at the beſt, in ſtreets but ſcarce allow'd
To tickle, on thy ſtraw, the ſtupid crowd. *Dryden.*

DUN'CHURCH. See DIMCHURCH.

DUN'COMBE (William), an ingenious writer, born in London in 1690. After a ſchool education, he was entered at ſixteen as a clerk in the navy-office. He had, however, acquired a taſte for literature, and made his firſt appearance in a tranſlation of an ode of Horace, printed in the Wit's Horace. He next publiſhed ſeparately a verſion of the Carmen Seculare, which was ſoon followed by one of Racine's Athaliah. In 1725 he quitted the navy-office, and thenceforth devoted himſelf to a life of literary leiſure and domeſtic friendſhip. He married in 1726 the ſiſter of Mr. Hughes, the poet, of whoſe works he afterwards became the editor. It is needleſs to particulariſe all the pieces written by Mr. Duncombe, conſiſting of letters, eſſays, tranſlations, &c. printed in the public papers and other collections, or ſeparately. One of his principal performances was the tragedy of Lucius Junius Brutus, chiefly taken from Voltaire, but with material alterations. In 1757 and 1759 he publiſhed, with the aſſiſtance of his ſon, an entire verſion of Horace, with notes, in two volumes: of this, an improved edition appeared in four volumes, 12mo. 1764. After a long life calmly ſpent in virtuous and innocent purſuits, he died in 1769.

DUN'COMBE (John), only ſon of the preceding, born in 1729. He was entered of Corpus-chriſti-college, Cambridge, in 1745, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by a great proficiency in polite literature. He became fellow of his college, and afterwards took orders, and obtained a rectory in the city of Canterbury. In 1766 he obtained a preachership in the cathedral of Canterbury, and was appointed maſter of St. John's hoſpital in that city, and that of St. Nicholas, Harbledow; and was afterwards preſented to the vicarage of Herne, near Canterbury. He wrote a very conſiderable number of poems, which have appeared in various collections, as thoſe of Dodſley, Pearch, and Nichols; and ſeveral in a ſeparate form. Of theſe, one of the beſt known is The Feminead, a commemoration of female excellence. Their general character is eaſe and elegance, with a ſprightly vein of humour when the ſubject called it forth. He wrote alſo a variety of proſe eſſays in periodical works. Beſide his ſhare in the tranſlation of Horace, he publiſhed three ſermons, and ſome antiquarian papers in the Bibliotheca Topographica. He alſo edited various works; of which were The Correſpondence of John Hughes, Eſq. The Earl of Corke's Letters from Italy; and Archbiſhop Herring's Letters. He cloſed his uſeful and benevolent life in 1785.

DUNDA'LK, a ſea-port town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh Sea: manufactures of muſlin and linen have been eſtabliſhed here, and are in a flouriſhing ſtate. It is an ancient borough; thirty-nine miles north of Dublin. Lat. 53. 59. N. lon. 6. 23. W. Greenwich.

DUNDE'E, a large and flouriſhing ſea-port town of Scotland, in the county of Angus, ſituated on a river on the north ſide of the Frith of Tay, which is here between two and three miles wide. The harbour is good, and capable of receiving veſſels of 300 tons; in 1792, there were 116 veſſels belonging to the port, navigated by 698 men, and meaſuring 8550½ tons. Of theſe, thirty-four were employed in the foreign, and ſeventy-eight in the coaſting, trade, and four in the whale fiſhery. The chief manufactures are glaſs, coarſe linen, ſail-cloth, cordage, thread, buckram, tanned leather, ſhoes, hats, &c. A ſugar-houſe has lately been erected, with conſiderable ſucceſs. The number of inhabitants is about 22,000. In the latter end of Auguſt, 1651, Dundee, which was held by the royaliſts, under the command of general Lumſdaine, was ſummoned to ſurrender by general Monk, who commanded the parliament forces; and, on the governor's refuſal, was taken by ſtorm on the 1ſt of September. According to the account publiſhed at the time, the governor was killed, with between ſeven and eight hundred ſoldiers and townſmen, and fourſcore women. The town was given up to be plundered by the ſoldiers and ſeamen. There were at the time about one hundred ſhips in the harbour, about forty pieces of ordnance, many arms, and ſtore of ammunition: thirty miles north of Edinburgh. Lat. 56. 27. N. lon. 3. 3. W. Greenwich.

DUNDUKO'VA, a ſettlement of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Tobolſk: 300 miles north-north-eaſt of Turuchanſk. Lat. 70. 16. N. lon. 113. E. Ferro.

DU'NES, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Valence: three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Agen.

DUNFERM'LINE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Fife, with ſome conſiderable manufactures of linen; and contains about 5000 inhabitants. It is remarkable for a royal palace, in which Charles I. king of England was born, and the princeſs Elizabeth, his ſiſter, mother of the princeſs Sophia, from whom the preſent royal family of Great Britain derive their deſcent: thirteen miles north-weſt of Edinburgh. Mr. Campbell, in his Journey from Edinburgh, &c. publiſhed in 1802, gives a very pleaſing account of the ſtrictneſs with which the ſabbath is obſerved in this town; and of the general piety and longevity of its inhabitants.

DUNG, *ſ.* [ꝺunȝ, Sax.] The excrement of animals uſed to fatten ground.—For *dung*, all excrements are the refuſe and putrefactions of nouriſhment. *Bacon.*—See the articles HUSBANDRY and MANURE.

To DUNG, *v. a.* To manure with dung:

There, as his dream foretold, a cart he found,
That carried compoſt forth to *dung* the ground. *Dryden.*

DUN'GALA, or DONKALA, a kingdom of Africa, ſituated chiefly on the weſt ſide of the Nile, in the country of Nubia. It owes its name to a populous town built on the river Nile, ſaid to contain 10,000 houſes of wood. Lat. 20. 20. N. lon. 30. 37. E. Greenwich.

DUNGAN'NON, a town of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, near which are coal-mines: twenty-five miles north-north-weſt of Newry, and thirty-ſix ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Londonderry.

DUNGAR'VAN, a ſea-port town of Ireland, on the ſouth coaſt, in the county of Waterford, ſituated in a bay of the Atlantic, to which it gives name: twenty-one miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Waterford. Lat. 52. 5. N. lon. 7. 39. W. Greenwich.

DUNG'CART, *ſ.* A cart to carry dung.

DUNGENE'SS, a cape of England, on the coaſt of Kent, in the Engliſh Channel. Lat. 50. 55. N. lon. 0. 47. E. Greenwich.

DUNGENE'SS POINT, a cape in the eaſtern entrance in the Straits of Magellan. Lat. 52. 28. S. lon. 68. 28. W. Greenwich.

DUN'GEON, *ſ.* [from *donjon*, the tower in which priſoners were kept, whence all priſons eminently ſtrong were in time called *dungeons.*] A cloſe priſon: generally ſpoke of a priſon dark or ſubterraneous:

Now from the north
Of Norumbeque, and the Samoed ſhore,
Burſting their brazen *dungeon*, arm'd with ice,
And ſnow, and hail, come ſtormy guſt and flaw. *Milton.*

DUNG'FORK, *ſ.* A fork to toſs out dung from ſtables.—*Dung forks* and paddles are common every where. *Mortimer.*

DUNG'HILL, *ſ.* An heap or accumulation of dung.—Two cocks fought a duel for the maſtery of a *dunghill.* *L'Eſtrange.*—Never enter into a league of friendſhip with an ingrateful perſon; that is, plant not thy friendſhip upon a *dunghill:* it is too noble a plant for ſo baſe a ſoil. *South.*—Any mean or vile abode:

Perhaps

Perhaps a thouſand other worlds, that lie
Remote from us, and latent in the ſky,
Are lighten'd by his beams, and kindly nurſt,
Of which our earthly *dunghill* is the worſt. *Dryden.*

Any ſituation of meanneſs:

The poor he raiſeth from the duſt,
Ev'n from the *dunghill* lifts the juſt. *Sandys.*

A term of reproach for a man meanly born.—Out, *dunghill!* dar'ſt thou brave a nobleman? *Shakeſpeare.*

DUNG'HILL, *adj.* Sprung from the dunghill; mean; low; baſe; vile; worthleſs:

His *dunghill* thoughts, which do themſelves enure
To dirty droſs, no higher dare aſpire. *Spenſer.*

DUNG'ING, *part. adj.* Manuring; making rich with dung; voiding excrements.

DUNG'MEER, *ſ.* A pit, where dung, weeds, &c. are mixed to lie and rot together ſome time, for improvement in huſbandry.

DUNG'Y, *adj.* Full of dung; mean; vile; baſe; low; odious; worthleſs:

We need no grave to bury honeſty:
There's not a grain of it, the face to ſweeten
Of the whole *dungy* earth. *Shakeſpeare.*

DUNG'YARD, *ſ.* The place of the dunghill.—Any manner of vegetables caſt into the *dungyard. Mortimer.*

DU'NIO, *ſ.* in old records, a double, a ſort of baſe coin leſs than a farthing.

DUNK, an iſland on the north-eaſt coaſt of New Holland. Lat. 17. 20. S. lon. 145. 30. E. Greenwich.

DUN'KELD, a town of Scotland, in the county of Perth, ſeated on the river Tay, in a ſituation truly romantic, under and among very high and almoſt inacceſſible craggs, part naked and part wooded. It is the chief market town of the Highlands, and has been greatly improved with buildings by the dukes of Athol. It is a place of great antiquity, and was the capital of ancient Caledonia.

DUN'KIRK, or DUNKERQUE, [from *dun*, a hill, and *kirk*, a church.] A ſea-port of France, in the department of the North, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Bergues. It is the moſt eaſterly harbour on that ſide of France which is oppoſite to Great Britain. It was only a ſmall village, inhabited by fiſhermen, till St. Eloy, biſhop of Noyon, built a church there in the ſeventh century. In 980, it was ſurrounded with walls, by Baldwin III. ſurnamed *the Young*, count of Flanders, and many inhabitants induced to reſide there by particular privileges and immunities granted them by him and his ſucceſſors. In 1388, it was attacked and burnt by the Engliſh. The Spaniſh emperor Charles V. who held it as a part of Flanders, erected a caſtle for its defence. In 1558, it was taken by the French, but retaken by the Spaniards in 1585. In the year 1646, it was taken by the French, aſſiſted by the navy of Holland, commanded by Van Trump. In 1655, a league being made between the protector Cromwell and the French, againſt the Spaniards, twelve Engliſh men of war blocked up the port; but to little purpoſe, as the privateers continued to ſail out and in, and to make many rich captures. Two years after, the two courts having determined to undertake the ſiege of this obnoxious place, Cromwell ſent over 6000 men to reinforce the French army under marſhal Turenne. Mardyke was taken in October, 1657, and delivered up to the Engliſh commiſſary, who placed a ſufficient garriſon in it. Not long after, the marquis of Caracena, at the head of 6000 Spaniards, attempted to retake it; but met with ſo warm a reception, that he was obliged to retire with the loſs of one-fixth of his force. Next ſpring, Lockhart arrived with freſh troops from England to join Turenne, and the ſiege of Dunkirk was opened by 22,000 men on the 1ſt of June, 1658. The lines of circumvallation and countervallation began on the weſt at the ſea, and continued to the ſtrand on the eaſt ſide, which being left dry at low tide, was defended by palliſadoes. Cromwell took care alſo to prevent all ſuccour from the ſea by means of a powerful fleet. The marquis of Leyda commanded the Spaniſh garriſon in the town, and don John of Auſtria, and the prince of Condé, then in rebellion, were encamped at Furnes. The trenches were opened on the 4th of June, by two ſeparate attacks, one on the ſide of the gate of Nieuport, by the French; the other near Fort Leon, by the Engliſh: the garriſon made ſeveral bold, but unſucceſsful, ſorties; and the beſiegers puſhed their works with ſuch vigour, that in five days they made a lodgment in the covert way. As this place was of the utmoſt importance to the Spaniards, they determined to relieve it, if poſſible, by attacking the enemy in their intrenchments. To this effect their army appeared in ſight on the 13th of June, and, although it was unprovided with artillery and tools for an encampment, pitched its tents within two cannon ſhot of the French lines. Turenne perceiving clearly what their intentions were, and being informed by deſerters of their want of cannon, took all neceſſary precautions againſt the garriſon, and marched out of his intrenchments before daybreak to attack the Spaniards with a ſuperior force. His infantry amounted to 9000 men, his cavalry to 6000; the Spaniards had only 6000 of each. After the French had cannonaded the enemy, the Engliſh began the attack with great intrepidity, and routed the whole left wing; ſoon after the marſhal, at the head of the French corps, totally defeated, and drove out of the field, the reſt of their army, notwithſtanding all the valour and efforts of the great Condé. Though deprived of all hopes of relief, the garriſon held out, with great obſtinacy, for ten days. Louis XIV. came from Mardyke to ſee it march out, and after taking poſſeſſion, delivered up the city to the Engliſh; ſo that, by a ſingular combination of circumſtances, Dunkirk belonged in the ſame day, at different times, to the three greateſt powers of Europe. The Engliſh being peaceable poſſeſſors of Dunkirk by the peace of the Pyrenees, ſet about repairing the fortifications without loſs of time. They began to build a citadel on the ſite of Fort Leon, a crown-work on the eaſt ſide, and ſeveral other works were planned. But Louis XIV. whoſe miniſters were too ſolicitous for the proſperity of French commerce to let any opportunity ſlip of increaſing or ſecuring it, ordered his ambaſſador, the count de Eſtrades, to treat with lord Clarendon for the purchaſe of Dunkirk. After ſome dirty bartering, Charles II. conſented to yield it up, with all its appurtenances, ammunition, and artillery, for 5,000,000 livres Tournois. Thus, in 1662, did Dunkirk paſs for ever under the dominion of the French monarchs. Louis XIV. now made it one of the ſtrongeſt places in Europe, and rendered the harbour commodious. By an article of the treaty of peace ſigned with the Engliſh at Utrecht, it was agreed, that all the fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, and the harbour filled up. This article was renewed in every ſubſequent peace, till the peace of 1783, after the American war. Since that time the harbour has again been cleared, and the fortifications repaired. In 1694, ſir Cloudeſly Shovel bombarded Dunkirk; but after having thrown in 1200 bombs, retired without having done any conſiderable damage. In 1793, the Engliſh army, under the duke of York, attempted to beſiege it, but were compelled to retire. It is the moſt important town and harbour on the whole coaſt; and, having been declared a free port, had a great deal of commerce. By means of a ſluice forty-two feet wide, the baſon within the town will hold forty ſhips of the line always floating. Dunkirk is divided into Old and New Town. The city is large and commodious, well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds; the buildings ſpacious, and laid out in ſeveral elegant ſquares. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 25,000. It is thirty-ſix poſts and three-quarters north of Paris. Lat. 51. 2. N. lon. 20. 2. E. Ferro.

DUNLA'VIN,

DUNLA'VIN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow: ten miles north-eaſt of Athy, and twenty weſt of Wicklow.

DUNLE'ER, a town of Ireland, in the county of Louth; an ancient borough: ſeven miles north of Drogheda.

DUNMAN'AWAY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork: twenty-three miles ſouth-weſt of Cork.

DUNMAN'NUS BAY, a bay of the Atlantic, on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Ireland, in the county of Cork, about fourteen miles in length, and from one to three broad, ſouth of Bantry Bay, affording a ſafe harbour. Lat. 51. 30. N. at its mouth. lon. 9. 40. W. Greenwich.

DUNMO'RE BAY, a bay of the Atlantic, on the weſt coaſt of Ireland, in the county of Clare. Lat. 52. 44. N. lon. 9. 35. W. Greenwich.

DUNMO'RE HEAD, a cape on the weſt coaſt of Ireland, in the county of Kerry. Lat. 52. 6. N. lon. 10. 10. W. Greenwich.

DUN'MOW, a pleaſant healthy town in the county of Eſſex, diſtant from London thirty-ſeven miles. It has a market on Saturdays for corn and other articles, and two annual fairs, on the 6th of May and 8th of November. It is a borough, chartered by Philip and Mary, and Elizabeth, governed by a bailiff and twelve burgeſſes; but ſends no members to parliament. The church is a ſpacious Gothic building, and exhibits a chaſte ſpecimen of that ſtyle of architecture. In the town is a manufacture of baize. Dunmow is very ancient, ſuppoſed to be the old Cæſaromagus, and in the road from hence to Colcheſter, are the remains of an old Roman cauſey. Here was formerly a priory, founded in 1104, by lady Juga, who built a church alſo. The collegiate church was a large ſtately fabric, the roof ſuſtained with rows of columns, whoſe capitals are ornamented with oak-leaves, elegantly carved, ſome of which ſtill remain. The part which now makes the pariſh-church, was the eaſt end of the choir, with the north aiſle. Under an arch in the ſouth wall, is an ancient tomb, ſaid to contain the body of the foundreſs, lady Juga. Near the ſame ſpot is a monument of Walter Fitzwalter, a powerful baron in the reign of Henry III. who died in 1198. The much-celebrated cuſtom inſtituted at Dunmow by him, relative to giving away a flitch of bacon to any pair who married without repenting, in any part of England, is now diſcontinued; but, for the ſatisfaction of the curious, we ſhall here preſerve the ſubſtance of the oath which uſed to be taken on thoſe occaſions:

You ſhall ſwear by the cuſtom of your confeſſion,
That you never made any nuptial tranſgreſſion,
Since you were married man and wife,
By houſehold brawls or a contentious ſtrife;
Or otherwiſe, in bed or at board,
Offended each other in deed or in word;
Or, ſince the pariſh-clerk ſaid amen,
Wiſh'd yourſelves unmarried again;
Or, in a twelvemonth and a day,
Repented not in thought any way;
But continued true and in deſire,
As when you join'd hands in holy choir.
If to theſe conditions, without all fear,
Of your own accord, you will freely ſwear,
A gammon of bacon you ſhall receive,
And bear it hence with love and good leave.

The flitch was expreſsly the reward of this uncommon connubial agreement; though *gammon* is put in the formula, perhaps as more ſuitable to the doggrel verſes. The flitch was for many years, at different times, claimed and received; but being eventually found to produce falſe ſwearing, idleneſs, and diſorder, it was judged prudent to aboliſh the cuſtom.

In the vicinity of Dunmow is Felſtead charity-ſchool, for eighty children of the county of Eſſex, and an almshouſe for ſix poor people, with handſome weekly allowances of malt, meat, and money, fewel, paſture for ſix cows, &c. Every year ſuch poor of this pariſh as received not collection, have ſix barrels of white herrings, beſides ſome cades of red. The ſchool has produced ſeveral eminent ſcholars, and is in a flouriſhing ſtate.

DUN'NER, *ſ.* [from *dun.*] One employed in ſoliciting petty debts.—They are ever talking of new ſilks, and ſerve the owners in getting them cuſtomers, as their common *dunners* do in making them pay. *Spectator.*

DUN'NET, a town of Scotland, in the county of Caithneſs, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of a bay, to which it gives name. In 1791, the number of inhabitants was about 1400. Dunnet-bay affords excellent flounders and haddocks; and is ſometimes frequented by ſhoals of herrings in July and Auguſt. But their continuance in the bay, or even their coming to it, has hitherto been reckoned ſo uncertain, that no extenſive fiſhery has been attempted: five miles eaſt of Thurſo. Lat. 58. 32. N. lon. 0. 1. W. Edinburgh.

DUN'NET HEAD, a cape on the north coaſt of Scotland, and county of Caithneſs. It conſiſts of ſeveral hills, with ſome bold rocks towards the ſea, from one hundred to four hundred feet high: three miles and a half north of Dunnet.

DUNNO'SE, a cape or promontory on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the Iſle of Wight, in the Engliſh Channel: about ſeventeen leagues weſt from Beachy-head. Lat. 50. 33. N. lon. 1. 14. W. Greenwich.

DUNNOT'TAR, a village of Scotland, in the county of Kincardine, where are the remains of a caſtle, ſituated on a rock near the ſea, ſuppoſed to have been built during the conteſt between Baliol and Bruce; before the uſe of artillery, ſuppoſed to have been impregnable. In 1661, the regalia of Scotland were depoſited here, to preſerve them from the Engliſh army; and a garriſon, with ſuitable ammunition, obtained for their defence by earl Mariſchal, proprietor of the caſtle; the command of the garriſon was intruſted to Mr. Ogilvie, of Barras, as the earl had joined the king's forces in England. The ſiege was turned into a blockade, and, though frequently ſummoned, the governor held out for ſeveral months; till preſſed by famine and the mutiny of the garriſon, he found means to convey the regalia to a place of ſecurity, and then capitulated on honourable terms. In 1685, this caſtle was employed as a priſon for a body of preſbyterians, and a number of them confined during the warmeſt ſeaſon of the year in one vault, which is ſtill to be ſeen, called the *whigs' vault*. A grave-ſtone in the church-yard of Dunnottar is placed over a number of them who died under the confinement: about a mile ſouth-weſt from Stonehaven.

DUNROSSNESS', a town of Scotland, ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland of Shetland: twenty-eight miles ſouth of Lerwick.

DUNS (John), commonly called *Duns Scotus*, a celebrated ſcholaſtic divine, who flouriſhed towards the cloſe of the thirteenth and the beginning of the fourteenth century, ſuppoſed to have been born at Dunſtance, near Alnwick, in Northumberland. When young, he was admitted into an inſtitution belonging to the Franciſcan friars at Newcaſtle; whence he was ſent by them to Merton-college, Oxford. In that ſeminary, of which he was afterwards made a fellow, he applied himſelf with uncommon diligence to his ſtudies, and acquired a high reputation for his proficiency in ſcholaſtic theology, civil and canon law, logic, metaphyſics, and the different branches of mathematical learning. About the year 1301 he was appointed to the divinity chair in the univerſity of Oxford; and, by the fame of his great learning and talents, attracted prodigious crowds of ſcholars from all parts to attend his lectures. About the year 1304, he was ſent by his ſuperiors to Paris, where he was admitted to the higheſt honours in the univerſity of that city, and appointed profeſſor and regent in the theological ſchool. In that ſituation he diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo much by his great acute-

neſs in diſputation, that he acquired the title of *the moſt ſubtle doctor*. At firſt Duns Scotus was a follower of Thomas Aquinas; but differing from his maſter on the ſubject of divine grace, he formed a diſtinct ſect, which ſoon became numerous, particularly among the members of the order to which he belonged. By this ſeparation, the catholic ſchoolmen became claſſed under the denominations of Thomiſts and Scotiſts, who maintained the opinions of their reſpective heads with wonderful ardour and virulence of controverſy. One of the diſtinguiſhing tenets of which Duns Scotus was a ſtrenuous advocate, if not the firſt propounder, was that of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary; which the Dominicans, and the other adherents to the ſchool of Aquinas, conteſted with as much heat and bitterneſs as they ever diſplayed againſt the moſt obnoxious and heretical dogma. The Franciſcans, on the contrary, and the other Scotiſts, ſupported that doctrine with equal warmth and unchriſtian animoſity towards their opponents. In 1308, Duns Scotus was ſent by the head of his order to teach theology at Cologne; at which city he was received with the moſt ſolemn pomp and high-raiſed expectations. He did not, however, live to gratify theſe expectations, being cut off, moſt probably by a ſtroke of apoplexy, according to ſome writers in the forty-third, but according to others in the thirty-fourth, year of his age. Paul Jovius, and ſome other writers, relate a ſhocking tale concerning him: that he was buried while in a ſwoon, and died miſerably, after having recovered ſtrength ſufficient to turn himſelf in his grave. But the beſt hiſtorians conſider this account to be fabulous. He left behind him numerous works, ſome of which were printed ſeparately, at different periods; but the moſt complete collection of the whole, together with the life of the author, was publiſhed by Lucas Waddingus, at Lyons, in 1639, in 12 vols. folio.

DUNSE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Berwick, containing 2324 inhabitants. About a mile from the town is a medicinal ſpring, called *Dunſe Spaw*, firſt diſcovered in 1747, and lately repaired at the expence of a gentleman who was cured of a complaint in his ſtomach: ten miles weſt of Berwick, and twenty-nine ſouth-eaſt of Edinburgh.

DUN'SETS, *ſ.* in old records, a people that dwell on hilly places.

DUN'SICAL, *adj.* Dull; ſtupid; incapable of learning. *Scott.*

DUN'SICALLY, *adv.* In the manner of a dunce. *Scott.*

DUNS'KERRY, a ſmall iſland near the north coaſt of Scotland: four miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Farout Head.

DUN'STABLE, a pleaſant town of Bedfordſhire, thirty-three miles from London, the ſame from Northampton, eighteen from Newport Pagnel, and nine from Woburn. It ſtands on a chalky hill, at the entrance of the Chiltern, where the old Roman Watling-ſtreet is croſſed by the Ickneld-ſtreet. Not far from it alſo, on the deſcent of the Chiltern-hills, is an area of nine acres, with a deep ditch and rampart round it, ſaid to be a Daniſh work, called Maiden-bower. This town, having been ruined by the Danes, was rebuilt by Henry I. who made it a royal borough; but it never ſent members to parliament, though once ſummoned. Edward I. erected a croſs here, in memory of his queen Eleanor. Several of the Lollards were martyred here in the reigns of Henry V. and VII. The church is part of a priory, built in 1132; and archbiſhop Cranmer was the laſt prior, who here pronounced the ſentence of divorce againſt queen Catherine. Here is a good charity-ſchool. The town is populous, abounding with excellent accommodations, it being a great thoroughfare to the counties in the north and north-weſt, and conſequently to Scotland and Ireland. This place was once famous for brewing; and, at this time, the women carry on a great manufacture of hats, and utenſils made of ſtraw, in which, it is ſaid, they excel all the world. This part of the country was formerly very woody, and, with the faſtneſſes in the Chiltern-hills, was a harbour for great gangs of highwaymen; to curb whom, Henry I. built Kingſbury, promiſing great privileges to ſuch of his ſubjects as were willing to come and ſettle here. In the reign of Henry VII. William Tillſworth was burnt here for denying the pope's ſupremacy; with this remarkable circumſtance of cruelty, that his only daughter was compelled to ſet fire to the faggots. The market is on Wedneſdays, for corn, ſtraw, plat, and hats. There are four fairs, viz. Aſh-Wedneſday, 22d of May, 12th of Auguſt, and 12th of November; for horſes, and all ſorts of cattle.

DUN'STABLE, a townſhip of the American States, in Hillſborough county, New Hampſhire, on the weſt ſide of Merrimack river, below the town of Merrimack, and ſeparated by the ſtate line from Pepperel and Dunſtable in Middleſex county, Maſſachuſetts. It was incorporated in 1746, contains 632 inhabitants, and lies about forty miles north-weſt of Boſton.

DUN'STABLE, a townſhip of the American States, in Maſſachuſetts, in the northern part of Middleſex county, and on the ſouthern bank of Merrimack river: thirty-ſeven miles north-weſterly of Boſton.

DUN'STAN, [of ðun, a hill, and ſtan, a ſtone, Sax.] A proper name.

DUN'STAN, a ſaint in the Romiſh calendar, archbiſhop of Canterbury in the tenth century, born at Glaſtonbury in Somerſetſhire, in 925. He was the nephew of Athelm archbiſhop of Canterbury, who took care to have him educated in the beſt literature of his time; and, when he had finiſhed his ſtudies, recommended him to the patronage of king Athelſtan, by whom he was ſent for to court. He obtained ſuch favour with the king, that he preſented him with ſome lands near Glaſtonbury; and, in the reign of Edmund, the ſucceſſor of Athelſtan, was made abbot of that monaſtery. In the reign of Edred, the ſucceſſor of Edmund, Dunſtan's intereſt at court conſiderably increaſed, until he became prime miniſter, favourite, and confeſſor to the king, who, to gratify him, undertook the rebuilding of Glaſtonbury church and monaſtery, in a very ſumptuous and magnificent ſtyle. In the mean while Dunſtan, who was a true monk in ſpirit as well as intrigue, left no meaſures untried to promote the intereſts of his fraternity; and, by his credit with the king, procured the appointment of ſeveral of that order to eccleſiaſtical benefices, to the prejudice of the ſecular clergy. This conduct expoſed him to the reſentment of that body, in which they were joined by many of the courtiers, who were provoked by the haughty and overbearing demeanour which he aſſumed. The king's countenance, however, ſupported his favourite againſt the effects of their enmity; and the idle tales of the monks obtained for him, among the credulous populace, the reputation of a great ſaint, who was frequently favoured with divine revelations. In theſe circumſtances, when the eccleſiaſtical patronage in the kingdom was wholly in his power, the king ſuddenly died, and Dunſtan's ambition met with a ſevere diſappointment. On the acceſſion of Edwy, his council determined to reverſe what had been done in favour of the monks, who filled the country with the bittereſt invectives, and excited in the populace an apprehenſion that religion was in danger. Whether Dunſtan was the prime mover of theſe complaints is not now apparent; but they were made the ſubject of a charge againſt him, and he was baniſhed the kingdom. He retired to a monaſtery in Flanders, where he availed himſelf of the influence of the monks over the minds of the Engliſh populace, and the general opinion of his great ſanctity, to excite inſurrections againſt the government of Edwy. Inſtigated by their intrigues, and the repreſentations which they propagated againſt the moral and religious character of the king, great numbers of malcontents collected together, of whom Edgar, the king's brother, who maintained a cloſe connection with Dunſtan, was declared the head and protector. By their means Edgar was ſoon enabled to conquer

conquer the greateſt part of England north of the Thames; and on the death of Edwy, which took place in a ſhort time afterwards, to become maſter of the whole of his dominions. No ſooner was Edgar in poſſeſſion of kingly power, than he recalled Dunſtan, and promoted him to the ſee of Worceſter. Some time afterwards he inveſted him with the management of the biſhopric of London; and upon a vacancy taking place in the archiepiſcopal ſee of Canterbury, about the year 959, procured his election to that dignity. As, however, there were circumſtances attending his election which rendered it not perfectly canonical, Dunſtan was ſent to Rome, to receive the ſanction of the pope to his appointment, and to be inveſted there with the pall. The pope, who was fully appriſed of his influence at the court of Edgar, and ſatisfied with the proofs which he had given of his devotion to the intereſts of the church of Rome, and his zeal in the cauſe of the monks, readily confirmed his election, and conſtituted him his legate in England. Armed with this power, he returned to his native country, where the king committed to him and his choſen friends the management of all the eccleſiaſtical affairs of England, and thus enabled him to give to the Romiſh ſee an authority and juriſdiction of which the Engliſh clergy had been before in a conſiderable degree independent. The meaſures to which he had recourſe for this purpoſe were, his former practice of placing monks in the vacant eccleſiaſtical benefices, in the room of the ſecular clergy, and the ejection of many of the latter from their livings, in order that he might beſtow them on his tried adherents. Among his pretences for theſe meaſures he alleged the ſcandalous lives of the ſecular clergy, of which there was too much reaſon for complaint, and the opportunity that would be afforded of introducing a reformation into the church, by placing it under the government of men who by their profeſſion were ſolely devoted to objects of ſpiritual concern. But one principal motive which influenced him was, that of rendering the papal power paramount and abſolute in the Engliſh church; for it ſhould be mentioned that, at this period, the Engliſh clergy had not yielded implicit ſubmiſſion to the pretended ſucceſſors of St. Peter. For theſe ſervices the church of Rome and the monks have been unbounded in the commendations which they have beſtowed upon Dunſtan; and they have invented tales of numerous miracles ſaid to have been wrought by him, or in his favour, in order to raiſe the opinion of the excellence and ſanctity of his character. Dunſtan maintained his intereſt at court during the whole of the reign of Edgar; and on the death of that prince, in 975, by his influence raiſed his ſon Edward to the throne, in oppoſition to the wiſhes of many of the nobles, who were inclined to chooſe his ſon Ethelred. As Edward was in his minority, Dunſtan aſſumed to himſelf the regency of the kingdom, and acted with uncontrolled authority in church and ſtate, until the murder of the king, in 979. On that event, Ethelred, who was the only ſurviving prince of the royal family, was called to the throne, and crowned by the legate. Under the reign of this prince, Dunſtan appears to have enjoyed little credit or influence; and he is reported to have been ſo much mortified by the contempt in which his threatenings of divine vengeance were held by the king, in the inſtance of a diſpute reſpecting the prlvileges of the church, that he retired to his archbiſhopric, where he died of grief and vexation in the year 988.

DUNS'TANG, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty-eight miles north-eaſt of Wilkomierz.

DUNS'TER, a ſmall market-town in Somerſetſhire, ſituated about two miles ſouth-eaſt of Minehead, twenty from Taunton, and 164 from London; formerly a borough, and of conſiderable trade in the clothing branch; but its only manufacture now is kerſeys. The church, which is large, with a handſome tower, was built in the reign of Henry VII. Adjacent to the town ſtands on an eminence, that ancient and delightful ſeat, Dunſter-caſtle, the reſidence of Ralph lord Mohun, in the reign of William the Conqueror, being then one of the ſix great baronies, in which family it remained for ſeveral centuries. The caſtle conſiſts of two wings and three towers, commanding a fine proſpect of a vale bounded by the Severn. The market is on Fridays, and one fair on Whit-Monday.

DU'NUM, *ſ.* A Celtic term, denoting a hill or eminence, and which often occurs to form the names of towns, to ſignify their high ſituation, places of ſtrength or citadels, hills or eminences, &c. See DUN.

DU'NUM, anciently a town of Ireland; now thought to be *Down-Patrick*, in the county of Down.

DUN'WICH, an ancient town in the county of Suffolk, ſituated on the ſea coaſt, ninety-eight miles from London, eleven north-eaſt of Saxmundham, and four ſouth-eaſt of Blythburgh. Its ſcite is extremely pleaſant, having an extenſive view of the German ocean. This place however is greatly reduced by the encroachment of the ſea, ſeven of its pariſhes out of eight having been deſtroyed: and the encroachment ſtill making, will probably in a few years oblige the conſtituent body to betake themſelves to a boat, whenever the king's writ ſhall ſummon them to the exerciſe of their elective functions; for the right of election is in the freemen, inhabiting *within* the remains of the borough. It ſent members *ab origine*. The corporation conſiſts of two bailiffs, and twelve capital burgeſſes. Dunwich, though now a poor place, is of the moſt early note of any town in Suffolk. In 630 it was an epiſcopal ſee, afterwards divided into two ſees, namely, one here, the other at North-Elmham; but William the Conqueror transferred them firſt to Thetford, then to Norwich. From the coins, &c. found here, particularly an urn dug out of the cliff in 1786, with fragments of other urns, it is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman ſtation; but, though ſir Henry Spelman mentions a report that here was once fifty-two churches and monaſteries, yet the ſea has ſwallowed up all except All-Saints. In the ſixteenth century it was a populous place, and had a mint. The free-burgeſſes gave king John 300 marks of ſilver for his charter, beſides ten falcons and five gerfalcons; and they alſo gave him 200 marks and 500 eels for the grant of wrecks. The remains of the above-mentioned church, an old chapel, and an old palace, are the only marks now left of its former greatneſs. Here is one fair on the 25th of July; and a market on Saturdays.

DU'O, *ſ.* in muſic, a ſong or compoſition, to be performed on two parts only, one ſung, the other played on an inſtrument, or by two voices. Duo is likewiſe when two voices ſing different parts, as accompanied with a third, which is a thorough baſs. It is ſeldom that uniſons and octaves are uſed in duos, except at the beginning and end.

DUODE'CIMAL, *adj.* Belonging to croſs-multiplication.

DUODE'CIMALS, *ſ.* The rule of croſs-multiplication, by which builders' work is calculated. See ARITHMETIC, vol. ii. p. 181.

DUODE'CIMO, *adj.* [*duodecimus*, Lat.] Belonging to the number twelve.

DUODE'CIMO, *ſ.* A book in which one ſheet is ſo folded as to make twelve leaves, or twenty-four pages.

DUODE'CUPLE, *adj.* [*duo* and *decuplus*, Lat.] Conſiſting of twelves.—Griſeplius, a learned Polander, endeavours to eſtabliſh the *duodecuple* proportion among the Jews, by comparing ſome paſſages of ſcripture together. *Arbuthnot.*

DUODE'NA, *ſ.* in old records, a jury of twelve men.

DUODE'NUM, [from *duodenus*, Lat. conſiſting of twelve.] An inteſtine ſo named, becauſe it was ſuppoſed not to exceed the breadth of twelve fingers; but as the ancients diſſected only animals, this is probably not very exact. See the article ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 613.

To DUP, *v. a.* To do up: thence to open by lifting up any thing.—Will they not *dup* the gate to-day? *Damon and Pythias.*

Then up he roſe, and don'd his cloths,
And *dupt* the chamber-door:
Let in the maid, that out a maid
Never departed more. *Shakeſpeare.*

DUPA'GE, a lake of North America, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of Plein river, or rather an enlargement of the channel of that river, five miles from its mouth. Plein and Theakiki there form the river Illinois.

DUPA'TY, a diſtinguiſhed magiſtrate, and a man of letters, born at Rochelle, was firſt advocate-general to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and afterwards preſident-à-mortier. He acquired great honour by his firmneſs and eloquence at the revolution in the magiſtracy which took place in 1771. He defended with ſucceſs three criminals of Chaumont, who had been condemned to be broken on the wheel, and publiſhed a memoir on this occaſion, which was much admired for its ſtrength and feeling. His Hiſtorical Reflections upon Criminal Laws diſplay a humane and enlightened mind. He was long occupied in promoting a reform in this point, and contended with zeal againſt the obſtacles which ancient prejudice threw in his way. He ſpent the latter part of his life at Paris, and made himſelf known as a man of letters by his Academical Diſcourſes, and his Letters on Italy. He died in 1788.

DUPE, *ſ.* [*dupe*, Fr. from *duppe*, a fooliſh bird, eaſily caught.] A credulous man; a man eaſily tricked.—An uſurping populace is its own *dupe*, a mere underworker, and a purchaſer in truſt for ſome ſingle tyrant. *Swift.*

Firſt ſlave to words, then vaſſal to a name,
Then *dupe* to party; child and man the ſame. *Dunciad.*

To DUPE, *v. a.* To trick; to cheat:

The throne a bigot keep, a genius quit;
Faithleſs through piety, and *dup'd* through wit. *Pope.*

DUPIN' (Louis Ellis), a French prieſt, and celebrated eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian, born at Paris, in 1657. After being initiated in the elements of grammar, he was placed under the tuition of M. Lair, rector of the univerſity of Paris, and ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his attachment to the ſtudy of the belles-lettres, and the ſciences. Having gone through the courſes of claſſical learning and of philoſophy in the college of Harcourt, he was admitted to the degree of maſter of arts in 1672; on which occaſion he particularly recommended himſelf to notice by the able manner in which he performed the cuſtomary collegiate exerciſes. Soon afterwards he determined on embracing the eccleſiaſtical profeſſion, and to prepare himſelf for it diligently attended the courſe of theological lectures at the Sorbonne. When he had finiſhed that courſe, he cloſely applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the hiſtory of the councils, and the works of the Greek and Latin fathers. In 1680, he took his degree of bachelor of the Sorbonne, in his examination for which he had the honour of ſtanding in the higheſt rank of meritorious candidates; in the ſame year he was licenſed to officiate as a prieſt; and was afterwards appointed profeſſor in the College Royal. In 1684 he received the bonnet of doctor of the Sorbonne, and immediately afterwards employed himſelf on the production of his grand and valuable work entitled *Bibliothéque univerſelle des Auteurs Eccleſiaſtiques, &c.* or, Hiſtory of Eccleſiaſtical Writers: containing an Account of the Authors of the ſeveral Books of the Old and New Teſtaments; and the Lives and Writings of the Primitive Fathers, &c. This work has undergone a variety of impreſſions in France, Holland, and England, in octavo, quarto, and folio, and will always be conſulted with great advantage by the ſtudent in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory. Having joined with thoſe doctors of the Sorbonne who ſubſcribed to the celebrated Caſe of Conſcience, relative to the diſputes concerning the opinions of Janſenius, he expoſed himſelf to the reſentment of the pope, and of the court of France. The conſequence was, that in 1703, he was deprived of his profeſſorſhip, and baniſhed to Chatelleraut; whence he was not permitted to return to Paris before he had retracted the meaſure which he had taken; and even then was not reinſtated in his profeſſorſhip. He met with much trouble, on account of the correſpondence which he held with Dr. Wake, archbiſhop of Canterbury, relative to a project for uniting the churches of England and France. In the beginning of the year 1719, his papers were ſeized by order of the government, and innumerable calumnies were propagated to his prejudice; but as no charge could be eſtabliſhed againſt him, excepting that of great candour and moderation, and a deſire to heal the diviſions in the Chriſtian world, his enemies were diſappointed, and he was permitted to ſpend his few remaining days in peace. He died at Paris in the ſixty-ſecond year of his age, deeply regretted both by his friends and the public in general. Beſides his grand work already mentioned, M. Dupin was the author of, 1. Prolegomena to the Bible, in 3 vols. 8vo. 1699. 2. *De Antiqua Eccleſiæ Diſciplina Diſſertationes Hiſtoricæ*, 4to. 1686. 3. *Liber Pſalmorum cum Notis quibus eorum ſenſus literalis exponitur*, 8vo. 1693. 4. The Book of Pſalms tranſlated into French from the Hebrew, with Notes, 12mo. 1691. 5. *Notæ in Pentateuchum*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1701. 6. Hiſtorical, Chronological, and Critical, Diſſertations on the Bible, 8vo. 1711. 7. *Sancti Optati Afri, Milevitani Epiſcopi, Opera*, folio, 1700, with a preface, notes, the hiſtory of the Donatiſts, the ſacred geography of Africa, &c. by M. Dupin. 8. *Joannis Gerſoni Doctoris & Cancellarii Pariſienſis Opera, &c.* 5 vols. folio. 9. A Bibliotheque of Hiſtorians, after the manner of the Bibliotheque of Eccleſiaſtical Writers, 2 vols. 8vo. 1707. 10. An Abridgment of the Hiſtory of the Church, from the Beginning of the World, 4 vols. 12mo. 1712. 11. Profane Hiſtory, from the earlieſt Date to the preſent Time, 6 vols. 12mo. 1714 and 1716. 12. The Hiſtory of the Jews, 7 vols. 12mo. 13. An Hiſtorical Treatiſe on Excommunications, &c. 2 vols. 12mo. 1715. 14. A Defence of the Monarchy of Sicily, with illuſtrative Documents and Proofs, 12mo. 1716. 15. A Philoſophical and Theological Treatiſe on the Love of God, 8vo. 16. A Philoſophical and Theological Treatiſe on Truth, 12mo. publiſhed after the author's death, in 1731. Beſides the works above-mentioned, and other leſſer tracts, M. Dupin had a conſiderable ſhare in the editions of Moreri's Dictionary, which appeared in 1712 and 1718.

DUPI'NO, or DUBLIN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Poſnania: forty-four miles ſouth of Poſen.

DU'PLE, *adj.* [*duplus*, Lat.] Double; one repeated. In arithmetic a *duple ratio* is that in which the antecedent term is double the conſequent; or, where the exponent of the ratio is 2. Thus, 6 to 3 is in a duple ratio. *Sub-duple ratio*, is that in which the conſequent is double the antecedent; or, in which the exponent of the ratio is ½. As in 3 to 6, which is in ſub-duple ratio.

DUPLE'IX (Scipio), a French hiſtorian, born in 1569, at Condom. He became known to queen Margaret of Navarre, who brought him to Paris in 1605, and made him her maſter-of-requeſts. He afterwards obtained the poſt of hiſtoriographer of France, and laudably employed many years in reſearches into the ancient records of his country. The fruits of theſe were, his Memoirs of the Gauls, 4to. 1619, a work in conſiderable eſteem for its matter, though ill written. This conſtituted the firſt part of his Hiſtory of France, of which there are two editions; the firſt of five volumes folio, the ſecond of ſix volumes. The narration is brought down to the year 1645. He wrote alſo a Roman Hiſtory, 3 vols. folio; a Courſe of Philoſophy; and the Liberty of the French Tongue. He died in 1661, at the age of ninety-two.

To DU'PLICATE, *v. a.* [*duplico*, Lat.] To double; to enlarge by the repetition of the firſt number or quantity.—And ſome alterations in the brain *duplicate* that which is but a ſingle object to our undiſtempered ſentiments. *Glanville.*—To fold together.

DU'PLICATE,

DU'PLICATE, *adj.* *Duplicate* ratio is the proportion of ſquares. Thus, in a rank of geometrical proportions, the firſt term to the third is ſaid to be in a *duplicate* ratio of the firſt to the ſecond, or as its ſquare is to the ſquare of the ſecond: ſo in 2, 4, 8, 16, the ratio of 2 to 8 is a *duplicate* of that of 2 to 4, or as the ſquare of 2 to the ſquare of 4. *Phillips. Harris.*—It has been found, that the attraction is almoſt reciprocally in a *duplicate* proportion of the diſtance of the middle of the drop from the courſe of the glaſſes, viz. reciprocally in a ſimple proportion, by reaſon of the ſpreading of the drop, and its touching each glaſs in a larger ſurface; and again reciprocally in a ſimple proportion, by reaſon of the attractions growing ſtronger within the ſame quantity of attracting ſurface. *Newton.*

DU'PLICATE, *ſ.* Another correſpondent to the firſt; a ſecond thing of the ſame kind.—Nothing is more needful for perfecting the natural hiſtory of bodies, than the ſubjecting them to the fire; to which end I have reſerved *duplicates* of the moſt conſiderable. *Woodward.*

DU'PLICATE, *ſ.* in law, is uſed for the ſecond letters-patent, granted by the lord chancellor, in a caſe wherein he had before done the ſame; which were therefore thought void. But it is more commonly a copy or tranſcript of any deed or writing, account, &c. or a ſecond letter, written and ſent to the ſame party and purpoſe as a former, or a copy of diſpatches for fear of a miſcarriage of the firſt, or for other reaſons. 4 *Car.* II. c. 10. It is alſo the name of the diſcharge, given by the quarter ſeſſions, &c. to an inſolvent debtor, who takes the benefit of an act, for relief of inſolvent debtors, with reſpect to the impriſonment of their perſons.

DUPLICA'TION, *ſ.* The act of doubling.—What great pains hath been taken concerning the quadrature of a circle, and the *duplication* of a cube, and ſome other mathematical problems! *Hale.*—The act of folding together. A fold; a doubling.—The peritonæum is a ſtrong membrane, every where double; in the *duplications* of which all the viſcera of the abdomen are hid. *Wiſeman.*

The *duplication of a cube*, is finding out the ſide of a cube that ſhall be double in ſolidity to a given cube: which is a celebrated problem, cultivated by the ancient geometricians upwards of 2000 years ago. It was firſt propoſed by the oracle of Apollo at Delphos; which, being conſulted about the manner of ſtopping a plague then raging at Athens, returned for anſwer, that the plague ſhould ceaſe when Apollo's altar, which was cubical, ſhould be doubled. Upon this they applied themſelves in good earneſt to ſeek the duplicature of the cube, which from thence was called the *Delian problem*. This problem cannot be effected geometrically, as it requires the ſolution of a cubic equation, or requires the finding of two mean proportionals, viz. between the ſide of the given cube and the double of the ſame, the firſt of which two mean proportionals is the ſide of the double cube, as was firſt obſerved by Hippocrates of Chios. For, let a be the ſide of the given cube, and z the ſide of the double cube ſought; then it is $z^3 = 2a^3$, or $a^2 : z^2 :: z : 2a$; ſo that, if a and z be the firſt and ſecond terms of a ſet of continued proportionals, then $a^2 : z^2$ is the ratio of the ſquare of the firſt to the ſquare of the ſecond, which, it is known, is the ſame as the ratio of the firſt term to the third, or of the ſecond to the fourth, that is, of z to $2a$; therefore z being the ſecond term, $2a$ will be the fourth. So that z, the ſide of the cube ſought, is the ſecond of four terms in continued proportion, the firſt and fourth being a and $2a$, that is, the ſide of the double cube is the firſt of two mean proportionals between a and $2a$. Eutocius, in his Commentaries on Archimedes, gives ſeveral ways of performing this by the meſolabe. In Pappus, too, are found three different ways; the firſt according to Archimedes, the ſecond according to Hero, and the third by an inſtrument invented by Pappus, which gives all the proportions required. The ſieur de Comiers has likewiſe publiſhed a demonſtration of the ſame problem, by means of a compaſs with three legs. But all theſe methods are only mechanical. See *Valerius Maximus*, lib. viii. alſo *Eutocius's Com.* on lib. ii. *Archimedes de Sphæra & Cylindro*; and *Pappus*, lib. iii. prop. 5. and lib. iv. prop. 22.

DU'PLICATURE, *ſ.* A fold; any thing doubled.—The lympheducts, either dilacerated or obſtructed, exonerate themſelves into the foldings, or between the *duplicatures* of the membranes. *Ray.*

DUPLI'CITY, *ſ.* [*duplicis*, Lat.] Doubleneſs; the number of two.—Do not affect *duplicities* nor triplicities, nor any certain number of parts, in your diviſion of things. *Watts.*—Deceit; doubleneſs of heart or of tongue.

DU'PLIN, a county of the American States, in Wilmington diſtrict, North Carolina, bounded caſt by Onſlow, and ſouth-weſt by Sampſon. The number of inhabitants 5662. The chief town is Sarecto, on the north-eaſt branch of Cape Fear.

DUPON'DIUS, *ſ.* in antiquity, a weight of two pounds, or a money of the value of two aſſes. See As, vol. ii. p. 249.

DUP'PA (Brian), a reſpectable Engliſh prelate, born at Lewiſham in Kent, in 1588–9. He was educated at Weſtminſter ſchool; whence he was elected ſtudent of Chriſtchurch college, Oxford, in 1605. He took his degree of bachelor of arts in 1609; and in 1612 was choſen a fellow of All-Souls college. In 1619, he was choſen one of the proctors to the univerſity of Oxford, which office he paſſed through with reputation and general reſpect. He was made chaplain to the earl of Dorſet, by whoſe intereſt with the king he was appointed to the deanery of Chriſtchurch, Oxford, in 1629. To this church and college he was, during his reſidence in it, and at his death, a liberal benefactor. In 1634, he was conſtituted chancellor of the church of Sarum, and ſoon afterwards made chaplain to Charles I. who, in 1638, appointed him tutor to Charles prince of Wales, and afterwards to his brother the duke of York. In 1638, Dr. Duppa was preſented to the rectory of Petworth in Suſſex, and in the ſame year nominated to the biſhopric of Chicheſter. In 1640, he was tranſlated to the ſee of Saliſbury; but was prevented from deriving any benefit from it by the civil war of Charles I. Biſhop Duppa joined the king at Oxford, and frequently attended him during his impriſonment in the Iſle of Wight. According to ſome writers he was not only privy to the compoſition of the *Eikon Baſilike*, but alſo contributed his aid towards it. It is certain that great confidence was placed in him by the king, who entruſted him with the delicate buſineſs of ſupplying the vacant biſhoprics; which office he retained under Charles II. After the reſtoration, his ſteady loyalty was rewarded by a tranſlation to the rich biſhopric of Wincheſter, in 1660. He was alſo made lord almoner, and appointed one of the viſitors of the univerſity of Oxford. About the year 1661, he began to erect an hoſpital for the maintenance of poor people at Richmond; and projected other works of piety and charity, which he was prevented from completing by his death, which took place in 1662, in the ſeventy-fourth year of his age. He was the author only of a few ſermons and devotional pieces; and of a collection of verſes in praiſe of Ben Jonſon and his works.

DUPRAT'. See Prat.

DUPRE' DE ST. MAUR (Nicolas Francis), born at Paris about the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century, brought up for the long robe, and obtained a place of maſter of accompts. He was greatly reſpected, as well for his official conduct, as for his literary talents and ſocial qualities. He was one of the firſt of the French men of letters who acquired a taſte for Engliſh literature, and endeavoured to promote it among their countrymen. For this purpoſe he undertook a tranſlation of Milton's Paradiſe Loſt in proſe, the ſpirit and elegance of which rendered it popular, though doubtleſs it could convey but a very imperfect idea of the great original. This work

gained him admiſſion into the French academy in 1733. He alſo wrote an Eſſay on the Monies of France, 4to. 1746, containing many curious reſearches, and much eſteemed. Inquiries into the Value of Monies and the Price of Corn, 12mo. 1761; an uſeful performance. M. Dupré died in 1775, at a very advanced age.

DUQUEL'LA, a province of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, about twenty-five leagues in length, and twenty broad; exceedingly fertile in corn and paſtures.

DUQUE'SNE, a river of the iſland of Grenada, which runs into the ſea, in a bay to which it gives name.

DUQUE'SNE POINT, a cape on the weſt coaſt of the iſland of Grenada. Lat. 12. 17. N. lon. 61. 29. W. Greenwich.

DU'RA, [from the Heb. ſignifying *duration*.] The name of a place, ſituated in the province of Babylon, where king Nebuchadnezzar ſet up his golden image. *Dan.* iii. 1.

DU'RA MA'TER, *ſ.* [from *durus*, Lat. hard, and *mater* a mother.] A membrane ſurrounding the brain, and called *dura*, from its comparative hardneſs with the *pia mater*, and *mater* from its being the ſource of all the other membranes. See ANATOMY.

DURABI'LITY, *ſ.* [*durabilis*, Lat.] The power of laſting; continuance; endurance.—Stones, though in dignity of nature inferior unto plants, yet exceed them in firmneſs of ſtrength, or *durability* of being. *Hooker.*—Our times upon the earth have neither certainty nor *durability*. *Raleigh.*

DU'RABLE, *adj.* [*durabilis*, Lat.] Laſting; having the quality of long continuance.—The glories of her majeſty's reign ought to be recorded in words more *durable* than braſs, and ſuch as our poſterity may read a thouſand years hence. *Swift.*—Having ſucceſſive exiſtence:

Time, though in eternity, applied
To motion, meaſures all things *durable*
By preſent, paſt, and future. *Milton.*

DU'RABLENESS, *ſ.* Power of laſting; continuance.—A bad poet, if he cannot become immortal by the goodneſs of his verſe, may by the *durableneſs* of the metal that ſupports it. *Addiſon.*

DU'RABLY, *adv.* In a laſting manner.—There indeed he found his fame flouriſhing, his monuments engraved in marble, and yet more *durably* in men's memories. *Sidney.*

DURA'KA, a ſmall iſland of Arabia, in the Red Sea, about four leagues from the coaſt. Lat. 16. 48. N. lon. 41. 31. E. Greenwich.

DURAKO'VA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Archangel, on the coaſt of the White Sea: ſixty-eight miles weſt of Archangel.

DURAMPOU'R, a town of Hindooſtan, in the country of Guzerat, forty-five miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Surat, and ninety-ſix north-north-eaſt of Bombay. Lat. 20. 32. N. lon. 73. 14. E. Greenwich.

DU'RANCE, *ſ.* [from *dureſſe*, Law Fr.] Impriſonment; the cuſtody or power of a jailor; a priſon.—A poor, innocent, forlorn, ſtranger, languiſhing in *durance*, upon the falſe accuſations of a lying, inſolent, woman. *South.*—Endurance; continuance; duration:

Sick nature at that inſtant trembled round,
And mother earth ſigh'd as ſhe felt the wound:
Of how ſhort *durance* was this new made ſtate;
How far more mighty than heav'n's love, hell's hate.
Dryden.

DURAN'CE, a river of France, which riſes on the borders of Piedmont, paſſes near Embrun, Siſteron, Manoſque, Pertuis, Cavaillon, &c. and runs into the Rhone, a little below Avignon.

DURA'ND (William), an eminent juriſt, born in 1237 at Puymoiſſon in Provence. He went young to Bologna, where he ſtudied the canon law under Bernardo du Parma. After taking his doctor's degree, he began to teach, firſt at Bologna, and then at Modena. At the age of thirty-four he publiſhed his famous work entitled *Speculum Juris*, which was ſo much eſteemed that it acquired him the ſurname of *Speculator*. The learned Baldus uſed to ſay, that without poſſeſſing that book a man could not deſerve the name of a lawyer. The cardinal of Oſtia took Durand as his aſſeſſor in deciding cauſes, and made him ſo advantageouſly known at the court of Rome, that he was employed by pope Clement IV. and four ſucceeding pontiffs, in important and honourable charges. Gregory X. made him his legate at the council of Lyons in 1274. He ſuſtained various governments in Italy, and was raiſed to the dignity of count of Romagna. In 1285, Honorius IV. appointed him to the ſee of Mende, but he was prevented by buſineſs from taking poſſeſſion of his biſhopric till 1290. Four years afterwards he was recalled into Italy, and made marquis of the march of Ancona, and again count of Romagna, which provinces he governed during the tumults of the Guelf and Ghibelline factions. He died at Rome in 1296, and a magnificent monument was erected to his memory in the church of St. Maria s. Minerva. Beſides his Speculum, he wrote *Rationale Divinorum Officiorum*, a work of celebrity in its time; and alſo a Commentary on the Canons of the Council of Lyons; and an Abridgement of the Gloſſes and Text of the Canon Law.

DURA'ND (William), nephew of the preceding, was made archdeacon of Mende, and became biſhop of that ſee, in which he remained until his death, in 1328. His name is now chiefly recollected on account of his being the author of a work highly eſteemed in the catholic world, which treats "of the manner of holding a general council," and preſents us with a vaſt number of regulations made by councils, and the fathers, for reforming the abuſes and diſorders of the popes and court of Rome, of the prelates, the eccleſiaſtics, and religious orders. It is ſpoken of as a very uſeful work, on account of the information which it conveys, and the valuable advice which it ſuggeſts.

DURA'ND DE ST. POURCAIN (William), a learned French prelate, in the fourteenth century, born in the town indicated by his ſurname, in the dioceſe of Clermont. He acquired very high reputation by the proficiency which he made in theological and philoſophical ſtudies. In 1313 he was created doctor in divinity by the univerſity of Paris, and ſome time afterwards obtained the ſituation of maſter of the ſacred palace at Rome, where his office called him to deliver public lectures on ſacred literature. In 1318 he was nominated biſhop of Puy; and in 1326 tranſlated to the biſhopric of Meaux, by pope John XXII. He made himſelf ſo famous by his acuteneſs and perſeverance in diſcuſſing the moſt crabbed and difficult topics in ſcholaſtic theology, that he obtained the title of *the moſt reſolute doctor*. At firſt he was a follower of Thomas Aquinas, but he afterwards adopted the opinions of the Scotiſts, which he defended with equal abilities and zeal. He was the author of *Commentaria ſuper Libros IV. Sententiarum*, of which the beſt edition was publiſhed in folio, in 1571; *Liber de origine Juriſdictionum, ſeu de eccleſiaſtica Juriſdictione, & Tractatus de Legibus*, printed in 4to. in 1571; and other treatiſes, many of which are to be met with in a collection of his works publiſhed under the care of Dr. Merlin, in 1515.

DURAN'GO, a town of North America, in the province of New Biſcay, the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of the archbiſhop of Mexico. The air is healthy, and the land about it fertile in corn, maize, and fruit: 335 miles north-north-weſt of Mexico. Lat. 24. 10. N. lon. 87. 15. W. Ferro.

DURAN'GO, a town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay: about three leagues from the ſea coaſt, and four eaſt of Bilboa.

DURAN'TA, *ſ.* [ſo named by Linnæus in memory of Caſtor Durantes, phyſician to pope Sixtus V. He publiſhed Herbarium, 1584. Plumier named the genus *Caſtorea*.] In botany, a genus of the claſs didynamia, order angioſpermia,

permia, natural order perſonatæ, (vitices, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, tubular, ſomewhat truncated, five-cleft. Corolla: one-petalled; tube longer than the calyx, ſomewhat curved; border patulous, five-parted, nearly equal, rounded. Stamina: filaments four, the two longer ones within the tube; antheræ roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ inferior, roundiſh; ſtyles filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma thickiſh. Pericarpium: berry roundiſh, covered by the calyx. Seed: kernels four, two-celled.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, five-cleft, ſuperior; berry four-ſeeded; ſeeds two-celled.

Species. 1. Duranta Plumieri, or ſmooth duranta: fruiting calyxes twiſted. This grows fifteen feet high, with alternate branches, erect or reclining; ſpines awl-ſhaped, oppoſite, but very frequently wanting; leaves lanceolate, ſmooth, two inches long; flowers ſlightly ſweet-ſmelling, very many, blue, on very ſhort peduncles; fruit yellow; the calyx alſo then becoming yellow, and like a berry, the whole being changed, and different from its former ſhape.

Linnæus originally made two ſpecies of this, and Miller continues them diſtinct, adding a third, under the name of *Durantia erecta*, which is probably our ſecond ſpecies D. Elliſia. Native of South America, and the Weſt-India iſlands.

2. Duranta Elliſia, or Brown's duranta: fruiting calyxes erect. This ſhrub is a fathom in height or more, branched, and even. The ſpecific character of this and the preceding, taken from the contorſion of the calyx above the fruit, is vague and inſufficient; ſince the differences occur frequently in the ſame raceme. They are therefore in all probability not ſpecifically diſtinct. Jacquin alſo remarks, that it is extremely like the firſt ſpecies, except that the fruiting calyx is not twiſted in the upper part, but continues convergent and erect. Notwithſtanding this approximation, Dr. Patrick Browne made it a diſtinct genus, under the name *Elliſia*, from Mr. Ellis the ingenious author of a treatiſe on Zoophites, or plant-like marine productions of an animal nature. He ſays that this ſhrub riſes frequently to the height of ſix or ſeven feet; that the leaves are very like thoſe of green tea; and that the branches, though ſometimes beſet with thorns, are often otherwiſe. Native of the Weſt Indies. In Jamaica frequent in hedges, between Kingſton and St. Jago de la Vega.

3. Duranta Mutiſii, or Mutis's duranta: leaves elliptic, quite entire. This differs no otherwiſe from the two other ſpecies than in the leaves. Native of South America, and found there by Mutis.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants, being natives of warm countries, require a ſtove to preſerve them in England; they are propagated by ſeeds, which ſhould be ſown in ſmall pots, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark; and when the plants are fit to remove, they muſt be planted each into a ſeparate ſmall pot filled with light earth, and plunged into the hot-bed again, obſerving to ſhade them till they have taken new root, then they muſt be treated in the ſame manner as other plants from the ſame country. They may alſo be increaſed by cuttings, which put out roots very readily. They thrive beſt during winter in a temperate heat; for when they are too tenderly treated, their ſhoots are apt to be weak, and then they are attacked by vermin. In ſummer, place them in a warm ſheltered ſituation in the open air.

DURAN'TE ABSEN'TIA *Adminiſtration*, *ſ.* in law, is an adminiſtration granted when the executor is out of the realm, to continue in force until his return. And, DURANTE MINORE ÆTATE *Adminiſtration*, is becauſe an infant cannot act as executor until ſeventeen, during which minority this adminiſtration is granted. See the article EXECUTOR.

DURAN'TI (John Stephen), an honourable martyr to the violences of the league in France, ſon of a counſellor of the parliament of Toulouſe. He was brought up to the bar, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his eloquence. In 1563 he was made capitoul, or firſt magiſtrate. He afterwards became advocate-general; and in 1581 was nominated by the king preſident of the parliament of Toulouſe. He was warmly attached to the royal cauſe; and when the maſſacre of the duke and cardinal of Guiſe in 1589 had inflamed the rage of the leaguers, eſpecially at Toulouſe, he employed all the force of his eloquence to appeaſe the people. The rage of the crowd was for a moment checked, and a profound ſilence enſued; when a villain fired a muſquet at him, which brought him down; and while his hands were raiſed in prayer for his murderers, the mob ruſhed upon him, and pierced him with a thouſand wounds. Such was his unhappy end, at the age of fifty-five, in February, 1589; and thus was he rewarded for the pains he had taken at his own hazard to free Toulouſe from the plague; for his conſtant oppoſition to hereſy; and for numerous benefits which he had conferred upon the religious orders, and upon the poor of the city. He was a great friend to letters, and had collected a fine library, which was diſperſed after his death. He is conſidered as the real author of a learned and excellent work *De Ritibus Eccleſiæ*, which has been attributed to Peter Danes, biſhop of Lavaur.

DU'RAS, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Marmande, on the Drot: three leagues and a half north of Marmande.

DURA'TION, *ſ.* [*duratio*, Lat.] A ſort of diſtance or length, the idea whereof we get, not from the permanent parts of ſpace, but from the fleeting and perpetually periſhing parts of ſucceſſion. *Locke.*—Power of continuance. —*Duration* is a circumſtance ſo eſſential to happineſs, that if we conceived it poſſible for the joys of heaven itſelf to paſs from us in an inſtant, we ſhould find ourſelves not much concerned for the attainment of them. *Rogers.*—Length of continuance.—Ariſtotle, by greatneſs of action, does not only mean it ſhould be great in its nature, but alſo in its *duration*. *Addiſon.*

DURATO'N, a river of Spain, which runs into the Duero, near Penafiel.

DURAZZA'NO, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Lavora: ſixteen miles north-eaſt of Naples.

DURAZ'ZO, a ſeaport town of European Turkey, in Albania, anciently named *Epidamnus* and *Dyrrachium*, ſtrong and populous, with a good harbour; the ſee of a Greek biſhop: eighty-eight miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Raguſa. Lat. 41. 42. N. lon. 37. 2. E. Ferro.

DUR'BAN, a town of France, in the department of the Aube, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of La Graſſe: four leagues and a half ſouth-weſt of Narbonne.

DUR'BEN, a town of the duchy of Courland: twenty-four miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Goldingen.

DUR'BION, a river of France, which runs into the Moſelle, near Chatel ſur Moſelle, in the department of the Voſges.

DURBUN'GA, a town of Hindooſtan, in the country of Bahar: forty-eight miles north-eaſt of Patna, and fifty-eight ſouth-weſt of Amerpour.

DUR'BUY, a town of the Netherlands, in the duchy of Luxembourg, and capital of a county of the ſame name, on the river Ourte, taken by France, in the year 1681, but reſtored in 1692: twenty miles north of Baſtogne.

DURCK'HEIM, or TURCKHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Linange: fourteen miles weſt of Manheim, and fourteen north of Landau.

DUR'DEN, *ſ.* in old records, a copſe, a thicket in a valley.

To DURE, *v. n.* [*duro*, Lat.] To laſt; to continue; to endure.—The delights and pleaſures of the world are moſt pleaſing while they *dure*. *Raleigh.*

DU'REFUL, *adj.* Laſting; of long continuance; durable. *Not in uſe*;

The

The *dureful* oak, whoſe ſap is not yet dry'd,
Is long ere it conceive the kindling fire;
But when it once doth burn, it doth divide
Great heat, and makes his flames to heaven aſpire. *Spenſ.*

DU'RELESS, *adj.* Without continuance; fading; tranſitory; ſhort. *Not in uſe.*—Yet were that aptitude natural, more inclinable to follow and embrace the falſe and *dureleſs* pleaſures of this ſtage-play world, than to become the ſhadow of God. *Raleigh.*

DURELL' (John), a learned divine of the church of England in the ſeventeenth century, born at St. Helier's, in the iſle of Jerſey, in 1626. He was entered at Merton college, Oxford, in 1640, and continued there two years, when the interruptions ariſing from that city's being made a garriſon during the civil wars, induced him to retire into France, and to become a member of the Sylvanian college at Caen in Normandy. At that place he took the degree of maſter of arts in 1644. Afterwards he aſſiduouſly applied himſelf to the ſtudy of divinity at Saumur, under the celebrated Moſes Amyrault, profeſſor of theology in that proteſtant univerſity: and, in 1647, returned to his native country, where he remained for ſome time among his relations. Upon the reſtoration of Charles II. he came to England, and was inſtrumental in procuring the eſtabliſhment of the new epiſcopal French church at the Savoy, London, in which he firſt preached in 1661, and continued to officiate there for ſome years with great acceptability and applauſe. In 1663 he was made a prebendary in the cathedral church of Saliſbury; and in the following year was appointed to a canonry of Windſor. In 1668 he was inſtalled into the fourth prebend of Durham, and was beſides preſented with a rich donative. In 1669–70 he was created doctor in divinity by the univerſity of Oxford; which was ſucceeded by a preſentation from the crown to the deanery of Windſor in 1667, and to the valuable living of Witney in Oxfordſhire. He died in 1683, in the 58th year of his age. Dr. Durell publiſhed, among other things, 1. *Theoremata Philoſophiæ rationalis, moralis, naturalis, & ſupernaturalis, &c.* 4to. 1664. 2. A French and Latin Tranſlation of the Common-Prayer Book, upon the Review of it at the Reſtoration. 3. The Liturgy of the Church of England aſſerted, in a Sermon, preached (in French) at the Chapel of the Savoy, and tranſlated into Engliſh, 4to. 1662. 4. A View of the Government and Public Worſhip of God in the Reformed Churches of England, 4to. 1662; and 5. A Vindication of the Church of England againſt the unjuſt Accuſations of the Schiſmatics, 4to. 1669.

DURELL' (David), a learned divine of the church of England, born in the iſland of Jerſey in 1728. After paſſing through the uſual courſe of grammar learning, he was entered of Pembroke college, Oxford, where he took his degree of maſter of arts in 1753. Being afterwards choſen a fellow of Hertford college, he removed thither, and became principal of the ſame on the reſignation of Dr. William Sharpe, in 1757. In 1760, Mr. Durell was admitted to the degree of bachelor in divinity; and in 1763, to that of doctor in the ſame faculty. In the year before that in which he took his laſt degree he publiſhed his firſt learned work, entitled The Hebrew Texts of the parallel Prophecies of Jacob and Moſes relating to the Twelve Tribes, with a Tranſlation and Notes, and the various Sections of near forty Manuſcripts, to which are added the Samaritan-Arabic Verſion of thoſe paſſages, and part of another Arabic Verſion, made from the Samaritan Text; a Map of the Land of Promiſe; and an Appendix, containing four diſſertations on points connected with the ſubject of theſe prophecies, 4to. In this work, the author's proficiency in oriental literature, and his abilities and judgment in elucidating the ſenſe of the ſacred ſcriptures, were diſplayed in a manner that reflected great honour on his talents and induſtry, and raiſed high the expectations which were formed of his future ſervices in the province of biblical criticiſm. In 1767 Dr. Durell was appointed to a prebend in the metropolitan church of Canterbury, which, excepting his preſentation to the vicarage of Tycehurſt in Suſſex, was the laſt preferment that he lived to receive. In 1772 he again gratified the theological world by the publication of ſome learned and valuable Critical Remarks on the Books of Job, Pſalms, Eccleſiaſtes, and Canticles, in 4to. after which he died in 1775, only in the 48th year of his age.

DU'REN. See DUEREN.

DU'RER (Albert), a painter of diſtinguiſhed genius, born at Nuremberg in 1471, the ſon of a goldſmith of that city. His father wiſhed to bring him up to his own profeſſion, but his decided inclination for painting prevailed, and he was entered as a pupil of Michael Wolgemuth. He alſo received inſtruction in engraving; and he was well verſed in the collateral ſtudies of geometry, anatomy, and architecture. For improvement he travelled through Germany, Flanders, and the Venetian ſtates; but he had not the advantage of ſtudying the choice remains of ancient art in Rome and Florence, and his ſtyle never ceaſed to indicate this deficiency. He followed no particular model, but formed a manner for himſelf. His imagination was fertile, his compoſition grand, his drawing correct, his execution delicate and finiſhed, but he wanted grace, and retained ſomewhat of the Gothic hardneſs. He was alſo negligent of the coſtume, and introduced German dreſſes and figures on all occaſions. His works acquired him great diſtinction, and he poſſeſſed the favour of the emperors Maximilian, Charles V. and Ferdinand. He was alſo well known to the learned; and Eraſmus has mentioned him with honour. He was himſelf a writer, and publiſhed valuable works on geometry, perſpective, fortification, and the proportions of the human body. The Italians eſteemed him, and improved by him, and Raphael interchanged portraits with him. He was a member of the council of Nuremberg, where he died in 1528. His principal works are in the different cabinets of Germany, and at his native city. A bearing of the croſs, in which he has introduced portraits of the ſenators of Nuremberg, is much admired; as likewiſe the firſt battle of Alexander and Darius, a piece of moſt finiſhed execution. Albert Durer was alſo an excellent engraver, and is more known by his prints than his pictures. Several of theſe were copied by Marc-Antonio of Venice, who counterfeited his name, an injury of which he complained to the Venetian ſenate.

DU'RESS, *ſ.* [*dureſſe*, Fr. *durities*, Lat. conſtraint.] Impriſonment; ſeverity; compulſion. In law, whatever is done with a view to ſave either life or limb, is conſidered as done by the higheſt neceſſity and compulſion. Therefore if a man through fear of death or mayhem is prevailed upon to execute a deed, or do any other act, theſe, though accompanied with all requiſite ſolemnities, may be afterwards avoided, if forced upon him by a well-grounded apprehenſion of loſing his life, or even his limb, in caſe of non-compliance. 2 *Inſt.* 483. And the ſame is alſo a ſufficient excuſe for the commiſſion of many miſdemeanors. The conſtraint a man may be under in theſe circumſtances, is of two ſorts, *dureſs of impriſonment*, where a man actually loſes his liberty; and *dureſs per minas*, (by threats,) where the hardſhip is only threatened and impending. If a man be under dureſs of impriſonment, or illegal reſtraint of liberty, until he ſeals a bond, he may allege this dureſs, and avoid the extorted bond. But if a man be lawfully impriſoned, and either to procure his diſcharge, or on any other fair account, ſeals a bond or deed, this is not by dureſs of impriſonment, and he is not at liberty to avoid it. 2 *Inſt.* 482. *Dureſs per minas*, is either for fear of loſs of life, or elſe for fear of mayhem, or loſe of limb. And this fear muſt be upon ſufficient reaſon. A fear of battery, (or being beaten,) though never ſo well grounded, is no dureſs; neither is the fear of having one's houſe burned, or one's goods taken away and deſtroyed; becauſe in theſe caſes, ſhould the threat be performed, a man may have ſatisfaction by recovering equivalent damages; but no ſuitable atone-

ment can be made for the loſs of life or limb. 1 *Comm.* 131, 6.

In time of war or rebellion, a man may be juſtified in doing many treaſonable acts by compulſion of the enemy or rebels, which would admit of no excuſe in time of peace. 1 *Hal. P. C.* 50. This, however, ſeems only, or at leaſt principally, to hold as to poſitive crimes, ſo created by the laws of ſociety; and which therefore ſociety may excuſe; but not as to natural offences ſo declared by the laws of God. Therefore though a man may be violently aſſaulted, and hath no other poſſible means of eſcaping death, but by killing an innocent perſon; this fear and force ſhall not acquit him of murder, for he ought rather to die himſelf than eſcape by ſuch means. But in ſuch a caſe he is permitted to kill the aſſailant; for there the law of nature and ſelf-defence have made him his own protector. 4 *Comm.* 30.

It has been adjudged, that if a man makes a deed by dureſs done to him by taking of his cattle, though there be no dureſs to his perſon, yet this ſhall avoid the deed, 2 *Danv. Abr.* 686. If a perſon threaten another to make a deed to a third perſon, it is by dureſs, and void; as if ſuch third perſon had made the threatening. 2 *Inſt.* 482. And where a man is impriſoned until he makes a bond at another place; if afterwards he doth it when at large, the bond is by dureſs, and void. If a perſon be arreſted upon an action at the ſuit of another, and the cauſe of action is not good, if he make a bond to a ſtranger, it is not dureſs; though if he make it to the plaintiff, it is, and being ſued upon the bond, he may plead it was made by dureſs, and avoid it: alſo the party ſhall have an action for the falſe impriſonment. 1 *Lil. Abr.* 494. If the arreſt is under colour of legal proceſs, the action muſt be ſpecial action on the caſe, not an action of treſpaſs *vict armis.*

If one impriſoned make an obligation by dureſs, and after he is at large takes a defeaſance upon it, this will eſtop him to ſay it was made per dureſs. And where A. and B. by dureſs to B. ſeal a bond or deed, it may be good as to A. that was never threatened. 3 *Hen.* VI. 16. 43 *Edw.* III. 10. 2 *Danv.* 686. A man ſhall not avoid a deed by dureſs of a ſtranger; for it hath been held that none ſhall avoid his own bond for the impriſonment or danger of any other than of himſelf only. *Cro. Jac.* 187. Yet a ſon ſhall avoid his deed by dureſs of the father: and the huſband ſhall avoid a deed made by dureſs of the wife; though a ſervant ſhall not avoid a deed made by dureſs of his maſter, or the maſter the deed ſealed by dureſs of his ſervant. 2 *Danv.* 686. If a man is taken by virtue of a proceſs iſſuing out of a court that hath not power to grant it; or in cuſtody on a falſe charge of felony, and for his enlargement and diſcharge gives bond, this may be avoided, as taken by dureſs. 4 *Inſt.* 97.

A ſtatute merchant may be avoided by *audita querela*, becauſe it was made by dureſs or impriſonment. A will ſhall be avoided by dureſs or menace of impriſonment. A feoffment made by dureſs is voidable, but not void. But no averment ſhall be taken againſt a deed inrolled, that it was made by dureſs. 2 *Danv.* 685. A marriage had by dureſs is voidable; and, by 31 Hen. VI. c. 9. obligations obtained of women by force, to marry the perſons to whom made, or otherwiſe, unleſs for a juſt debt, are declared void. If a perſon executes a deed by dureſs, he cannot plead *non eſt factum*, becauſe it is his deed; though he may avoid it by ſpecial pleading, and judgment *ſi actio, &c.* 5 *Rep.* 119. Records may not regularly be ſaid to be made by dureſs, and therefore ſhall not be avoided by this plea or pretence. 2 *Shep. Abr.* 319.

DU'RET (Louis), a learned phyſician of the ſixteenth century, native of Burgundy. He ſtudied at Paris, and became phyſician to the king, and profeſſor-royal; and died at Paris in 1586, at the age of fifty-nine. Duret diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his zeal for the doctrines of Hippocrates, and his learned explanations of the works of that father of medicine. He publiſhed, *Adverſaria ſ. Scholia in Jacobi Hollerii l. de morbis internis*, 1571, 8vo. His principal work did not appear till after his death: its title is, *Hippocrates Coacæ Prænotiones interprete & enarrante L. Dureto*, Par. 1588, folio. He wrote alſo, *In Magni Hippocrates l. de Humoribus purgandis, & in l. iii. de Diæta Acutorum Commentarii*, publiſhed by P. Giradet in 1631, 8vo.

DUR'FORT, a town of France, in the department of the Gard: ſeven miles ſouth-weſt of Alais.

DUR'FORT, a town of France, in the department of the Aude: ſeven miles ſouth-weſt of Caſtlenaudary.

DUR'FORT, a town of France, in the department of the Arriege: five miles north-weſt of Pamiers.

DUR'GAN, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: forty-eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Caſtamoni.

DUR'GEN, *ſ.* [ꝺꝛeonȝ, Sax.] A dwarf; a little, thick, ſhort, perſon. *Bailey.*

DUR'GUT, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: eighteen miles eaſt of Smyrna.

DUR'HAM, a maritime county of England, with the privileges of a palatinate; bounded on the north by Northumberland, on the eaſt by the German Sea, on the ſouth by Yorkſhire, from which it is divided by the river Tees, and on the weſt by Weſtmoreland and Cumberland. Its ſhape is triangular; and, during the Saxon heptarchy, this county made part of the kingdom of the Northumbrians. It is forty miles long from eaſt to weſt, thirty-five broad from north to ſouth, and 160 in circumference; containing 920 ſquare miles, or 588,800 ſquare acres; divided into four wards, having 120 pariſhes, twenty-one vicarages, 223 villages, one city, and nine market towns; the whole ſuppoſed to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. It is uſually called the *Biſhopric of Durham*, or the *County Palatine of Durham*, from the great power poſſeſſed by its biſhop. When he comes in perſon to any of the courts of judicature, he ſits chief in them, thoſe of aſſize not excepted, and even when judgment of blood is given; though the canons forbid any clergyman to be preſent, the biſhops of Durham did and may ſit in their purple robes on the ſentence of death. All dues, amercements, and forfeited recogniſances, in the courts of the palatinate, and all deodands, belong to the biſhop. If any forfeits are made, either of war or by treaſon, outlawry or felony, even though the ſoil be the king's, they fall to the biſhop here, as to the king in other places. All the tenures of land here originate from the biſhop, as lord paramount in chief. Hence he grants charters for erecting boroughs and incorporations, markets, and fairs; incloſing foreſts, chaces, and warrens; licences to embattle caſtles, build chapels, found chantries and hoſpitals, and diſpenſations with the ſtatute of mortmain. All incloſed eſtates, as well as moors, or waſtes, to which no title can be made, eſcheat to him. He grants the cuſtody of ideots and lunatics, and had the cuſtody of minors while the cuſtom of wards and liveries ſubſiſted. Beſides the dependance of leaſehold or copyhold tenants on him, if any freeholders alienated their land without his licence, they were obliged to ſue out his patent of pardon; and all money paid for ſuch licences belongs to him. In the article of military power, the biſhop of Durham had anciently his thanes, and afterwards his barons, who held of him by knight's ſervice, as the reſt of the hailwerk folk held of them by inferior tenures. On alarms he convened them as a parliament, with advice to aſſiſt with their perſons, dependants, and money, for the public ſervice at home and abroad, and all levies of men or money were made by the biſhop's commiſſion, or by writs in his name out of the chancery at Durham; for he had power both to coin money and levy taxes, and raiſe and arm ſoldiers in the biſhopric from ſixteen to ſixty years old. But now the militia of this county has been long on the ſame footing with the reſt of the kingdom, under the lord-lieutenant. The only difference here is, that that office has generally, though not always, been borne by the biſhop. The admiralty juriſdiction in this county belongs alſo to the biſhop,

ſhop, who holds the proper courts by his judges, and appoints by his patents a vice-admiral, regiſter, and marſhal, or water-bailif, and other officers, and has all the privileges, forfeitures, and profits, incident to this power, as royal fiſhes, ſea wrecks, duties for ſhips arriving in his ports, &c. This county, for its ſize, is, perhaps, one of the moſt hilly in the kingdom; the hills are, in general, covered with verdure to the top, and have not been unaptly called *the Apennines of England*. Many of them contain lead and iron ores, coals, lime-ſtone, free-ſtone, marble, &c. The eaſt and north-eaſt parts of the county are particularly rich in coal-mines, lying in horizontal ſtrata from three to ſix feet thick, and extending many miles through the country. Near Wolſingham are found beautiful black ſpotted marble, and the large grey mill-ſtone for grinding corn. Grind-ſtones are found a little to the ſouth of the river Tyne, and not far from Newcaſtle; theſe form an article of exportation to moſt parts of the habitable globe. There are alſo ſeveral quarries of fire-ſtone, immenſe quantities of which are exported to be uſed in ovens, furnaces, &c. Near the river Tees the land is rich, conſiſting of a loamy clay, and is generally fertile near the other rivers; but the other parts are not ſo good. The climate is very uncertain, and the harveſt hazardous; wheat, barley, oats, peaſe, muſtard, are the chief productions; beans are ſeldom raiſed in the weſtern part of the county. The principal manufactures are tammies, carpets, huckabacks, cotton in various forms, ſail-cloths, ſalt, ſteel, glaſs, ropes, pottery, iron works, iron founderies, copperas, paper, &c. Durham is the capital. The towns are Stockton, Sunderland, Barnard Caſtle, Darlington, Stanhope, Hartlepool, Biſhops Auckland, Walſingham, and Sedgefield. The principal rivers are the Tees, Tyne, Were, Tame, Lune, Darwent, Gaundleſs, and Skern. The moſt noted places are, Sunderland Point and Hartlepool Point; the Tees Mouth and Tynemouth Harbour and Bar; the Lune and Teeſdale Foreſts; Oxenhall Pits, with the Cataract of the Tees river. It ſends only four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for the city. The air of the county is healthy, but ſeverely cold in winter.

The moſt remarkable ſeats in this county are, Axwell Park, near Newcaſtle; Biſhop Auckland Park; Brancepeth Caſtle, near Durham; Gateſhead Park, near Newcaſtle; Gibſide, near Newcaſtle; Hardwick, near Sedgefield; Helton le Hale; Hilton Caſtle, near Sunderland. Lambton Houſe, near Durham; Lumley Caſtle, near Durham; Raby Park, near Staindrop; Ravenſworth Caſtle, near Newcaſtle. Stanhope Caſtle. Streatham Caſtle, near Barnard Caſtle. Whitworth, near Biſhop Auckland, Windleſton, near Biſhop Auckland; and Wilton Caſtle, near Biſhop Auckland.

The biſhopric of Durham was diſſolved, and the king to have all the lands, &c. by 7 Edw. VI. But this act was afterwards repealed, and the biſhopric newly erected, with all juriſdiction eccleſiaſtical and temporal annexed to the county palatine. The juſtices of the county palatine of Durham may levy fines of lands in the county: and writs upon proclamation, &c. are to be directed to the biſhop. 5 *Eliz.* c. 27. 31 *Eliz.* c. 2. Writs to elect members of parliament in the county palatine of Durham ſhall go to the biſhop or his chancellor, and be returned by the ſheriff, &c. 25 *Car.* II. c. 9. The courts called *palatine*, were extended to two other counties beſides Durham, as well as the royal franchiſe of Ely; and are a ſpecies of private courts of a limited local juriſdiction, having at the ſame time an excluſive cognizance of pleas in matters both of law and equity. *Finch R.* 452. In all theſe, as in the principality of Wales, the king's ordinary writs iſſuing under the great ſeal out of chancery do not run; that is, they are of no force. For as originally all *jura regalia* were granted to the lords of theſe counties palatine, they had of courſe the ſole adminiſtration of juſtice by their own judges appointed by themſelves, and not by the crown. It would therefore be incongruous for the king to ſend his writ to direct the judge of another's court in what manner to adminiſter juſtice between the ſuitors. But when the privileges of theſe counties palatine were abridged by 27 Hen. VIII. c. 24. it was alſo enacted, that all writs and proceſs ſhould be made in the king's name, but ſhould be teſted or witneſſed in the name of the owner of the franchiſe. Wherefore all writs whereon actions are founded, and which have current authority here, muſt be under the ſeal of the reſpective franchiſes; the two former of which, Cheſter and Lancaſter, are now united to the crown, and the two latter, Durham and Ely, under the government of their ſeveral biſhops. And the judges of aſſiſe who ſit therein, ſit by virtue of a ſpecial commiſſion from the owners of the ſeveral franchiſes, and under the ſeal thereof, and not by the uſual commiſſions under the great ſeal of England. See the article COUNTY, vol. v. p. 289.

DUR'HAM, a very ancient city, capital of the county of the ſame name, ſituated on ſeven hills, and ſurrounded by others more lofty. It has been whimſically compared to a crab, the body being repreſented by the centre of the town, the cathedral, &c. and the claws, by the ſeveral ſtreets branching every way, in curve lines. Its name is ſaid to be derived from its ſituation: it is called in Latin *Dunelmum*, which has a plain reference to the Saxon word *Dunholm*, and which is derived from *dun*, an hill, and *helme* or *holm*, a plain ſurrounded with water. In after-times it was called Dureſme, and more modernly Durham. It is ſituated near the centre of the county, in latitude 54 deg. 50 min. N. and 1 deg. 27 min. W. longitude from Greenwich: 259 miles north from London, ſixty-ſix north from York; fifteen ſouth from Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne; and 121 ſouth from Edinburgh. The dioceſe is deemed the richeſt in the kingdom; and the prebends are frequently ſtiled the Golden Prebends of Durham. The ſee contains the whole counties of Durham and Northumberland, except the juriſdiction of Hexham in the latter. It hath alſo one pariſh in the county of Cumberland. This ſee hath given to the church of Rome eight ſaints and one cardinal; and to the Engliſh nation one lord chief juſtice, five lord chancellors, three lord treaſurers, one principal ſecretary of ſtate, one chancellor to the univerſity of Oxford, and two maſters of the rolls.

The origin of this city is generally allowed to have been about the year 995, when the monks of Landisfarne, after having been harraſſed by the invaſion of the Danes, and forced to wander up and down with the relics of St. Cuthbert, were induced to fix upon this ſpot for a permanent reſidence; perhaps the natural ſtrength of the place was their principal inducement: "The topography of Dunholme, (ſays the legend,) at that tyme was more beholding to nature for fortification than fertilitie; where thick woods hindered the ſtarres from viewing the earth, and the earth from the proſpect of heaven." Another old author ſays, "All the people, following the corpſe of our holy father Cuthbert, came to Dunholm, a place ſtrong by nature but ſcarce habitable, encloſed quite round with a very thick wood, and in the middle only a ſmall plain, which they uſed to plough and ſow. The ſaid prelate, therefore, with the help of the people, and the aſſiſtance of Uthred earl of the Northumbrians, felled and grubbed up the wood, and, in a ſhort time, made the place habitable; which done, every one, as his lot fell, had a houſe aſſigned him." The foundations of this city being thus laid, its ſtrength, and the number of its inhabitants, increaſed rapidly. "The people being thus ſettled, (continues the ſame author,) the ſaid Aldwin, out of zeal to Chriſt and St. Cuthbert, began to build a handſome large church, in the place where they had depoſited the body of that holy man; and, by the zealous application of the people to ſo good a work, ſoon perfected the ſame, dedicating it to St. Cuthbert." This ſtructure was called *White Kirk*, and was dedicated by biſhop Aldwin, September 4th, 999, at leaſt the chapel or ſuch part of it as was then finiſhed; into which the body

NORTHUMBERLAND
GERMAN OCEAN
CUMBERLAND
WESTMORELAND
YORKSHIRE
NEWCASTLE
Newburn
Ryton
Tyne
River
Gateshead
Winlaton
Wickham
Dunstans
Burnhope B.
Baldon Beck
Blanchland
Hunstanworth
Edmondbyers
Muggleswick
Muggleswick Common
Lead Mines
Weardale Forest
Dead Fryers
Red Burn
Welhope B.
Scrah Head
Hanging Well
West Gate
St Johns Weardale
Grass Hill
Harwood
Harwood Common
Lead Mines
STANHOPE
Frosterly
Bollihope B.
Snowhope B.
Wolsingham
Wolsingham Common
Tunstall
Satley
Est Butfield
Lanchester
Cold Rowley
New Biggin
Wolsingham Com.
Greenwell
Cornsey
Esh
Ushaw
Thornly Common
Coal Pits
West Brandon
East Brandon
Brancepeth
Durham Moor
Gilbert
Witton
Langley Lane
Sainston Hough
Chester Common
Flass worth
Farnhill
Chester le Street
Stanley
Albans Flats
Pelton
Orpeth
Beamish
Tanfield
Ebchester
Meadomsley
Tantony
Shotley Br.
Colliery
Bryan Leap
Ravensworth
Ravensworth Castle
Lamesley
Tanfield
Dunsley
Chopwell
Gibside
Rowcrook
Greenside
Cadger Row
Burnhope B.
Balsthope B.
Hunstanworth Common
Middleton Teesdale
Bush Ash
North Grain
Hamsterly Common
Redford
Redburn R.
Hamsterley
Eglestone Common
Eglestone
Cass Lees
Stone Chester
West Pits
Gaunless R.
Wilton Common
Wilton le Wear
Hunwick
Wilton
High Burley
Kinchester
Willington
Byers Green
Tuddo
Whitworth
Old Durham
Croxdale
Cossap
Thinc cliffe
Tairdale
Cornforth
High Butcher Race
Trusington
Ferry Hill
Merrington
Westerton
Oldfurth
Execomb
BISHOP AUCKLAND
St Andrew Auckland
St Helens Auckland
West Auckland
Evenwood
Cockfield
Barnard Castle Common
Wakeridd
Raby
Raby Park
Hilton
Streatham
Cleatham
Early Bank
Rookby
Winston
Whorleton
BARNARD CASTLE
from Brough
STAINDROP
Tees River
Holam
Houghton le side
Wurton
Tinmouth
Killarby
Scalby
Denton
Holtam
Ulnis
Whessoe
Thornton
High Conscliffe
Cliff
Coketon
DARLINGTON
Heighington
Coatham
Avecliffe
Brasserton
Stainton le Street
Garth Kelton
Lit. Stainton
Bampton
Harrow Gate
Hooghton
Sadberge
Elton
Long Newton
Gr. Burdon
Lit Morton
Gr Morton
Thorney Close
Aislaby
Middleton St George
Middleton one Row
Stockbitch
Low Hurworth
Croft
Eggleschiffe
YARM
Tees Mouth
Portrack
STOCKTON
Harthorn
Whimy Hill
Ouston Moor
Carleton
Norton
Redmarshal
Bishopton
Grindon
Foulthorp
Shotton
Preston le Skearn
Layton
Sedgefield
Burton
Greatham Hosp
Coupen
Waynard
Wolviston
Thorp
Froxton
Salt Holme
Maden
Woodham
East Thickley
Newburn
Shildon
Middridge
Hunsteston
Hardwick
Bradbury
Butterwick
Swainston
Oughton
Embleton
Trearton
Hart
The Stake
Stranton
Elwick
Hartlepool
Trimdon
Garmans Way
Fishburn
Bishop Middleham
Kellow
Langton
Hutton Henry
Sheraton
Smitherton
Nesbit
Monk Hesledon
Shadforth
Hardwick
Castle Eden
Shatton
Lit Eden
Harden Pt
Easington
Hallgarth
Lit Haswell
Pittington
Helton
Moorsley
Hawthorn
Dalton
Cold Hesledon
Eppleton
Gr.
Lit.
Houghton le Spring
Gr. Lumley
Lit. Lumley
East Rainton
West Rainton
Newbottle
Burdon
Herrington
East
Silksworth
Offerton
Painsher
Pelaw
Wear River
Bishop Wearmouth
SUNDERLAND
Hendon Bay
Byhope Bay
Broken
Monk Wearmouth
Washington
Birtley
Bramston
Fulwell
Whitburn
Hilton Br.
E. Boldon
Wm Boldon
Laverick
Cowpen
Hedworth
Horton
Low Heworth
Jarrow
Heron
River
Wyrill Pt
North Pt
Shields
Nth Shields
Sunderland Bridge
Suddick
Handsome
Gt Usworth
Cold Pits
Chowden
Dawdon
Seaton
Seaton Pt
Beacon Pt
Harden Pt
Hendon
Byhope
Broken
Sherburn

body of St. Cuthbert was tranſlated with much ſolemnity. The remainder of the life of this pious prelate was ſpent in promoting the erection of the edifice, in which he ſpent eighteen years; and, at his deceaſe, left the weſtern tower to be finiſhed by his ſucceſſor, who alſo conſecrated it. Under the ſucceeding prelates, benefactions and riches continued to flow ſo rapidly to St. Cuthbert's ſhrine, that William de Carilepho, the ſixth in ſucceſſion from Aldwin, thinking this church not magnificent enough for the remains of ſo great a ſaint, and having brought over from Normandy the plan of a new church, he pulled down the old one, ſeventy-ſix years after its firſt erection; and in its ſtead began the preſent ſtructure; the foundation ſtones of which were laid by Malcolm king of Scotland, biſhop Carilepho, and Turgot the prior, on the 11th of Auguſt, 1093; and ſo great was the progreſs made in this work, that his ſucceſſor, Ralph Flambard, who died in 1128, lived to ſee the building carried nearly up to the roof. Other benefactors to this fabric were, biſhop Hugh Pudſey, who began a new work at the eaſt end, but, being by ſome means prevented from completing it, he erected the Gallilee at the weſt end, before the year 1194; which is ſuppoſed to have been either rebuilt, or at leaſt conſiderably altered, by cardinal Langley before 1438. Prior Melſonby, who was elected in 1233, built the ſteeple, then called the lantern, as high as the gallery; and prior Hugh of Darlington, who was elected in 1258, finiſhed the work, by erecting the upper tower, in which the bells are now hung. The eaſtern tranſept, generally called the *nine altars,* is ſuppoſed to have been finiſhed by prior Horton, who aceeded to the priory in 1289, who alſo placed the roof on the choir. The body of the church was vaulted with ſtone about 1242, by biſhop Farnham and prior Melſonby. Adjoining the ſouth aiſle of the choir, is the veſtry, built by Henry de Luceby about 1300. The whole length of this venerable pile, which is a more regular edifice than is generally to be found in ſtructures of the like age, excluſive of the Gallilee, is 411 feet; the length of the nave is 200 feet, its width ſeventy-four feet, of which the centre aiſle is twenty-eight feet: at the weſt end of the nave is a ſhort croſs aiſle or tranſept, in length ninety feet, and eighteen feet wide from the centres of the columns; over the end of which riſes the weſt towers; and by a late meaſurement found to be 138 feet in height. The middle aiſle of the nave is ſixty-nine feet and a half high: the great croſs aiſle, or middle tranſept, has an aiſle towards the eaſt at both ends, and is 170 feet in length and fifty-ſeven in width, including the aiſle. The height of the middle tower is 214 feet; the choir is 120 feet long, and equal in width to the centre aiſle of the nave: the eaſt tranſept, commonly called the nine altars, is 130 feet in length, and in width fifty-one feet: the Gallilee at the weſt end is from eaſt to weſt fifty feet, from north to ſouth eighty feet wide. The ſituation of this cathedral is extremely grand, the building ſtretching along the crown of an eminence, above eighty feet perpendicular from the ſurface of the river, which waſhes its baſe: on the weſt, this church riſes on the points of rocks, which ſhew themſelves on the ſummit of the mount, and almoſt overhang the ſtream; from the palace-green the whole north front appears at once: on entering the great north door, the viſitor is ſtruck with an awful ſolemnity. In the inſide is preſerved much of the clumſy yet venerable magnificence of the early Norman ſtile: the pillars are vaſt cylinders, twenty-three feet in circumference, ſome adorned with croſs-cut furrows; others lozenge-ſhaped, with narrow ribs or with ſpiral; above are two rows of galleries, each with round arches or openings: a row of ſmall piaſtres run round the ſides of the church, with rounded arches interſecting each other: the windows are all obtuſely pointed. In 1778, upon a ſurvey of this church, it was found to be in great want of repair, when the dean and chapter immediately began the coſtly work, which occupied almoſt twenty years; and by which this noble fabric is now reſtored to its priſtine beauty and grandeur. The whole expence of this magnificent undertaking, which coſt above 25,000l. was paid out of the chapter treaſury; an act of public magnificence reflecting the higheſt honour on that venerable and opulent body.

Beſides the cathedral, here are ſix pariſh-churches, viz. St. Oſwald's, ſituated at the head of New Elvett-ſtreet; St. Nicolas's, ſituated at the lower end of the market-place; the church of St. Mary-le-Bow, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Bailey; St Margaret's in Croſgate; with St. Giles's, and Little St. Mary's.

Durham caſtle is generally allowed to have been built by William the Conqueror, who, in 1072, ordered a fortreſs to be erected here, at once to ſecure the governor of this province from tumults and inſurrections, and alſo to protect the biſhop and his church. A part of this caſtle was burnt, but was ſoon repaired by biſhop Pudſey, in 1153. Biſhop Tunſtall, in 1530, built the gallery and chapel adjoining to it; he alſo erected the preſent gateway and tower, and flanked it with a ſtrong wall on either ſide; he alſo built the conduit, and ſupplied the caſtle with water. The great tower of this caſtle ſtands upon a mount forty-four feet from the level of the palace-green, and is an octagon of irregular ſides; the diameter, in the wideſt part, is ſixty-three feet four inches; the narroweſt, ſixty-one feet. It contained four tier of apartments, excluſive of the vaults. Nothing now remains but the mount, vaults, and a part of the ſhell; the upper part, having become very ruinous, was ordered to be taken down by biſhop Thurlow in 1789.

The firſt charter of incorporation was granted Jan. 30, 1565, by biſhop Pilkington, by which the city was incorporated by the name of an alderman and burgeſſes within the city of Durham and Framwell-gate. Under this the city was governed, till biſhop Matthews granted a new charter, dated 1602, whereby the burgeſſes and inhabitants were conſtituted a body politic and corporate, conſiſting of a mayor, twelve aldermen, and commonalty, with divers privileges. This charter was confirmed by James I. Feb. 15, 1606, and continued in force till 1684, when it was furrendered to biſhop Crew, who granted immediately a new charter of incorporation, dated March 7, 1634, but ſome informality having been diſcovered in the form of ſurrendering up the old charter, it was deemed illegal, and the corporation ſtill ſubſiſted under Matthews's charter till 1766, when informations having been filed in the court of king's-bench againſt ſeveral of the aldermen as being non-reſidents, or not legally qualified at the time of their election, they were ouſted from their offices. Some irregularities had alſo been committed, both on the election of the common-council, on the 3d of October, 1766, which affected the title of the mayor to his office, to which he was elected the day following, and from which he was ejected by the judgment of the court of king's bench ſoon after. From the above cauſes, as well as the natural deaths of ſome of the old aldermen, the number of aldermen was ſo reduced as not to be able to conſtitute a court; in conſequence, the charter became vacated, and the city continued under the government of a bailiff till 1780, when a new charter, dated October 2, was granted by biſhop Egerton, in which the defects of the old charters were remedied, and the powers and privileges of the corporation and citizens confirmed. Under this charter the city is now governed. The members of this corporation are, a mayor, recorder, twelve aldermen, a town-clerk, twenty-four common-councilmen, an indefinite number of freemen, and two ſerjeants at mace. The common-council are choſen from the twelve incorporated companies. The number of houſes in Durham are calculated at about two thouſand, and the number of inhabitants nine thouſand.

Many public charities dignify this city; among others, biſhop Crew left by his will, dated June 24, 1720, one hundred pounds per annum for putting out poor boys apprentices. Dr. Hartwell, in 1724, left twenty pounds per

per annum to be given to two tradeſmen of the eſtabliſhed church, who may want aſſiſtance to begin buſineſs. Biſhop Wood, of Litchfield, gave twenty pounds per annum for ever, to be diſpoſed of for the releaſe of poor debtors from the goal of Durham, whoſe debts do not exceed five pounds. He alſo gave one hundred pounds to be laid out upon a rent-charge, toward the maintenance of the poor of the corporation for ever. There are ſeveral ſmaller charities. But the principal one was that of Mr. Henry Smith, who, by his will, dated July 20, 1598, bequeathed his coal-mines, then worth one hundred pounds a-year, beſides a very conſiderable perſonal eſtate, to the corporation of this city, "that ſome good trade may be deviſed for ſetting of the youth and other idle perſons to work, as ſhall be thought moſt convenient, whereby ſome profit may ariſe to the benefit of the ſaid city, and relief of thoſe that are paſt work." This charity was ſoon after employed in eſtabliſhing a cloth manufactory, from which ſome thouſands derive their bread; and in which are made all kinds of calimancoes, ſhalloons, wildbores, durants, tammies, plain and figured ſtuffs, ſerges, Jerſeys, kerſeys, flannels, &c. They alſo make carpets, which are brought to a very great degree of perfection.

There are ſeveral coal-works in the vicinity of the city, whence the inhabitants are plentifully ſupplied at reaſonable rates. The market is held every Saturday, and is extremely well ſupplied with all kinds of corn, butcher's meat, poultry, fiſh, vegetables, and all other proviſions. Here are three fairs every year, which uſually continue three days each; the firſt day for horned cattle, the ſecond day for ſheep and ſwine, and the third for horſes: they begin the 31ſt of March, Whit-Tueſday, and September 15. On theſe occaſions the court of Pye Powder is always held by the corporation. Within theſe laſt twenty years, the fair in March has been much reſorted to by the principal horſe-dealers from the ſouth, on account of the great number of excellent horſes which are bred in the adjacent country, and which are uſually brought in for ſale at this time.

In approaching the city of Durham from the ſouth, the traveller is ſtruck with the elegance of its ſituation, and the venerable appearance of its principal buildings. The cathedral and caſtle are ſituated upon an eminence, girt by the north and ſouth Baileys, encloſed with the remains of the old city walls, and ſkirted with hanging gardens deſcending to the river Were, which ſurrounds this part of the city, in the form of an horſe-ſhoe. On the oppoſite ſide of the river, the banks are high, rocky, and ſcattered over with trees; along the brink of which the ſtreet of New Elvett is extended, and terminated by the church of St. Oſwald; at the bottom runs Old Elvett. Acroſs the bridge are the ſtreets of Claypeth and St. Giles, which climb the more diſtant eminence; the church terminating the line of buildings. The ſlopes of the hills are beautified with hanging gardens and rich meadows. Newton Hall, one of the ſeats of the late ſir H. G. Liddle, bart. with its adjacent plantations, fills the nearer back ground; behind which a fine cultivated country is diſcovered, lengthening the proſpect to the diſtance of ten miles, on which Penſher or Painſhaw Hill, with its peaked brow, is a beautiful object. To form the left wing, the banks oppoſite to the cathedral and caſtle are clothed with wood and fruit-trees; and South-ſtreet ſtretches along the ſummit. The long canal which the river exhibits to the eye in this part, is croſſed by Framwelgate-bridge, which has two elliptic arches. On the banks of the river is Crook Hall, the ſeat of Mrs. Hopper, with the woodlands of Newton Hall on the more diſtant ground; to the left of which is Aycliffe Heads, the neat villa of Francis Johnſon, eſq. Approaching this city from the eaſt, down the ſtreet of St. Giles, a noble proſpect preſents itſelf: in front the river Were forms a fine canal through a rich vale, croſſed by Elvett-bridge of five wet and many other land arches. The town crowds the ſwift riſings of the hill, pile upon pile; while the caſtle and cathedral crown the ſummit of the eminence. To the left are ſeen the banks of Elvett and the church, flanked by the diſtant foreſt of oaks and groves which hang on the margin of the river. On the right is a fine view of Newton-hall. From the north the appearance is rather more romantic. In ſhort, whoever has a taſte for beautiful proſpects will find themſelves highly gratified by the variety which preſent themſelves from the different hills with which this city is ſurrounded, as well as from the different avenues leading to it.

Beſides the many liberal charities founded in Durham, there is a very noble one in the eaſtern vicinity of the city, called Sherburn hoſpital, founded about 1180, by biſhop Pudſey, for the reception of ſixty-five lepers, with a maſter and other officers. This hoſpital is placed in a remarkably healthful ſituation, and continued under its old government till 1584, when an act of parliament paſſed whereby it was re-incorporated by the name of the Maſter and Brethren of Chriſt's hoſpital, in Sherburn, near Durham. In this hoſpital are now maintained fifteen in-brothers, who are well accommodated with every one a neat little room, a ſufficiency of good and wholeſome diet, a ſuit of clothes annually, and forty ſhillings in money. They attend divine ſervice in the chapel twice every day, where the prayers are read by the chaplain. There are alſo fifteen out-brothers, who are allowed forty ſhillings each annually; with a very pleaſant houſe, and beautiful gardens, belonging to the maſter. On the weſt of the city is an old croſs, erected by Ralph lord Nevill, in memory of a remarkable battle fought here on the 17th of October, 1346, between the Engliſh and Scotch armies, in which the latter ſuffered a total defeat, with the loſs of fifteen thouſand men killed, and ſeveral nobles, and their king David II. taken priſoner.

DUR'HAM, a townſhip of the American States, in Cumberland county, diſtrict of Maine, on the ſouth-weſt bank of Androſcoggin river, which ſeparates it from Bowdoin on the north-eaſt. It was incorporated in 1789, contains 724 inhabitants, and lies 145 miles north-eaſterly of Boſton.

DUR'HAM, a poſt town of the American States, in Strafford county, New Hampſhire, on Oyſter river, near where it joins the Piſcataque; ſixteen miles weſt of Portſmouth. It was incorporated in 1633, and contains 1247 inhabitants. It was formerly a part of Dover, which adjoins it on the north, and was called Oyſter river. On the top of a hill in this town is a rock, computed to weigh ſixty or ſeventy tons, ſo exactly poiſed on another rock as to be eaſily moved by the finger.

DUR'HAM, a townſhip of the American States, in New Haven county, Connecticut, ſettled from Guildford in 1698, and incorporated in 1708: twenty-two miles ſouth-weſt of Hartford, and eighteen miles north-eaſt of New Haven. It was called *Cagingchague* by the Indians; which name a ſmall river that chiefly riſes here, ſtill bears.

DUR'HAM, a townſhip of the American States, in Bucks county, Pennſylvania.

DU'RING, *prep.* [This word is rather a participle from *dure*; as, *during life*; *durante vita*, life *continuing*; *during my pleaſure*, my pleaſure continuing the ſame.] For the time of the continuance of; while any thing laſts.—If *during* his childhood he be conſtantly and rigorouſly kept from drinking cold liquor whilſt he is hot, forbearance grows into a habit. *Locke.*

DU'RIO, *ſ.* in botany, a genus of the claſs polyadelphia, order polyandria, natural order putamineæ, (capparides, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, pitcher-ſhaped, five-lobed; lobes rounded; deciduous. Corolla: petals five, added to the calyx, and leſs than it, concave. Stamina: filaments in five bodies, divided into ſeven, ſubulate, longer than the corolla; antheræ twiſted; (or, according to Juſſieu, filaments five, flat at the baſe, ſeven or eight-cleft at the top; the diviſions connate, ſubulate, bearing thirty-five to forty twiſted anthers. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, ſtipitate;

pitate; ſtyle briſtle-form, length of the ſtamens. Pericarpium: pome roundiſh, on all parts muricated with many-ſided dagger points, five-celled, gaping open in five directions; cells one to five ſeeded. Seeds: large, ovate, involved in a mucoſe pulp, in a membranaceous aril.—*Eſſential Character.*—Calyx, five-cleft, pitcher-ſhaped, inferior; corolla, five-petalled, ſmall; ſtyle, one; ſtamina, in five bodies; pome, five-celled.

Durio Zibethinus, a ſingle ſpecies; it is a lofty tree with flowers below the leaves, which are alternate. Native of the Eaſt Indies. The leaves reſemble thoſe of the cherry, but are not dented at the edges, and are therefore in reality more like nutmeg leaves; the flowers are borne in looſe heads; they are large, and of a pale yellow-white colour. The fruit is the ſize of a man's head, and round or oblong; reſembling in ſome degree a rolled-up hedge-hog, with a hard bark or rind; the fleſhy part of the fruit is of a creamy ſubſtance, and of a delicate taſte; but of an unpleaſant heavy ſmell, ſomewhat reſembling that of rotten onions; and the ſmell of the breath of thoſe who eat it is infected alſo in a high degree; but when once a perſon has accuſtomed himſelf to eat this fruit, he generally conſiders it as the moſt excellent of all others.

DU'RITY, *ſ.* [*dureté*, Fr. *durus*, Lat.] Hardneſs; firmneſs.—Irradiancy or ſparkling, found in many gems, is not diſcoverable in this; for it cometh ſhort of their compactneſs and *durity*. *Brown.*

DUR'KO, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: forty-two miles ſouth-weſt of Amaſich.

DUR'LACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, which gives title to one of the branches of the houſes of Baden, called margrave of Baden Durlach, ſituated on the Pfinz. It contains a caſtle, with a mint, a Latin ſchool, manufactures of china-ware, cloth, and ſtuffs; the environs are fertile, eſpecially in fruit and wine: ſixteen miles ſouth of Spire, and thirty-two weſt-north-weſt of Stuttgart. Lat. 48. 59. N. lon. 26. 9. E. Ferro.

DURN'BERG, a mountain of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, and archbiſhopric of Saltzburg: two miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Hallein.

DUR'NESS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, near the north coaſt, at the bottom of a bay, formed by a river of the ſame name, called the *Kyle of Durneſs*: forty-ſix miles north-north-weſt of Dornoch. Lat. 58. 33. N. lon. 1. 21. W. Edinburgh.

DUR'NESS, a river of Scotland, which runs into the North Sea, a little to the weſt of Farout Head, forming a bay at its mouth, called the Kyle of Durneſs.

DURN'ISH, a town of Scotland, on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland of Skye.

DUR'NIUM, or DURNOVARIA, anciently a town of the Durotriges in Britain: now Dorcheſter.

DUROBRI'VÆ, anciently a town of the Catyeuchlani in Britain: now in ruins, which lie on the Nen, between Caſter and Dornford, in Northamptonſhire, on the borders of Huntingdon.

DUROBRI'VÆ, or DUROCOBRIVÆ, a town of the Trinobantes, in Britain; whoſe ruins are ſituated between Flamſtead and Redburn, in Hertfordſhire.

DUROBRI'VIS, anciently a town twenty-five miles to the weſt of Durovernum, or Canterbury, from which it appears to be Rocheſter, confirmed by the charter of foundation of the church, in which it is called *Durobrevis*.

DUROCA'SES, DUROCASSIUM, or DUROCASSÆ, anciently a town of the Carnutes, in Gallia Celtica; now Dreux.

DUROCH'SKOI, a town of Ruſſian Tartary, in the government of Irkutſch, on the borders of China, near the river Argunia: 160 miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Nertchinſk.

DUROCORNO'VIUM, anciently a town of Britain; now Cirenceſter, in Glouceſterſhire, called *Corinium* by Ptolemy.

DUROCORTO'RUM, or DURICORTORA, anciently a town of the Rhemi in Belgica; now RHEIMS.

DUROI'A, *ſ.* [ſo named in memory of *Jo. Phil. Du Roi*, a phyſician at Brunſwick, author of Obſervationes Botanicæ, and Hortus Harbeccenſis.] In botany, a genus of the claſs hexandria, order monogynia, natural order rubiaccæ, (*Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, cylindric, truncate, contracted, very ſhort, ſuperior. Corolla: monopetalous; tube cylindric; border length of the tube, ſix-parted; diviſions ovate, ſpreading. Stamina: filaments none; antheræ ſix, oblong, within the tube. Piſtillum: germ inferior; ſtyle filiform, the length of the tube; ſtigmas two. Pericarpium: pome globular, umbilicate, covered with erect hairs. Seeds very many, neſtling, oval, flat, very ſmooth, incumbent, in a double row.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, cylindric, truncate; corolla, ſix-parted; filaments none; pome hiſpid.

Duroia eriopila, the only ſpecies, is a tree with thick unequal branches, hirſute at the end; leaves terminating, oppoſite, approximating, many, ſubpetioled, a ſpan in length, obovate, quite entire, obtuſiſh, ribbed, pubeſcent above, netted underneath. The flowers are frequently abortive; nay, there are ſome genuine male flowers without any germ. It ſhould therefore be referred rather to the claſs polygamia. Fruit ſomewhat larger than a turkey's egg, ſpherical, covered very thick with erect brown hairs; it is well-flavoured, and much eſteemed at Surinam, of which it is a native.

DUROLE'NUM, anciently a town of the Cantii in Britain; now Lenham, in Kent.

DUROLI'TUM, anciently a town of the Trinobantes; now Leiton, on the Ley, in Eſſex.

DU'ROT, a bay on the north ſide of the ſouth peninſula of the iſland of St. Domingo.

DUROTRI'GES, anciently a Britiſh nation, ſeated in that part of the country which is now called Dorſetſhire.

DUROU'R's ISLAND, an iſland in the eaſtern Indian ocean. Lat. 1. 44. S. lon. 143. 21. E. Greenwich.

DUR'ROW, a town of Ireland; ſee CASTLE DURROW.

DUR'SEY, an iſland in the Atlantic, about two miles long, and half a mile broad, ſituated near the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Ireland. Lat. 51. 33. N. lon. 10. 4. W. Greenwich.

DUR'SLEY, a ſmall town of Glouceſterſhire, formerly remarkable for its extenſive broad-cloth manufactory; and it ſtill carries on a conſiderable trade in that branch of buſineſs, and alſo in card-making. It is a borough of very great antiquity, being one of the five boroughs returned by the ſheriff of the county in the reign of Edward I. but it has long loſt the privilege of ſending members to parliament. It is now governed by a bailiff choſen annually. The town gives the title of viſcount to earl Berkeley. Here is a handſome market-houſe built in 1738, of free-ſtone; market on Thurſdays; and fairs on the 6th of May, and 4th of December. The church is large, and very ancient, with two aiſles and a tower. Contiguous to the town is a rock of ſtone, remarkable for its extreme durability: the exterior walls of the noble caſtle of Berkeley were built with it; and, although upwards of ſix centuries have paſſed ſince their erection, they do not ſhew the leaſt appearance of decay.

Kingſcot, on the eaſt ſide of Durſley, is a chapel of eaſe. Here is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman ſtation, from a multitude of Roman coins ploughed up ſome years ago, beſides a large ſtatue of ſtone, and a *Fibula Veſtiaria* of ſilver, chequered and enamelled. Ozelworth is on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of Durſley; it is remarkable for the number of foxes killed in one year, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, which amounted to 231. Slimbridge is a pariſh contiguous, twenty miles in compaſs, bounded with the Severn and Cam. It poſſeſſes the ſingular merit of having about 1000 acres of land gained from the Severn.

DURST, the preterite of *dare*.—The Chriſtians *durſt* have no images of the Deity, becauſe they would rather die than defile themſelves with ſuch an impiety. *Stillingfl.*

DUR'TAL, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire, and chief place of a canton, in the

district of Chateau-neuf: the houses are generally built of stone, and covered with slate; tanning is the chief trade: five leagues and a half north-east of Angers.

DURVES, a town of Asia, in the country of Candahar: 130 miles south-east of Candahar.

DU'RY (John), a learned Scots divine, in the seventeenth century, early educated to the ministry in his native country. Reflecting on the divisions which existed in the reformed churches, he conceived it possible to reunite the Lutherans and the Calvinists in the same tenets. He obtained the approbation of the archbishop of Canterbury, and was countenanced by Bedell bishop of Kilmore, and Hall bishop of Exeter. He soon published his plan for a re-union, which was dispersed over all protestant Europe; and opened a correspondence with learned men in different churches. Afterwards he set out on his travels to try the effect of his personal labours, and held conferences with the divines of the German evangelic union at their assembly at Frankfort, in 1634. He afterwards treated with the divines of Sweden and Denmark; traversed Holland, Germany, and Swisserland; applied to the crowned heads and princes as well as divines; consulted the universities, and communicated their answers; and spared no pains during innumerable journeys which he took until the year 1631, when he had the mortification to find that the project which he had undertaken was as far as ever from its completion. He was not discouraged, however, but still determined to persevere in his design. It was some time during the year 1661, that Mr. Dury published at Amsterdam, his work entitled *Johannis Duræi Irenicorum Tractatuum prodromus, in quo præliminares continentur Tractatus de I. Pacis ecclesiasticæ Rehoris è medio tollendis. II. Concordiæ Evangelicæ Fundamentis sufficienter jactis, &c.* After the appearance of this work, he again set about his grand design, and laboured incessantly at promoting an union among the protestant churches, until the year 1674, when he appears to have been disheartened at the failure of all his former plans, and had recourse to a new expedient, which was to re-unite all Christians. This was to labour on a new explication of the Apocalypse, which he published at Frankfort in 1675. On the dreams and chimeras to which this new expedient gave rise, he appears to have dwelt at a pleasant retreat provided for him in the country of Hesse, by Hedwige Sophia, the landgrave's consort, who had the regency of the country, and who generously supplied Dury with a maintenance till the time of his death, the precise time of which seems not to be known.

DUSK, *adj.* [*duyster*, Dut.] Tending to darkness. See DUSKY. Tending to blackness; dark-coloured:

The hills, to their supply,
Vapour and exhalation, *dusk* and moist,
Sent up amain. *Milton.*

DUSK, *s.* Tendency to darkness; incipient obscurity.—I will wait on you in the *dusk* of the evening, with my show upon my back. *Spectator.*—Darkness of colour; tendency to blackness:

Some sprinkled freckles on his face were seen,
Whose *dusk* set off the whiteness of the skin. *Dryden.*

To DUSK, *v. a.* To make duskish.

To DUSK, *v. n.* To grow dark; to begin to lose light or brightness; to have lustre diminished.

DUSK'ILY, *adv.* With a tendency to darkness or blackness.

DUS'KINESS, *s.* Tendency to darkness.—The *duskiness* and dews of the evening had rendered his walk uncomfortable. *Shenstone.*

DUS'KISH, *adj.* Inclining to darkness; tending to obscurity:

From his infernal furnace forth he threw
Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven's light,
Enroll'd in *duskish* smoke, and brimstone blue. *Spenser.*

Tending to blackness; dark-coloured.—Sight is not contented with sudden departments from one extreme to another; therefore rather a *duskish* tincture than an absolute black. *Wotton.*

DUS'KISHLY, *adv.* Cloudily; darkly.—The sawdust burned fair, till part of the candle consumed: the dust gathering about the snast, made the snast to burn *duskishly*. *Bacon.*

DUSKY, *adj.* [from *dusk*; *duyster*, Dut.] Tending to darkness; obscure; not luminous:

Through the plains of one continual day,
Six shining months pursue their even way;
And fix succeeding urge their *dusky* flight,
Obscur'd with vapours and o'erwhelm'd in night. *Prior.*

Tending to blackness; dark-coloured; not clear; not bright.—It is not green, but of a *dusky* brown colour. *Bacon.*

When Jove in *dusky* clouds involves the skies,
And the faint crescent shoots by fits before their eyes.
Dryden.

Gloomy; sad; intellectually clouded.—While he continues in life, this *dusky* scene of horror, this melancholy prospect of final perdition, will frequently occur to his fancy. *Bentley.*

Umbriel, a *dusky*, melancholy sprite,
As ever sullied the fair face of light,
Down to the central earth, his proper scene,
Repairs to search the gloomy cave of spleen. *Pope.*

DUSK'Y BAY, a bay on the south-west coast of the southernmost island of New Zealand. Lat. 45. 40. S. lon. 166. 18. E. Greenwich.

DUS'RACH, a town of Persia, in the province of Kerman: 156 miles south of Sirgian.

DUS'SAC, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Exideuil: four miles north of Exideuil.

DUS'SEL, a river of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, which runs into the Rhine at Dusseldorp.

DUS'SELDORP, a city of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and duchy of Berg, situated on the river Dussel, at its conflux with the Rhine; strong and well-built: it contains about ten thousand souls. The palace belonging to the elector-palatine is a noble edifice. This town was taken by the French revolutionists, on the 10th of September 1795, soon after which the whole duchy of Berg submitted to the troops of the republic. Lat. 51. 15. N. lon. 28. 10. E. Ferro.

DUS'SEMONT, a village of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Veldentz, on the Moselle; celebrated for its excellent wine: four miles north-west of Veldentz.

DUST, *s.* [ðurt, Saxon; *dunst*, Erse.] Earth or other matter reduced to small particles.—*Dust* helpeth the fruitfulness of trees, insomuch as they cast *dust* upon them. *Bacon.*—The grave; the state of dissolution:

The sceptre, learning, physic, must
All follow this, and come to *dust*. *Shakespeare.*

A mean and dejected state.—God raiseth up the poor out of the *dust*, to set them among princes. 1 *Sam.* ii. 8.

To DUST, *v. a.* To free from dust. To sprinkle with dust.

DUST'CART, *s.* A cart in which dust is carried out of the streets.

DU'STED, *part.* Sprinkled with dust, cleaned from dust.

DUS'TINESS, *s.* The state of being dusty. *Scott.*

DUS'TING, *part. adj.* Sprinkling with dust; cleaning from dust.

DU'STMAN, *s.* One whose employment is to carry away the dust:

The *dustman*'s cart offends thy clothes and eyes,
When through the street a cloud of ashes flies. *Gay.*

DUS'TUCK,

DUS'TUCK, *ſ.* [Indian.] A term uſed in Hindooſtan, for a paſſport, permit, or order, in the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's affairs. It generally means the permit under their ſeal, which exempts goods from the payment of duties.

DU'STY, *adj.* Filled with duſt; clouded with duſt:

Arms and the *duſty* fields I leſs admire,
And ſoften ſtrangely in ſome new deſire. *Dryden.*

Covered or ſcattered with duſt:

Even Drudgery himſelf,
As at the car he ſweats, or *duſty* hews
The palace ſtone, looks gay. *Thomſon.*

DUSZ'MIANY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Troki: twenty miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Troki.

DUTCH, the inhabitants of the Seven United Provinces; now the Batavian republic. For their hiſtory, ſee the article HOLLAND.

DUTCH, *ſ.* [the adjective, by ellipſis, for] The Dutch language:

Thy plays are ſuch
I'd ſwear, they were tranſlated out of *Dutch.* *Dorſet.*

DUT'CHESS, *ſ.* See DUCHESS.

DUTCH'MAN's BAY, a bay on the north coaſt of the iſland of Antigua.

DUTCH'MAN's ISLAND, an iſland of America, in the Potomack river, fourteen miles above Waſhington.

DUT'CHY, *ſ.* See DUCHY.

DU'TEOUS, *adj.* Obedient; obſequious; reſpectful to thoſe who have natural or legal authority:

A female ſoftneſs, with a manly mind;
A *duteous* daughter, and a ſiſter kind;
In ſickneſs patient, and in death reſign'd. *Dryden.*

Obſequious; obedient to good or bad purpoſes: with *to:*

I know thee well; a ſerviceable villain!
As *duteous to* the vices of thy miſtreſs,
As badneſs would deſire. *Shakeſpeare.*

Enjoined by duty; enforced by the relation of one to another. This ſenſe is not now uſed:

With mine own tongue deny my ſacred right,
With mine own breath releaſe all *duteous* ties. *Shakeſp.*

DU'THILL, a town of Scotland, in the county of Inverneſs: twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Inverneſs.

DU'TIFUL, *adj.* Obedient; ſubmiſſive to natural or legal ſuperiors; reverent.—She died in an extreme old age, without pain, under the care of the moſt *dutiful* ſon that I have ever known or heard of. *Swift.*—Expreſſive of reſpect; giving token of reverence; reſpectful; reverential.—There would ſhe kiſs the ground, and thank the trees, bleſs the air, and do *dutiful* reverence to every thing ſhe thought did accompany her at their firſt meeting. *Sydney.*

DU'TIFULLY, *adv.* Obediently; ſubmiſſively. Reverently; reſpectfully:

He with joyful, nimble wing,
Flew *dutifully* back again,
And made an humble chaplet for the king. *Swift.*

DU'TIFULNESS, *ſ.* Obedience; ſubmiſſion to juſt authority.—Piety, or *dutifulneſs* to parents, was a moſt popular virtue among the Romans. *Dryden.*—Reverence; reſpect.—It is a ſtrange kind of civility, and an evil *dutifulneſs* in friends and relatives, to ſuffer him to periſh without reproof or medicine, rather than to ſeem unmannerly to a great ſinner. *Taylor.*

DUTKI'NA, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Irkutſch, on the Lena: ſixteen miles ſouth of Orlenga.

DUTLIN'GEN, or TUTLINGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, on the Danube, over which is a bridge, belonging to the duchy of Wurtemberg, though not joined to it, ſurrounded with walls in 1274. In the year 1132, or, according to others, in 1364, Louis, count of Pfulendorf, and abbot of Reichenaw, was murdered in the church of Dutlingen, dreſſed in his ſacerdotal habit, by his own domeſtics: twenty-five miles north-weſt of Conſtance. Lat. 47. 55. N. lon. 26. 26. E. Ferro.

DU'TY, *ſ.* That to which a man is by any natural or legal obligation bound.—When ye ſhall have done all thoſe things which are commanded you, ſay, We are unprofitable ſervants: we have done that which was our *duty* to do. *Luke,* xvii. 10.—Acts or forbearances required by religion or morality. In this ſenſe it has a plural:

Good my lord,
You have begot me, bred me, lov'd me: I
Return thoſe *duties* back, as are right fit;
Obey you, love you, and moſt honour you. *Shakeſpeare.*

Obedience or ſubmiſſion due to parents, governors, or ſuperiors; loyalty; piety to parents.—God's party will appear ſmall, and the king's not greater; it being not probable, that thoſe ſhould have ſenſe of *duty* to him that had none to God. *Decay of Piety.*—Act of reverence or reſpect:

They both atone,
Did *duty* to their lady as became. *Spenſer.*

The buſineſs of a ſoldier on guard.—The regiment did *duty* there punctually. *Clarendon.*—The buſineſs of war; ſervice.—The night came and ſevered them, all parties being tired with the *duty* of the day. *Clarendon.*

See how the madmen bleed! Behold the gains
With which their maſter, love, rewards their pains!
For ſeven long years, on *duty* ev'ry day,
Lo! their obedience, and their monarch's pay! *Dryd.*

Tax; impoſt; cuſtom; toll.—All the wines make their way through ſeveral *duties* and taxes, before they reach the port. *Addiſon.*

The duties of civil life may be conſidered as the cement of ſociety. Allegiance is the duty of the people, protection the duty of the magiſtrate; yet they are reciprocally the rights, as well as duties, of each other. Allegiance is the right of the magiſtrate, and protection the right of the people.

DU'VAL (Valentine Jameray), imperial librarian, and keeper of the cabinet of coins at Vienna, born at Artonay, in Champagne, in 1695. At the age of ten he loſt his father and mother, peaſants in poor circumſtances, who left a numerous family in a ſtate of the utmoſt indigence. Two years after he wandered into Lorraine, where he was ſeized with the ſmall-pox, and muſt have periſhed for want of bread, had not a poor ſhepherd taken him to his ſheep-cot, where he had no other bed than the dung upon the ground. His hardy conſtitution got the better of the diſeaſe, and he was afterwards employed by the hermits of St. Anne, near Luneville, to watch their cattle. Among theſe hermits he learnt to read, and a few pamphlets which here fell into his hands, excited his anxious mind to a love of books. He often ſought out in the neighbouring woods ſome ſolitary corner, where he ſpent the greater part of the ſummer nights contemplating the heavens, and endeavouring to make himſelf acquainted with the celeſtial bodies. To aſſiſt him in this purſuit, he conſtructed, in the top of an oak, a kind of ſeat of wild vines and willow twigs interwoven. He purchaſed at Luneville a celeſtial chart, and a few maps of different countries. He now ſtudied geography and aſtronomy amidſt ſo many difficulties that it muſt appear wonderful how he was able, by the happy impulſe of genius alone, to overcome the moſt abſtruſe ſtudies, and to acquire a knowledge of the ſublimeſt ſciences. In order to obtain books, he laid ſnares for wild cats, foxes, and other animals; hunted many of them at the hazard of his life, and ſold their ſkins, by which he raiſed money to gratify his thirſt for knowledge. An accident procured him the protection of an Engliſhman at Luneville, the celebrated naturaliſt Forſter, through whoſe aſſiſtance the number of his books ſoon increaſed to four hundred volumes. While engaged one day in deep meditation, under a tree,

and

and ſurrounded with charts, he was ſuddenly accoſted by the young princes of Lorraine, Leopold, Clement, and Francis, afterwards the emperor Francis I. who had been out on a hunting excurſion, and loſt their way. Through their munificence the young literary peaſant was removed to the Jeſuits' college at Pont-à-Monſſon; and thus Duval, at the age of twenty-two, left the hermitage in which he had reſided four years. His ardent paſſion for ſtudy, animated by a deſire to anſwer the expectation of his generous patrons, made him redouble his diligence. He applied chiefly to hiſtory, geography, and antiquities, until at length duke Leopold appointed him his librarian, and profeſſor of hiſtory in the high ſchool. Though he had his lodging and table at court, he lived in a ſtate of perfect freedom. His lectures on hiſtory and antiquities were received with great approbation, and attended by many Engliſhmen of diſtinction, then at the court of Luneville, invited thither by Duval's high reputation. The great liberality he experienced from moſt of his ſcholars, and his habitual economy, ſoon enabled him to give a public teſtimony of his gratitude to the hermits of St. Anne, which conſiſted of an elegant houſe, built of ſtone, with a chapel, and a large tract of land. In 1738, when duke Leopold died, and the well-known change took place in regard to Lorraine, Duval removed to Florence, and became keeper of the ducal library, which had been tranſported thither from Luneville. Numiſmatics were one of his favourite purſuits, and excited in him a deſire to collect ancient coins. While engaged in this plan, the emperor Francis I. formed a reſolution of eſtabliſhing a cabinet of ancient and modern coins at Vienna, and of combining with it a collection of all the coins current in every part of the world. For this purpoſe he invited Duval to that capital, and entruſted him with the inſpection and arrangement of his new cabinet. A houſe was aſſigned to him in the imperial quarter near the palace, and he generally dined at the emperor's table once a-week. By the air of a court, however, his diſpoſition was in no manner corrupted; truth and ſincerity ſtill continued to be the diſtinguiſhing features of his character; and in 1751 he was appointed ſub-preceptor to Joſeph II. During a tour which he made to Paris in 1752, he reſolved to convert the cottage in which he had been born into a neat ſtone building, and to aſſign it for ever as a habitation for the pariſh ſchoolmaſter. He alſo cauſed wells to be dug at his own expence, as the village was very ill ſupplied with water. Duval remained free from the infirmities of age till his ſeventy-ninth year, and died in 1775, in the 81ſt year of his age. It may be ſaid, without exaggeration, that he was one of thoſe extraordinary men who ſometimes appear in the world, and who, notwithſtanding the diſadvantages of low birth, and every other obſtacle, emerge from obſcurity by the natural force of genius. After his death, M. de Koch, ſecretary of legation at Peterſburgh, collected and publiſhed his works, which one cannot read, and particularly the account of his life, written by himſelf, without entertaining great eſteem and affection for the benevolent and candid author. They are entitled, *Oeuvres de Valentin Jameray Duval, precédées des Mémoires ſur ſa Vie. Avec figures.* 2 vols. 1784-8.

DUVAL' (Andrew), a native of Pontoiſe, admitted a doctor of the Sorbonne in 1594, and the firſt profeſſor of the new theological ſchool, eſtabliſhed by Henry IV. in 1596. He died in 1638, at the age of ſeventy-four years, when he was the ſenior member of the college, and dean of the faculty of theology at Paris. He was a ſtrong advocate for what were called the ultramontane principles, which were intended to bind the French clergy in a cloſe and ſubmiſſive dependence on the court of Rome. Influenced by theſe principles, he proved a bitter perſecutor of the celebrated Edmund Richer, who was a ſpirited opponent of the unbounded eccleſiaſtical and political power which the popes aſſumed, and wrote againſt him a work, entitled, *Elenchus Libelli de eccleſiaſtica & politica poteſtate.* He alſo wrote another work, entitled, *De Suprema Romani Pontificis in Eccleſiam poteſtate*, 4to. 1614; a treatiſe againſt the proteſtant miniſter Du Moulin, with this ſtrange title, The Fire of Elias to dry up the Waters of Siloah, 1603; Commentaries on the Theology of St. Thomas Aquinas, 2 vols. folio, 1636.

DUVAL' (Peter), geographer-royal in France, born at Abbeville. He was the nephew of the famous geographer Sanſon, and taught the ſcience in which his uncle excelled, with conſiderable ſucceſs. He died at Paris in 1683, at ſixty-five years of age. He was the author of various geographical treatiſes, charts, and maps, now moſtly ſuperſeded by later and more accurate works of the ſame kind. That which ſtill maintains its reputation, bears the title of *La Geographie Françoiſe, contenant les Deſcriptions, les Cartes, & les Blaſons, de France, &c.* He alſo publiſhed ſome uſeful chronological tables, and ſome articles in genealogy and heraldry, in 4to. and 12mo.

DUUMVI'RATE, *ſ.* the office or dignity of the duumviri.

DUUMVI'RI, *ſ.* two noble patricians at Rome, firſt appointed by Tarquin to keep the Sibylline books, which were ſuppoſed to contain the fate of the Roman empire. Theſe ſacred books were placed in the capitol, and ſecured in a cheſt under the ground. They were conſulted but ſeldom, and only by an order of the ſenate, when the armies had been defeated in war, or when Rome ſeemed to be threatened by an invaſion, or by ſecret ſeditions. Theſe prieſts continued in their original inſtitution till the year of Rome 388, when a law was propoſed by the tribunes to increaſe the number to ten, to be choſen promiſcuouſly from patrician and plebeian families. They were from their number called Decemviri, and ſome time after Sylla increaſed them to fifteen, known by the name of Quindecemviri.—There were alſo certain magiſtrates at Rome, called *Duumviri perduelliones ſive capitales.* They were firſt created by Tullus Hoſtilius, for trying ſuch as were accuſed of treaſon. This office was aboliſhed as unneceſſary, but Cicero complains of their revival by Labienus the tribune. Some of the commanders of the Roman veſſels were alſo called Duumviri, eſpecially when there were two together. They were firſt created in the year of Rome, 542. There were alſo in the municipal towns in the provinces, two magiſtrates, called *Duumviri municipales.* They were choſen from the centurions, and their office was ſimilar to that of the two conſuls at Rome. They were ſometimes preceded by two lictors with the faſces. Their magiſtracy continued for five years, on which account they have been called *Quinquennales magiſtratus.*

DUX, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz: fifteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Leitmeritz.

DUX'BOROUGH, a maritime townſhip of the American States, in Plymouth county, Maſſachuſetts, incorporated in 1637. It is a healthy town, abounding in maritime veſſels, and contains about 1460 inhabitants. It lies ſouth by eaſt of Plymouth, three miles acroſs Plymouth bay by water, and eight round by land, and thirty-eight ſouth eaſt by ſouth of Boſton. Within the harbour are Clarke's iſland, conſiſting of about one hundred acres of excellent land, and Sauquiſh iſland, which was formerly joined to the Gurnet, by a narrow piece of ſand; but the water has inſulated it. The Gurnet is an eminence at the ſouthern extremity of the beach, on which is a light-houſe, built by the ſtate. The Indian name of the town was Matiakeeſet, or Namakeeſet. It was ſettled by Capt. Standiſh and his aſſociates, in 1620.

DUX'BURY, a townſhip of the American States, in Hillſborough county, New Hampſhire, incorporated in 1763; firſt called Dantzick, and joined with Sutton in the enumeration of 1775.

DUX'BURY, a townſhip of the American States, in Chittenden

Chittenden county, Vermont, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Burlington.

DUY'VELAND, an iſland of Zealand, ſeparated from the ſouth-eaſt part of Schouwen, by a narrow paſſage; its dimenſions about three leagues by two.

DUZ'DEH, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: twenty-eight miles weſt of Eregri.

DU'ZEY, a town of France, in the department of the Meuſe, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Eſtain: three leagues north of Eſtain.

DWALE, *ſ.* in botany. See ATROPA.

DWARF, *ſ.* [ꝺpeonȝ, Sax. *dwerg*, Dut.] A man below the common ſize of men:

They, but now who ſeem'd
In bigneſs to ſurpaſs earth's giant ſons,
Now leſs than ſmalleſt *dwarfs*, in narrow room
Throng numberleſs. *Milton.*

Any animal or plant below its natural bulk.—Saw off the ſtock in a ſmooth place; and for *dwarf* trees, graft them within four fingers of the ground. *Mortimer.*—An attendant on a lady or knight in romances:

The champion ſtout,
Eftſoones diſmounted from his courſer brave,
And to the *dwarf* awhile his needleſs ſpear he gave.
Spenſer.

It is uſed often by botaniſts in compoſition; as, *dwarf*-elder, *dwarf*-honey-ſuckle, &c.

The Romans were paſſionately fond of dwarfs, whom they called *nani* or *nanæ*, inſomuch that they often uſed artificial methods to prevent the growth of boys deſigned for dwarfs, by incloſing them in boxes, or by the uſe of tight bandages. Auguſtus's niece, Julia, was extremely fond of a dwarf called *Sonopas*, who was only two feet and an hand-breadth high. There are many curious accounts of human dwarfs, which certainly deſerve the attention of the phyſiologiſt, the philoſopher, and anatomiſt. Jeffery Hudſon, the famous Engliſh dwarf, is a ſtriking inſtance of the kind. He was born at Oakham, in Rutlandſhire, 1619; and about the age of ſeven or eight, being then but eighteen inches high, was retained in the ſervice of the duke of Buckingham, at Burleigh. Soon after the marriage of Charles I. the king and queen being entertained at Burleigh, little Jeffery was preſented by the ducheſs to the queen, who kept him as her dwarf. From ſeven years of age till thirty, he never grew taller; but after thirty, he grew up to three feet nine inches, and there fixed. Jeffery became a conſiderable part of the entertainment of the court. Sir William Davenant wrote a poem, called *Jeffreidos*, on a battle between him and a turkey-cock; yet Jeffery was employed on an embaſſy to France, from the queen of England, to her mother, Mary de Medicis; and on his return he was taken by the Dunkirkers. Jeffery, thus made of conſequence, began to think himſelf really ſo; for, feeling himſelf inſulted by Mr. Crofts, a young gentleman of family, a challenge enſued: and Mr. Crofts coming to the rendezvous armed only with a ſquirt, the high-minded little creature was ſo enraged, that a real duel enſued; and the appointment being on horſeback with piſtols, to put them more on a level, Jeffery, with the firſt fire, ſhot his antagoniſt dead. This happened in France, whither he had attended his miſtreſs in the troubles. He was again taken priſoner by a Turkiſh rover, and ſold into Barbary. He probably did not remain long in ſlavery: for at the beginning of the civil war, he was made a captain in the royal army; and in 1644 attended the queen to France, where he remained till the reſtoration. At laſt, upon ſuſpicion of his being privy to the Popiſh plot, he was ſeized in 1682, and confined in the Gatehouſe, Weſtminſter, where he ended his life, in the 63d year of his age.

In the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, a relation is given by the count de Treſſau, of a dwarf called *Bebe*, kept by the late Staniſlaus, king of Poland, and who died in 1764, at the age of twenty-three, when he meaſured only thirty-three inches. At the time of his birth, he meaſured only between eight and nine inches. But that the ſize and ſtrength of the intellectual powers are not affected by the diminutiveneſs or tenuity of the corporeal organs, is evident from a ſtill more ſtriking inſtance of littleneſs, deſcribed by the ſame nobleman, in the perſon of M. Borulawſki, a Poliſh gentleman, whom he ſaw at Luneville, and who, at the age of twenty-two, meaſured only twenty-eight inches. Yet this miniature of a man was in no reſpect deficient, at that age, in mental powers and attainments; but is deſcribed by the count as poſſeſſing all the graces of wit, united with a ſound judgment and an excellent memory. He continued to grow till he was about thirty, when he attained the height of three feet two inches. At forty-one years of age, he married a woman of the middle ſize, and had three children, neither of them dwarfs.

Dr. Guthrie, in his Antiquities of Ruſſia, gives the following remarkable deſcription of a dwarf. "One woman, in the houſe of a venerable nobleman, formerly attached to Peter the Great, and whom I have the honour of frequently ſeeing, particularly engaged my attention. The emperor took pleaſure in viewing this dwarf, and uſed to call her his puppet, which the little creature is ſtill proud of relating. From an inſcription under her portrait, in the poſſeſſion of her preſent maſter, it appears that ſhe was firſt made priſoner of war in Poland by prince Mentchicoff; after whoſe diſgrace ſhe came into the hands of the princeſs of Heſſe-Homburg; and, when *ſhe* died, general Betſkoy, the princeſs's heir, took her as a part of his inheritance. The inſcription ſhews her to be nearly a century old. She is ſtill briſk and lively, having the full uſe of her eyes, legs, and teeth, with an infantine voice when ſhe cries, which often happens to her at the recollection of her antient court dreſs, which ſhe regrets exceedingly. Seen from behind, ſhe would be taken for a child of five or ſix years old, an age that her ſtature indicates. She is at this day, (October 15, 1794,) without any infirmity of age, after an abode of eighty years in Ruſſia."

A few years ago there was ſeen at Batavia, a native of the iſland of Bali, named Kitip, who was ſo ſmall, and at the ſame time diminiſhed in ſo ſymmetric a manner, that he deſerves to be conſidered as one of the rareſt phænomena in the animal œconomy of nature. His whole length amounted only to two feet eleven inches Engliſh meaſure; and the reduction of his body on both ſides ſo regularly alike, that the opinion of Buffon reſpecting the power of ſimple parts acting on both ſides with equal force, from which ariſe the double parts on the expanſion of the animal body, ſeems to be fully confirmed. The head, though by far too large for the body of this dwarf, and which might have ſuited one of ſix feet, exhibited in other reſpects nothing remarkable. His hair was long and black, but here and there a little grey, becauſe he had already attained to the fortieth year of his age. Like moſt of his countrymen, he had no beard. His ſkin was of a browniſh colour. His ſhoulders were broad, and his cheſt ſtrong; the belly had the uſual form, only that it was too much contracted towards the lower part. His arms were too long in proportion to the body, and a little twiſted or turned outwards; the lower part of the arms was only half as long as that above the elbow: the hands were ſhort, broad, and of a round form before. The fingers conſiſted of round ſtumps, which were totally looſe, without being ſtrongly connected with the bones of the hand behind, and which were capable of no movement. They were furniſhed with nails, and conſiſted of the third row only of the finger joints, as the firſt and ſecond were totally wanting. Each hand had ſix of theſe ſhapeleſs fingers; two ſtanding cloſe together in the place of the little finger, and the other four in the place of the thumb, the

fore, middle, and ring, finger. The bones of the hand were bent a little outwards, by which means the fiſt appeared round, and the back of it ſomewhat hollow. This ſmall cavity was of great ſervice to little Kitip, on account of the ſhortneſs and immobility of his fingers, eſpecially at the time of his meals, as he uſed the back of his hand inſtead of a ſpoon, in order to convey rice and other food to his mouth. His legs were remarkably ſhort; the feet ſeemed to have grown out from them quite ſolid; for, though their motion gave reaſon to ſuppoſe the exiſtence of the bone of the leg and iſchia, there was, however, no external appearance of them. The knees were entirely wanting. The feet were ſhort and broad. Each foot had ſix toes, ſimilar in form to the fingers, and which had grown out in the like manner, but with this difference, that they were connected with the feet by a ſmall part of their round ſurface, and that the two which ſtood in the place of the little toe adhered ſomewhat to each other. This dwarf was born of well-proportioned parents at Squoati, in the iſland of Bali, in the year 1740. He never had the ſmalleſt intercourſe with the female ſex, nor ſhowed the leaſt inclination for it. It appeared, however, that he was far from having been neglected by nature in this reſpect, and that his continence aroſe rather from an opinion he entertained, that if he denied himſelf the gratification of intercourſe with the ſex in this world, he ſhould obtain a more perfect body in the next.

Calvin Philips, an American dwarf, has lately been exhibited at New York. At the age of eight, his height was twenty-ſix inches and a half, and his weight twelve pounds, including his clothes. This phenomenon was born at Bridgewater, in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, on the 14th of January 1791. His father, who is about the middle ſize, was twenty-four years of age when the child was born; and his mother, rather above the ordinary ſize, was twenty-ſix, both ſound and healthy. They have had five other children, two before and three ſince the birth of the dwarf, all of them healthy, and of the uſual ſize. All the circumſtances of geſtation and parturition in the caſe of this dwarf were natural: he was ſo ſmall at his birth as ſcarcely to weigh two pounds; his thigh was not thicker than a man's thumb, and all the other parts of his body were in proportion. His mother, who is a poor woman, uſed to carry him in her boſom while ſhe was ſpinning. Notwithſtanding his diminutiveneſs, he was always while a child extremely healthy, had a good appetite, and was exempt from all the diſeaſes of infancy, except the whooping cough, which was very favourable. He was weaned at ſeven months, began to creep at nine months, and to walk at eighteen months, but he did not begin to ſpeak till he was four years of age. He got his firſt teeth at ten or eleven months, without pain or difficulty, and has ſince had the common number. From his birth, till two years old, he grew very ſlowly, afterwards more perceptibly till five, and ſince that period has altogether ceaſed to grow, which is aſcertained both by his weight, and by the ſize of his clothes, worn four years ago. He is active, playful, ſprightly, and very iraſcible, and is commonly occupied in the ſports of children, to which he is devoted in a remarkable degree. On inſpection of his body undreſſed, no deformity or deficiency appears; on the contrary, he is every way formed with the greateſt ſymmetry. His figure diſplays a pleaſing and elegant proportion, and his face, though thin and long, is made of regular and agreeable features, correſponding to his age rather than ſize, and indicating a degree of maturity, in point of evolution, much beyond his years. His complexion and hair are light, his eyes blue, and his general aſpect is delicate. His voice is ſhrill, and leſs articulate than is common at his period of life. He is reſerved to ſtrangers; but already appears to ſhew ſigns of ſexual propenſity. His mental attainments appear to fall rather ſhort of the ordinary ſtandard at his age: but his ſituation, in a variety of reſpects, has been unfavourable to improvement; and it is to be wiſhed that proper attention may be paid to the cultivation of his underſtanding, in order to aſcertain the comparative powers of his mind. In his travels, as a curious ſpectacle, this dwarf is under the charge of his maternal grandfather and grandmother. The former is a large and robuſt man, aged fifty-ſix, and the latter is about the middle ſize, and aged fifty-four. They ſay that the boy never ſuffered any injury by blows, falls, or other accidents, whether before or after his birth, and that they are unacquainted with any cauſe to which his diminutive ſize may be aſcribed.

To DWARF, *v. a.* To hinder from growing to the natural bulk; to ieſſen; to make little.—It is reported that a good ſtrong canvaſs, ſpread over a tree grafted low, ſoon after it putteth forth, will *dwarf* it, and make it ſpread. *Bacon.*

DWARF'ISH, *adj.* Below the natural bulk; low; ſmall; little; petty; deſpicable.—We ſhould have loſt oaks and cedars, and the other tall and loſty ſons of the foreſt, and have found nothing but *dwarfiſh* ſhrubs and creeping moſs, and deſpicable muſhrooms. *Bentley.*

This unheard faucineſs, and boyiſh troops,
The king doth ſmile at; and is well prepar'd
To whip this *dwarfiſh* war, theſe pigmy arms,
From out the circle of his territories. *Shakeſpeare.*

DWARF'ISHLY, *adv.* Like a dwarf.

DWARF'ISHNESS, *ſ.* Minuteneſs of ſtature; littleneſs.—'Tis no wonder that ſcience hath not outgrown the *dwarfiſhneſs* of its priſtine ſtature, and that the intellectual world is ſuch a microcoſm. *Glanville.*

To DWAULE, *v. a.* [Spelman, Sax. to wander; *dwaelen*, Dut.] To be delirious: a provincial term.

To DWELL, *v. n.* pret. *dwelt*, or *dwelled.* [*dualla*, old Teut. is *ſtay*, *delay*; *duelia*, Iſlan. to ſtay, to ſtand ſtill.] To inhabit; to live in a place; to reſide; to have an habitation.—If thy brother that *dwelleth* by thee be waxen poor, and be ſold unto thee, thou ſhalt not compel him to ſerve as a bond ſervant. *Lev.* xxv. 39.—He ſhall *dwell* alone, without the camp ſhall his habitation be. *Lev.* xiii. 46.—To live in any form of habitation.—Abraham ſojourned in the land of promiſe as in a ſtrange country, *dwelling* in tabernacles. *Heb.* xi. 9.—To be in any ſtate or condition:

'Tis ſafer to be that which we deſtroy,
Than by deſtruction *dwell* in doubtful joy. *Shakeſpeare.*

To be ſuſpended with attention; to hang upon with care or fondneſs:

Such was that face, on which I *dwelt* with joy,
Ere Greece aſſembled ſtemm'd the tides to Troy. *Pope.*

To continue long ſpeaking.—We have *dwelt* pretty long on the conſiderations of ſpace and duration. *Locke.*

He preach'd the joys of heav'n, and pains of hell,
And warn'd the ſinner with becoming zeal;
But on eternal mercy lov'd to *dwell.* *Dryden.*

To DWELL, *v. a.* To inhabit. *Not uſed:*

I ſaw and heard; for we ſometimes
Who *dwell* this wild, conſtrain'd by want, come forth
To town or village nigh. *Milton.*

DWEL'LER, *ſ.* An inhabitant; one that lives in any place:

Their cries ſoon waken all the *dwellers* near;
Now murmuring noiſes riſe in every ſtreet. *Dryden.*

DWEL'LING, *ſ.* Habitation; place of reſidence; abode.—Hazor ſhall be a *dwelling* for dragons, and a deſolation for ever. *Jer.* xlix. 33.

God will deign
To viſit oft the *dwellings* of juſt men. *Milton.*

The force of fire aſcended firſt on high,
And took its *dwelling* in the vaulted ſky. *Dryden.*

State of life; mode of living.—My *dwelling* ſhall be with the beaſts of the field. *Daniel.*

DWEL'LINGHOUSE, *ſ.* The houſe at which one lives.—A perſon ought always to be cited at the place of his *dwellinghouſe*, which he has in reſpect of his habitation and uſual reſidence; and not at the houſe which he has in reſpect of his eſtate, or the place of his birth. *Ayliffe.*

DWEL'LINGPLACE, *ſ.* The place of reſidence.—People do often change their *dwellingplaces*, and ſome muſt die, whilſt other ſome do grow up into ſtrength. *Spenſer.*

DWIN, a town and caſtle of Hungary: fourteen miles eaſt of Schemnitz.

DWI'NA, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes in the ſouthern part of the government of Vologda, and runs into the White Sea, a little to the north of Archangel, after a courſe of about 5000 miles.

To DWIN'DLE, *v. n.* [ƿpinan, Sax.] To ſhrink; to loſe bulk; to grow little.—Thy *dwindled* legs ſeem crawling to the grave. *Dryden.*

Our drooping days are *dwindled* down to nought,
Their period finiſh'd ere 'tis well begun. *Thomſon.*

To degenerate; to ſink.—Religious ſocieties, though begun with excellent intentions, are ſaid to have *dwindled* into factious clubs. *Swift.*—To wear away; to loſe health; to grow feeble.—We ſee, that ſome ſmall part of the foot being injured by a wrench or a blow, the whole leg or thigh thereby loſes its ſtrength and nouriſhment, and *dwindles* away. *Locke.*

Phyſicians, with their milky cheer,
The love-ſick maid, and *dwindling* beau, repair. *Gay.*

To fall away; to be diminiſhed; to moulder off.—Under Greenvil, there were only five hundred foot and three hundred horſe left; the reſt were *dwindled* away. *Claren.*

DWOR'ZEC, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: eight miles ſouth of Novogrodek.

DWOR'ZYSZCE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty miles ſouth of Wilna.

DYE. See DIE.

DYE, *ſ.* in architecture, the trunk of the pedeſtal, or that part between the baſe and the cornice, being ſo called, becauſe it is often made in the form of a dye or cube.

DY'ER, *ſ.* One who follows the art or profeſſion of dying cloth, &c.

DY'ER (ſir James), an eminent lawyer and judge, born about 1511, at the ſeat of his father in Somerſetſhire. He received his academical education at Broadgate-hall, Oxford, whence he removed for the ſtudy of the law to the Middle-Temple. He roſe through different offices in his profeſſion to that of chief juſtice of the common pleas in the reign of queen Elizabeth, which he held for upwards of twenty-two years with a high character for integrity and ability. His temper was placid and ſerene, and he was free from that rudeneſs and violence of invective which too often diſgrace great characters on the bench. He died at his eſtate of Howton in Huntingdonſhire, in 1581. Sir James Dyer was the author of a valuable Book of Reports, in folio, containing caſes and deciſions occurring in the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It was firſt printed in 1601, and has been ſeveral times reprinted, the beſt edition being that of 1688. It is much eſteemed for conciſeneſs and ſolidity. He alſo wrote A Reading upon Stat. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 1. of Wills, and upon two others for its Explanation, 4to. 1648.

DY'ER (John), a reſpectable Engliſh poet, ſon of an eminent ſolicitor at Aberglaſney in Caermarthenſhire, born in 1700. He was brought up at Weſtminſter ſchool under Dr. Freind, and was deſigned by his father for his own profeſſion; but, being at liberty, in conſequence of his father's death, to purſue his own inclination, he indulged in a natural taſte for painting, and became a pupil to Mr. Richardſon. He afterwards wandered about South Wales and the adjacent counties as an itinerant artiſt; but it does not appear that he ever attained diſtinction in that profeſſion. In 1727, he made himſelf known as a poet, by the publication of his Grongar Hill, which became one of the moſt popular of deſcriptive poems, and has been admitted into numerous collections. After the publication of this piece, Dyer travelled to Italy for profeſſional improvement. If he did not acquire that in any conſiderable degree, he certainly improved his poetical taſte, and laid in a ſtore of new images. Theſe he diſplayed in a poem of ſome length, written in blank verſe, and publiſhed in 1740, intitled The Ruins of Rome. It conſiſts of a ſimilar combination of deſcription and ſentiment with his Grongar Hill, but both in a more elevated and varied ſtile, proportioned to the ſuperior magnitude of the ſubject. Dr. Johnſon ſays of it, that "the title raiſes greater expectation than the performance gratifies." This, upon the whole, may be the fact; yet it contains many paſſages truly poetical, and the ſtrain of moral and political reflection is that of a benevolent and enlightened mind. The author being in a delicate ſtate of health, and by character apparently not calculated to make his way in buſy life, was adviſed by his friends to take orders; his liberal education and irreproachable manners rendering ſuch a change not unſuitable. He was accordingly ordained by Dr. Thomas, biſhop of Lincoln; and entering into the matrimonial ſtate, he ſat down on a ſmall living in Leiceſterſhire. This he exchanged for one in Lincolnſhire, to which a ſecond benefice was ſoon added. His place of reſidence was Coningſby in Lincolnſhire; but the fenny country did not agree with his health. In 1757, he publiſhed his largeſt work, The Fleece, a didactic poem, in four books. Its propoſed theme is, "the care of ſheep, the labours of the loom, and arts of trade;" the firſt part paſtoral, the ſecond mechanical, the third hiſtorical and geographical. The compaſs, therefore, is large; but many of the topics are not very well adapted to poetry. The author did not long ſurvive its publication. He died of a gradual decline in 1758, leaving behind him, beſides the reputation of an ingenious poet, the character of an honeſt, humane, and good man. His poems were printed together in one volume octavo, 1761. He was the author of a few ſmaller pieces beſides thoſe above-mentioned.

DY'ER's ISLAND, a ſmall iſland of America, in Narraganſett Bay.

DY'ER's WEED. See GENISTA and RESEDA.

DY'ING, the part. of *die*. Expiring; giving up the ghoſt. Tinging; giving a new colour.

DY'ING, *ſ.* The art of fixing or communicating any given colour to the fabric of cloth, ſilk, cotton, linen, &c. Some lexicographers include, as part of the meaning of this word, a developement of the nature and properties of thoſe colours which conſtitute the dye; but this evidently forms one of the departments of chemiſtry: thoſe, therefore, who would excel in the profeſſion of a dyer, ought to ſtudy with due attention the elements of that invaluable ſcience. The French nation, always our moſt powerful rival in commerce and manufactures, juſtly appreciating the high importance of the dying art, hath wiſely inſtituted rewards to thoſe who make uſeful diſcoveries in it; and ſucceſſively appointed thoſe eminent chemiſts Dufay, Hellot, Macquer, and Berthollet, to inveſtigate and improve the then imperfect knowledge of the properties of all the dying ingredients, ſo intimately connected with chemiſtry. Hence the late improvements in the art of dying, in the permanency of colours, in the beauty of tints, and facility of execution, are to be attributed in a great meaſure to the indefatigable reſearch of the French chemiſts. And hence, in a modern Treatiſe of Dying, a reference to theſe improvements,

provements, and to the native qualities of the ingredients to be uſed, become as much a ſubject of our enquiry, as the practical modes of operation.

The origin of the art of dying appears to be much anterior to every ancient writer with whom we are acquainted; conſequently whatever is offered upon that ſubject muſt proceed from conjecture. The colours accidentally produced by the juices of fruits and flowers, or by the ſtains of blood, might have ſuggeſted the firſt idea of this art; after which a ſpirit of emulation would naturally excite to further trials, ſuch as imitating the blue enamel of the ſky, the rich and glowing tints on the plumage of birds, the beautiful colours of the inſect tribes, and of many ſpecies of ſerpents, fiſhes, ſhells, &c. But it would ſoon be obſerved that this beauty was of ſhort duration, and that it was neceſſary to renew the tints by a freſh application of the colouring ſubſtances, until ſome experiments which mankind might eaſily make while they lived under the freedom of the early ages, or perhaps ſome fortunate accident, may at length have taught them how the colours could be fixed, by the agency of ſalts, and other ſimilar ſubſtances.

As mankind began to multiply, new wants would be created, employments would be increaſed, and thoſe devoted to the ſervice of religion would require to be diſtinguiſhed from the other claſſes of ſociety. Hence aroſe particular ranks and conditions, to which certain marks were to be aſſigned according to their functions; and for this purpoſe no better or more certain means could be found than diverſity of dreſs. In the earlieſt ages, therefore, particular colours were allotted to the leaders of armies, judges, and prieſts; and for feſtivals, funerals, and religious ceremonies. Thus, in proceſs of time, dying would not be conſidered as an art merely calculated to gratify vanity, but as an invention of the utmoſt utility to ſociety.

The firſt dye concerning which we have any authentic information, is the much-celebrated Tyrian purple. Almoſt all the ancient authors who ſpeak of this invention, aſcribe it to the hunger of a ſhepherd's dog, blended with the force of love. The dog happening to take in his mouth a ſhell-fiſh, which he found on the ſea ſide, his mouth became coloured with the purple juice it emitted. The ſhepherd's ſweetheart noticing the colour, was ſo ſtruck with it, that ſhe importuned her lover to procure her a dreſs dyed of that ſame colour. The ſhepherd ſoon found out the ſubſtance which had produced ſo beautiful a tint, and by theſe means diſcovered the art of dying purple. Some, however, aſcribe this invention to a Tyrian named Hercules, who preſented the reſult of his firſt experiment to the king of Phœnicia, who was ſo captivated with it, that he made purple one of his principal ornaments. The laſt opinion appears to be the more probable, as the former fable may have originated from a play on words; for, according to Bochart, as *dog* and *colour* are expreſſed in the Syrian language by the ſame word, the Greek writers, who borrowed this ſtory from the Syrians, and the Romans who copied from the Greeks, might eaſily have been led into an error. That a Tyrian was the inventor, is unanimouſly aſſerted by all writers; but they differ in regard to the time. Some place the invention under Phœnix, the tenth king of Tyre, or about 1500 years before the birth of Chriſt; others, in the time when Minos reigned in Crete, or about the year 1439 before the Chriſtian æra. The ſubſtance employed for making this expenſive colour, was the liquor of ſhell-fiſh, called by the Hebrews *argaman*, by the Greeks πορφυρα, and by the Romans *purpura*, *murex*, and *oſtrum*, deſcribed in the article CONCHOLOGY, with figures of the ſhells, vol. v. p. 28.

The Tyrians gave the firſt ground of their purple dye by the unprepared liquor of the *purpura*, and then improved or heightened it by a liquor, made much ſtronger. In this manner they prepared their double dyed purple, *purpura dibapha*, which was ſo called either becauſe it was immerſed in two different liquors, or becauſe it was firſt dyed in the wool, and then in the yarn. The Greeks, according to the account of Democritus, poured the liquor as it came from the fire into a veſſel, immerſed the wool in it, and ſuffered it to remain in that ſtate a day and a night. Between this method and that of the Romans there ſeems to be no eſſential difference. The latter, according to Pliny, ſuffered the wool to remain in the liquor five hours, after which they dried it; they then immerſed it in the liquor again, and continued in this manner till it had imbibed all the dye. By theſe means the wool acquired a colour like that of the amethyſt, and thence it was denominated *color amethyſtinus*. The colour called *conchylium*, or hyacinthine, was dyed almoſt in the ſame manner, only that half as much of the liquor of the *purpura* was uſed as in the former caſe: and that it was mixed with one half urine and water. This colour, therefore, was brighter and cheaper than the other. Beſides theſe, the ancients were acquainted with the method of dying with kermes, (*graines d'ecarlate*,) a ſcarlet colour, called in the Bible *tholaat ſchani* (*colorem coccineum*), which they held in high eſtimation. Whether the ſcarlet of the ancients was the ſame as ours, cannot be determined, but we are told by Pliny, that it was a very agreeable roſe colour. All theſe dyes are frequently confounded by ancient authors, who often give the name of purple to red colours; and from this circumſtance, and from that of various other colours being produced by the mixture of the before-mentioned four kinds of dye, the uncertainty which prevails on this ſubject ſeems to have ariſen.

Beſides Tyre there were other places celebrated either on account of their purple ſhell-fiſh, or their method of preparing the dye. The following are often mentioned in the works of the antients: the *Gætulian purple*, for which the ſhell-fiſh found on the Gætulian coaſt were employed. A great deal of cloth, &c. was dyed in particular in the iſland of Madura and Porto Sancto, which on that account were by the antients called the Purple Iſlands, (*Inſulæ Purpurinæ*.) Alſo the Lacedemonian purple, and the Tarentine. At firſt theſe kinds of purple were exceedingly rare at Rome, but under Auguſtus they became the faſhionable colours; though a pound of Tyrian purple wool could not be procured for leſs than a thouſand denarii, ſomewhat more than thirty-two pounds ſterling. The almoſt incredible prices at which this purple was ſold among the ancients, is to be underſtood, in general, as applicable to this kind, as the others were much cheaper. The hyacinth colour, (*color conchylius*,) is called in the Bible *thechelet*, from which the Latin word *conchylium* is ſaid to be derived. As this colour did not require ſo much purple liquor, it was not ſo dear as the former colours; and in the time of Julius Cæſar, a pound of it coſt only one hundred denarii, five pounds ſterling. It, however, was not dark red, but had a blueiſh caſt. Pliny mentions three ſhades of it, one of which he compares to the night-violet, *viola ſerotina*. The *Color Tyriamethyſtus*, was a mixture of the Tyrian purple with the amethyſt colour, as the name indicates. The *Color hyſginus*, was compoſed of the ſcarlet and Tyrian purple colours. As no ſpecimens have been preſerved of theſe colours, we muſt be contented with the deſcriptions given by Pliny and others; for it would now be fruitleſs to attempt to obtain a more accurate knowledge of them. Of their durability, Plutarch gives a remarkable inſtance in his life of Alexander. This prince, it is ſaid, found in the treaſury of the Perſian monarch a large quantity of purple, 180 years old, which ſtill retained all its beauty; and the cauſe, according to Plutarch, was, that it had been prepared with honey.

As the ancients had no colour equal to the purple in beauty, durability, and coſtlineſs, it is not ſurpriſing that they ennobled it by the particular purpoſes to which it

it was deſtined. As the power and reſpect of kings increaſed, it was made a ſymbol of majeſty; and this was carried ſo far, that in the time of the emperors it was conſidered as a particular right belonging to the princes of the imperial houſe; ſo that immediately after their birth, they were wrapped in purple ſwaddling-clothes, and by theſe means obtained, as it were, a title to the empire. Nay, it was conſidered as an almoſt indiſpenſable ceremony in the choice of an emperor, that the ſucceſsful candidate ſhould be clothed in purple; and we have inſtances of the ſoldiers, when nothing elſe was at hand, tearing the purple from their ſtandards, and wrapping it round the newly-choſen emperor. In free republican ſtates this colour was a mark of the higheſt official dignity. Thus the ſupreme magiſtrates at Rome were diſtinguiſhed by broader or narrower purple ſtripes, with which their clothes were bordered behind and before. Hence it happened that purple, which every one had been before at liberty to uſe, was by the emperors made a regality; and when aſſumed by private perſons, was puniſhed with death, as a kind of high treaſon. Many attempts have been made, with tolerable ſucceſs, to reſtore the ancient Tyrian purple dye to modern practice, and numbers of ſhells of the buccinum genus have been collected for this purpoſe; but the perfection to which other dyes have been recently brought, and the beautiful purples of modern times, render the Tyrian method unneceſſary.

The Greeks, about the period of Alexander the Great, and under his ſucceſſors, firſt began to render black, dark blue, yellow, and green, dyes, more beautiful, and to learn the art alſo, of fixing them on linen. We find, among the various companies eſtabliſhed by Numa at Rome, a dyers' company, called *collegium tinctorum*. Afterwards the art of dying continued to increaſe among the Romans, and they began to divide colours into general and particular, according as they were uſual among both ſexes, or were excluſively worn by either. Thus the ancient authors frequently ſpeak of the colours by which the four different parties at the Circenſian games were diſtinguiſhed from each other, and which, on that account, were called the *colores circenſes*. Theſe were green, aurora colour, aſh colour, and white. This colour afforded employment in particular to the *fullones*, who waſhed and ſcoured white as well as coloured clothing. For this purpoſe they employed urine, chalk, ſaltpetre, and fumigation with ſulphur. The proceſſes to be uſed were preſcribed by a peculiar law (*Lex Metellana*) iſſued by the tribune Metellus, in the year of Rome 354. They were required, in the firſt place, to waſh the clothes with Sardinian earth, then to expoſe them to the vapour of ſulphur, and to ſcour them with unadulterated Cimolian earth, (from *Cimolus*, one of the iſlands called the Sporades,) which reſtored the ſplendour of the colour that had been deſtroyed by the ſulphur. In the laſt place, they ſmoothed the pile of the cloth with the ſkin of a hedge-hog, or the fuller's thiſtle, and then preſſed it. A paſſage in St. Mark ix. 3, alludes to this proceſs. Luther tranſlates the word γναφευς (*fullo*) improperly, by making it ſignify a *dyer*.

But the art of dying was not confined merely to the Phœnicians, Hebrews, Greeks, and Romans; it was ſoon communicated to other nations, each of which employed for this purpoſe ſuch minerals and plants as their different countries produced. According to the account of Pliny and other authors, the Gauls who inhabited beyond the Alps dyed the moſt beautiful purple and other colours with herbs; but they were not acquainted with a method of fixing them. We are told alſo by Tacitus, that the German women manufactured linen dreſſes, and dyed them of a beautiful purple red colour. Pliny gives a deſcription of an ingenious mode of dying, which has a near reſemblance to our cotton printing, then practiſed by the Egyptians. They applied to the white cloth certain tinctures, more or leſs capable of imbibing the dyes, (*colorem forbentibus medicamentis*,) and which were not viſible. The cloth was then put into a boiler, containing the dye or colouring compoſition, and after it was taken out, it appeared as if painted with various colours. Theſe colours never faded; and the cloth, by the boiling, was rendered more durable. Something of the ſame kind is related by Herodotus, who informs us, that certain people, who lived near the Caſpian ſea, by means of the leaves of trees, which they bruiſed, and ſteeped in water, could form on cloth the figures of animals, flowers, &c. which were as laſting as the cloth itſelf. The art of dying was alſo in great eſteem among the Perſians at a very early period. Among the Chineſe, too, Hoang-ti, one of their earlieſt emperors, was, according to Martini, the firſt who wore a blue dreſs, as being the colour of the heavens, and a yellow one, as being the colour of the earth. He alſo cauſed dreſſes of different colours to be made in imitation of flowers and birds, that they might ſerve as marks of diſtinction to the high and the low, the rich and the poor, in his empire.

It has been a queſtion of much doubt, whether the ancients, in their modes of dying, employed what are called *mordants*. Pliny, when ſpeaking of the ſpecies of dying peculiar to the Egyptians, expreſsly ſays that the workmen began by rubbing the ſtuffs which they intended to dye, and afterward applied drugs which did not leave any ſtain, but had the property of powerfully imbibing the colours ſubſequently to be employed. It cannot therefore be doubted that the ſubſtances thus employed acted as mordants. The ancient Greek chemiſts, (whoſe manuſcripts are ſcarcely known but by their titles, given by Fabricius,) explain with much perſpicuity the neceſſity of fixing colours by mordants. They notice the fugitive and permanent colours, χρωματα φευκτα, and χρωματα αφευκτα. Many other equally forcible expreſſions occur; among which we may notice the term δηκτικα, correſponding exactly with the word mordant, being derived from the verb δηκω, *mordeo*. The Greek chemiſts moreover obſerve that ſometimes the mordants were firſt applied, (υποβαφτον, or υποδυφη,) and afterward the colour: but at other times the mordant and colour were mingled together: and the application of the mordant was regarded as ſo very eſſential by the Greeks, that the term denoting it (βαφειν) was frequently employed to ſignify the operation of dying; of which Dioſcorides furniſhes many examples.

The ancients were acquainted with but few metallic ſalts; native ſulphat of iron and of copper were, however, certainly uſed by them in dying; and the colours were formed and fixed by the gall-nuts, or by the ſeeds of a ſpecies of acacia peculiar to Egypt, or by the rind of pomegranates. Some ſubſtances poſſeſs the properties of a mordant as well as of a colouring principle; and ſeveral of theſe, ſuch as the root of the oak, and a ſpecies of lotus, called by Pliny *faba Græca*, were known and employed. The ancients alſo made uſe of various ſubſtances which by modern dyers are called alteratives, and which produce certain changes in many dyes or colours. Muriat of ammonia, or ſal ammoniac, was known to the ancients, and Pliny relates the mode by which it was prepared: but it is uncertain whether or not it was employed in dying. Even ſuppoſing it not to have been uſed, ſtill its place was ſupplied by urine; and, according to Pliny, this laſt fluid was commonly employed to form the purple dye in the manner of an alterative. Lime was alſo probably uſed by the ancients, who prepared it from marble and ſhells.

The Greeks and the Saracens were for a long time the excluſive poſſeſſors of this art, and furniſhed the weſtern world with dyed ſtuffs, and particularly purple; which, according to ſome authors, was prepared by them of a beautiful colour in the eleventh century. The public taſte, however, was at length changed, and people began to ſet as great a value on the ſcarlet as upon purple, and

at length to prefer it; and on this account, in the twelfth century, the art of dying purple in the eaſt was almoſt forgotten. And, in conſequence of the cruſades in the eleventh and following centuries, this art began to be revived in the weſt; as the Chriſtian princes who went on theſe expeditions brought back with them a great many Greek dyers. Soon after, the Italians made conſiderable progreſs in this art: for, as the cruſaders were conveyed to the Holy Land, and brought back from it, chiefly in Italian ſhips, the Italians had the beſt opportunities either of learning the art of dying beautiful colours themſelves, or of bringing back expert dyers, whom they muſt have found very neceſſary to their manufactures, which were then in high eſtimation. Indeed, ſo early as the year 1338, there were in Florence 200 cloth manufactories, which manufactured annually from 70 to 80,000 pieces of cloth, valued at 1,200,000 florins. A Florentine merchant, who about the year 1300 traded in the Levant, happening to make water on a rock covered with moſs, he obſerved that the green colour of the moſs was inſtantly changed to a beautiful blueiſh colour. Reflecting on this circumſtance, he found, after ſeveral experiments that when mixed with urine and other things, it communicated to cloth a columbine colour. This proceſs, he kept ſecret, and acquired by it a great deal of money. The invention at that period was ſo profitable to the Florentines, and excited ſo much wonder, that the family of the inventor, which ſtill exiſts in Italy, were called *Rucellai*, from the name of the moſs, which in Spaniſh is diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *orciglia*, and the dye made from it is called *orchilla*.

After this period the manufactures in Italy increaſed ſo much, that the attention of the different governments was particularly directed to the art of dying. In 1429 there were publiſhed at Venice ſome regulations reſpecting dying, (*Mariegola dell' Arte dei Tintori*,) in which certain precepts were given, according to which dyers were to exerciſe their art. Theſe regulations were renewed in the year 1510, with a great many improvements; when John Ventura Roſetti, finding theſe precepts too imperfect, made a tour through Italy and other countries to procure further information reſpecting the art of dying, and on his return wrote, under the aſſumed name of Plictho, a book on it; the firſt, perhaps, that ever appeared on this ſubject, and which undoubtedly laid the foundation for the improvements in this art which afterward took place. The title of this work, exceedingly ſcarce even in Italy, an original edition of which is preſerved in the royal library at Gottingen, is as follows: Plictho's Art of Dying; which teaches how to give to Cloth, Linen, Cotton, and Silk, real and beautiful as well as falſe and common Dyes. Venice, 1548. 4to. This author was not acquainted either with indigo or cochineal; but he ſpeaks of Brazil wood, which he calls *verzino*, a name ſtill given to it in Italy, and from which the word *braſilis* has been derived. Thus Plictho was the firſt who exhibited this art in its full luſtre, and excited the French, Engliſh, and Germans, to apply in earneſt, in their different countries, to the improvement of ſo uſeful and extenſive a branch of manufacture.

In France, ſome progreſs towards this object had been already made by Giles Gobelin, who had learned from a German the art of dying ſcarlet; and wiſhing to eſtabliſh it in that country, he erected a dye-houſe, in the ſuburbs of Paris, on a ſmall ſtream called the *Bievre*. This undertaking was at firſt conſidered to be a work of ſo much difficulty, that no one believed he would be able to complete it, and for that reaſon his dye-houſe was called *La Folie Gobelin*, or Gobelin's Folly. Gobelin, however, continued his buſineſs; and ſcarlet dyed after his manner is to this day, in commerce, called *Gobelin's ſcarlet*. Notwithſtanding this, dying continued in a very imperfect ſtate until Colbert, the great miniſter of Louis XIV. in 1669, undertook its improvement. With this view he examined the eſtabliſhment and defects of the French dyers; and M. d'Albo, at his deſire, compoſed a ſet of regulations reſpecting dying, which were publiſhed at Paris in 1669, and 1672. The introduction to this book contains a proof of Colbert's regard for this art:—"If the ſilk, woollen, and linen manufactories, (ſays he,) are thoſe which contribute moſt to the ſupport and advancement of trade and commerce, dying, which ſupplies that variety of colours by which the moſt beautiful things in nature are imitated, may be conſidered as the ſoul of it, without which the body would be animated only by feeble life. Wool and ſilk in their natural colours, formerly raw articles of little value, now find ſale in the country, when they have received from the dyer thoſe attractions which render them valuable and agreeable to the moſt ſavage nations." About this time the dying ingredients brought to Europe from the newly diſcovered countries, eſpecially indigo and cochineal, began to be employed with great advantage. The Netherlanders, in particular, by means of them, produced more durable and livelier colours; for though they had begun, almoſt at the ſame time as the Italians, to apply to the art of dying with great zeal, and to take advantage of the troubles in the eaſt, they had never been ſo fortunate, notwithſtanding all their exertions, as to make any great progreſs in it. At laſt a Flemiſh painter named Peter Kloeck, who, during his long travels in various parts of the eaſt, had learned the art of giving the moſt beautiful colours to ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, as well as of dying ſcarlet, returned to his own country, and excited as much attention by his method as Gobelin had done at Paris.

Dying ſeems alſo to have been practiſed in England at a very early period; for in the fourteenth century Edward III. brought a great many dyers from Flanders. Under Edward IV. dyers were ſo numerous in London, that in 1472 they were firſt eſtabliſhed into a company. After the diſcovery of America, the new dye-ſtuffs began to be uſed alſo in England; but here people were at firſt ſo miſtruſtful of them, that under queen Elizabeth dying with indigo was not only limited, but the uſe of logwood was entirely prohibited, and it was burnt wherever it was found. This prohibition was afterwards repealed, and annulled under Charles II. in 1661. But, notwithſtanding the attention thus paid to dying by the government, it remained in a languiſhing ſtate till the year 1643, when a German, named Kephler, firſt brought to England his new method of dying ſcarlet; and becauſe he eſtabliſhed a dye-houſe at the village of Bow, the ſcarlet he dyed was called the *Bow dye*. At length a Fleming, named Brauer, who in 1667 came to England with his whole family, brought the art of dying woollen cloth to ſuch perfection here, that it has ever ſince retained its acknowledged reputation, and to this day challenges a ſuperiority in every foreign market.

APPARATUS OF THE DYE-HOUSE.

The moſt commodious ſituation for a dye-houſe is on the ſide of a running ſtream, with a floor made of a mixture of lime and cement, inclining towards the ſtream, that all waſhings, rincings, filth, and waſte water, may ſpeedily run off. The principal veſſels are the vats, which in large manufactories are various; ſuch as the woad vat, the indigo vat, the paſtel vat, &c. The woad vat is uſually from ten to twelve feet in diameter, and ſix or ſeven feet high; they are made of ſtaves ſix inches broad, and two inches thick; are bound with iron hoops about two or three feet aſunder, and are ſunk in the ground, for the conveniency of managing their contents; which is done by means of hooks faſtened to the end of a ſtaff, of a proper length, according to the diameter of the vat. The bottom of theſe veſſels is made with lime and cement; but this however is not eſſential, and is practiſed only where it would be difficult to make a wooden bottom ſtrong enough to ſupport the contents of ſo large a veſſel. For dying wool or ſtuff, there is ſuſpended within the veſſel an iron hoop, with a net faſtened to it, the meſhes

about

about an inch ſquare. This is called a *croſs*, and is uſed to prevent the wool or ſtuff from falling and mixing with the grounds at the bottom. Another utenſil called a *rake*, is made of a ſtrong ſemicircular piece of wood, with a long handle, and is uſed for ſtirring the vat; that is, for mixing the grounds with the liquor, and for raiſing the ſediment from the bottom. It is alſo uſed for daſhing or plunging the vat, that is, to puſh the ſurface quick and forcibly towards the bottom, which by introducing the air, forms little bubbles, or a kind of froth, by which the ſtate of the mixture or dye is to be judged of previous to the operation.

The indigo vat is generally five feet high, and at the top two feet in diameter. It grows narrower downwards, and meaſures only eight or ten inches at the bottom. It is ſunk a foot or a foot and a half in the floor, for the conveniency of working. There is a cylindrical wall built round it, as high as the vat, upon which the edge of the vat is ſupported. This wall being perpendicular, and quite ſtraight at the inſide, conſequently cylindrical, and the vat which it ſurrounds being of a conic form, it is evident there muſt be a ſpace at the bottom. In this ſpace the coal and cinders, requiſite for keeping the vat properly heated, are depoſited, and for this purpoſe there is a little door or opening to put in the coal which is puſhed all round the vat, to preſerve, as much as poſſible, an equable degree of heat. The indigo immediately falls to the bottom; but by this method of ſetting the vat, the fire is conſtantly above the indigo, ſo that it can neither burn, nor loſe any of its quality. The ſame precaution ſhould be obſerved with regard to the Dutch paſtel vats. As the fire muſt not be extinguiſhed too ſuddenly, there is fixed an iron or ſtone funnel where the coal is depoſited, reaching from the bottom to the top of the vat. This funnel, for the greater conveniency, ſhould be carried along the wall, againſt which the vat is commonly ſupported. For ſtirring the liquor of this vat, there is a rake, of a ſmaller ſize than that uſed for the paſtel vat. It may alſo be uſed with or without a croſs, ſimilar to that above mentioned. The paſtel vats are managed preciſely in the ſame manner.

Beſides the vats, there is a ſeries of boilers or coppers, of different ſizes, according to the quantity of work that is intended to be performed. They may be made either of copper or braſs; but the copper is preferable, being leſs apt to ſpot where it touches, or when the wool or ſtuff is ſuffered to remain in it for any length of time. It is alſo adviſeable to have a pewter veſſel for ſcarlet, becauſe in pewter, the worſted or ſtuffs never ſpot, whereas the contrary is much to be dreaded from a copper boiler. The dyers who make uſe of the latter for ſcarlet, take care to have a net of cords, or an open wicker baſket, in the inſide, to prevent the ſtuffs from touching the copper. The diameter of the net or baſket, being much ſmaller than the diameter of the cauldron, there conſequently remains a conſiderable diſtance between them. But notwithſtanding all theſe precautions, many are of opinion, that ſcarlet dyed in copper, is neither ſo bright nor ſo lively as when dyed in a pewter veſſel. Theſe coppers ſhould be fixed contiguous to each other, and, as nearly as poſſible, of the ſame height, ſo that the deepeſt veſſel ſhould be ſunk the loweſt. They ſhould be ſurrounded by a wall made of brick and clay, the outſide of which ſhould have a coat of plaſter; and, to preſerve the whole, the wall ſhould be coped with wheel-felloes, held together by iron cramps. The flat edge of the cauldron ſhould be nailed to the felloes with braſs nails, becauſe iron nails would ſpot the ſtuffs. Theſe felloes ſerve alſo to prevent the water, when it boils over, from carrying dirt into the copper. For the ſame reaſon a plank ſhould be fixt between the coppers, that, when two are employed at the ſame time, the liquor of the one may not fall into the other. But this caution will be needleſs where there is room enough to place the coppers at a tolerable diſtance from each other. Theſe cauldrons are heated underneath; and for the greater conveniency, the hearths of all the coppers, as well as the flues, are incloſed under the ſame chimney. The flues are openings, by which the ſmoke and part of the flame is carried off; the ſize of theſe openings, that of the hearth, and the depth of the furnace (viz. the diſtance of the bottom of the copper from the hearth where the fire is made), are determined by the ſize of the coppers; but the mantle-piece of the chimney ſhould always cover every opening, and ſhould project to the edge of the copper, in order to receive all the ſmoke, ſo that none may remain in the dye-houſe.

For the purpoſe of dying a whole piece of ſtuff, or ſeveral pieces at a time, a winch is made uſe of. This is a wooden axis with a handle, upon which axis are faſtened, four flat pieces of wood, at equal diſtances. This machine is turned with the hand, reſting the two extremes of its axis on two iron forks, fixed into holes in the wooden felloes by which the edge of the copper is ſupported. The piece to be dyed is rolled round this winch or reel, and when the whole is wound on, it is to be turned the contrary way, rolling off the ſtuff, into the copper or vat, till the whole is dyed as even as poſſible. If there are many pieces to dye of the ſame colour, the ends are ſewed together, and the reel is put through the middle, and turned as above-mentioned. To dye wool before it be ſpun, there is a kind of wooden ladder, or barrow, very broad, and as long as the diameter of the copper. The croſs-bars of this utenſil ſhould be very near each other. On this barrow, placed upon the copper, the wool is put, in order to drain, or to change the liquor. It were needleſs to mention the neceſſity of keeping this barrow and reel very clean. The ſame attention muſt be obſerved with regard to the coppers, and to all the different utenſils uſed in the art of dying; for without this attention the work will be conſtantly ſoiled, and the brightneſs of the colour tarniſhed.

A dye-houſe was erected in the year 1800, by Meſſrs. Gott and company at Leeds, on a noble and much improved plan, which not only reflects the higheſt reputation on the profeſſional abilities of the proprietors, but does honour to the age and country in which we live. In this extenſive manufactory the coppers are very numerous, and of different ſizes; and as theſe veſſels, ſome of which are very large, are diſtributed promiſcuouſly about, apparently without any order in their arrangement, in two ſpacious rooms, (each copper appearing to be inſulated, and to have no connection whatever with the others,) all of them together form a very ſtriking appearance. The rooms are paved with flat ſtones, and the brims of all the coppers, great and ſmall, are placed at the ſame height, about three feet, above the pavement. Some of theſe coppers contain upwards of 1800 gallons; and they are all heated by ſteam from only one ſteam-boiler, which is ſituated in a corner of one of the rooms. The horizontal tubes, which ſerve to conduct the ſteam from the ſteam-boiler to the coppers, are ſuſpended juſt below the ceiling of the rooms: they are made, ſome of lead, and ſome of caſt iron, and are from four to five inches in diameter. The vertical ſteam-tubes, by which the ſteam paſſes down from the horizontal ſteam-conductors into the coppers, are all conſtructed of lead, and are from three quarters of an inch to two inches and a half in diameter; being made larger or ſmaller according to the ſizes of the coppers to which they belong. Theſe ſteam-tubes all paſs down on the outſides of their coppers, and enter them horizontally at the level of their bottoms. Each copper is furniſhed with a braſs cock for letting off its contents; and it is filled with water from a ciſtern at a diſtance, which is brought to it by a leaden pipe. The coppers are all ſurrounded by thin circular brick walls, which ſerve not only to ſupport the coppers, but alſo to confine the heat. The rapidity with which theſe coppers may be heated, by means of ſteam, is truly aſtoniſhing. One of the largeſt of them, containing upwards

wards of 1800 gallons, when filled with cold water from the ciſtern, requires no more than half an hour to heat it till it actually boils! By the greateſt fire that could be made under ſuch a copper, with coals, it would hardly be poſſible to make it boil in leſs than an hour. It is eaſy to perceive that the ſaving of time which reſults from the adoption of this new mode of applying heat, will be very great; and it is likewiſe evident that it may be increaſed, almoſt without limitation, merely by augmenting the diameter of the ſteam-tube; care being taken that the boiler be ſufficiently large to furniſh the quantities of ſteam required. The ſaving of fuel is alſo very conſiderable; for, from the beſt calculation, it amounts to near two-thirds of the quantity expended, when each copper was heated by a ſeparate fire. But theſe ſavings are far from being the only advantages derived from the introduction of theſe improvements in the management of heat: there is one, of great importance indeed, which alone muſt be ſufficient to recommend the general adoption of them. As the heat communicated by ſteam can never exceed the mean temperature of boiling water by more than a very few degrees, the ſubſtances expoſed to it can never be injured by it, as is too often the caſe in manufactories where coal only is uſed.

On the PERMANENCY of DYED COLOURS.

No object in the art of dying is perhaps of ſo much importance as the *permanence* or *duration* of colour; for of what avail are the moſt beautiful tints, whether communicated to wool, ſilk, cotton, or linen, or ever ſo elegantly diverſified in figured calicoes, if thoſe tints are fugitive, and liable to fade or vaniſh by mere expoſure to light and air? It is therefore highly expedient to inveſtigate the nature and quality of all colouring matters, and of every material employed in the operation of dying, before they are committed to the vat. Theſe colouring matters are commonly called *dye-ſtuffs*, are extracted from animal, vegetable, and mineral, ſubſtances, and are found to poſſeſs very peculiar chemical properties; for beſides their ſeveral affinities with particular rays of light, they have others which render them ſuſceptible of being acted upon, and modified by a variety of chemical agents. But in reſpect of theſe affinities, colouring matters alſo differ eſſentially from each other, and muſt therefore be applied in different ways, and with very different means, to produce permanent colours on all occaſions. The art of dying is founded upon a knowledge of the particular properties and affinities of theſe matters, not only as far as they relate to the ſubſtances intended to be dyed, but alſo as far as they are connected with the operations of other agents, by which they are liable to be acted upon either during the proceſs of dying, or afterwards. Many ſpecies of animal and vegetable colouring matters ſuffer nearly ſimilar changes from the action of acids, alkalies, and other chemical agents; from which it may be preſumed, that there is ſomething of a common or ſimilar nature in the conſtitution of many of them. But though it would be highly uſeful to eſtabliſh general principles and concluſions on this ſubject, we are not yet furniſhed with the neceſſary information requiſite for ſuch a purpoſe.

Sir Iſaac Newton ſuppoſed coloured matters to reflect the rays of light; ſome bodies reflecting the more, others the leſs, refrangible rays moſt copiouſly; and this he conceived to be the true, and the only reaſon of their colours. See the article Colour, vol. iv. p. 789. Mr. Delaval, however, has maintained, in the ſecond volume of the Memoirs of the Philoſophical and Literary Society of Manchester, "that, in tranſparent coloured ſubſtances, the colouring matter does not reflect any light; and that when, by intercepting the light which was tranſmitted, it is hindered from paſſing through ſubſtances, they do not vary from their former colour to any other colour, but become entirely black:" and he inſtances a conſiderable number of coloured liquors, none of them endued with reflective powers, which, when ſeen by tranſmitted light, appeared ſeverally in their true colours; but all of them, when ſeen by incident light, appeared black: which is alſo the caſe of black cherries, black currants, black berries, &c. the juices of which appear red when ſpread on a white ground, or otherwiſe viewed by tranſmitted, inſtead of incident, light; and he concludes, that bleached linen, &c. "when dyed or painted with vegetable colours, do not differ in their manner of acting on the rays of light, from natural vegetable bodies; both yielding their colours by tranſmitting through the tranſparent coloured matter the light which is reflected from the white ground:" it being apparent, from different experiments, "that no reflective power reſides in any of their component parts, except in their white matter only," and that "tranſparent coloured ſubſtances, placed in ſituations by which the tranſmiſſion of light through them is intercepted, exhibit no colour, but become entirely black." If the cloth be black, it is clear that we cannot dye it any colour whatever; becauſe, as no light is in that caſe reflected, none can be tranſmitted, whatever dye-ſtuff we employ. If the cloth were red, or blue, or yellow, we could not dye it any colour except black; becauſe, as only red, or blue, or yellow, rays are reflected, no other could be tranſmitted. The art of dying, therefore, according to Mr. Delaval, conſiſts principally in covering white ſubſtances, from which light is ſtrongly reflected, with tranſparent coloured media, which, according to their ſeveral colours, tranſmit more or leſs copiouſly the ſeveral rays reflected from the white ſubſtances, ſince the tranſparent media themſelves reflect no light; and it is evident that if they yielded their colours by reflecting, inſtead of tranſmitting the rays, the whiteneſs, or colour of the ground on which they are applied, would not in any wiſe alter or affect the colours which they exhibit. For a complete view of this doctrine of light and colours, ſee the article Chromatics, vol. iv. p. 528, &c.

Such is undoubtedly the fact, ſo far as relates to tranſparent colouring matters, when applied to wool, ſilk, &c. *without* the interpoſition of any earthy or metallic baſis or mordant. But when any ſuch opake baſis is interpoſed, the reflection is doubtleſs made by it, rather than by the ſubſtance of the dyed wool, ſilk, &c. and more eſpecially when the baſis or mordant conſiſts of the white earth of alum, or the white oxyd of tin; which by their ſtrong reflective powers greatly augment the luſtre of colours. There are, moreover, ſome opake colouring matters, particularly the acetous and other ſolutions of iron, uſed to ſtain linen, cotton, &c. which muſt neceſſarily themſelves reflect, inſtead of tranſmitting the light by which their colours are made perceptible.

When the rays of light are ſeparated from each other by the priſm, in conſequence of their different degrees of refrangibility, they produce a perception of ſeven diſtinct colours, with their intermediate ſhades; which are all equally ſimple and primitive. There is, however, this peculiar property belonging to the red, yellow, and blue, colours, whether priſmatic or permanent; that they are incapable of being produced, like all the reſt, by the combination of any other colours. Blue and red will compoſe a purple; blue and yellow, a green; red and yellow, an orange, &c. but none of theſe, by any artifice or compoſition, will produce either the blue, yellow, or red: theſe laſt, therefore, are in all caſes ſimple or uncompounded; but all the others may be, and in reality are, ſometimes ſimple, and ſometimes compounded; not only thoſe which are merely priſmatic colours, but thoſe which exiſt naturally in bodies, or are communicated by painting, dying, &c. Iron, as has been already mentioned, will, by different degrees of oxydation, produce all poſſible varieties of colour; and theſe colours will be all ſimple or uncompounded; and ſo will the purple of gold, the green of copper, and the other colours found in the ſeveral oxyds of metals. This is alſo the caſe of the violet and purple dyed from logwood; of the green co-

louring matter of the leaves, flowers, &c. of vegetables; of the green inner bark of elder, the green juice of the berries of the rhamnus catharticus, and of the orange dyed from the quercitron bark. And among animal colours, numerous inſtances may be alleged of ſimple or uncompounded greens, oranges, purples, and violets: even the liquor of the purpura, from which the Tyrian purple was produced, paſſes quickly through all the ſhades of yellow, green, violet, and purple, upon being expoſed to the ſun in atmoſpheric air; and theſe muſt neceſſarily be deemed ſimple, not compound colours. but on the other hand, dyers, painters, &c. daily produce, orange, green, purple, and violet, by mixtures of the blue, yellow, and red.

The colouring matter with which cloth is dyed, does not cover every portion of its ſurface; but its particles attach themſelves to the cloth at certain diſtances from each other: for cloth is dyed different ſhades of the ſame colour, lighter or darker, merely by varying the quantity of colouring matter. With a ſmall quantity the ſhade is light; and it becomes deeper as the quantity is increaſed. Now this would be impoſſible, if the dye-ſtuff covered the whole of the cloth. Newton has demonſtrated, that colours are rendered faint when the rays of light which occaſion them are mixed with white rays. Conſequently, from cloth dyed of a light ſhade, a conſiderable quantity of white rays paſſes off unchanged: but this could not be the caſe if the ſtuff were covered with coloured matter; becauſe all the white rays would be decompoſed as they paſs through the coloured matter. Therefore, in light ſhades, the colouring matter does not cover the cloth; its particles adhere to it, at certain diſtances from each other; and from every part of the cloth which is uncovered, the white rays paſs off unchanged. Even when the ſhade of colour is as deep as poſſible, the colouring particles do not cover the whole of the cloth, but are at a certain diſtance from each other. This diſtance, undoubtedly, is diminiſhed in proportion to the deepneſs of the ſhade: for the deeper the ſhade, the ſmaller is the number of white rays which eſcape undecompoſed; the more, therefore, of the ſurface is covered, the ſmaller is the diſtance at which each of them is placed. A ſhade may be even conceived ſo very deep, that not a particle of white light eſcapes the action of the colouring matter; in which caſe, the diſtance between the particles of colouring matter could not exceed double that diſtance at which a particle of matter is able to act upon light.

That the particles of colouring matter, even when the ſhade is deep, are at ſome diſtance, is evident from this well-known fact; that cloth may be dyed two colours at the ſame time. All thoſe colours to which the dyers give the name of *compound*, are in fact two different colours applied to the cloth at once. Thus cloth gets a green colour, by being firſt dyed blue, and then yellow. The rays of light that paſs from green cloth thus dyed are blue and yellow; by the mixture of which it is well known that green is produced. In this caſe it is clear, that each of the colouring matters performs the very ſame office as if it were alone; and that the new colour is not produced by the combination of the two colouring matters. That part of the white light, reflected from the cloth, which paſſes through the blue colouring matter, is decompoſed, and the blue rays only tranſmitted; and that part of the white light which paſſes through the yellow colouring matter is alſo decompoſed, and only the yellow rays tranſmitted. It is clear, therefore, that both of the colouring matters equally cover the naked fibres of the cloth; conſequently the one muſt be placed in the intervals of the other: wherefore the particles of each of the colouring matters are at ſome diſtance. Now the ſame effect happens how deep ſoever the ſhade be; and it makes no difference which of the two dyes be firſt given. Nay, if one of the dyes have a ſtrong affinity for the cloth, and the other only a weak affinity, the latter will ſoon diſappear, and leave the cloth of the colour which the firſt dye gives it. The difference, then, in the ſhades of colour, and alſo the compound colours which cloth may receive, depend entirely upon the diſtance between the particles of the colouring matters attached to the cloth, and the poſſibility of partly filling up the intervals, either with the ſame colouring matter, or with a different one.

Several attempts have been made to arrange and claſs the different ſpecies of colouring matters employed for dying and callico printing; but none ſeems to accord with, or give any juſt ideas of, their ſeveral natures and properties. Mr. Berthollet, indeed, alleges many reaſons for not dividing theſe matters, as Mr. Macquer did, into extractive and reſinous, and alſo for not making their effects depend, as Mr. Pœrner has done, upon the mucilaginous, earthy, ſaline, reſinous, or oily, parts, of which they were ſuppoſed to be compounded; yet without propoſing any ſuitable arrangement of his own: nor does it appear at all neceſſary, ſince the colouring matters fall of their own accord under two general and diſtinct claſſes; the firſt including thoſe colouring matters which, when put into a ſtate of ſolution, may be permanently fixed, and made fully to exhibit their colours in or upon the dyed ſubſtance, *without* the interpoſition of any earthy or metallic baſis or mordant; and the ſecond, comprehending all thoſe colouring matters which are *incapable* of being fixed, and made to diſplay their proper colours without the *mediation* of ſome ſuch baſis or mordant. The firſt claſs, indeed, appears to conſiſt of very few articles; ſince it is much to be queſtioned whether any other dye-ſtuff at preſent known, except the liquor of the purpura and ſome other ſhell-fiſh, the genuine indigo, and paſtel or woad, will communicate a *permanent* dye to any kind of material, without the aid or action of ſome chemical baſe. Every other colouring matter beſide the above, muſt therefore rank in the ſecond claſs, and be conſidered as fugitive colours. Hence the technical phraſes adopted in the dye-houſe, of *great*, and *little*, dye. That compounded of the firſt claſs of colouring matters is called the great or *permanent* dye; and colours communicated by it are ſaid to be *faſt*, or in *grain*. That compounded from the ſecond claſs, without the agency of a chemical baſe, is termed the little or *falſe* dye: a prohibition of which, by the interference of the legiſlature, might anſwer a very deſirable purpoſe, by preventing the frauds and impoſitions of thoſe who ſell piece-goods manufactured with the *falſe* dye, for that of the permanent. This evil calls the more loudly for a remedy, becauſe, ſince the diſcovery of ſo many effectual chemical baſes or mordants, there ſeems now to be ſcarcely any colour, either ſimple or compound, but what may be rendered *permanent* through their agency: the moſt important part of dying ſeems therefore to depend on a complete knowledge and judicious application of theſe baſes.

Of MORDANTS.

All thoſe earthy and metallic ſubſtances uſually employed in a ſtate of ſolution or combination with acids, were, from that circumſtance, called by the French dyers, *mordants*, i. e. biters or corroders; and from them the term has been adopted in other countries. Some modern writers, however, prefer the term baſe, or *baſis*; whilſt others indiſcriminately make uſe of both. Almoſt the only ſubſtances uſed as mordants are, earths and metallic oxyds. Of earthy mordants, by far the moſt important and moſt generally uſed is alumina. It was uſed as a mordant in very early ages, and ſeems indeed to have been the very firſt ſubſtance employed for that purpoſe. Alumina has a very ſtrong affinity for wool and for ſilk; but its affinity for cotton and linen is a good deal weaker. It is uſed as a mordant in two ſtates; either in the ſtate of alum, in which it is combined with

ſulphuric acid and a little potaſh; or in the ſtate of acetite of alumina, in which it is combined with acetous acid. Acetite of alumina has only been introduced into dying ſince the commencement of the eighteenth century. This mordant is now prepared, by pouring acetite of lead into a ſolution of alum: a double decompoſition takes place, the ſulphuric acid combines with the lead, and the compound precipitates in the form of an inſoluble powder; while the alumina combines with the acetous acid, and remains diſſolved in the liquid. This mordant is employed for cotton and linen, which have a weaker affinity than wool for alumina. It anſwers much better than alum, the cloth is more eaſily ſaturated with alumina, and takes, in conſequence, both a richer and a more permanent colour. Beſides alumina, lime is ſometimes uſed as a mordant. Cloth has a ſtrong affinity for it; but in general it does not anſwer ſo well, as it does not give ſo good a colour. It is uſed either in the ſtate of lime-water, or of ſulphat of lime diſſolved in water.

Almoſt all the metallic oxyds have a ſtrong affinity for cloth; yet only two of them are extenſively uſed as mordants, namely, the oxyds of tin and of iron. The oxyd of tin has enabled modern dyers greatly to furpaſs the ancients in the fineneſs of their colours: by means of it alone, ſcarlet, the brighteſt of all colours, is produced. The method of producing the celebrated Tyrian purple dye is underſtood at preſent, and the ſhell-fiſh which yield the dye-ſtuff are found abundantly on the coaſts of Britain and France; but no perſon thinks of putting the ancient mode in practice, becauſe colours equally beautiful can be produced at a ſmaller price. This is owing to the employment of the oxyd of tin, which is uſed as a mordant in three ſtates; diſſolved in nitro-muriatic acid, in acetous acid, and in a mixture of ſulphuric and muriatic acids. Nitro-muriat of tin is the common mordant employed by dyers. They prepare it by diſſolving tin in diluted nitric acid, to which a certain proportion of muriat of ſoda, or of ammonia, is added. Part of the nitric acid decompoſes theſe ſalts, combines with their baſe, and fets the muriatic acid at liberty. They prepared it at firſt with nitric acid alone; but that mode was very defective; becauſe the nitric acid very readily converts tin to white oxyd, and then is incapable of diſſolving it. The conſequence of which was, the precipitation of the whole of the tin. To remedy this defect, common ſalt, or ſal ammoniac, was very ſoon added; muriatic acid having the property of diſſolving white oxyd of tin very readily. A conſiderable ſaving of nitric acid might be obtained, by employing as much ſulphuric acid as is juſt ſufficient to ſaturate the baſe of the common ſalt, or ſal ammoniac, employed. When the nitro-muriat of tin is to be uſed as a mordant, it is diſſolved in a large quantity of water, and the cloth is dipped in the ſolution, and allowed to remain till ſufficiently ſaturated. It is then taken out, and waſhed and dried. Tartar is uſually diſſolved in the water along with the nitro-muriat. The conſequence of this is a double decompoſition; the nitro-muriatic acid combines with the potaſh of the tartar, while the tartarous acid diſſolves the oxyd of tin. When tartar is uſed, therefore, in any conſiderable quantity, the mordant is not a nitro-muriat, but a tartrite of tin.

Mr. Hauſſman, to whom the art of dying lies under numerous obligations, has propoſed to ſubſtitute acetit of tin for nitro-muriat as a mordant for cotton and linen. It may be prepared by mixing together acetit of lead and nitro-muriat of tin. This mordant is preferable for theſe ſtuffs; becauſe it is much more eaſily decompoſed than the nitro-muriat. Dr. Bancroft has propoſed to ſubſtitute a ſolution of tin in a mixture of ſulphuric and muriatic acid, inſtead of nitro-muriat of tin, as a mordant for wool. This mordant, he informs us, is much cheaper, and equally efficacious. It may be prepared by diſſolving ſomewhat leſs than one part of tin in two parts of ſulphuric and three of muriatic acid, at the degree of concentration at which they are commonly ſold in this country. This mordant, like the others, muſt be diſſolved in a ſufficient quantity of water, in order to be uſed.

Iron, like tin, is capable of two degrees of oxydation; but the green oxyd abſorbs oxygen ſo readily from the atmoſphere, that it is very ſoon converted into the red oxyd. It is only the red oxyd which is really uſed as a mordant in dying. The green oxyd is, indeed, ſometimes applied to cloth; but it very ſoon abſorbs oxygen, and is converted into the red oxyd. This has a very ſtrong affinity for all kinds of cloth. The permanency of the iron ſpots or moulds on linen and cotton is a ſufficient proof of this. As a mordant, it is uſed in two ſtates; in that of ſulphat of iron, and acetit of iron. The firſt is commonly uſed for wool. The ſalt is diſſolved in water, and the cloth dipped in it. It may be uſed alſo for cotton; but in moſt caſes acetit of iron is preferred. It is prepared by diſſolving iron, or its oxyd, in vinegar, ſour beer, &c. and the longer it is kept, the more is it preferred. The reaſon is, that this mordant ſucceeds beſt when the iron is in the ſtate of red oxyd. It would be better then to oxydate the iron, or convert it into ruſt, before uſing it; which might eaſily be done, by keeping it for ſome time in a moiſt place, and ſprinkling it occaſionally with water. Of late, pyrolignous acid has been introduced inſtead of acetous. It is obtained by diſtilling wood or tar.

That ſpecies of mordant called the *aſtringent principle*, is derived from tan or nut-galls. It has a very ſtrong affinity for cloth, and for ſeveral colouring matters: it is therefore very frequently employed. An infuſion of nut galls, or of ſumach, or any other ſubſtance containing tan, is made in water, and the cloth is dipped in this infuſion, and allowed to remain till it has abſorbed a ſufficient quantity of tan. The French dyers call this operation *engallage*. Silk is capable of abſorbing a very great proportion of tan, and by that means acquires a very great increaſe of weight. Manufacturers ſometimes employ this method of increaſing the weight of ſilk. Tan is often employed alſo, along with other mordants, in order to produce a compound mordant. Oil is alſo uſed for the ſame purpoſe in the dying of cotton and linen. The mordants, with which tan moſt frequently is combined, are alumina and oxyd of iron. Beſides theſe mordants, there are ſeveral other ſubſtances frequently uſed as auxiliaries, either to facilitate the combination of the mordant with the cloth, or to alter the ſhade of colour. The chief of theſe are, tartar, acetit of lead, common ſalt, ſal ammoniac, ſulphat, or acetit of copper, &c.

Mordants not only render the dye permanent, but have alſo conſiderable influence on the colour produced. The ſame colouring matter produces very different dyes, according as the mordant is varied. Suppoſe, for inſtance, that the colouring matter be cochineal; if we uſe the aluminous mordant, the cloth will acquire a crimſon colour; but the oxyd of iron produces with it a black. Theſe changes, indeed, might naturally have been expected: for ſince the colour of a dye ſtuff depends upon its affinity for light, every new combination into which it enters, having a tendency to alter theſe affinities, will naturally give it a new colour. Now, in all caſes, the colouring matter and mordant combine together: the colour of the cloth, then, muſt be that which the particles of the dye and of the mordant, when thus combined together, exhibit. Indeed ſome mordants may be conſidered in the light of colouring matters alſo, as they always communicate a particular colour to cloth. Thus, iron communicates a brown colour, and iron and tan together conſtitute a black. In dying, then, it is not only neceſſary to procure a mordant, which has a ſufficiently ſtrong affinity for the colouring matter and the cloth, and a colouring matter which poſſeſſes the

wiſhed-for colour in perfection, we muſt procure a mordant and a colouring matter of ſuch a nature, that when combined together they ſhall poſſeſs the wiſhed-for colour in perfection. It is evident, too, that a great variety of colours may be produced with a ſingle dye ſtuff, provided we can change the mordant ſufficiently.

Every thing which tends to weaken the affinity between the mordant and the cloth, or between the mordant and the colouring matter, and every thing which tends in any way to alter the nature of the mordant, muſt injure the permanency of the dye: becauſe, whenever the mordant is deſtroyed, there is no longer any thing to cauſe the dye ſtuff to adhere; and when its nature is altered, the colour of the dye muſt alter at the ſame time. All the obſervations, then, which can be made, concerning the nature of colouring matters, and the changes to which they are ſubject, apply equally to mordants. Theſe ſubſtances, indeed, are ſcarcely liable themſelves to any alteration. They are of a much more ſimple nature, in general, than dye-ſtuffs; and therefore not nearly ſo liable to decompoſition. But when the colouring matter itſelf is altered, it comes to the ſame thing: its affinity for the mordant being now deſtroyed, there is nothing to retain it. As the permanency of a dye depends upon the degree of affinity between the mordant and the colouring matter, it is clear that a dye may want permanency, even though it reſiſt the oxy-muriatic acid, and all the other ſaline teſts propoſed by chemiſts. Theſe ſubſtances may happen to have very little action on the dye ſtuff, and therefore may not affect it; yet it may ſoon diſappear, in conſequence of its want of affinity for the mordant.

A very ingenious abſtract of this theory is given by Berthollet: According to the attraction which the colouring particles have for wool, ſilk, cotton, and linen, they unite more or leſs readily, and more or leſs intimately with each of thoſe ſubſtances; and thence ariſes the firſt cauſe of variation in the proceſſes employed, according to the nature of the ſtuff, and of the colouring ſubſtance. By the attraction which the colouring particles have for argillaceous earth and metallic calces, they form compounds with theſe ſubſtances, in which their colour is more or leſs modified, becomes more fixed, and more difficultly affected by external agents, than before. This compound being formed of principles, which have ſeparately the power of uniting with vegetable ſubſtances, and more eſpecially with animal ſubſtances, preſerves this property, and forms a triple compound with the ſtuff; and the colour which has been again modified by the formation of this triple union, acquires a greater degree of fixity, and of indeſtructibility, by external agents. The colouring particles have frequently ſo great an attraction for clay and metallic calces, that they ſeparate them from acids which held them in ſolution, and fall down with them; but the attraction of the ſtuff is ſometimes neceſſary, in order to produce this ſeparation. The metallic calces which combine with the colouring particles, modify their colours, not only by their own, but alſo by acting upon their compoſition by means of their vital air. The change which the colouring particles thereby ſuffer, is ſimilar to that occaſioned by the air, which injures all colours more or leſs. Of the two principles which compoſe the air of the atmoſphere, it is only the vital air, or oxygenous gas, which acts upon the colouring particles: it combines with them, weakens their colour, and renders it paler; but its action is principally exerted on the hydrogen, or inflammable air, which enters into their compoſition, and it then forms water. This effect ought to be conſidered as a true combuſtion, whereby the charcoal which enters into the compoſition of the colouring particles becomes predominant, and the colour commonly changes to yellow, fawn colour, or brown; or the injured part, by uniting with what remains of the original colour, produces other appearances. Light favours the combination of the colouring particles, which frequently cannot take place without its aid; and it is thus that it contributes to the deſtruction of colours. Heat promotes it alſo, but leſs powerfully than light, unleſs it has a certain degree of intenſity. To a ſimilar combuſtion are to be attributed the effects of the pale nitrous acid, of the oxygenated or aerated muriatic acid, and even of the ſulphuric acid, when they make the colour of the ſubſtances upon which they act paſs to a yellow, and even to a black. The effects of combuſtion may however be concealed by the vital air combining with the colouring particles, without acting particularly on the inflammable air. Colours are therefore more or leſs permanent, or more or leſs fixed, according to the greater or leſs diſpoſition of the colouring particles to undergo combuſtion, and to allow it to go on to a more or leſs advanced ſtage. Some ſubſtances are alſo capable of acting on the colour of ſtuffs by a ſuperiority of attraction, or by a ſolvent power; and in this conſiſts the action of acids, alkalis, and ſoap. A ſmall quantity of theſe agents, however, may ſometimes form ſupra-compounds with the ſtuff, and thereby change its colour. Metallic calces produce, in the colouring particles with which they unite, a degree of combuſtion, proportioned to the quantity of vital air which can be taken from them by theſe particles. The colours which the compounds of metallic calces and colouring particles aſſume, then, are the product of the colour peculiar to the colouring particles, and of that peculiar to the metallic calx; but the colouring particles and metallic calces muſt be conſidered in that ſtate to which they have been reduced by the diminution of vital air in the calx, and the diminution of hydrogen in the colouring particles.

Hence it follows: Firſt, That the metallic calces to which the vital air is only ſlightly attached, are not fit to ſerve as connecting mediums for the colouring particles, becauſe they produce in them too great a degree of combuſtion; ſuch are the calces of ſilver, gold, and mercury. Second, That the calces which undergo conſiderable changes of colour, by giving off more or leſs of their vital air, are alſo bad intermediums, eſpecially for light ſhades, becauſe they produce changeable colours; ſuch are the calces of copper, of lead, and of biſmuth. Third, That the calces which ſtrongly retain their vital air, and ſuffer very little change of colour by the loſs of a part of it, are beſt fitted to anſwer this purpoſe: ſuch is particularly the calx of tin, which quits its menſtruum eaſily, which has a ſtrong attraction for the colouring particles, and which affords them a baſis which is very white, and proper for giving a brightneſs to their ſhades, without altering them by the admixture of another colour. The calx of zinc poſſeſſes ſome of theſe qualities.

In order to account for the colours which reſult from the union of the colouring particles with the baſis which a mordant gives them, we muſt attend to the proportion in which the colouring particles unite to that baſis: thus the ſolution of tin, which produces a very copious precipitate with a ſolution of colouring particles, and thereby proves that the calx of tin enters in a large proportion into the precipitate, has a much greater influence on the colour of the precipitate, by the whiteneſs of its baſis, than the ſolution of zinc or that of alum, which generally produce much leſs copious precipitates. The precipitates produced by theſe two laſt ſubſtances retain very nearly the natural tint of the colouring particles. We muſt then diſtinguiſh, in the action of mordants, the combinations that may take place by their means between the colouring particles, the ſtuff, and the intermedium; the proportions of the colouring ſubſtance and intermedium; the modifications of colour, which may ariſe from the mixture of the colour of the colouring particles, and of that of the baſis to which they are united; and finally, the changes

which the colouring particles may ſuffer from the combuſtion that may be produced by the intermedium.

Aſtringents do not derive their characteriſtic property from an acid, or from any other individual principle which is always the ſame, but from the property which they poſſeſs of uniting with the calx of iron, of reducing it to the ſtate of black calx, and of acquiring themſelves a dark colour, by the combuſtion they undergo. Tan or galls, which are to be conſidered as the repreſentatives of all aſtringents, readily undergo a ſlight combuſtion, which gives them a deep brown colour; but this combuſtion, which requires but a ſmall quantity of vital air, ſoon ceaſes without injuring their properties. Galls owe their ſtability to the large proportion of charcoal they contain; and as they have the property of combining with ſome vegetable ſubſtances, with ſeveral colouring matters, and particularly with animal ſubſtances, they ſerve as intermedium for them, and impart to them their own firmneſs of colour. For more on the chemical properties of mordants, and for an explanation of the modern chemical terms in dying, ſee the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 148—343.

Of DYING WOOL, and WOOLLEN GOODS.

The value of wool, and its fitneſs for the different kinds of manufacture, depend on the length and fineneſs of its fibres. Theſe fibres poſſeſs a conſiderable degree of elaſticity, but are by no means ſmooth. Their external conformation appears to be made up either of ſmall lamina placed over each other, in a ſlanting direction, from the root towards the end or point of each fibre, like the ſcales of fiſh, lying one over the other, in ſucceſſion, from the head to the tail; or of zones, placed one upon another, as in the horns of animals; from which ſtructure each fibre, if drawn from its root towards the point, will paſs ſmoothly through the fingers; but if it be drawn in a contrary direction, from the point towards the root, a ſenſible reſiſtance, and tremulous motion, will be felt by the fingers. This conformation diſpoſes the fibres of wool to catch hold of each other, and as they cannot recede, when acted upon by other bodies, they naturally advance, by a progreſſive motion, towards and beſide each other, from the end towards the root: a diſpoſition which is very inconvenient to ſpinning, and therefore the wool is greaſed, that the aſperities ariſing from this ſtructure of its fibres may be thereby covered, or ſheathed, as a covering of oil ſheaths thoſe of a fine file. But the wool being manufactured, and the greaſe no longer uſeful, it is removed by ſcowering, not only for the ſake of cleanlineſs, but that it may not fruſtrate the proceſs of dying. The cloth is therefore carried to the fulling mill, and there ſubjected to the action of large beetles, with fullers earth and water, by which the cloth is not only ſcowered, but its fibres, in conſequence of the ſtructure juſt deſcribed, being made to conjoin, and advance toward and beſide each other, become ſhorter, and more cloſely connected, or felted together, the warp and woof loſing in extent, but gaining proportionably in thickneſs.

The lamina, or zones, above deſcribed, afford many interſtices in the fibres of wool, ſuited to receive and contain the particles of colouring matters, when applied to them in the operation of dying; but theſe interſtices being ſmall, and the fibres of the wool naturally elaſtic, no colour can be conveyed into theſe cavities, until they are diluted by hot or boiling water; whereas ſilk, cotton, and linen, are made to receive colours without heat, as permanently as with it. And this difference manifeſtly ariſes from the ſmallneſs of the interſtices in which the colouring particles are depoſited in wool, and the elaſticity of its fibres, which make it neceſſary to dilate them by hot or boiling water; and as the colouring particles are only made to enter and depoſit themſelves by an artificial dilatation, it follows that, when this ceaſes, the filaments will again contract to their former ſize, upon the colouring matters ſo introduced, and hold them much more ſtrongly than they are likely to be held in other ſubſtances whoſe interſtices are large enough to receive colouring particles without being dilated, and which, therefore, cannot be ſuppoſed ever to contract and compreſs them in the ſame way: and this difference, joined to the ſuperior chemical attraction of animal fibres for colouring matters, will ſufficiently explain why many colours dyed upon wool and hair, prove ſo much more durable than upon cotton or linen. Wool, as is well known, is the hair of ſheep, and differs from common hair merely in fineneſs and ſoftneſs. It is naturally covered with a kind of oil, which would obſtruct the proceſs of dying, and is therefore to be removed, by what is called ſcowering; an operation ſufficiently known. Wool, when dyed in the fleece, takes up much more colouring matter than when ſpun, and much more than when wove into cloth. It is alſo more or leſs penetrated, according to the fineneſs of its own texture, and the particular nature of the colouring matter with which it is dyed. The very coarſe wool taken from the thighs and tails of ſome rams and ſheep, being never made to receive colours without difficulty; and indeed the very fineſt cloth is never thoroughly dyed ſcarlet, it being always found white within when cut. Wool taken from different breeds of ſheep, in various countries, is naturally of different colours; as white, yellow, reddiſh, and black. Formerly all the flocks in Spain, excepting thoſe of Andaluſia, were of this laſt colour, it having been preferred for wearing by the native Spaniards; and this natural browniſh black is even at this time manufactured, and worn conſtantly by ſome religious orders in Roman Catholic countries. The white wool, however, is now almoſt univerſally preferred to every other, as being ſuſceptible of receiving better colours by dying, than any of thoſe which are natural. Manufactures of wool, though ſuperfluous to man in a ſtate of nature, ſeem to be, of all others, the moſt important in civilized ſociety.

Dyers uſually conſider five colours as *primary*, or *ſimple*, viz. blue, yellow, red, black, and brown; becauſe from theſe they form all their *compound* colours, and they are conſequently the foundation of all their other proceſſes.

OF BLUE.

The only colouring matters employed in dying blue are woad, and indigo: attempts, indeed, have been made to dye with pruſſiat of iron, but they have hitherto failed. The *iſatis tinctoria*, or woad, is a plant commonly cultivated in this kingdom, and even found wild in many parts of England. Some perſons think that it was this plant with which the ancient Britons ſtained their bodies, to make them appear terrible to their enemies. When arrived at maturity, this plant is cut down, waſhed, dried haſtily in the ſun, ground in a mill, placed in heaps, and allowed to ferment for a fortnight; then well mixed together, formed into balls, which are piled upon each other, and expoſed to the wind and ſun. When it has continued for a ſufficient time, the woad is allowed to fall to a coarſe powder; and in this ſtate it is ſold to the dyers. The ſtrongeſt kind of woad is called *paſtel*.

Indigo, is a blue, extracted from the *indigofera tinctoria*, and from ſeveral other ſpecies of the ſame genus of plants, which are cultivated in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. When the *indigofera* has arrived at maturity, it is cut a few inches above ground, placed in ſtrata in a large veſſel, and covered with water. The plants ſoon acquire heat, ferment, and diſcharge abundance of carbonic acid gas. When the fermentation is far enough advanced, the liquid, now of a green colour, is decanted into large flat veſſels, where it is conſtantly agitated till blue flocculæ begin to make their appearance. Lime water is now poured in, which cauſes the blue flocks to precipitate. The colourleſs liquid is decanted off, and the blue ſedi-

ment

ment poured into linen bags. When the water has drained from it ſufficiently, it is formed into ſmall lumps, and dried in the ſhade. In this ſtate it is ſold to the dyer under the name of *indigo*.

Dr. Roxburgh, who firſt drew the attention of manufacturers to the *nerium tinctorium*, a bay-tree very common in Hindooſtan, from the leaves of which indigo may be extracted, has given a very ſhort method of obtaining that pigment. The leaves are kept in a copper full of water, ſupported at the temperature of 160°, till they aſſume a yellowiſh hue, and the liquid acquire a deep green colour. The liquid is then to be drawn off, agitated in the uſual manner, till the blue flocculæ appear; and then the indigo is to be precipitated with lime water. This proceſs, which ſucceeds equally well with the indigofera, indicate that the plants, from which indigo may be extracted, contain a peculiar green pollen, ſoluble in water. The intention, both of the fermentation of the common method, and of the ſcalding, according to Dr. Roxburgh's method, is merely to extract this pollen. Mr. Hauſſman firſt ſhewed, that this green baſis of indigo has a ſtrong affinity for oxygen; and the ſubſequent experiments of Drs. Roxburgh and Bancroft have confirmed his obſervations, and put them beyond the reach of doubt. It gradually attracts oxygen from the air; in conſequence of which, it acquires a blue colour, and becomes inſoluble in water. The agitation is intended to facilitate this abſorption, by expoſing a greater ſurface to the action of the air. The lime water, by abſorbing a quantity of carbonic acid, with which the green pollen ſeems to be combined, greatly facilitates the ſeparation of the indigo.

The method of preparing indigo, and of applying it to the purpoſes of dying, ſeems to have been very early known in India. But in Europe, though it had been occaſionally uſed as a paint, its importance as a dye-ſtuff was not underſtood before the middle of the ſixteenth century. The Dutch were the people who firſt imported it from India, and made its importance known in Europe. It was afterwards cultivated in Mexico and the Weſt Indies with ſuch ſucceſs, that the indigo from thoſe countries was preferred to every other. In conſequence of this preference, they ſupplied almoſt the whole of the European market. But within theſe few years, the Eaſt Indian indigo, owing entirely to the enlightened exertions of ſome of our countrymen, has recovered its character, and is now imported, in very conſiderable quantities, into Great Britain. For the chemical properties of *indigo*, ſee the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 344.

Indigo has a very ſtrong affinity for wool, ſilk, cotton, and linen. Every kind of cloth, therefore, may be dyed with it, without the aſſiſtance of any mordant whatever. The colour thus induced is very permanent; becauſe the indigo is already ſaturated with oxygen, and becauſe it is not liable to be decompoſed by thoſe ſubſtances, to the action of which the cloth is expoſed. But it can only be applied to cloth in a ſtate of ſolution; and the only ſolvent known being ſulphuric acid, it would ſeem at firſt ſight that the ſulphuric acid ſolution is the only ſtate in which indigo can be employed as a dye. The ſulphat of indigo is indeed often uſed to dye wool and ſilk blue; but it can ſcarcely be applied to cotton and linen, becauſe the affinity of theſe ſubſtances for indigo is not great enough to enable them readily to decompoſe the ſulphat. The colour given by ſulphat of indigo is exceedingly beautiful: it is known by the name of Saxon blue; becauſe the proceſs, which was diſcovered by counſellor Barth in 1740, was firſt carried on at Groſſenhayn in Saxony. The method of the original inventor was very complicated, from the great number of uſeleſs ingredients which were mixed with the ſulphat. But theſe ingredients were gradually laid aſide, and the compoſition ſimplified by others, after the nature of it, which was for ſome time kept ſecret, became known to the public. The beſt proceſs is that of Mr. Poerner: viz. One part of indigo is to be diſſolved in four parts of concentrated ſulphuric acid; to the ſolution one part of dry carbonat of potaſh is to be added, and then it is to be diluted with eight times its weight of water. The cloth muſt be boiled for an hour in a ſolution, containing five parts of alum and three of tartar for every thirty-two parts of cloth. It is then to be thrown into a water bath, containing a greater or ſmaller proportion of the diluted ſulphat of indigo, according to the ſhade which the cloth is intended to receive. In this bath it muſt be boiled till it has acquired the wiſhed-for colour. The alum and tartar are not intended to act as mordants, but to facilitate the decompoſition of the ſulphat of indigo. Bergman aſcertained that alum poſſeſſes this property. The alkali added to the ſulphat anſwers the ſame purpoſe. Theſe ſubſtances, alſo, by ſaturating part of the ſulphuric acid, ſerve, in ſome meaſure, to prevent the texture of the cloth from being injured by the action of the acid, which is very apt to happen in this proceſs.

But ſulphat of indigo is by no means the only ſolution of that pigment employed in dying. By far the moſt common method, and indeed the only method known before 1740, is to deprive indigo of the oxygen to which it owes its blue colour, and thus to reduce it to the ſtate of green pollen; and then to diſſolve it in water by means of alkalies, or alkaline earths, which in that ſtate act upon it very readily. Indigo is preciſely in the ſtate of green pollen when it is firſt extracted from the plant in the ſcalding proceſs deſcribed by Dr. Roxburgh. If, therefore, there were any method of ſtopping ſhort here, and of ſeparating the pigment while it retains its green colour, it would be preciſely in the ſtate beſt adapted for dying. Nothing more would be neceſſary but to diſſolve it in water by means of an alkali, and to dip the cloth into the ſolution. But as indigo is not brought home to us in that ſtate, the dyer is under the neceſſity of undoing the laſt part of the indigo-makers proceſs, by ſeparating again the oxygen, and reſtoring it to its original green colour. Two different methods are employed for this purpoſe. The firſt of theſe methods is to mix with indigo a ſolution of ſome ſubſtance which has a ſtronger affinity for oxygen than the green baſis of indigo. Green oxyd of iron, for inſtance, and different metallic ſulphurets. If, therefore, indigo, lime, and green ſulphat of iron, be mixed together in water, the indigo gradually loſes its blue colour, becomes green, and is diſſolved, while the green oxyd of iron is converted into the red oxyd. The manner in which theſe changes take place is obvious. Part of the lime decompoſes the ſulphat of iron; the green oxyd, the inſtant that it is ſet at liberty, attracts oxygen from the indigo, decompoſes it, and reduces it to the ſtate of green pollen. This green pollen is immediately diſſolved by the action of the reſt of the lime. In like manner indigo is diſſolved, when mixed in water, with pure antimony and potaſh, or with ſulphuret of arſenic and potaſh. The ſecond method is to mix the indigo in water with certain vegetable ſubſtances which readily undergo fermentation. During this fermentation, the indigo is deprived of its oxygen, and diſſolved by means of quicklime or alkali, which is added to the ſolution. The firſt of theſe methods is uſually followed in dying cotton and linen; the ſecond, in dying wool and ſilk.

In the dying of wool, woad and bran are commonly employed as vegetable ferments, and lime as the ſolvent of the green baſe of the indigo. Woad contains a colouring matter preciſely ſimilar to indigo; by following the common proceſs, indigo may be extracted from it. In the uſual ſtate of woad, when purchaſed by the dyer, the indigo which it contains is probably not far from the ſtate of green pollen. Its quantity in woad is but ſmall, and it is mixed with a great proportion of other vegetable matter. Before the introduction of indigo into Europe, woad alone was employed as a blue dye; and even as late as the ſeventeenth century, the uſe of indigo was reſtricted in different countries, and dyers obliged to em-

ploy a certain quantity of woad. But theſe abſurd reſtrictions were at laſt removed, and woad is now ſcarcely uſed in dying, except as a ferment to indigo. The blue colouring matter, however, which it contains, muſt, in all caſes, contribute conſiderably to the dye.

A ſufficient quantity of woad, mixed with bran, is put into the vat, filled with warm water, whoſe temperature is kept up ſufficiently to enſure fermentation. Afterwards quicklime and indigo are added. The indigo is deprived of its oxygen, and diſſolved by the lime. When the ſolution is complete, the liquid has a green colour, except at the ſurface, where it is copper-coloured, or blue, becauſe the indigo at the ſurface abſorbs oxygen from the air, and aſſumes its natural colour. The wool, or woollen-cloth, is dipped in, and paſſed through the liquid as equably as poſſible; thoſe pieces being firſt dyed which are to aſſume the deepeſt ſhade. Dyers uſually enumerate thirteen different ſhades of blue cloth, acquired by the different gradations of the colour in the vat. No part of the cloth ſhould come in contact with the ſediment, which would ſpoil the colour. When the cloth is firſt taken out of the vat, it is of a green colour; but it ſoon becomes blue, by attracting oxygen from the air. It ought to be carefully waſhed, to carry off the unconbined particles. This ſolution of indigo is liable to two inconveniences: 1. It is apt ſometimes to run too faſt into the putrid fermentation: this may be known by the putrid vapours which it exhales, and by the diſappearing of the green colour. In this ſtate it would ſoon deſtroy the indigo altogether. The inconvenience is remedied by adding more lime, which has the property of moderating the putreſcent tendency. 2. Sometimes the fermentation goes on too languid. This defect is remedied by adding more bran or woad, in order to diminiſh the proportion of quicklime.

Of YELLOW.

The principal colouring matters employed to dye yellow, are *weld*, *fuſtic*, and *quercitron bark*. The *reſeda luteola*, known in this country by the name of *weld*, is a plant which grows wild in moſt European countries. Cultivated weld has a more ſlender ſtem than the wild kind, but it is more valuable, becauſe it is richer in colouring matter. It is an annual plant, of a yellowiſh green colour, furniſhed with a great number of ſmall leaves. When ripe it is pulled, dried, tied up in parcels, and in that ſtate ſold to the dyer. Weld readily yields its colouring matter to water. The ſaturated decoction of it is brown; but when ſufficiently diluted with water it becomes yellow. Acids render its colour ſomewhat paler, but alkalies give it a deeper ſhade. When alum is added to it, a yellow coloured precipitate falls down, conſiſting of alumina combined with the colouring matter of weld. The affinity, therefore, of this colouring matter for alumina is ſo great, that it is able to abſtract it from ſulphuric acid. Its affinity for oxyd of tin is at leaſt equally great; for muriat of tin cauſes a copious bright yellow precipitate, compoſed of the colouring matter and the oxyd combined. Moſt of the metallic ſalts occaſion ſimilar precipitates, but varying in colour according to the metal employed. With iron, for inſtance, the precipitate is dark grey, and with copper browniſh green.

The *morus tinctoria* is a large tree which grows in the Weſt-India iſlands. The wood of this tree is of a yellow colour, with orange veins. The French call it *yellow wood*, (*bois jaune*;) but the Engliſh dyers have given it the name of *fuſtic*. This wood has been introduced into dying ſince the diſcovery of America. The preciſe time is not known; but that it was uſed in England ſoon after the middle of the ſeventeenth century, is evident from ſir William Petty's paper on Dying, read to the royal ſociety ſoon after its inſtitution. Fuſtic gives out its colouring matter with great facility to water. The ſaturated decoction of it is of a deep reddiſh yellow colour; when ſufficiently diluted, it becomes orange yellow. Acids render it turbid, give it a pale yellow colour, and occaſion a ſlight greeniſh precipitate, which alkalies re-diſſolve. Alkalies give the decoction a very deep colour, inclining to red; ſome time after they have been added, a yellow matter ſeparates from the liquid, and either ſwims on the ſurface, or adheres to the ſides of the veſſel. Alum, ſulphat of iron, of copper, and of zinc, produce precipitates compoſed of the colouring matter combined reſpectively with the baſes of theſe different ſalts; and the colour varies according to the ſubſtance with which this colouring matter is combined. With alumina it is yellow; with iron, yellowiſh brown; with copper, browniſh yellow; and with zinc, greeniſh brown.

The *quercus nigra*, to which Dr. Bancroft has given the name of *quercitron*, is a large tree which grows ſpontaneouſly in North America. Dr. Bancroft diſcovered, about the year 1784, that the bark of this tree contains a great quantity of yellow colouring matter, and ſince that time it has been introduced into dying with much advantage. To prepare it for the dyer, the epidermis is ſhaved off, and then it is ground in a mill. It ſeparates partly into ſtringy filaments, and partly into a fine light powder. Both of theſe contain colouring matter, and therefore are to be employed; but, as they contain unequal quantities, they ſhould be uſed in their natural proportions. Quercitron bark readily gives out its colouring matter to water at the temperature of 100°. The infuſion has a yellowiſh brown colour, which is rendered lighter by acids, and darker by alkalies. Alum occaſions a ſcanty precipitate of a deep yellow colour; muriat of tin, a copious bright yellow precipitate; ſulphat of tin, a dark olive precipitate; and ſulphat of copper, a precipitate of a yellow colour inclining to olive.

Beſides theſe yellow dye-ſtuffs, there are others occaſionally uſed by dyers. The following are the moſt remarkable: *Geniſta tinctoria*, or dyers broom: yields a very inferior yellow, and is only uſed for coarſe woollen ſtuffs. *Serratula tinctoria*, or ſaw-wort: yields a yellow nearly of the ſame nature with weld; for which, therefore, it is a good ſubſtitute. *Juglans alba*, or American hiccory: the bark of which yields a colouring matter ſimilar to that of quercitron bark, but much ſmaller in quantity. *Anotta* is a name given to a red paſte formed of the berries of the bixa orellana, a tree which is a native of America. This paſte yields its colouring matter to a ſolution of alkali in water. The ſolution affords an exceedingly beautiful yellow dye, but very fading, and incapable of being fixed by any known mordant. Turmeric is the root of the *curcuma longa*, a plant which grows both in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. It is richer in colouring matter than any other yellow dye-ſtuff. It yields very beautiful yellows, but too fading to be of much uſe, and no mordant has any influence in contributing to their permanence.

Yellow colouring matters have all too weak an affinity for cloth, to produce permanent colours without the uſe of mordants. Cloth, therefore, before it be dyed yellow, is always prepared by combining ſome mordant with it. The mordant moſt commonly employed for this purpoſe is alumina. Oxyd of tin is ſometimes uſed when very fine yellows are wanted. Tan is often employed as a ſubſidiary to alumina, in order to fix it more copiouſly on cotton and linen. Tartar is alſo uſed as an auxiliary to brighten the colour; and muriat of ſoda, ſulphat of lime, and even ſulphat of iron, in order to render the ſhade deeper. The yellow dyed by means of fuſtic is more permanent, but not ſo beautiful as that given by weld or quercitron. As it is permanent, and not much injured by acids, it is often uſed in compound colours where a yellow is required. The mordant is alumina. When the mordant is oxyd of iron, fuſtic dyes a good permanent drab colour. Weld and quercitron bark yield nearly the ſame kind of colour; but, as the bark yields colouring matter in much greater abundance, it is much more convenient, and, upon the whole, cheaper than weld. It is probable, therefore, that it will gradually

ſuperſede

ſuperſede the uſe of that plant. The method of uſing each of theſe dye-ſtuffs is nearly the ſame.

Wool may be dyed yellow by the followin gproceſs: Let it be boiled for an hour, or more, with about one-ſixth of its weight of alum, diſſolved in a ſufficient quantity of water. It is then to be plunged, without being rinced, into a bath of warm water, containing in it as much quercitron bark as equals the weight of the alum employed as a mordant. The cloth is to be turned through the boiling liquid till it has acquired the intended colour. Then a quantity of clean powdered chalk, equal to the hundredth part of the weight of the cloth, is to be ſtirred in, and the operation of dying continued for eight or ten minutes longer. By this method a deep and lively yellow may be given, fully as permanent as weld yellow.

For very bright orange, or golden yellow, it is neceſſary to have recourſe to the oxyd of tin as a mordant. A fine orange yellow may be given to woollen cloth, by putting, for every ten parts of cloth, one part of bark into a ſufficient quantity of hot water; after a few minutes, an equal weight of murio-ſulphat of tin is to be added, and the mixture well ſtirred. The cloth acquires the wiſhed-for colour in a few minutes when briſkly turned in this bath. The ſame proceſs will ſerve for producing a bright golden yellow; only ſome alum muſt be added along with the tin. For the brighteſt golden yellow, the proportions ſufficient for dying one hundred parts of cloth are, ten parts of bark, ſeven parts of murio-ſulphat of tin, and five parts of alum. All the poſſible ſhades of golden yellow may be given to cloth merely by varying the proportion of the ingredients according to the ſhade.

In order to give the yellow that delicate green ſhade ſo much admired for certain purpoſes, the ſame proceſs may be followed, only tartar muſt be added in different proportions according to the ſhade. Thus to dye one hundred parts of cloth a full bright yellow, delicately inclining to green, eight parts of bark, ſix of murio-ſulphat, ſix of alum, and four of tartar, are to be employed. The tartar is to be added at the ſame time with the other mordants. If the proportion of alum and tartar be increaſed, the green ſhade is more lively: to render it as lively as poſſible, all the four ingredients ought to be employed in equal proportions. As theſe fine lemon-yellows are generally required only pale, ten parts of each of the ingredients will be ſufficient to dye about three hundred parts of cloth. By adding a ſmall proportion of cochineal, the colour may be raiſed to a fine orange, or even an aurora.

Of RED.

The principal colouring matters employed in dying red are, kermes, cochineal, archil, madder, carthamus, and Brazil wood. In different parts of Aſia and the ſouth of Europe, there grows a ſmall ſpecies of oak, to which Linnæus gives the name of *quercus coccifera*. On this oak reſides a ſmall inſect, of a reddiſh brown colour; in commerce it is known by the name of *kermes*. This inſect is a ſpecies of coccus: Linnæus called it *coccus ilicis*. Theſe inſects are gathered in the month of June, when the female, which alone is uſeful, is ſwelled with eggs. They are ſteeped for ten or twelve hours in vinegar to kill the young inſects contained in the eggs, and afterwards dried on a linen-cloth. In this ſtate they are ſold to the dyer. Kermes readily gives out its colouring matter to water or alcohol. It was much uſed by the ancients in dying; the colours which it produced were highly eſteemed, being inferior in price only to their celebrated purple. The colour which it communicates to cloth is exceedingly permanent, but being far inferior in beauty to thoſe which may be obtained from cochineal, it has been but little employed by dyers ſince that ſplendid pigment came into common uſe.

Cochineal is likewiſe an inſect, a ſpecies of coccus. Linnæus diſtinguiſhes it by the name *coccus cacti*. It inhabits different ſpecies of cacti, but the moſt perfect variety is confined to the *cactus coccinilifer*. The cochineal inſect was firſt diſcovered in Mexico; the natives had employed it in their red dyes before the arrival of the Spaniards. It became known in Europe ſoon after the conqueſt of Mexico; and the beauty of the colour which it communicates to cloth very ſoon attracted general attention. For many years it was miſtaken for a vegetable production, as had been the caſe alſo with the kermes. Different accounts of its real nature had indeed appeared very early in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; but the opinion of Pomet, who inſiſted that it was the ſeed of a particular plant, gained ſo much credit, that it was not entirely deſtroyed till the publication of Mr. Ellis's paper, in the fifty-ſecond volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions. For figures of the cochineal inſect, the mode of cultivating it, and the plant on which it propagates, ſee the article Coccus, vol. iv. p. 721, &c.

The quantity of cochineal diſpoſed of in Europe is very great. Bancroft informs us, that the Spaniards annually bring to market about 600,000lbs. of it. Hitherto the rearing of the inſects has belonged almoſt excluſively to that nation. Other nations have indeed attempted to ſhare it with them, but without any remarkable ſucceſs; as the Spaniards uſe every precaution to confine the true cochineal, and even the ſpecies of cactus on which it feeds, to Mexico. Mr. Thiery de Menonville was fortunate enough to procure ſome ſpecimens of both, and to transfer them in ſafety to St. Domingo; and ſeveral ſpirited Britiſh gentlemen have lately contrived to procure the inſect; and vigorous efforts are making to rear it in the Eaſt Indies.

Cochineal readily gives out its colouring matter to water. The decoction is of a crimſon colour, inclining to violet: it may be kept for a long time without putrifying or loſing its tranſparency. Sulphuric acid gives it a red colour inclining to yellow, and occaſions a ſmall fine red precipitate. Tartar gives it a yellowiſh red colour, which becomes yellow after a ſmall quantity of red powder has ſubſided. Alum brightens the colour of the decoction, and occaſions a crimſon precipitate. Muriat of tin gives a copious fine red precipitate; ſulphat of iron, a browniſh violet precipitate; ſulphat of zinc, a deep violet; acetit of lead, and ſulphat of copper, violet precipitates. Water is not capable of extracting the whole of the colouring matter of cochineal; but the addition of a little alkali, or tartar, enables the water to extract the whole of it. See the article Chemistry, vol. iv. p. 345; and Cochineal, p. 730, of the ſame volume.

Archil is a paſte formed of the lichen roccella, pounded and kept moiſt for ſome time with ſtale urine. It gives out its colouring matter to water, to alcohol, and to a ſolution of ammonia in water. The tincture of archil is uſed for making ſpirit of wine thermometers. It is a ſingular fact, that this tincture becomes gradually colourleſs when excluded from the contact of air, and that it again recovers its colour when expoſed to the atmoſphere. The phenomenon was firſt obſerved by the abbé Nollet, and deſcribed by him in an eſſay, publiſhed among the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1742. The lichen roccella grows abundantly in the Canary Iſlands, from which it is imported and ſold to the dyers. Other lichens are likewiſe uſed to dye red, eſpecially the parellus, from which the pigment called *litmus*, and by chemiſts *turnſole*, is prepared; the omphalodes and tartareus, which are often employed in this country to dye coarſe cloths.

The *rubia tinctorum* is a ſmall well-known plant, cultivated in different parts of Europe for the ſake of its roots, which are known by the name of *madder*. They are about the thickneſs of a gooſe quill, ſomewhat tranſparent, of a reddiſh colour, and a ſtrong ſmell. They are dried, cleaned, ground in a mill, and in that ſtate uſed by dyers. Madder gives out its colouring

matter to water. The infuſion is of a browniſh orange colour; alum produces in it a deep browniſh red precipitate; alkaline carbonats, a blood-red precipitate, which is re-diſſolved on adding more alkali. The precipitate occaſioned by acetite of lead is browniſh red; by nitrat of mercury, purpliſh brown; by ſulphat of iron, a fine bright brown. After the red colouring matter has been extracted from madder by water, it is ſtill capable of yielding a brown colour.

Carthamus tinctorius is an annual plant, cultivated in Spain, Egypt, and the Levant, for the ſake of its flowers, which alone are uſed in dying. After the juice has been ſqueezed out of theſe flowers, they are waſhed repeatedly with ſalt water, preſſed between the hands, and ſpread on mats to dry. Care is taken to cover them from the ſun during the day, and to expoſe them to the evening dews, in order to prevent them from drying too faſt. Such is the method followed in Egypt. The flowers of carthamus contain two colouring matters; a yellow, which is ſoluble in water, and a red, inſoluble in water, but ſoluble in alkaline carbonats. The method of preparing them above deſcribed, is intended to carry off the yellow colouring matter, which is of no uſe, and to leave only the red. After the flowers are thus prepared, they are of a red colour, and have loſt nearly one-half of their weight. An alkaline ley readily extracts their colouring matter, which may be precipitated by ſaturating the alkali with an acid. Lemon juice is commonly uſed for this purpoſe, becauſe it does not injure the colour of the dye. Next to citric, ſulphuric acid is to be preferred, provided too great a quantity be not uſed. The red colouring matter of carthamus, extracted by carbonat of ſoda, and precipitated by lemon juice, conſtitutes the rouge employed by the ladies as a face-paint. It is afterwards ground with a certain quantity of talc. The fineneſs of the talc, and the proportion of it mixed with the carthamus, occaſion the difference between the cheaper and dearer kinds of rouge.

Brazil wood, or *fernambouc*, as it is called by the French, is the wood of the *cæſalpinia criſta*, a tree which grows naturally in America and the Weſt Indian iſlands. It is very hard; its ſpecific gravity is greater than that of water; its taſte is ſweetiſh: its colour, when freſh cut, is pale; but after expoſure to the atmoſphere, it becomes reddiſh. Brazil wood yields its colouring matter to alcohol, and likewiſe to boiling water. The decoction is of a fine red colour. The mineral acids make it yellow, and occaſion a reddiſh brown precipitate. Oxalic acid cauſes an orange red precipitate. Fixed alkali gives the decoction a crimſon colour, inclining to brown; ammonia, bright purple. Alum occaſions a copious crimſon precipitate, eſpecially if alkali is added at the ſame time. Sulphat of iron renders the decoction black. The precipitate produced by muriat of tin is roſe-coloured; that by acetite of lead of a fine deep red. The decoction of Brazil wood is fitter for dying after it has ſtood ſome time, and undergone a kind of fermentation.

None of the red colouring matters has ſo ſtrong an affinity for cloth as to produce a permanent red, without the aſſiſtance of mordants. The mordants employed are alumina and oxyd of tin; oil and tan, in certain proceſſes, are alſo uſed; and tartar and muriat of ſoda are frequently called in as auxiliaries. Coarſe woollen ſtuffs are dyed red with madder or archil; but fine cloth is almoſt excluſively dyed with cochineal; though the colour which it receives from kermes is much more durable. Brazil wood is ſcarcely uſed, except as an auxiliary; becauſe the colour which it imparts to wool is not permanent. See further, on dying ſubſtances, in the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 343, &c.

Wool is dyed crimſon, by firſt impregnating it with alumina, by means of an alum bath, and then boiling it in a decoction of cochineal till it has acquired the wiſhed-for colour. The crimſon will be finer, if the tin mordant be ſubſtituted for alum: indeed it is uſual with dyers to add a little nitro-muriat of tin when they want fine crimſons. The addition of archil and potaſh to the cochineal, both renders the crimſon darker, and gives it more bloom; but the bloom very ſoon vaniſhes. For paler crimſons, one-half of the cochineal is withdrawn, and madder ſubſtituted in its place. Wool may be dyed ſcarlet, the moſt ſplendid of all colours, by firſt boiling it in a ſolution of murio-ſulphat of tin; then dying it pale yellow with quercitron bark, and afterwards crimſon with cochineal: for ſcarlet is a compound colour, conſiſting of crimſon mixed with a little yellow. This method was ſuggeſted by Dr. Bancroft, who firſt explained the nature of the common method. The proportions which he gives are eight parts of murio-ſulphat of tin for one hundred parts of cloth. After the cloth has been boiled in this ſolution for a quarter of an hour, it is to be taken out, and about four parts of cochineal, and two and a half parts of quercitron bark, are to be thrown into the bath. After theſe are well mixed, the cloth is to be returned again to the bath, and boiled in it, till it has acquired the proper colour.

The common proceſs for dying ſcarlet is as follows: Twelve parts of tartar are diſſolved in warm water; then one part of cochineal is added, and ſoon after ten parts of nitro-muriat of tin. When the bath boils, one hundred parts of cloth are put in, turned briſkly through the bath, boiled in it for two hours; then taken out, aired, waſhed, and dried. Into another bath eleven parts of cochineal are put; and after its colouring matter is ſufficiently extracted, twenty-eight parts of nitro-muriat of tin are added. In this bath the cloth is boiled for an hour, and then waſhed and dried. Every preceding writer on dying took it for granted, that the yellow tinge neceſſary for ſcarlet was produced by the nitro-muriat of tin, or rather by the nitric acid of that compound, and that the tartar was only uſeful in enlivening the colour. But Dr. Bancroft aſcertained, by actual experiment, that nitro-muriat of tin has no ſuch effect; that cloth, impregnated with this or any other tin mordant, and afterwards dyed with cochineal, acquires only a crimſon colour, unleſs tartar be added; that the tartar has the property of converting part of the cochineal to yellow; and therefore is the real agent in producing the ſcarlet colour. Good ſcarlet, indeed, cannot be made without tin; becauſe every other mordant ſullies the colour, and renders it dull.

OF BLACK.

The ſubſtances employed to give a black colour to woollen cloth, are red oxyd of iron and tan. Theſe two ſubſtances have a ſtrong affinity for each other; and when combined, aſſume a deep black colour, not liable to be deſtroyed by the action of air and light. Logwood is uſually employed as an auxiliary, becauſe it communicates luſtre, and adds conſiderably to the fulneſs of the black. It is the wood of the tree called by Linnæus *hæmatoxylum campechianum*, which is a native of ſeveral of the Weſt India iſlands, and of that part of Mexico which ſurrounds the Bay of Honduras. It yields its colouring matter to water. The decoction is at firſt a fine red bordering on violet, but if left to itſelf it gradually aſſumes a black colour. Acids give it a deep red colour; alkalies a deep violet, inclining to brown. Sulphat of iron renders it as black as ink, and occaſions a precipitate of the ſame colour. The precipitate produced by alum is dark red; the ſupernatent liquid becomes yellowiſh red.

Cloth, before it receive a black colour, is uſually dyed blue. This renders the colour much fuller and finer than it otherwiſe would be. If the cloth be coarſe, the blue dye may be too expenſive; in that caſe a brown colour is firſt given by means of walnut peels. Wool is dyed black by the following proceſs. It is boiled for

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two hours in a decoction of nut-galls, and afterwards kept for two hours more in a bath compoſed of logwood and ſulphat of iron, kept during the whole time at a ſcalding heat, but not boiled. During the operation it muſt be frequently expoſed to the air; becauſe the green oxyd of iron, of which the ſulphat is compoſed, muſt be converted into red oxyd by abſorbing oxygen, before the cloth can acquire a proper colour. The common proportions are five parts of galls, five of ſulphat of iron, and thirty of logwood, for every one hundred of cloth. A little acetit of copper is commonly added to the ſulphat of iron, becauſe it is thought to improve the colour.

Of BROWN.

That favourite brown colour, with a caſt of yellow, which the French call *fauve*, and to which the Engliſh writers on dying have appropriated the word *fawn*, though in fact a compound, is commonly ranked among ſimple colours; becauſe it is applied to cloth by a ſingle proceſs. The ſubſtances employed to produce this colour are numerous; but walnut-peels are now conſidered the beſt. When firſt ſeparated from the nut, they are white internally; but ſoon aſſume a brown, or even a black colour, on expoſure to the air. They readily yield their colouring matter to water. They are uſually kept in large caſks, covered with water, for above a year, before they are uſed. To dye wool brown with them, nothing more is neceſſary than to ſteep the cloth in a decoction of them till it has acquired the wiſhed-for colour. The depth of the ſhade is proportional to the ſtrength of the decoction. The root, as well as the peel of the walnut-tree, contains the ſame colouring matter, but in ſmaller quantity. The bark of the birch, alſo, and many other trees, may be uſed for the ſame purpoſe.—It is very probable, that the brown colouring matter is in theſe vegetable ſubſtances combined with tan. This is certainly the caſe in ſumach, which is often employed to produce a brown. This combination explains the reaſon why no mordant is neceſſary; the tan has a ſtrong affinity for the cloth, and the colouring matter for the tan: ſo that the dye ſtuff and the mordant are already, in fact, combined together. In cloths, the deepeſt ſhades are commonly dyed firſt, and the lighter ones afterwards; but for woollen yarn, the light ſhades are generally dyed firſt, and the deeper ones afterwards, freſh peels being added for each parcel. Cloth and yarn ſhould be ſimply moiſtened with warm water before they are put into the copper, where they are carefully ſtirred until they have acquired the proper ſhade, unleſs they have before had an aluming.

Mr. Berthollet has dyed different patterns of wool with decoction of walnut-peels, adding to one, oxyd or calx of tin, to another, oxyd or flowers of zinc, to a third, ſemivitrified oxyd of lead or litharge, to a fourth, oxyd of iron. The quantity of decoction, weight of the pattern, time of boiling, and all other circumſtances, were equal, both with reſpect to theſe, and a pattern which was dyed as above, without any addition, and intended to ſerve as a ſtandard of compariſon; the oxyd of tin gave a more clear and bright fawn colour, than that of the ſtandard; the oxyd of zinc a colour ſtill more clear, and approaching to an aſh-coloured grey; the oxyd of lead, a colour with more of an orange caſt; and by the oxyd of iron, a greeniſh brown colour was produced.

Sumach, when employed alone, gives a fawn colour inclining to green. Red ſaunders gives a fawn colour with a browniſh caſt inclining to red; of itſelf however it affords little colour, and it is ſaid to make the wool harſh; but its colouring matter diſſolves better when it is mixed with other ſubſtances, ſuch as walnut-peels, ſumach, and galls; beſides, the colour which it gives is durable, and modifies thoſe of other ſubſtances with which it is mixed very conveniently. Soot is likewiſe uſed to give wool a fawn colour, or a brown, which is more or leſs deep, according to the proportion of that ſubſtance which is employed; but ſoot gives a fading colour, becauſe it only attaches itſelf feebly to the wool inſtead of combining with it; it renders it harſh, and leaves a diſagreeable ſmell: it is uſed however for browning certain colours in ſome very extenſive manufactories.

Of COMPOUND COLOURS.

Compound colours are produced by mixing together two ſimple ones; or, which is the ſame thing, by dying cloth firſt of one ſimple colour, and then another. The reſult is a compound colour, varying in ſhade according to the proportions of each of the ſimple colours employed. Hence compound colours are exceedingly numerous, varying almoſt to infinity, according to the proportions of the ingredients employed.

Mixtures of Blue and Yellow, or Green.—Dyers make green by the admixture of blue and yellow, and it is diſtinguiſhed into a great number of different ſhades; but it requires addreſs and experience to obtain this colour uniform and without ſpots, eſpecially in the lighter ſhades of it. It is poſſible to produce green by beginning either with the yellow or the blue dye: but the firſt method is attended with ſome inconveniences; for the blue ſoils the linen, and a part of the yellow being diſſolved in the vat, changes and makes it green; the ſecond method is therefore preferable. It is common to employ the paſtel vat, but for ſome kinds of green, ſolution of indigo in the ſulphuric acid is uſed; and then, the blue and yellow are either dyed ſeparately, or all the ingredients are mixed together, to dye by a ſingle operation. Solutions of copper with yellow ſubſtances may however be employed. The proceſſes are theſe: It is neceſſary that the blue ground be proportioned to the green which is deſired; thus for the green like that of a drake's neck, a ground of deep royal blue is given; for parrot green, a ground of ſky blue; for *verd naiſſant*, a ground of light blue. After the cloths have received the proper ground, they are waſhed in the fulling-mill, and boiled as for common welding, but for the light ſhades the proportion of ſalts is diminiſhed. Moſt commonly the cloths intended for the light ſhades are boiled firſt; and when theſe are taken out, tartar and alum are added; and this practice is purſued until we come to the cloths intended for the darkeſt ſhades, more and more tartar and alum being conſtantly ſupplied. The proceſs of welding is conducted in the ſame manner as for yellow; but a larger quantity of weld is employed, unleſs for the lighter ſhades, which, on the contrary, require a ſtill ſmaller proportion. For the moſt part, a ſucceſſion of ſhades, from the deepeſt to the lighteſt, is dyed at the ſame time, beginning with the deepeſt, and proceeding to the lighteſt: between each dip, which laſts half an hour, or three quarters, water is added to the bath. Some dyers give each parcel two dips, beginning the firſt time with the deep ſhades, and the ſecond with the light ones; in that caſe each parcel ſhould remain a ſhorter time in the bath: for the very light ſhades, care ſhould be taken that the bath does not boil. A browning with logwood, and a little ſulphat of iron, is given to the very deep greens.

But the green obtained by means of a ſolution of indigo in ſulphuric acid is known by the name of Saxon green; and it has more brightneſs, but leſs durability, than that above deſcribed. In the proceſs for it a boiling is given as for welding, and the cloth is then waſhed, ſuſtic in chips encloſed in a bag is put into the ſame bath, and boiled for an hour and a half, then taken out, and the bath cooled to a temperature which the hand can ſupport; nearly a pound and a quarter of the ſolution of indigo for each piece of cloth of eighteen ells which is to be dyed, is then added; at firſt it is to be turned with rapidity, and afterwards ſlowly: the cloth is to be taken out before the bath boils. It is a proper practice to put in only two-thirds of the ſolution at firſt, to take

out the cloth after two or three turns, and then to add the laſt third; the colour is thus rendered more uniform: if it be obſerved that the colour does not take well, a little calcined alum reduced to powder is added. Dr. Bancroft recommends the following method for Saxon blue; which many dyers prefer to the above: Six or eight parts of quercitron bark, tied up in a bag, are to be put into the dying veſſel, which ſhould contain only a ſmall quantity of warm water. When the water boils, ſix parts of murio-ſulphat of tin, and four parts of alum, are to be added. In a few minutes, the dying veſſel ſhould be filled up with cold water, till the temperature is reduced to about 130°. After this, as much ſulphat of indigo is to be poured in as is ſufficient to produce the intended ſhade of green. When the whole has been ſufficiently ſtirred, a hundred parts of cloth are to be put in, and turned briſkly for about fifteen minutes, till it has acquired the wiſhed-for ſhade. By this method, a much more beautiful colour is obtained than is given by the uſual proceſs with fuſtic. The Saxon apple-green is dyed in the bath which has ſerved for Saxon green, after one-third or one-half of it has been taken out, and after it has been cooled; the cloth is turned in it until it be on the point of boiling. Hence it is evident that a great variety of greens may be produced, not only according to the proportions of the indigo and yellow dye employed, but according to the nature of the yellow ſubſtance, which may affect the green, both as to ſhade and fixity; and the colour may be ſtill further modified by reactives of different kinds.

Mixtures of Red and Blue.—The mixture of red and blue produces violet, purple, dove-colour, panſey, amaranth, lilac, mauve, and a great number of other ſhades, determined by the nature of the ſubſtances, the red colour of which is combined with the blue, by the proportion of theſe ſubſtances, and the different ſteps of the proceſs which is employed. Hellot obſerves that ſtuff which has been dyed ſcarlet takes an unequal colour when blue is to be united with it. The blue is therefore given firſt, which, even for violet and purple, ought not to be deeper than the ſhade diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſky-blue; a boiling is given with alum mixed with two-fifths of tartar; the ſtuff is then dipped in a bath compoſed of nearly two-thirds as much cochineal as for ſcarlet, to which tartar is always added. The circumſtance which diſtinguiſhes the proceſs for purple from that for violet, is, that for the former a lighter blue ground is given, and a larger proportion of cochineal is employed. Theſe colours are frequently dyed after the reddening for ſcarlet, ſuch quantities of cochineal and tartar being added as are neceſſary: the operation is managed in the ſame way as for ſcarlet. But lilacs, pigeon's necks, mauves, &c. are commonly dipped in the boiling which has ſerved for violet, after alum and tartar have been added to it: the blue ground having been proportioned to the ſhade required, the quantity of cochineal is alſo adjuſted in a ſimilar manner: a little ſolution of tin is added for ſome reddiſh ſhades, ſuch as peach bloſſom. It is to be obſerved, that though the quantity of cochineal is diminiſhed according to the lightneſs of the ſhade required, the quantity of tartar is not leſſened, ſo that the proportion of it, compared with that of the cochineal, is ſo much the greater, as the colour required is lighter. Mr. Poerner is of opinion, that to procure the colours compoſed of red and blue, it is advantageous to employ the ſolution of indigo in ſulphuric acid, becauſe a great variety of ſhades is thus more eaſily obtained, and the proceſs is ſhorter and leſs expenſive. The colours obtained in this way are indeed much leſs durable than when the blue vat is employed; but he aſſerts, that they poſſeſs durability, when ſolution of indigo to which alkali has been added is made uſe of. He prepares a pound of cloth with three ounces of alum, by boiling it for an hour and a half, and leaving it all night in the liquor after it is cold. The bath is made with an ounce and a half of cochineal, and two ounces of tartar, boiling it for three quarters of an hour, and then adding two ounces and a half of ſolution of indigo: it is ſtirred and made to boil gently for a quarter of an hour; and by this means a very beautiful violet is produced.

Mixtures of Red and Yellow.—The colour naturally reſulting from the admixture of red and yellow, is *orange*: but its ſhades may be infinitely varied by the different proportions of the ingredients, by the yellow ſubſtances made choice of, by the preparations given to the cloth, and by the mordants added to the dye bath. Mr. Poerner deſcribes a great many varieties, which he obtained by uſing weld, ſaw-wort, dyers-weed, and other yellows, and by employing in the preparation of the cloth, or in the bath, tartar, alum, ſulphat of zinc, or ſulphat of copper. Various colours may alſo be obtained from madder united with yellow ſubſtances. It is in this way, that mor-doré and cinnamon colours are produced; theſe colours are commonly made in two baths. We begin by the maddering, preceded by a boiling with alum and tartar, as for the common maddering, and give a weld bath afterwards. But for cinnamon colours, the maddering is weaker, and a bath which has ſerved for mor-doré is generally employed. The proportions are varied, according as the red or yellow is to prevail; ſometimes galls are added, and ſometimes the colour is darkened by means of a browning. Mr. Poerner has obtained many colours from madder mixed with ſaw-wort; he prepares the cloth with different mordants, but more eſpecially with alum and tartar; he alſo adds alum and tartar to the bath. When the quantity of either of theſe ſalts is conſiderable, the colour has a deep orange caſt, becauſe acids give the colour of madder a yellow hue; but if their quantity be but ſmall, a reddiſh yellow is obtained. He has procured reddiſh brown colours, by putting ſulphat of zinc or white vitriol into the dye. It is alſo cuſtomary to employ brazil-wood with yellow ſubſtances, and ſometimes it is mixed with cochineal and madder. But when, inſtead of weld or other yellow ſubſtances, walnut-tree root, walnut-peels, or ſumach, are employed, ſnuff, cheſnut, muſk colours, &c. are produced.

Mixtures of Black with other Colours, and of Brownings.—To give cloth what is termed a *browning*, the ſtuff which has been juſt dyed is dipped in a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, to which an aſtringent has been added, and which conſequently forms a black bath; more frequently, a ſmall quantity of ſolution of iron is mixed with a bath of water, and more is added, till the dyed ſtuff dipped in it has attained the ſhade required: more rarely, ſulphat of iron is added to the dye bath, but the deſired effect is obtained with greater preciſion by dipping the dyed ſtuff in a ſolution of ſulphat of iron. Mr. Poerner often ſoaks the ſtuff in a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, to which he ſometimes puts other ingredients, and, when taken out of this mordant, it is dipped in the dye bath. The firſt mode is uſed for marones, coffee, damaſcene colours, and other ſhades of browns of the common dye; a more or leſs deep colour is given them, according to the ſhade to be obtained by the browning: a bath is then made with galls, ſumach, and alder bark, with the addition of ſulphat of iron. The ſtuffs intended for the lighteſt ſhades are dipped firſt; and when they are finiſhed, the browner ones are dipped, ſulphat of iron being added in proper proportion in each operation. It may be obſerved, that the other brownings have nothing peculiar in the proceſs. To produce ſeveral kinds of grey, a ſlight blue ground is firſt given. Mr. Poerner makes bluiſh greys, by employing the ſolution of indigo in ſulphuric acid, which he adds to a mixture of decoction of galls and ſulphat of iron, varying the ſhades by the different proportions of theſe three ingredients: and he procures other ſhades by adding ſulphat of iron to a bath conſtituted of cochineal, fuſtic, and galls. Dr. Bancroft produces livelier greys by ſubſtituting the quercitron bark for the fuſtic. But marone, and the colours which border upon it, are made with ſaunders, galls, and

a browning,

a browning, and ſometimes logwood is added: theſe colours are ſometimes made to incline towards purple and crimſon, by dying them in the remains of a cochineal bath, or by putting a little maddér or cochineal into the bath; by a little tartar the colour is rendered lighter. For hazel colours, galls, fuſtic, and logwood muſt be mixed, and more or leſs madder, with a little alum, are to be put in.

To produce a violet colour, Mr. Guhliche alums a pound of woollen ſtuff in a ſolution of two ounces of alum; he makes a bath with an ounce of cochineal, and adds an equal quantity of ſolution of iron, in which he keeps the ſtuff until it has acquired a proper ſhade. Lilacs may be dyed with the remainder. If a colour with leſs of a brown caſt be required, a ſmall quantity of ſolution of iron is employed, and an ounce of nitre muſt be introduced. Brazil-wood, the colour of which has been extracted by means of the aceto-citric or nitro-muriatic acid, may alſo be employed in the ſame manner.

A puce colour may be obtained from madder, giving a pound of woollen ſtuff a boiling in a mixture compoſed of two ounces of alum, a certain quantity of vinegar, and ſolution of iron. After a quarter of an hour's ebullition, it is left twelve hours in the mordant. A bath is made with the decoction of two ounces of white galls poured off clear from the ſediment, in which four ounces of good madder are mixed; and when it begins to grow hot, the ſtuff is dipped when taken out of the mordant, and ſuffered to remain there, gradually increaſing the heat, until it has taken the deſired colour; it is then boiled for two minutes, waſhed and dried in the ſun. The colour obtained by this proceſs is very durable. If the alum and vinegar of the mordant be omitted, a deeper brown is produced; after theſe colours the lighter ſhades are dyed. It is alſo found, that brazil and logwood employed in equal quantities, or in other proportions, give different brown colours of tolerable durability, when more or leſs ſolution of iron is mixed with a decoction of them, and the wool previouſly alumed and galled, is dyed in it; theſe colours have not, however, the durability of the former. Various ſhades of mor-doré and capucine may be given to the above colours, by dipping them, as ſoon as taken out of the dye, in a bath compoſed of annotta.

Of DYING SILK.

The fibres of ſilk are naturally covered with a kind of varniſh, or gummy ſubſtance; and almoſt the whole of what we know in Europe is tinged of a yellow colour, which it is neceſſary to remove, as well as the varniſh, for moſt of the purpoſes to which ſilk is applied. This is commonly done by ſubmitting it to the action of ſoap, in circumſtances which are already ſufficiently known. When ſilk has been freed from both its gummy varniſh and its yellow colour, it is ſometimes neceſſary to whiten it ſtill farther, by the fumes of ſulphur applied to it, and confined in a ſtove. But though ſulphureous acid gas, applied in this way, readily whitens the ſilk, and thereby renders it more fit to exhibit lively colours, a portion of ſulphur adheres to it, which muſt be removed by ſoaking and agitation, for a conſiderable time, in warm water, that it may not tarniſh the colours intended to be given by dying; an effect which ſulphur generally produces, both to thoſe of wool and ſilk. The luſtre ſo much deſired in colours dyed upon ſilk, ſeems, in a great degree, to reſult from the gloſs and poliſh of its ſurface, which acids, alkalies, and other chemical agents (particularly the ſolutions or oxyds of tin), contribute to impair, and are therefore to be ſparingly uſed. Silk, in its diſpoſition to receive and retain colours for dying, ſeems to partake of a middle nature between that of the animal and vegetable ſubſtances: by its abundance of azot and hydrogen, it poſſeſſes, like wool, a ſtrong attraction for colouring matters; but its fibres having neither a ſimilar organization, nor an equal degree of elaſticity, it is capable of imbibing colours, like linen and cotton, without any previous dilatation of its pores by hot water, but, like them, it parts with the colours ſo imbibed the more eaſily, in conſequence of this natural openneſs, or the want of contraction, in its pores; though, upon the whole, colours dyed in ſilk are more laſting than when dyed in linen and cotton, on account of its greater affinity with colouring matters, reſulting from its animal nature.

Blue Silks are uſually dyed by the following proceſs: Six parts of bran, and ſix of indigo, with nearly one part of madder, are ſtirred into a ſufficient quantity of water, in which ſix parts of common potaſh of commerce is diſſolved. The liquid is kept at a temperature proper for fermentation. When the indigo, deprived of its oxygen by the fermentation, is diſſolved by the potaſh, the liquid aſſumes a green colour. The ſilk, previouſly well ſcoured, is put into the ſolution in ſmall quantities at a time; then wrung out of the dye, and hung up in the open air, till the green colour which it has at firſt is changed into blue. Some dyers uſe the vats when grown weak to dye lighter ſhades: but the blue obtained in that caſe is leſs beautiful, and leſs permanent, than when freſh vats containing a ſmaller quantity of indigo are made uſe of: but indigo alone is incapable of giving ſilk a *deep* blue: therefore, when this is required, it is neceſſary to prepare it by previouſly giving it a ground colour. For the *Turkey* blue, which is the deepeſt, a very ſtrong archil bath is firſt prepared; and for the royal blue one of the ſame kind, but weaker. All light blues are dyed without any ground being previouſly given. There is, however, a blue made as deep as the royal blue, for the ground of which cochineal is uſed inſtead of archil, in order to render it more permanent, whence the title *bleu fin* has been given it: a blue of little durability may be given to ſilk by means of verdegris and logwood; but it might be made more laſting, by firſt giving it a lighter ſhade than is intended in a bath of this kind, afterwards dipping it in an archil bath, and in the vat after that.

Yellow Silks, of many different ſhades, are dyed either by weld, or quercitron bark, but the laſt is the cheapeſt of the two. The proportion ſhould be from one to two parts of bark to twelve parts of ſilk, according to the ſhade. The bark, tied up in a bag, ſhould be put into the dying veſſel while the water which it contains is cold, and when it has acquired the heat of about one hundred degrees, the ſilk, previouſly alumed, ſhould be dipped in, and continued till it aſſumes the wiſhed-for colour. When the ſhade required is deep, a little chalk or pearl-aſh ſhould be added towards the end of the operation. When a very lively yellow is wanted, a little murio-ſulphat of tin ſhould be added, but not too much, becauſe tin always injures the gloſſineſs of ſilk. The proportions may be four parts of bark, three of alum, and two of murio-ſulphat of tin. Silk is dyed fine orange, jonquille, and aurora, colours by annotta. The proceſs is merely dipping the ſilk into an alkaline ſolution of annotta. To produce the orange ſhade, the alkali is ſaturated with lemon juice. The colours thus produced are exceedingly beautiful, but they are apt to want permanency.

A very bright, ſhining, and durable yellow dye, very convenient for ſilk, has been lately extracted from yellow muſhrooms. Theſe are pretty large, and grow commonly under walnut and apple-trees. Its colouring matter is contained in abundance, not only in the tubular part, but alſo in the parenchyma of the body of the muſhroom. In order to extract it, the muſhroom is pounded in a mortar, and the liquor thence obtained is boiled for a quarter of an hour in water. An ounce of liquor is ſufficient to communicate colouring-matter to ſix pounds of water. When the liquor has been ſtrained, the ſtuff to be dyed is put into it, and boiled for a quarter of an hour. All kinds of ſtuff receive this colour and retain it, but on linen and cotton it is leſs bright. This colour may be modified, in a very agreeable manner, by the effect of mordants.

mordants. The proceſs ſucceeds beſt on ſilk. When this ſubſtance, after being dyed, is made to paſs through a bath of ſoft ſoap, it acquires a ſhining golden-yellow colour, which has a perfect reſemblance to the yellow of that ſilk employed to imitate embroidery in gold, and which has hitherto been brought from China, and ſold at a dear rate, as the method of dying it is unknown in Europe.

The *Rottlera tinctoria*, a plant lately diſcovered by Dr. Roxburgh on the coaſt of Coromandel, alſo affords a dye extremely elegant for yellow ſilk. The red powder which covers the capſules conſtitutes a conſiderable branch of commerce from the Circars, chiefly with the merchants of Hydrabad, and other interior parts of Hindooſtan. When the capſules are ripe, they are gathered, and the red powder is carefully collected for ſale. This powder dyes ſilk a deep yellow; or a durable orange flame-colour, of very great beauty, according to the intenſity of the mixture: alkaline ſalts enable water to extract from it a very deep blood red; and the addition of alum renders the colour brighter and more permanent.

Red Silks are uſually dyed with cochineal, or carthamus, and ſometimes with Brazil wood. Kermes does not anſwer for ſilk; madder is ſcarcely ever uſed for that purpoſe, becauſe it does not yield a bright colour. Archil is employed to give ſilk a bloom; but it is ſcarcely uſed by itſelf, unleſs when the colour wanted is lilac. Silk may be dyed crimſon by ſteeping it in a ſolution of alum, and then dying it in the uſual way in a cochineal bath. But the common proceſs is to plunge the ſilk, after it has been alumed, into a bath formed of the following ingredients: Two parts of white galls, three parts of cochineal, three-ſixteenths of tartar, and three-ſixteenths of nitro-muriat of tin, for every ſixteen parts of ſilk. The ingredients are to be put into boiling water in the order they have been enumerated; the bath is then to be filled up with cold water; the ſilk put into it, and boiled for two hours. After the bath has cooled, the ſilk is uſually allowed to remain in it for three hours longer.

The colours known by the names of poppy, cherry, roſe, and fleſh-colour, are given to ſilk by means of carthamus. The proceſs conſiſts merely in keeping the ſilk, as long as it extracts any colour, in an alkaline ſolution of carthamus, into which as much lemon juice as gives it a fine cherry colour has been poured. To produce a deep poppy red, the ſilk muſt be put ſucceſſively into a number of ſimilar baths, and allowed to drain them. When the ſilk is dyed, the colour is brightened by plunging it into hot water acidulated with lemon juice. The ſilk ought to be previouſly dyed yellow with annotta. Cherry red is produced the ſame way, only the annotta ground is omitted, and leſs colouring matter is neceſſary. When a fleſh colour is required, a little ſoap ſhould be put into the bath, which ſoftens the colour, and prevents it from taking too quickly. To leſſen the expence, ſome archil is often mixed with carthamus for dark ſhades. The ſame ſhades may be dyed by means of brazil wood, but they do not ſtand.

Silk cannot be dyed a full ſcarlet; but a colour approaching to ſcarlet may be given it, by firſt impregnating the ſtuff with murio-ſulphat of tin, and afterwards dying it in a bath compoſed of four parts of cochineal and four parts of quercitron bark. To give the colour more body, both the mordant and the dye may be repeated. A colour approaching ſcarlet may be alſo given to ſilk, by firſt dying it crimſon, then dying it with carthamus, and laſtly yellow without heat.

Black Silks are dyed nearly in the ſame manner as wool and cloth. Silk is capable of combining with a great deal of tan; the quantity given is varied at the pleaſure of the artiſt, by allowing the ſilk to remain a longer or ſhorter time in the decoction. After the galling, the ſilk is put into a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, which is uſually mixed with a certain quantity of iron filings and of gum. It is occaſionally wrung out of the bath, expoſed for ſome time to the air, and again immerſed. When it has acquired a ſufficiently full colour, it is waſhed in cold water, and afterwards ſteeped in a decoction of ſoap to take off the harſhneſs, which ſilk always has after being dyed black.

Green Silks are uſually dyed yellow firſt, by means of weld, according to the proceſs deſcribed for wool; afterwards it is dipped into the blue vat, and dyed in the uſual manner. To deepen the ſhade, or to vary the tint, decoctions of logwood, annotta, fuſtic, &c. are added to the yellow bath. Or ſilk may be dyed at once green, by adding ſuitable proportions of ſulphat of indigo to the common quercitron bark bath, compoſed of four parts of bark, three parts of alum, and two parts of murio-ſulphat of tin. Purple is firſt dyed crimſon, by means of cochineal, in the uſual way, excepting only that no tartar, nor ſolution of tin, is to be employed. It is then dipped into the indigo vat, till it has acquired the wiſhed-for ſhade. It is often afterwards paſſed through an archil bath, which greatly improves the beauty of the colour. Archil is often employed as a ſubſtitute for cochineal. The ſilk firſt receives a red colour, in the uſual way, by being dyed in an archil bath; afterwards it receives the proper ſhade of blue. The violet, or purple, given by this proceſs is very beautiful, but not very laſting. Silk may be dyed violet or purple at once, by firſt treating it with a mordant, compoſed of equal parts of nitro-muriat of tin and alum, and then dipping it into a cochineal bath, into which a proper quantity of ſulphat of indigo has been poured. But this dye is fading; the blue colour ſoon decays, and the ſilk becomes red. Marrones, cinnamons, and all the intermediate ſhades, are given to ſilk, by logwood, braſil, and fuſtic, for which the ſilk is ſcoured as uſual, alumed, and a bath prepared, by mixing decoctions of the three above-mentioned woods made ſeparately; the proportion of each is varied according to the ſhade required, but that of the fuſtic ought to prevail: this bath ſhould be of a moderate temperature. The ſilk is turned on the ſkein ſticks in the bath; and when it is taken out, if the colour be uniform, it is wrung and dipped in a ſecond bath of the three ingredients, the proportions of which are regulated according to the effect of the firſt bath, in order that the deſired ſhade may be procured. By any of theſe ſimple and eaſy preparations, ladies who reſide in the country, or live remote from a ſilk-dyer, may with great facility and certainty dye any pieces of ſilk, ribbons, gauzes, &c. ſo often required for domeſtic purpoſes.

Of DYING COTTON.

Cotton is a thread produced by a great number of herbaceous annual plants; and by ſome perennial ſhrubs or trees; but they differ from each other in the length, fineneſs, ſoftneſs, flexibility, and colours, of the cotton which they ſeverally produce. The climate is alſo ſuppoſed to have conſiderable influence on the texture and quality of the different ſpecies of cotton; that which grows neareſt the equator being generally the moſt eſteemed. There are two ſpecies which ſeem to have belonged originally to Siam; the firſt is white, and of a long fine ſtaple, capable of being ſpun into very fine threads: this ſpecies has been tranſplanted to the Weſt Indies a conſiderable time; the other is naturally of that browniſh buff colour which it retains in the pieces of cloth manufactured from it, and denominated *nankins*. The cottons of Cyprus, and other parts of the Levant, are generally whiter, and their filaments more dry and elaſtic, than thoſe of other countries; and theſe peculiarities have been ſuppoſed to render the former particularly ſuited to reflect, and permanently retain, what is called the Turkey red. See the article Cotton, vol. v. p. 263.

The ſtructure of the fibres of cotton ſeems not to have been well aſcertained. Lewenhoeck, by microſcopical examinations, found each of them to have two ſharp

ſides;

fides; and it ſeems to be owing to this circumſtance, or to their poſſeſſing ſome aſperities like the filaments of wool, that cotton greatly irritates and inflames wounds, ulcers, &c. if applied to them inſtead of lint, from which they differ totally in this reſpect; and perhaps the particular ſtructure which occaſions this difference, alſo occaſions ſome in the conformation and number of their pores, to which alone can be aſcribed the diſpoſition which cotton manifeſts to admit and retain colours better than linen, though not ſo well as wool and ſilk, becauſe its vegetable nature does not afford it equal attraction for colouring matters. M. le Pileur d'Apligny endeavoured to explain the cauſe why colours are leſs durable when dyed in ſilk, cotton, and linen, than in wool, by ſuppoſing that the pores of the three firſt of theſe ſubſtances were ſmaller than thoſe of wool; and that therefore colouring particles could not enter into them ſo eaſily and freely as into thoſe of wool. But the very reverſe of this ſuppoſition ſeems true, there being little difficulty in making ſilk, cotton, or linen, imbibe colours, even when topically applied cold, without any artificial dilatation of their pores, which is neceſſary in the dying of wool. The real difficulty, therefore, is not in making them imbibe, but in making them *retain*, the colouring particles when imbibed; becauſe, being admitted ſo readily into their undilated pores, they cannot be afterwards compreſſed and held therein by any contraction of theſe pores, as is done in thoſe of wool. We know that it requires twice as much cochineal to produce a crimſon on ſilk, as on wool; which is a proof that it can take up a greater quantity, and conſequently that its pores are at leaſt ſufficiently large and acceſſible: we know alſo, that unbleached cotton is always preferred for dying the Turkey red, it being found to retain the colour moſt permanently; doubtleſs becauſe its pores or interſtices are leſs open before than after the operation of bleaching. This is alſo the caſe of raw or unſcoured ſilk, which, as the ingenious Mr. Henry of Mancheſter obſerves, is more eaſily and permanently dyed than that which has paſſed the proceſs of whitening and ſcouring: and indeed the openneſs of the pores of cotton and linen, and their conſequent readineſs to imbibe, both colouring particles, and the earthy or metallic baſes employed to fix moſt of them, are circumſtances upon which the art of calico-printing is in a great degree founded. To prepare and diſpoſe cotton for receiving colours by dying or calico-printing, it is uſually boiled in water, with a portion of vegetable or foſſil alkali, for about two hours, and afterwards rinced in clean water; or it may be ſoaked in water, acidulated with about one-fiftieth of its weight of ſulphuric acid, and afterwards rinced thoroughly in a clear ſtream of water.

It appears, however, that what is now termed *animaliſation*, or immerſing the cotton or thread in a preparation ſaturated with ſome kind of animal matter, is by far the beſt means of inducing thoſe fabrics to receive and retain the dye. A proof of this has been recently given by Giobert to the academy of Turin, in his memoire "on the animaliſation of flax and cotton;" and another inſtance has been adduced by Van Mons, who ſtates, "that he boiled ſome potaſh and lime, in order to whiten ſome linens, into which he accidentally put a few *oyſter-ſhells*; when, to his ſurprize, he found that thoſe pieces of linen immediately took a permanent dye, from colours which, without the agency of the oyſter-ſhells, would have been carried off by mere waſhing in cold water."

Cotton may be dyed BLUE by the following proceſs: one part of indigo, one part of green ſulphat of iron, and two parts of quicklime, are ſtirred into a ſufficient quantity of water. The ſolution is at firſt green, but it gradually aſſumes a yellow colour, and its ſurface is covered with a ſhining copper-coloured pellicle. The cloth is to be allowed to remain in the ſolution for five or ſix minutes. When taken out it has a yellow colour; but, on expoſure to the atmoſphere, it ſoon becomes green, and then blue, in conſequence of the abſorption of oxygen. The indigo, in this proceſs, ſeems to be deprived of a greater quantity of oxygen than is neceſſary to reduce it to the ſtate of green pollen. Mr. Hauſſman has obſerved, that the cloth acquires a much deeper colour, provided it be plunged, the inſtant it is taken out of the dying vat, into water acidulated with ſulphuric acid. It is uſual to dip the cloth into a ſucceſſion of vats, variouſly charged with colouring matter; beginning with the vat which contains leaſt colouring matter, and paſſing gradually to thoſe which contain moſt. By this contrivance the cotton is dyed more equally than it probably would be, if it were plunged all at once into a ſaturated ſolution of colouring matter. To give cotton a very beautiful blue colour, the cold vat of Mr. Guhliche is much recommended. This vat is compoſed of a pound of indigo, three pounds of quicklime, three pounds of Engliſh vitriol, and a pound and a half of orpiment. The indigo ſhould firſt be carefully ground and mixed with water, put into a wooden vat and diluted with water to a proper degree, according to the intenſity of the colour deſired; the lime is then to be added, and the mixture well ſtirred, covered up, and left at reſt for ſome hours, when the vitriol reduced to powder is to be added, the whole well ſtirred, and the vat covered; ſome hours after, the orpiment in powder is to be thrown in, and the whole again left at reſt for ſome hours; after this, the mixture is to be ſtirred, and left to ſettle until the ſupernatant liquor appears clear, when the flower which covers it is put aſide; the cotton is then dyed, after having been previouſly dipped in warm water. When taken out of the bath, it is waſhed in a ſtream of water and dried. When the bath becomes turbid, it is left to ſettle till it grows clear, a precaution eſſentially neceſſary for lighter ſhades; and when it begins to be exhauſted, one-third of the ingredients are added, proceeding as at firſt. In proportion as the vat is exhauſted, the ſhades become lighter. This vat ſerves equally well for ſilk and thread.

To dye cotton YELLOW, it is neceſſary to begin by ſcouring it in a bath prepared with the ley of the aſhes of green wood; it is then waſhed, dried, and alumed with one-fourth of its weight of alum; after twenty-four hours it is taken out of the aluming, and dried without being waſhed. A weld bath is then prepared, with the proportion of a pound and a quarter of weld for each pound of cotton: in this the cotton is dyed, by being turned and wrought in it until it has acquired a proper ſhade; it is taken out of this bath to be ſoaked for an hour and a half, in a ſolution of ſulphat of copper or blue vitriol, in the proportion of one-fourth of the weight of the cotton; it is then thrown, without being waſhed, into a boiling ſolution of white ſoap made with the ſame proportions; after being well ſtirred, it is boiled in it for nearly an hour, then waſhed and dried. But if a ſtill deeper yellow be required, the cotton is not alumed, but two pounds and a half of weld for each pound of cotton are employed, to which a drachm of verdegris mixed with a part of the bath is added; in this, the cotton is dipped and worked, until it have acquired an uniform colour; it is then taken out of the bath, that a little ley of ſoda may be poured in; returned into the bath and kept there for a full quarter of an hour, when it is taken out, wrung, and dried very carefully. A lemon colour is dyed by the ſame proceſs, except that only one pound of weld is employed for each pound of cotton, and that the proportion of verdegris may alſo be diminiſhed, or even entirely omitted, aluming being ſubſtituted in its ſtead. The ſhades of yellow may thus be varied in many different ways. For an orange colour, anotta is uſed: this ſubſtance muſt be ground while it is kept moiſtened, boiled in water with double its weight of alkali, left to ſettle for half an hour, and the clear liquor put into a heated veſſel; in this the cotton is to be immerſed, when it will receive an orange colour. A hot ſolution of tartar is then to be poured into the bath, ſo that it may be-

come weakly acidulated: it is to be again turned in it on the ſkein ſticks, or wound upon the winch when in the piece; in this way the colour becomes more lively, and fixes better; the cotton muſt then be waſhed ſlightly, and dried by means of a ſtove.

The new method of dying cotton yellow, as recommended by Dr. Bancroft, is much more advantageous, and yields permanent and beautiful colours at a ſmaller expence. The mordant he uſes is acetit of alumina, prepared by diſſolving one part of acetit of lead, and three parts of alum, in a ſufficient quantity of water. This ſolution ſhould be heated to the temperature of 100°, the cloth ſhould be ſoaked in it for two hours, then wrung out and dried. The ſoaking may be repeated, and the cloth again dried as before. It is then to be barely wetted with lime-water, and afterwards dried. The ſoaking in the acetit of alumina may be again repeated; and if the ſhade of yellow is required to be very bright and durable, the alternate wetting with lime-water, and ſoaking in the mordant, may be repeated three or four times. By this contrivance a ſufficient quantity of alumina is combined with the cotton, and the combination is rendered more permanent by the addition of lime. The dying bath is prepared by putting twelve or eighteen parts of quercitron bark, (according to the depth of the ſhade required,) tied up in a bag, into a ſufficient quantity of cold water. Into this bath the cotton is to be put, and turned round in it for an hour, while its temperature is gradually raiſed to about 120°. It is then to be brought to a boiling heat, and the cotton allowed to remain in it after that only a few minutes. If it be kept long at a boiling heat, the yellow acquires a ſhade of brown.

Another way of dying cotton very permanent yellows, would be to imitate the method adopted for dying cotton in the eaſt. That method is indeed exceedingly tedious, but it might be very much ſhortened by carefully attending to the uſes of the ingredients. The eſſential part of the proceſs is to cauſe the alumina to combine in ſufficient quantity with the fabric, and to adhere with ſufficient firmneſs to enſure a permanent colour. This is accompliſhed by uſing three mordants; firſt oil, then tan, and laſtly alum. The combination of theſe three ſubſtances produces a mordant which enſures a very permanent colour. The cotton is firſt ſoaked in a bath compoſed of a ſufficient quantity of oil, and mixed with a weak ſolution of ſoda. Animal oil ſeems to anſwer beſt for the purpoſe. Vogler found that glue anſwered extremely well. The ſoda ſhould be cauſtic: in that ſtate it combines with the oil, and enables the cotton to abſorb it equally. It is then, after being waſhed, put into an infuſion of nut-galls, (the whiter the better.) The tan combines with the oil, while the gallic acid carries off the alkali that may remain attached to the cloth. The infuſion ought to be hot; and the cotton, after coming out of it, ſhould be dried as quick as poſſible. Care ſhould be taken that the quantity of galls do not exceed a juſt proportion compared with the oil, otherwiſe the colour will be darkened. The cotton, thus prepared, is to be put into a ſolution of alum. There is a ſtrong affinity between tan and alumina; in conſequence of which, the alum is decompoſed, and the alumina combines with the tan in ſufficient abundance. The cotton, thus prepared, is to be dyed, as above deſcribed, with quercitron bark.

Mr. Chaptal, whoſe ingenious labours have contributed exceedingly to elucidate the theory of dying, has propoſed an exceedingly ſimple and cheap method of dying cotton a fine permanent nankeen yellow. His proceſs is as follows: Cotton has ſo ſtrong an affinity for oxyd of iron, that if put into a ſolution of that oxyd in any acid whatever, it decompoſes the ſalt, abſorbs the iron, and acquires a yellow colour. The cotton to be dyed is to be put into a cold ſolution of ſulphat of iron, of the ſp. gr. 1·020; it is then wrung out, and put directly into a ley of potaſh, of the ſp. gr. 1·010, into which a ſolution of alum has been poured till it was ſaturated with it. After the cotton has remained in this bath four or five hours, it may be taken out, waſhed, and dried. By this proceſs cotton may be dyed all the different ſhades of nankeen, by varying the proportion of the ſulphat of iron. This colour has the advantage of not being injured by waſhing, and of being exceedingly cheap.

To dye cotton Red, madder is the principal ingredient, as well as for giving many other colours by different admixtures. The madder red on cotton is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds; the one is called ſimple madder red; the other, which is much brighter, is called Turkey or Adrianople red, becauſe it comes from the Levant, and has ſeldom been equalled in brightneſs or durability. The reds introduced by madder differ very much in brightneſs and permanency, according to the proceſſes employed. The great difficulty conſiſts in the application of the mordant, which is by far the moſt complicated of any in the whole art of dying. We are indebted to Mr. Vogler, of Weilburg, for ſome very intereſting experiments on this ſubject. He firſt conſiders the baſes or mordants, and afterwards the preparation of the madder bath. The firſt mordant that was tried conſiſted of a ſolution of three drachms of Roman alum in fourteen ounces of water. Cottons boiled for ſome minutes in this ſolution, and afterwards paſſed through the different madder baths, took a ſlight poppy-coloured red. The author obſerved in this, and many other experiments, that Roman alum was much better than common alum, and gave greater brightneſs to the colours. The addition of the ſmalleſt quantity of any kind of acid rendered it paler; the addition of arſenic produced no effect; ſheep and cow dung, and *album grecum*, added to the mordant, as alſo urine employed inſtead of water to diſſolve the alum, contributed to ſtrengthen the colour. Muriat of ſoda and ammoniacal muriat had more effect, but theſe ſalts rendered the colour more dull; lime-water acted very much in the ſame way. The ſubſtances which had the beſt effect were gum arabic, ſtarch, fenugreek-ſeed, and, above all, glue. The gaſtric juice, and the ſerous part of the blood of animals, act in a manner ſimilar to glue, and ſerve to animaliſe the cotton. Thread and cotton may be ſoaked alternately in a ſolution of glue and a ſolution of alum, or the glue may be diſſolved with the alum, in the proportion of from one drachm and a half to four drachms, with the quantity of alum directed. It is neceſſary to chooſe fine glue. This ſubſtance uſed with alum produces a more ſaturated colour, but without alum the red is of a duſky colour. It is alſo found that muriat and nitrat of alumina not only produce a more intenſe and durable red than alum, but the tint is pleaſanter, more eſpecially when the nitrat is employed. In general, muriats render the colour darker, more ſaturated, and more durable. Corroſive mercurial muriat produces an effect of a ſimilar kind. Having diſſolved in a ſtrong ley of pot-aſh as much powdered white arſenic as it would take up with the aſſiſtance of heat, and having mixed this ſolution, which had been diluted with two parts of water, with a ſaturated ſolution of alum, the mixture became turbid, and of the conſiſtence of jelly; it recovered its tranſparency on a ſolution of alum being gradually added. It was found that thread and cotton ſoaked for twelve hours in this mordant, when waſhed and dried, received from madder a beautiful red colour. Thread and cotton which had been for ſix hours in nitro-muriatic acid, and afterwards waſhed and dried, took from madder a more beautiful and durable colour than that which dyers obtain from anotta; even damaged madder, by means of this mordant, afforded a yellowiſh brown, that had a ſhade very agreeable.

This colour is capable of being changed into a poppy-coloured red, which may vie with the moſt beautiful colours of this hue obtained from Braſil-wood and cochineal, by firſt ſoaking the ſtuff in a ſolution of alum and common ſalt, and boiling it a ſecond time with madder. Mr. Vogler macerated for a night three drachms of pot-

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aſh with an equal quantity of common madder in a pound of water; he then applied a boiling heat, and put into it ſome thread and ſome cotton; and after half a quarter of an hour's boiling, he took it out, rinſed and dried it, then ſoaked it in a ſolution of alum and common ſalt; after which he paſſed it through a ſolution of glue, and at laſt dipped it in a madder bath; when it took a full red, which was very fine. If to this preparation ſome anotta be added, a beautiful orange colour will be produced; and it is thus that the dyers in many places prepare that colour: but it is not durable.

Tan or galls diſpoſe cotton readily to receive the madder colour. Mr. Vogler's preparation for galling conſiſted of five drachms of black galls, kept for twenty-four hours in a pound of water, which was then boiled for ten minutes, and ſometimes he added ſix drachms of common ſalt. The galled cotton, after having received the mordants of alum and ſalt, took with the madder a perfectly ſaturated colour, but which was of a dark red. Cotton ſucceſſively impregnated with a ſolution of tin and glue, ſteeped in an infuſion of cochineal and galls, waſhed, and dried, and afterwards impregnated with the alum and ſalt mordant, and laſt of all dyed in a madder bath, received an uncommonly beautiful colour, which was very bright and conſiderably durable. The mordant of alum and corroſive muriat of mercury, and that of alum and ſalt, gave a colour of a deeper caſt.

The ſame gentleman was equally ſucceſsful when inſtead of galls he uſed ſeveral other vegetable aſtringents, ſuch as the ground bark of the alder and oak, the powdered bark of walnut-tree root, flowers and bark of pomegranate, the leaves, bark, and tops, of the ſumach. But the beſt ſubſtitute for galls is unqueſtionably the myrobalans, i. e. the *Phyllanthus emblica* of Linnæus. This is now commonly uſed at Mancheſter, inſtead of galls, not only in preparing the Turkey red dye, but for the aſtringent principle in many other caſes. He made many experiments with metallic and earthy ſalts, all of which, exeept the aluminous and the ſolution of tin, appeared to him to be but little adapted or entirely hurtful in the dying of red. The principal reſults are the following: A ſolution of nitrat of lead employed as a mordant, produced a very dirty red, inclining to brown. In general, ſolutions of lead uſed as mordants for thread and cotton, diſpoſe them abundantly to receive colours from all vegetable colouring ſubſtances, but they have always a dark and dirty appearance. Theſe mordants may be employed for brown or black colours; the bad brown juſt mentioned, for inſtance, will change to a perfect brown of a very beautiful ſhade, if paſſed through a mordant of alum and ſalt, and boiled a ſecond time with madder. A very fine black, by galling thread and cotton impregnated with ſalt of lead, and then putting them into a ſolution of ſulphat of copper, and boiling them in a logwood bath. Cobalt diſſolved in the nitro-muriatic acid produced a very pleaſant colour, nearly reſembling a ſaturated violet. A ſolution of ſulphat of copper gave a bad lilac, and verdegris diſſolved in vinegar produced the ſame effect; but the nitrat of copper produced a much more beautiful and ſaturated colour.

Cotton that has received the mordant of ſulphat of copper or iron, takes in the madder bath a dirty dull violet colour. Mr. Vogler having added the alkaline ſolution of arſenic juſt mentioned, to a moderately ſaturated ſolution of ſulphat of copper or iron, produced a turbid mixture which effervesced, and he rendered it tranſparent by adding ſulphat of iron. Thread and cotton impregnated with this preparation received a beautiful ſaturated puce colour, which penetrated them in a deep manner. But the nitrat and muriat of iron produced a better effect than the ſulphat and acetit, they afforded a beautiful well ſaturated violet colour. The alkaline ſolution of arſenic, mixed with earthy and metallic ſalts, generally render them better mordants for all colours. This likewiſe renders the effect of the mordants into which it enters more laſting, ſo that the ſtuff impregnated with it many years before, may be dyed without diſadvantage; a circumſtance we do not remark reſpecting any other mordant, excepting a ſolution of tin.

The madder bath is prepared in different ways by Mr. Vogler. He puts three drachms of madder into from ſixteen to eighteen ounces of water; he macerated it for twenty-four hours, then boiled it for a quarter of an hour, introduced thread and cotton, and boiled them for half a quarter of an hour; he afterwards waſhed them in two or three waters, and then dried them in the ſhade; he remarks that by long boiling the colour of the ſtuff is taken away and entirely deſtroyed. If freſh urine be ſubſtituted for water, it affords more laſting colours; but in ſummer it is liable to become putrid ſoon, ſo as to render the infuſion incapable of giving the dye. A drachm of ſheep's dung, or *album grecum*, produced the ſame effect as the urine; and three drachms of muriat of ſoda, or one drachm of ammoniacal muriat, produced a fuller but leſs bright colour. Sulphat of pot-aſh and nitre had no effect whatever. Three drachms of white ſugar afforded a more beautiful and ſaturated colour; on four drachms of long pepper being added, it was found to have become more capable of reſiſting the nitric acid. A drachm or a drachm and a half of ſtarch or gum arabic thrown into the bath juſt as it begins to boil, and before the cotton is put in, gives a finer and more ſaturated colour; one drachm of fenugreek ſeed produced very nearly the ſame effect. If from one ounce to one ounce and a half of glue, in the ſtate of jelly, be thrown into the liquor as the ebullition commences, it affords a particularly full colour, and the addition of three drachms of common ſalt not only renders the colour more laſting, but preſerves the infuſion from running into the putrid ſtate. But the moſt beautiful of all common reds upon cotton is obtained by mixing four drachms of ox-gall with the decoction: at the ſame time it ſhould be obſerved, that this colour is more eaſily deſtroyed than any other by the nitric acid. After all, Mr. Vogler confeſſes, that by his numerous proceſſes, he has not been able to obtain a red of a degree of permanency equal to that of the Adrianople, though he has much excelled in this reſpect the *falſe* Adrianople reds uſed for Siameſe and other red ſtuffs.

Of ADRIANOPLE, or TURKEY RED.

That beautiful red dye given to cotton in the Ottoman empire, is known in Europe under the name of *Turkey red*, *Levant red*, or *Adrianople red*. Many attempts have been made both in France and England to imitate this ſplendid dye, and much has been written upon it. The abbé Mazeas has publiſhed ſome experiments which afford conſiderable information; but his proceſs has not ſucceeded. Mr. Henry, of Mancheſter, has unqueſtionably approached the neareſt to perfection in England; and Mr. Gren, in the German manufactories, has ſucceeded in a very cloſe imitation. Theſe proceſſes have already appeared in the numerous Engliſh books on dying: the beſt information, therefore, left for us to give, is the genuine method and proceſſes adopted in the Grecian manufactories, where this dye firſt had its riſe, and where it is now carried on with the utmoſt celebrity. We are indebted for this information to M. C. Felix, who made a journey into the Levant on purpoſe, and ſucceeded in bringing away the entire proceſs; and this he has publiſhed in the *Annales de Chimie*, No. 92. In theſe Grecian manufactories the workmen dye at one time a maſs of ſkeins weighing thirty-five occas; each occa being equal to about fifty ounces. The firſt thing to be done is that of cleaning the cotton, for which purpoſe three leys are employed; one of ſoda, another of aſhes, and a third of lime. The cotton is thrown into a tub, and moiſtened with the liquor of the three leys in equal quantities; it is then boiled in pure water, and waſhed in running water. The ſecond bath given to the cotton is compoſed of ſoda and ſheep's dung diſſolved in water.

To facilitate the ſolution, the ſoda and dung are pounded in a mortar. The proportions of theſe ingredients are, one occa of dung, ſix of ſoda, and forty of water. When the ingredients are well mixed, the liquor expreſſed from them is ſtrained, and being poured into a tub, ſix occas of olive-oil are added to it, and the whole is well ſtirred till it becomes of a whitiſh colour, like milk. The cotton is then ſprinkled with this water, and when the ſkeins are thoroughly moiſtened, they are wrung, preſſed, and expoſed to dry. The ſame bath muſt be repeated three or four times, becauſe it is this liquor which renders the cotton more or leſs apt for receiving the dye. Each bath is given with the ſame liquor, and ought to continue five or ſix hours. It is to be obſerved that the cotton, after each bath, muſt be dried without being waſhed, as it ought not to be rinſed till after the laſt bath. The cotton is then as white as if it had been bleached in the fields.

The bath of ſheep's dung is a practice long peculiar to the Levant. It may be ſuppoſed that the dung is of no utility for fixing the colours; but it is known that this ſubſtance contains a great quantity of volatile alkali, in a diſengaged ſtate, which has the property of giving a roſy hue to the red. It is therefore probable that it is to this ingredient that the red dyes of the Levant are indebted for their ſplendour and vivacity. This much, at any rate, is certain, that the Morocco leather of the Levant is prepared with dog's dung; becauſe it has been found that this dung is proper for heightening the colour of the lack. The bath of dung is followed by the proceſs of galling. The galling is performed by immerſing the cotton in a bath of warm water, in which five occas of pulveriſed gall-nuts have been boiled. This operation renders the cotton more fit for being ſaturated with the colour, and gives to the dye more body and ſtrength. After the galling comes aluming, which is performed twice, with an interval of two days, and which conſiſts in dipping the cotton into a bath of water in which five occas of alum have been infuſed, mixed with five occas of water alcaliſed by a ley of ſoda. The aluming muſt be performed with care, as it is this operation which makes the colouring particles combine beſt with the cotton, and which ſecures them in part from the deſtructive action of the air. When the ſecond aluming is finiſhed, the cotton is wrung; it is then preſſed, and put to ſoak in running water, after being incloſed in a bag of thin cloth.

The workmen now proceed to the dying. To compoſe the colours, they put in a boiler five occas of water and thirty-five occas of a root which the Greeks call *ali-zari*, or painting colour, and which in Europe is known under the name of *madder*. The madder, after being pulveriſed, is moiſtened with one occa of ox or ſheep's blood. The blood ſtrengthens the colour, and the doſe is increaſed or leſſened according to the ſhade of colour required. Thus the ſheep's dung and the blood act as an animaliſation of the cotton. An equal heat is maintained under the boiler, but not too violent; and, when the liquor ferments, and begins to grow warm, the ſkeins are then gradually immerſed before the liquor becomes too hot. They are then tied with packthread to ſmall rods, placed croſſwiſe over the boiler for that purpoſe, and when the liquor boils well, and in an uniform manner, the rods from which the ſkeins were ſuſpended are removed, and the cotton is ſuffered to fall into the copper, where it muſt remain till two-thirds of the water is evaporated. When one-third only of the liquor remains, the cotton is taken out and waſhed in pure water.

The dye is afterwards brought to perfection by means of a bath alcaliſed with ſoda. This manipulation is the moſt difficult and the moſt delicate of the whole, becauſe it is that which gives the colour its tone. The cotton is thrown into this new bath, and made to boil over a ſteady fire till the colour aſſumes the required tint. The whole art conſiſts in catching the proper degree: a careful workman, therefore, muſt watch with the utmoſt attention for the moment when it is neceſſary to take out the cotton, and he will rather burn his hand than miſs that opportunity. It appears that this bath, which the Greeks think of ſo much importance, might be ſupplied by a ley of ſoap; and it is probable that ſaponaceous water would give the colour more brightneſs and purity. When the colour is too weak, the Levantines know how to ſtrengthen it by increaſing the doſe of the colouring ſubſtances; and, when they wiſh to give it brightneſs and ſplendour, they employ different roots of the country, and, in particular, one named *ſaffari*, ſpecimens of which have been ſent to France.

The ali-zari, which is the principal colouring matter employed in the Greek dye-houſes, is collected in Natolia, and is brought to Greece from Smyrna: ſome of it comes alſo from Cyprus and Meſopotamia. The ſuperiority of this Levantine plant to the European madder, is acknowledged by all thoſe acquainted with the art of dying, and may ariſe from two cauſes; the manner in which it is cultivated, and the method employed for its deſiccation. As the ali-zari appears to be of a weaker conſtitution than the common madder; as its branches are more delicate, its leaves ſmoother and tenderer, and its ſtem more fragile, it is ſupported by ſticks, as peaſe are among us. A well-nouriſhed ſtem acquires in this manner more conſiſtence, and ſends forth more roots. It is the woody part of the roots which affords the greateſt quantity of colouring particles. The ali-zari is not collected till the fifth or ſixth year, that is to ſay, when it has acquired its full ſtrength; while in France and Zealand, where land is of more value than in the Levant, the inhabitants wiſh to reap too ſoon, and collect the madder before it comes to complete maturity.

The method employed in the deſiccation contributes alſo to improve the quality of the ali-zari. The Levantines dry it in the open air; and this operation is eaſy in a country where great dryneſs prevails in the atmoſphere, while, in our damp climates, we are obliged to dry the madder by ſtoves. Hence it happens that the ſmoke, which mixes itſelf with the cold air, and penetrates the roots, impregnates them with fuliginous particles, which alter the colouring ſubſtance; an accident which does not take place when the madder is dried without the aſſiſtance of fire. It is, however, poſſible, that the ali-zari and madder may never produce the ſame tone of colour, notwithſtanding all the care that may be employed in the culture and drying of the latter; becauſe there may be as much difference between theſe two plants, ſo like to each other, as between the goats of Wales and thoſe of Angola. It is probable, alſo, that the ſuperiority of the ali-zari over madder may ariſe only from its ſtem being tenderer, and by its conſequently having a greater diſpoſition to transform itſelf into ſucculent roots. In that caſe, ſeveral plants of the family of the rubiæ might be ſubſtituted in its place with advantage; ſuch as the *gallium luteum* and *gallium flore albo*, found in abundance on the hills of Poitou, and the madder, which grows on both ſides of the Alps, and which has been diſtinguiſhed by the name of *rubia lævis Tourinenſium*. All theſe plants give a red as beautiful and as pure as the beſt madder; but whether the quantity of their colouring matter is equal to their beautiful quality, remains yet to be enquired.

The chief manufactories for dying ſpun cotton a Turkey red, are in Theſſaly. There are ſome at Baba, Rapſani, Tournavos, Lariſſa, Pharſalia, and in all the villages ſituated on the ſides of Oſſa and Pelion. Theſe two mountains may be conſidered as the alembics that diſtil the eternal vapours with which Olympus is crowned, and which diſtribute them throughout the beautiful valleys ſituated around them. Of theſe valleys, that of Tempe has at all times been diſtinguiſhed by the beauty of its ſhady groves and of its ſtreams. Theſe ſtreams, on account of their limpidneſs, are very proper for dying, and ſupply

ſupply water to a great number of manufactories, the moſt celebrated of which are thoſe of Ambelakia. This village, by its induſtry, communicates life and activity to all the neighbouring country. Its population, which has been tripled within theſe fifteen years, amounts at preſent to four thouſand, and all theſe people *live* by *dying*. Aqua fortis, or dilute nitric acid, is the beſt and moſt expeditious teſt for diſtinguiſhing the true Adrianople red from the falſe. If we immerſe a thread of the latter dye in it, it ſoon become pale, and in leſs than a quarter of an hour white; while the true Adrianople red will remain in it for an hour without any alteration, and, indeed, never entirely loſes its colour, but acquires an orange hue or caſt. A ſcarlet colour may be given to cotton by means of murio-ſulphat of tin, cochineal, and quercitron bark, uſed as for ſilk; but the colour is too fading to be of any value.

In order to dye cotton BLACK, it muſt be previouſly dyed blue, and ſteeped for twenty-four hours in a decoction of nut-galls. A bath is prepared, containing acetit of iron, formed by ſaturating acetous acid with brown oxyd of iron. Into this bath the cotton is put in ſmall quantities at a time, wrought with the hand for a quarter of an hour, then wrung out and aired, again wrought in a freſh quantity of the bath, and afterwards aired. Theſe alternate proceſſes are repeated till the colour wanted is given. A decoction of alder bark is uſually mixed with the liquor containing the nut-galls. It would probably contribute to the goodneſs and permanence of the colour, if the cotton, before being galled, were impregnated with oil, by being ſteeped in a mixture of alkaline ley and oil combined, as is practiſed for dying cotton red.

To give a GREEN colour to linen and cotton, they are firſt ſcoured, dyed in the blue vat, cleanſed, and dipped in the weld bath. The ſtrength of the blue and the yellow is proportioned to the colour to be obtained. As it is difficult to dye cotton velvet uniformly in the common blue vat, it is firſt dyed yellow with turmeric, and finiſhed green with the ſolution of indigo in the ſulphuric acid. But it is a matter of indifference whether the yellow or the blue be begun firſt. A proceſs for dying cotton velvet, or ſkeins of cotton, of a ſea or apple green in a ſingle bath, is deſcribed by M. d'Apligny. In it verdegris is mixed with vinegar, and the mixture kept well ſtopped fifteen days in a ſtove; four hours before uſing it, a ſolution of a quantity of *cendres gravelées*, equal in weight to that of the verdegris, is added, and the mixture is kept hot. The cotton, thread, or velvet, are prepared by being ſoaked in a warm ſolution of alum, made in the proportion of one ounce of ſalt and five quarts of water to the pound: they are then taken out, and the verdegris mixture added to the bath, into which they are returned in order that they may be dyed. The different ſhades of olive, and drake's-neck green, are made by giving the cotton a blue ground, galling it, and dipping it in a weaker or ſtronger bath from what the dyers call the *black caſk*, then in the weld bath with the verdegris, and afterwards in the bath with the ſulphat of copper; and the colour is afterwards brightened by means of ſoap. Different ſhades will be produced by the ſame ingredients, in the formation of Saxon green, according to the proceſs which is employed: if a Saxon blue be firſt given, and afterwards the yellow colour, ſeparately, the effects will be ſimilar to thoſe above-mentioned; but if the ſolution of indigo be mixed with the yellow ingredients, other reſults are obtained, for then the ſulphuric acid acts on the colouring particles, and the intenſity of the yellow is diminiſhed. If a ſucceſſion of ſhades be dyed in a bath compoſed of yellow and the ſolution of indigo, the laſt approach more and more to yellow, becauſe the particles of indigo become attached to the ſtuff in preference to the yellow ones, which therefore become predominant in the bath.

The general method of dying thread and cotton a purple or violet colour, is firſt to give them a blue ground in the vat, proportionate to the ſhade wanted, and to dry them; they are then galled, in the proportion of three ounces of galls to a pound: they are left for twelve or fifteen hours in this gall-bath, after which, they are wrung and dried again. The thread and cotton are then paſſed through a decoction of logwood, and when well ſoaked are taken out, and two drachms of alum and one drachm of diſſolved verdegris for each pound of thread and cotton, are added to the bath; the ſkeins are then re-dipped on the ſkein ſticks, and turned for a full quarter of an hour, when they are taken out to be aired; after which they are to be again completely immerſed in the bath for a quarter of an hour, then taken out and wrung. Then the vat which has been employed is emptied; half of the decoction of logwood which had been reſerved is poured in, two drachms of alum are added, and the cotton dipped afreſh, until it is brought to the ſhade required. The decoction of logwood ought to be ſtronger or weaker according to the ſhade we want: this violet ſtands the action of the air tolerably well, but cannot be compared in durability to that obtained by means of madder. In the production of violet by means of cochineal, it may be obſerved, that the woollen ſtuff has been diſpoſed to take a crimſon, by the bath, which contains alum; but the tartar added to the dye-bath, brings the colour back to red; this is a general property which acids poſſeſs. For purple, the red is rendered a little more predominant, by increaſing the quantity of the cochineal, and diminiſhing the intenſity of the blue ground. But the ſhades bordering on theſe two colours ſhould have a diſtinct red, and the ſame proportion of tartar is preſerved, though that of cochineal and the depth of the blue ground be leſſened.

The cinnamon and mor-doré colours are given to thread and cotton, by beginning the proceſs for dying them with verdegris and weld; they are then dipped in a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, wrung and dried. When dry, they are galled in the proportion of three ounces of galls to the pound, dried again, alumed as for red, and maddered. When dyed and waſhed they are put into very warm ſoapſuds, and turned until they are ſufficiently brightened; in the aluming, decoction of fuſtic is ſometimes added. For ſome colours, blue is combined with red and yellow; it is thus that olives are made. A blue ground is firſt given, then the yellow dye; and, laſtly, a ſlight maddering. The ſhade which reſults from this operation depends on the proportion of the three colours of which it is compoſed: a browning is given with a ſolution of ſulphat of iron, for the more deep ſhades. Mr. Poerner combines blue with yellow and red, by uſing the ſolution of indigo in the ſulphuric acid, to which he adds alkali. He prepares a bath with cochineal and fuſtic, adds the ſolution of indigo, and dyes the cloth in it after it has been alumed. He alſo makes a bath with fuſtic and Brazil-wood, to which he adds tartar or alum, and in this way obtains different colours inclining more or leſs to blue, red, or green. A fine olive is given to thread and cotton, as M. d'Apligny has obſerved, by boiling four parts of weld and one of pot-aſh in a ſufficient quantity of water; Brazil-wood, which has been ſteeped over night, is boiled ſeparately with a little verdegris; theſe two ſolutions are mixed in different proportions, according to the ſhade required, and the cotton or thread afterwards dipped into the liquor.

Of DYING LINEN and THREAD.

Flax and hemp, which produce us thread and linen, exhibit the ſame properties with regard to dying: and if cotton is an important object of induſtry, flax and hemp deſerve particular attention, both as a national production, and as the moſt extenſive ſource of labour for the poor. It is a manufacture adapted to every part of the country; which admits of ſubdiviſion from the fabrication of cordage to that of cambrics; which collects rural

families together in the intervals from other labours, and affords them, in ſome meaſure, the ſweets of ſociety, which preſents an opportunity of habituating infancy to labour, and of acquiring a means to render old age comfortable. At a time when we are every where employed in draining and incloſing land, and when the number of ſmall additional tracts of land muſt by theſe means every day increaſe, it is a circumſtance meriting attention, that the ſoil fitteſt for the culture of hemp is that from which the waters have been recently drained, and that this production is peculiarly adapted for the employment of ſmall cultivators.

Flax ought to undergo ſeveral preparations before it is fit to receive the dye. The firſt is ſteeping; by this the bark, which is afterwards to ſerve for ſpinning, is diſpoſed to ſeparate. The ſteeping is an operation of ſo great importance, both with regard to its influence upon the quantity and quality of the product, and the deleterious qualities it may communicate to the air, that it may not be improper to give an idea of the principles on which it may be conducted.

It appears that, in ſteeping, a glutinous liquor that holds the green colouring part of the plant in ſolution, and which unites the cortical with the ligneous part, undergoes a degree of putrefaction greater or leſs according to the method we employ; for, as M. Roſier has obſerved, carbonic acid, and inflammable gas, are diſengaged. This ſubſtance appears to reſemble greatly the glutinous part which is diſſolved in the juice expreſſed from green plants, which ſeparates from the colouring particles when it is made to undergo a heat approaching to boiling, which putrefies and affords ammoniac by diſtillation. Although this ſubſtance be held in ſolution in the juice expreſſed from plants, it appears, however, that water alone cannot ſeparate it from the cortical part; but it is on this account that hemp which has been ſteeped in a rapid ſtream, is deficient in flexibility and ſoftneſs. If the ſteeping be performed in ſtagnant and corrupted water, the hemp acquires a brown colour; but beſides this, it loſes its ſolidity, and exhales vapours which produce fatal diſorders. It appears, then, that the ſteeping is moſt advantageouſly performed in pools planted at the ſides of rivers, ſo that the water may be eaſily renewed to prevent the putrefaction from being hurtful to the hemp or injurious to health, and yet not ſufficient to prevent the degree neceſſary to render the gelatinous ſubſtance ſoluble in water. M. Roſier found that the ſteeping would be performed when the hemp is covered with a layer of earth, and he adviſes that method; M. Prozet has propoſed to diſſolve a ſmall quantity of cauſtic alkali in the water in which it is performed, to increaſe its ſolvent power, and prevent putrefaction; but it appears from the experiments of Dr. Home, that the alkali retards the operation of ſteeping, and renders the flax brittle.

While flax is ſteeping, and during the drying which ought to precede and follow it, the green colouring particles undergo a change ſimilar to that obſerved in the green ſubſtance of plants which are expoſed to the action of the air and of light; the colour changes to a yellow, to a fawn, and even to a brown, in conſequence of the combuſtion which is induced. A great part is then ſoluble in alkalies, without requiring to be any further oxygenated; ſo that by treating it with an alkaline ſolution, we can ſeparate from it a conſiderable portion of its colouring particles, which remain, perhaps, combined with a part of the gluten. It is upon the ſolution of theſe colouring particles that the proceſs publiſhed by the prince of St. Sever for obtaining fine lint from hemp is founded. He orders the hemp to be lixiviated with a ſolution of two parts of ſoda to one of lime, afterwards to impregnate it with ſoap to keep it in digeſtion, to waſh it well, and afterwards to comb it. Berthollet deſcribes an excellent proceſs for obtaining fine lint from hemp, which is the invention of a clergyman. He ſteeps the hemp as ſoon as it is taken from the earth: after ſteeping he ſeparates the bark by a particular manipulation, and by dipping it in a ſolution of black ſoap; he waſhes it with great care before drying; the colouring part, which is ſoluble only in alkalies, may ſtill be diſſolved and carried away by the water aſſiſted by a little ſoap; the lint then becomes much whiter; it divides more readily without doing ſo too much; and we have the lixiviations which ought to precede the bleaching.

Ordinary thread and cloth that is woven contain a colouring ſubſtance which may be ſeparated by ſimple lixiviations; but there is a portion of this ſubſtance that is truly combined with the vegetable fibres, and which can only be ſeparated by decompoſing it by the combuſtion it undergoes in combining with oxygen. Thread loſes by the operation of bleaching from a fourth to a third part of its weight. In order to diſpoſe thread to take on the dye, it is made to undergo the ſeveral operations of dreſſing, aluming, and galling, deſcribed under the article *cotton*; moſt, if not all, of the dyes prepared for which, may be communicated by the ſame proceſſes to linen and thread, taking care to have them firſt well cleaned and bleached.

Of all colours, the dyers experience the greateſt difficulty in communicating a full, rich, and durable *black*, to linen, and cotton; or at leaſt ſuch as will reſiſt the ſoap in waſhing. To dye linen or thread black, a ſolution of iron is uſed, which is kept in a caſk called the *black caſk*. This ſolution is prepared with vinegar, ſmall beer, or ſmall wine made from the grapes after they have been preſſed by adding water to them, which is foured with rye-meal, or ſome other ingredient, in order to procure an acid liquid at a low price. Pieces of old iron are thrown into this liquor, which is left to ſtand till wanted, but never uſed in leſs than ſix weeks or two months. To this bath aſtringents are frequently added, particularly the decoction of alder bark, which of itſelf has the property of diſſolving the oxyd of iron in a pretty large proportion. The method followed at Rouen, for dying linen and thread black, as deſcribed by M. le Pileur d'Apligny, is this: They are firſt dyed ſky-blue in the vat, then wrung out and dried. They are next galled, uſing four ounces of galls to every pound of thread, and leaving them twenty-four hours in the gall-liquor, after which they are wrung out, and then well dried. The liquor of the black caſk, in the proportion of about five quarts for every pound, is then poured into a tub, in which the thread is worked with the hand, pound by pound, about a quarter of an hour, when it is wrung out and aired. This operation is repeated twice, adding each time a freſh quantity of the black bath, which ought to be carefully ſcummed. After this it is again aired, wrung out, waſhed at the river to cleanſe it well, and then dried carefully at the time. When this thread is to be dyed, a pound of alder-bark for every pound of thread is boiled for an hour in a ſufficient quantity of water. About half the bath that ſerved for the galling, and half as much ſumach as alder-bark are then added, and the whole boiled together for two hours, and then ſtrained through a ſieve. When the liquor is cold, the thread is put into it on the ſticks, and well worked, airing it from time to time: it is then let down into the bath again, left in it twenty-four hours, wrung out, and dried as before. For the purpoſe of ſoftening this thread when it is dry, it is cuſtomary to ſoak and work it in the remains of a weld-bath that has been uſed for other colours, adding to it a little logwood. From this it is taken out and wrung, and inſtantly put into a tub of warm water, into which has been poured an ounce of olive-oil for every pound of thread. It is then wrung out and dried carefully.

The ſame author deſcribes a proceſs in which he employs madder alſo for giving linen and cotton-thread a black colour, and which he conſiders as a very fine and durable black. In this proceſs the thread is firſt to be ſcoured as uſual, galled, then alumed, and afterwards dipped

dipped in the weld-bath. When taken out of this bath, it is to be dyed in a decoction of logwood, to which a quarter of a pound of ſulphat of copper has been added for every pound of thread. After this it is to be waſhed in the river, and wrung ſeveral times, but not too hard. Finally, it is dyed in a madder-bath, in the proportion of half a pound to each pound of thread. That the black may not be liable to be diſcharged, the thread muſt be dipped in a bath of a ſolution of ſoap.

Mr. Wilſon has deſcribed the method which is followed at Mancheſter for dying linen and thread black. A galling is made with galls or ſumach; after which the ſtuff is dyed with the liquor of the bath, conſiſting of a ſolution of iron in vegetable acid, frequently compoſed of alder-bark and iron, and then dipped in a decoction of logwood with a little verdegris. This proceſs is repeated till a deep black is obtained; and it is neceſſary to waſh and dry after each of theſe different operations.

But the moſt recent, and apparently the moſt effectual, mode of dying linen and cotton thread black, is the following, invented by M. Vogler, at Weilburg. Take a quart of pure ſoft water, and mix with it two ounces, or two ounces and a half, of common aquafortis; then throw in gradually, two ounces, or two ounces and a half, of litharge. The boſtle, after being ſlightly corked, muſt be ſet in a warm place, and ſhaken from time to time. After a few days, the clear liquor may be poured off from the ſediment, into a deep earthen, leaden, or pewter, veſſel. In this clear ſolution of litharge in nitrous acid, the cotton or linen intended to be dyed, is to be immerſed, and is to macerate or ſoak therein for the ſpace of ten or twelve hours. It may then be taken out, and, after being three times waſhed in pure cold water, wringing it each time, it is to be dipped in a ſolution of glue in water. Being then again wrung, it muſt be put to dry in the ſhade; taking care that the glue-water is only wrung out, not waſhed out. Raw, unbleached, and looſely-ſpun, linen thread, or cotton yarn, that has already been ſteeped in warm ley, and afterwards well waſhed in cold water, is more proper for the preſent purpoſe, and takes the application of the mordant, and that of the colour, more readily than the ſame materials after they are knit or woven. Each ſkein is to be tied with two looſe and broad ſtrings, of tape or binding; by the help of which, the ſkeins, if they ſhould happen to be entangled, during their maceration, or dying, may be ſeparated, and brought into order again.

The glue-water, in which the linen or cotton (after it has been ſteeped in the ſolution of litharge) is to be dipped, may be prepared by reducing common carpenter's glue into a jelly or ſize, by boiling it in a pan with a ſmall quantity of water, and then diſſolving, in boiling water, ſuch a proportion of the jelly as will give to the water a ſticky or glutinous conſiſtence, leaving it, at the ſame time, ſufficiently thin and fluid. Take three quarters of an ounce of galls, well bruiſed, and boil them in a quart, or rather more, of pure water. When they have boiled for the ſpace of ſeven or eight minutes, throw in three quarters of an ounce of common ſalt; and, when that is diſſolved, put in the linen or cotton ſtuff that is to be dyed, and that has already been ſoaked in the ſolution of litharge in aquafortis, and dipped in the glue-water. When the ſtuff has been boiled in the liquor ſeven or eight minutes, it may be taken out; it is then to be three times waſhed and wrung, as before, in clean cold water, and afterwards dried in a ſhady place. The linen or cotton ſtuff, which before was white, will be found to have acquired, from the foregoing operations, a dark grey colour, with a ſhade of yellow; this may be conſidered as a good ground for a black colour.

In the place of galls, for the aſtringent principle, oak-bark, in powder, may be uſed; alſo the thin rind of the alder tree, the rind of the root of the walnut-tree, the flowers or the ſhells of pomegranates, ſumach, *(Rhus coriaria,)* the leaves of tormentil-cinquefoil, *(Potentilla argentea,)* and tormentil roots; all of which may be uſed in the ſame proportion as the galls. Common ſalt alſo poſſeſſes the power of rendering the colour more deep and permanent; but it ſhould be added when the boiling of the ſtuffs in the decoction of galls is nearly finiſhed, as it might otherwiſe impede the extraction of the colouring-matter from the galls, or render the penetration of the ſaid matter into the ſubſtance of the ſtuffs leſs ſtrong. Take three quarters of an ounce of common copperas or vitriol of iron, and the ſame quantity of common ſalt, and diſſolve them in a quart of clean hot water. Let the ſtuffs, prepared in the manner before deſcribed, with galls, or other aſtringent vegetable ſubſtances, and which have already acquired a blackiſh colour, be immerſed in this liquor. After eight or ten hours, they may be taken out; waſhed and wrung three or four times in clean cold water, and then dried in the ſhade. The advantage ariſing from the mixture of common ſalt, in this ſolution of copperas, is, not only that leſs of the ground colour is taken away, but alſo, the tints which are afterwards to be given to the ſtuff, enter them more deeply, and produce a better colour.

Boil three quarters of an ounce of campeachy or logwood, in rather more than two quarts of rain or river water. When it has boiled ſeven or eight minutes, add to the decoction a quarter of an ounce of white ſtarch; which, that it may not be clotted or lumpy, muſt be firſt well mixed in a tea-cup with a little freſh water. When this, by boiling a few minutes, is diſſolved in the liquor, the linen or cotton ſtuff, already prepared by means of the ſolution of copperas, &c. is to be put into the liquor. After it has boiled therein for ſeven or eight minutes, it may be taken out; and, being firſt waſhed and wrung two or three times in clean cold water, as before, may be dried in the ſhade. If, when the ſtuff is dry, its colour appears to be too faint, that is, if it ſhould not be of a deep and fine black colour, it muſt be again ſoaked in the ſolution of copperas, and then boiled once more in the decoction of logwood: it cannot then fail to be of the wiſhed-for fine full black: but this colour is not yet ſo fixed as to bear being waſhed in ley, or even in ſoap and water. In order to bring the colour to this degree of perfection, the dyed ſtuff muſt, in the laſt place, be treated in the following manner.

One ounce of galls, well bruiſed, or the ſame quantity of any of the aſtringent vegetable ſubſtances above-mentioned, and a full quart, or rather more, of glue-water, of ſuch a conſiſtence as to feel clammy between the fingers, are to be put over the fire: when the mixture has boiled ſeven or eight minutes, one ounce of copperas or vitriol of iron is to be added; and, when it is diſſolved, the liquor may be taken off the fire. In this decoction, as ſoon as it is cold, the linen or cotton, prepared in the manner already deſcribed, is now to be immerſed. After remaining therein for the ſpace of an hour, it may be taken out; and, having firſt been preſſed or wrung, but not waſhed, may be hung up to dry in the ſhade. Here it may be left quiet for ſome time, in order that the dye may incorporate with the ſtuff, and become fixed therein.

The decoction of logwood may be kept for ſeveral weeks after it is made, even until it has acquired a bad ſmell; as it does not thereby loſe, in the ſmalleſt degree, its colouring property, but, on the contrary, becomes more fit for uſe: The addition of white ſtarch to the decoction of logwood, promotes, in a remarkable manner, the ſolution and extraction of the colouring particles of that wood: it alſo aſſiſts in giving to the linen or cotton a deeper and more beautiful colour. For boiling the ingredients, and macerating the ſtuffs, veſſels of earth, or braſs, or of copper, may be made uſe of: they ſhould not be too wide, but the deeper they are the better, as, in ſuch, the ſtuffs to be dyed may be more conveniently immerſed, without being liable to riſe up to the ſurface of the liquor.

The bath which is diſtinguiſhed by the name of black-

caſk, is employed to give thread a great number of dark colours. In order to give a durable violet to thread, a mordant is prepared, compoſed of two parts of the bath of the black caſk, and four quarts of water for every pound; this is made to boil, and the ſcum which forms on its ſurface is removed; when no more appears, the liquor is poured into a vat, and when it is juſt warm, four ounces of ſulphat of copper and an ounce of ſalt-petre are diſſolved in it; the ſkeins are then left in it to ſoak for ten or twelve hours, wrung and dried. When they are to be maddered, they are carefully waſhed and dipped in a madder bath. If a deep violet be required, two ounces of verdegris are added to the bath; the colour is rendered ſtill deeper by galling the thread more or leſs, before it is put into the mordant, and by omitting the ſalt-petre. But, if the proportion of this laſt be increaſed, and that of the ſulphat of copper be diminiſhed, the violet inclines more to lilac. This is uſed likewiſe for cotton thread; both fabrics being dyed with the ſame ingredients, and in the ſame manner.

Among the many recent inventions for facilitating and improving the art of dying, we think it right to notice the following. Mr. Robert Frith, of Selford, in the county of Lancaſter, obtained a patent dated May 25, 1798, for a new method of dying different permanent colours upon cotton, linen, woollen, and ſilk. We ſhall give the proceſſes in his own words: "I Robert Frith do declare, that my new-invented chemical method of dying different permanent colours upon all the abovementioned fabrics, is performed in manner following; that is to ſay: To dye a permanent ſtraw or yellow colour upon cotton, linen, woollen, and ſilk, I take one pound of the beſt blue galls, and boil them in one gallon of water; if the galls be of an inferior quality, I boil one pound and a half to one gallon of water, and ſo in proportion to their quality, until I have a ſufficient quantity of liquor; or I dilute this liquor with water, according to the ſtrength or fulneſs of colour I want to dye. I work the goods in this liquor very well; after which I paſs them through aqua-fortis, killed with block tin, as follows. I take one pint of water, with one ounce of ſal-ammoniac diſſolved in it, to which I put one pint of aqua-fortis, and add to them one ounce and a half of block tin; to this preparation I mix five or ſix times its quantity of warm water, or I paſs them through ſpirits of ſalts, killed with block tin only, and diluted with the ſame quantity of water; then I waſh them well in clear water, and, if the colour is not ſufficiently full, I repeat as before, until it is, and then waſh them off in ſoap and warm water, and dry them.

Another method of dying the ſame colours.—After working the goods or cloth through the gall liquor prepared as above, I paſs them through a liquor made from aſh-wood or bark, ground or raſped, or from American oak wood or bark, ground or raſped, or from crab-tree wood or bark, or from apple-tree wood or bark, or from a liquor made from woulds, or from ſumach, or from two or more of the above woods or barks, or from all of them mixed together, according to the ſhade or fullneſs of the colour wanted, as it is impoſſible to fix an exact quantity of woods and barks for the above liquor. They muſt be regulated according to the goodneſs and ſtrength of them, and the different ſhades of colour I want to dye, making it ſtronger or weaker, as I ſee occaſion; after which I paſs them through aqua-fortis, or ſpirits of ſalts, killed with block tin as before, and diluted with water; then waſh them well in water. After which I waſh them in ſoap and warm water, and dry them; or I add the aqua-fortis, or ſpirits of ſalts, prepared as before, to the liquor made from the woods, or barks, till I can taſte the ſpirit perfectly in the liquor, in which I work the goods ten or fifteen minutes, and then waſh them as before, and dry them.

Or another way to dye the ſaid colours.—I paſs the goods through the gall liquor, prepared as before; then I add to the ſame liquor aqua-fortis, or ſpirit of ſalts, prepared as before with block tin, until I can taſte the ſpirits perfectly in the liquor; then I work them ten or fifteen minutes through this liquor again, after which I waſh them off, and dry them as before. To dye a permanent nankeen colour on cotton, or goods made of cotton, linen, woollen, and ſilk; inſtead of running the goods through a liquor made from alder wood, or bark, or mahogany wood or bark, ground or raſped, and then through aqua-fortis, killed with block tin, and diluted with water; which method of dying this colour I found out, and have practiſed, for theſe ten years paſt, but which colour had not ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the action of the air upon it; I now dye it as follows, which produces as permanent and beautiful a colour as any that is dyed in the Eaſt Indies, and capable of reſiſting the effects of the air upon it. I now paſs the goods through the gall liquor, prepared as before ſtated, for the other colour, or diluted with water, according to the colour wanted; then through a liquor made from alder wood or bark, ground or raſped, or mahogany wood or bark, or ſloe-tree wood or bark, or walnut-tree wood or bark, or from elm-tree wood or bark, or from poplar wood or bark, ground or raſped, or from tea, or from any two of theſe woods or barks, or tea, or from all of them. The quantity of ingredients and ſtrength of the liquor, to be proportioned to the ſhade or fulneſs of the colour I have to dye; or I mix the gall liquor with this liquor, prepared from the woods and barks, in proportion of half a pint or more, according to the colour, to one gallon of the wood or bark liquor; after which I run them through aqua-fortis, or ſpirit of ſalts, killed with block tin, as before, and diluted with five or ſix times its quantity of warm water; then waſh them in clear water, after that in ſoap and water, and then dry them.

Another method of dying the above colour.—I paſs the goods firſt through the liquors prepared from the woods or barks, or tea, as before ſtated, or any two or more of them; then through aqua-fortis, or ſpirit of ſalts, killed with block tin, as before; after which I waſh them well in water, and then run them through the gall liquor, made as before, and diluted with water, according to the ſhade the colour is wanted; then through the aqua-fortis or ſpirit of ſalts again, or ſtrong alum water, or a mixture of theſe together; after which I waſh them well in clear water, then through ſoap and warm water, and dry them.

To dye a permanent buff colour on cotton, or goods made of cotton, linen, woollen, or ſilk, I paſs the goods through the gall liquor, made as before for the other colours; then I work it through a liquor made from Engliſh oak bark, or Engliſh oak wood, ground or raſped, or from American oak bark or wood, or from alder bark or wood, or from crab-tree bark or wood, or from apple-tree bark or wood, ground or raſped, or from ſumach, or from two or more of them, mixed together, according to the ſhade or fulneſs of colour wanted; then I take out the goods, and add to the liquor aqua-fortis, or ſpirit of ſalts, killed with block tin, as before, till I can taſte the ſpirits perfectly in the liquor; then I paſs or work them well through this liquor again, for ten or fifteen minutes, after which I waſh them well in water, and, if the colour is not ſufficiently ſtrong, I repeat the ſame operation over again, until it is, and then waſh them off in warm water and ſoap, and dry them.

Another way to dye the ſame colour.—I paſs the goods through the gall liquor, made as before, or diluted with water, according to the colour I want to dye; then I work them through the liquor made from the different woods or barks, as before ſtated; then I paſs them through aqua-fortis, or ſpirit of ſalts, killed with block tin, as before, and mixed with five or ſix times its quantity of warm water; after which I waſh them well in clean water, and, if the colour is not ſufficiently ſtrong, I repeat the ſame method over again until it is; then I waſh

waſh them off through warm water and ſoap, and dry them. To dye a permanent mud, dove, or drab colour.—I take half a pint of aqua-fortis, and half a pint of clear water, in which I diſſolve one ounce of ſal-ammoniac, and mix them together, to which I add, by degrees, two ounces of ſilver; then I take, of the gall liquor, or tea, prepared as for the other colours, or diluted with water, according to the fulneſs of colour I wiſh to dye, twenty parts to one of the above ſpirits, and mix them together with a few drops of copperas water, or oil of vitriol, killed with iron and water. I work the goods through this liquor, then dry them, after which I rince them through ſtrong American pot or pearl-aſhes or leys, or from leys made of lime, or lime and aſhes mixed together; after which I waſh them well in water, and dry them.

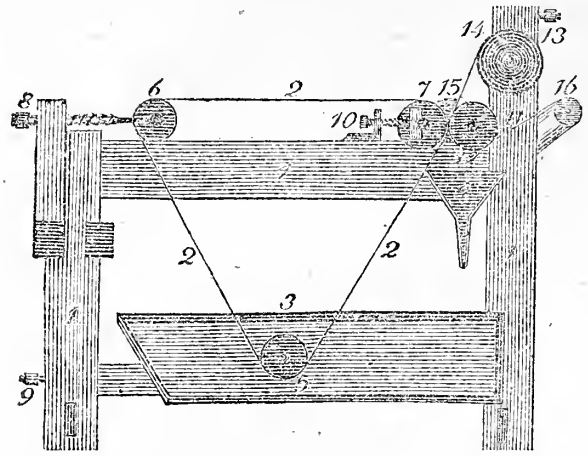
Another way to dye the above colours.—I take half a pint of aqua-fortis, and put to it half a pint of water, to which I add two ounces of quickſilver; then I take from ten to twenty parts of the gall liquor, prepared as for the other colours, to one part of the above ſpirits, adding to it a few drops of copperas water, or oil of vitriol, killed with iron and water, or aqua-fortis, killed with common tin or iron. I work the goods through this liquor, then dry them: after which I rince them through American pot or pearl-aſh leys, or lime leys, or through leys made from lime and aſhes mixed; after which I waſh them well through clear water, and dry them.

Another method of dying the abovefaid mud, dove, or drab, colours, upon cotton, or goods made of cotton, linen, woollen, or ſilk.—I take half a pint of oil of vitriol, and add to it half a pint of water, in which I mix, by degrees, one pound of common ſalt, and half a pound of manganeſe; then I take gall liquor, prepared as before for the other colours, five parts to one of the above ſpirits, or more or leſs, according to the colour I want to dye; then I add to ten or twelve parts of the above liquor, mixed, one part of the aqua-fortis, killed with ſilver, as before ſtated, or three parts of that killed with quickſilver, or in proportion as I want it for ſtrength or fulneſs of colour. I work the goods through this liquor, then dry them: after which I rince them in American pot or pearl-aſhes, or leys made from lime, or lime and aſhes mixed together; then I waſh them well, and dry them.

To dye a permanent brown colour on cotton, or goods made of cotton, linen, woollen, or ſilk.—I paſs the goods through the gall liquor, prepared as for the other colours, or I dilute it with water, according to the colour I want to dye; then I run them through the ſpirits made from oil of vitriol, common ſalt, and the manganeſe, as ſtated before; after which I paſs them through ſtrong aſh leys, and then through a ſlender liquor, made from the oxygenated muriatic acid, diſtilled from ſpirit of ſalts, manganeſe, and aſhes, or from oil of vitriol, common ſalt, and manganeſe; after which I waſh them well through clear water, and dry them."

Another ingenious invention is that of Mr. Samuel Gratrix, of Hulme, near Mancheſter, which conſiſts in a new method of dying and ſtaining colours upon cotton cloth, linen cloth, and cotton and linen cloth mixed. For this invention a patent was obtained, dated July 17, 1799; the proceſs is as follows, in the words of the patentee. "I the ſaid Samuel Gratrix do declare, that my new-invented method of dying and ſtaining different colours upon cotton cloth, linen cloth, and cotton and linen cloth mixed, is performed in the manner following; that is to ſay: To dye a black upon cotton cloth, linen cloth, and cotton and linen cloth mixed, I take tar, iron liquor of the very beſt quality, adding to each gallon thereof three quarters of a pound of fine flour, and by boiling bring it to the conſiſtency of a thin paſte. I put the liquor or paſte into a tub belonging to the machine uſed in this proceſs, a plan of which is hereunto annexed. The goods intended to be dyed are wound upon a roller, and paſſed through the liquor or paſte above-mentioned, betwixt the two other rollers, thereby completely ſtaining or dying the whole maſs or body of the cloth. I paſs them into a very hot ſtove or drying-houſe till dry. I take cows' dung, put it into a large copper of water about ſcalding hot, and mix it well together, through which I paſs the piece of cloth until it be thoroughly ſoftened. The quantity of dung, and the time neceſſary in this proceſs, depend upon the ſubſtance of the cloth, and the quantity of the paſte or liquor imbibed in it. I then waſh the goods, ſo dunged, extremely well in water. I take a quantity of madder, or logwood, or ſumach, or any two of them, or all of them mixed together, as the ſtrength of the cloth and nature of the colour may require, and put them into a copper, or tub of hot water: then enter the goods before mentioned into this liquor, and keep rincing or moving them therein, until I have brought them up to the ſtrength of colour required. I have the goods again well waſhed and dried. For dying black, it will be proper to paſs the goods a ſecond time through the above operations; adding more or leſs of the dying woods as before. If, after the above operations and the ſhade of colour is too full, or too much upon the red hue, it will be neceſſary to give them a little ſumach, and then run them through a liquor made from iron and alder bark. Another method of dying black: I take common iron liquor, and add three quarters of a pound of fine flour; and, by boiling, bring it to the conſiſtency of a thin paſte, or, inſtead of flour, I add glue or linſeed, or gum, or any two, or all of them mixed together, till it is brought to a proper thickneſs. I then paſs the goods through the machine, and follow the before-mentioned operations. To dye olives, bottle-greens, purples, browns, cinnamons, or ſnuffs, I take common iron liquor, or common iron liquor with alum diſſolved in it, or common iron liquor with alum and faccharum ſaturni diſſolved therein, in quantity of each, according to the ſhade of colour wanted, made into a paſte or liquid, by adding flour, gum, glue, linſeed, or one or more of them as before. I then put the liquor or paſte above-mentioned into the tub belonging to the machine hereto annexed, and paſs the goods ſo intended to be dyed through the machine in the ſame manner I have deſcribed for dying black. I take them from the machine, and hang them up in a very cool room, where they remain till thoroughly dry. I take cow-dung, put it into a large copper of hot water, and mix it well together; through which I paſs the cloth or goods until thoroughly ſoftened, the quantity of dung and time requiſite being proportioned as before. The goods after this proceſs being well waſhed, I take a quantity of liquor made from madder, logwood, ſumach, fuſtic, brazil, wolds, quercitron bark, peach wood, or other woods, to produce the colour wanted, or any two or more of them; and, in caſe I ſee it neceſſary, I dilute this liquor with water, acccording to the ſhade or fulneſs of colour I want to dye. I then work the goods through this liquor; after which I paſs them through cold or warm water, according to the colour, the proper application of which is well known to dyers, adding a little alum, copperas, or Roman vitriol, or two or more of them, firſt diſſolved in water. I then waſh them off in warm water, and dry them. If the colour is not ſufficiently full, I repeat the ſame operations, till it is brought to the ſhade required. To dye crimſon, red, orange, or yellow: I take red liquor, ſuch as is generally made from alum, ſaccharum ſaturni, or ſuch-like ingredients, and dilute it with water, according to the ſtrength or ſhade of colour I want to dye, bringing it to the conſiſtency of a paſte or liquid, as before deſcribed. Then paſs the cloth through the machine, which being dried in a cool room, paſs it through the operations of dunging and waſhing as before. I take a quantity of liquor, made from cochineal, madder, peach wood, brazil, logwood, wolds, fuſtic, ſumach, or any two or more of them proportioned in ſtrength to the ſhade of colour I want to dye,

and work the goods through this liquor, till I have brought them to the ſhade of colour required; after which I waſh them in cold or warm water, and dry them."



The parts of the machine are as follow: fig. 1, the frame. 2, The cloth or hatting which conveys the paſte or liquor to the piece of cloth intended to be dyed. 3. The tub made to contain the paſte. 4, Another tub, which receives the ſuperfluous liquor or paſte from the piece. 5, 6, 7, Three rollers, round which the hatting runs through the tub of liquor in order to paſs it. 8, and 9, Two ſcrews, for the purpoſe of tightening the hatting. 10, and 11, Two ſcrews which preſs the roller 7, againſt the roller 12, betwixt which the piece paſſes. 12, A roller on which the fly-wheel is fixed, which puts the machine in motion. 13, The fly-wheel. 14, The roller on which the piece is wound. 15, The piece paſsing through the liquor, and betwixt the rollers. 16, A roller which draws the piece from the machine by a ſtrap worked from a pulley.

A further improvement in the art of dying has been made by Mr. Joſeph Lewis, of Brimſcomb, in the county of Glouceſter, by means of a new method of cooling the cloth, and other piece goods, (particularly in dying black;) and a new mode of applying the fire for the purpoſe of heating the boiler, or other veſſels. This invention is ſanctioned by a patent, dated January 16, 1802. Proceſs as follows: "I the ſaid Joſeph Lewis do declare, Firſt, that my new method of cooling cloth, and other piece goods, conſiſts in paſſing the cloth from the boilers over cylinders, or rollers, erected on a ſtage adjoining or near to the boiler, and is performed in the following manner. Immediately oppoſite the roller over which the cloth turns in the boiler, a ſtage is erected of a proper width for the goods intended to be dyed. This ſtage is ſo high, that, when covered with lead, tiles, or any other material, the gutters which are placed under the eaves may be ſufficiently elevated to convey the liquor, which drops from the cloth while turned over it, back again into the boiler. At each end of the ſtage is a trough of dimenſions ſufficient to contain the whole of the goods intended to be dyed at one time, and which troughs muſt diſcharge the liquor, which runs from the cloth into them, into the ſaid gutters. The trough neareſt the dye-houſe may be placed ſo near the wall as to prevent the liquor from dropping between it and the wall. At each end of the ſtage a roller with a winch or handle is placed ſo high above the troughs as to admit of the troughs holding the whole of the goods eaſily; and between the ſaid rollers, with winches or handles, other intermediate rollers extend over the width of the ſaid ſtage, at about three feet diſtance from each other. The rollers with winches or handles are about thirty inches diameter, and it will be better if the intermediate rollers approach nearly to the ſame ſize, as in proportion to their ſize the cloth is more eaſily and expeditiouſly wound from one extremity of the ſtage to the other; though rollers ſo ſmall as to be only about four inches diameter may be uſed, where the ſtage is but ſhort, though with manifeſt diſadvantage. An opening is made through the wall of the dye-houſe between the roller over the boiler and the ſtage; and a ſmall roller is placed in that opening, to prevent the cloth from dragging on the wall; and another ſmall roller, (which may be removed at pleaſure,) between the roller over the boiler and the wall. A cord is tied or faſtened to the roller with a winch at the extremity of the ſtage, oppoſite the dye-houſe, ſufficiently long to reach to the roller above the boiler; it is faſtened by a nooſe to the goods, which are then wound over the roller at the end of the ſtage neareſt to the boiler, and likewiſe over all the intermediate rollers, till it comes to the roller round which, by turning, the cord is wound. The nooſe is then ſlipped, and the end tied to the ſaid roller; the goods are then wound on into the trough under that roller, till the whole is out of the boiler; they are then wound back into the trough at the other end of the ſtage, and ſo on backwards and forwards till the cloth is cool. A ſloping board, or frame of boards, is placed between the wall of the dye-houſe and the boiler, to ſave the liquor; but this, as well as the ſmall roller placed in the ſame ſituation, muſt be moveable, to allow the workmen room to keep the cloth abroad while turning in the boiler. A moveable gutter is likewiſe placed between the wall and the boiler, to convey the liquor which runs from thoſe under the eaves into the boiler. Three workmen are employed in dying. One of theſe is placed, when the goods are cooled, at each winch on the ſtage; and the other keeps the cloth abroad while coming out of the boiler. It is univerſally allowed that repeated cooling is eſſential in the dying of black; to accompliſh this effectually and expeditiouſly, and likewiſe to ſecure the cloth from the poſſibility of being heat-wrinkled, is the object of this part of the invention.

Secondly, My mode of applying the fire, for the purpoſe of heating the boiler, is founded on the idea, that the ſtronger the draught, (that is, the greater the quantity of air that can be made to paſs through the fire,) the greater will be the effect of the fire on the liquor, provided the heat ſo generated impings in the beſt poſſible direction againſt the boiler. To gain this advantage I place a grate exactly under the center of the boiler proportioned to its ſize, and the expedition with which it is required to boil. Brick-work is raiſed about eight inches round the grate, to contain the fuel; and a diſtance of about four inches conſequently remains between the flat brick-work and that part of the bottom of the boiler which is larger than the grate. The boiler is ſupported by three half-bricks, forming a triangle, on the flat brick-work, giving a diſtance of about twelve inches from the grate to the bottom of the boiler. The whole of the ſides of the boiler are likewiſe ſet four inches at bottom and three inches at top from the brick-work which ſurrounds it up to the cloſing, which cloſing is ſeven or eight inches below the top of the boiler. At the cloſing are four flues, at equal diſtances, taking at their entrance the form of the boiler, which (to induce the flame to ſpread) are there thirty inches by about three inches, in a boiler intended for dying, and which is ſix feet diameter at top, and as they riſe gradually become leſs than thirty inches and more than three, till they come each of them to a ſquare flue, or rather chimney, of about eight inches diameter, through which the ſmoke iſſues; or two of them may be brought into one at a convenient height, (about ſix feet above the boiler.) It may here be obſerved, that the flues or chimneys ſhould riſe immediately from the boiler, as perpendicularly as poſſible; that is, the thirty inches ſhould be reduced as gradually as the neceſſity of allowing ſufficient room for the cloth to paſs between the chimney to the cooling apparatus will permit. But where the boiler is not intended for dying, or the nature of its uſe will permit, the flues may be

be more than thirty inches at their opening, the more the better, and ſhould riſe as perpendicularly as convenient. The number of flues or chimneys is immaterial; provided they are ſo diſpoſed as to cauſe an equal diſtribution of heat round the boiler. It is very eſſential that theſe flues or chimneys ſhould be exactly of a ſize, or they will draw unequally. Where the apparatus for cooling is not uſed, there will be room for the dyer to throw the cloth from the roller, notwithſtanding the chimneys; but, if the ſituation of the chimneys ſhould prove inconvenient, an additional roller, made very ſlight, may be put up occaſionally a ſmall diſtance from the boiler; over which the cloth may be conveyed and drop at once on the utenſil uſed for carrying the cloth from the boiler. By the mode above deſcribed, you have nearly a perpendicular draught, and the flame impings with aſtoniſhing force againſt the bottom of the boiler, inſtead of being drawn horizontally upon the fire, as is the caſe where the flame paſſes into a flue immediately oppoſite the furnace door; and as it leaves the bottom claſps its ſides. The *whole* of the boiler is thus expoſed to the ſtrongeſt poſſible draught, and in the beſt poſſible direction, being completely enveloped in flame. The ſaving in fuel, and (what is often of more conſequence to the dyer) in time, I have found to be from one-third to one-half over any other mode."

Of DYING figured CHINTS, called CALICO-PRINTING.

It has been long a queſtion of conſiderable doubt, whether the Egyptians borrowed this ingenious art from the Hindoos and other inhabitants of India, or whether the latter borrowed it from the Egyptians. But if we conſider the many reaſons for believing that this art has been practiſed over the greateſt part of India during a long ſucceſſion of ages; that not only the art itſelf ſubſiſted there, but that the colouring, and other materials for exerciſing it, were the natural and peculiar productions of that country rather than of Egypt; that the Indians were highly civilized at leaſt twenty-two centuries ago, during which ſpace of time their manners ſuffered little or no change, and that their trades were carefully perpetuated in particular families; and alſo that among theſe their manufactures were undoubtedly of very great antiquity, whilſt many obvious ways exiſted by which they could eaſily be extended to Egypt, and other countries; all theſe conſiderations ſeem to decide the honour of the invention in favour of India. Major Rennel obſerves, that "a paſſion for Indian manufactures and products has actuated the people of every age, in lower Aſia, as well as in the civilized parts of Europe. The delicate and unrivalled, as well as the coarſer and more uſeful fabrics of cotton of that country, particularly ſuited the inhabitants of the temperate regions along the Mediterranean and Euxine ſeas. To this trade the Perſian and Arabian Gulfs opened an eaſy paſſage; the latter particularly, as the land carriage between the Red Sea and the Nile, and between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, took up only a few days. It is highly probable, and tradition in India warrants the belief of it, that there was from time immemorial an intercourſe between Egypt and Hindooſtan, at leaſt the maritime parts of it; ſimilarity of cuſtoms in many inſtances, as related of the ancient Egyptians by Herodotus, exiſted in the two countries. It appears, that under the Ptolemies the Egyptians extended their navigation to the extreme point of the Indian continent, and even ſailed up the Ganges to Palibothra," from whence they borrowed the Indian arts and manufactures.

Monſ. du Fay, and the abbé Mazeas, firſt communicated to the academy of ſciences in Paris, the manner in which this operation was performed by the Indians. From theſe accounts it appears, that the cotton cloths, when brought from the weavers, *were worn next to the ſkin by the dyer and all his family*, during the ſpace of eight or ten days; after which they underwent ſeveral macerations in water with goats' dung, accompanied with frequent intermediate beatings, waſhings, and dryings, in the ſunſhine. Afterwards they were ſoaked in a mixture of the mucilaginous aſtringent fruit of the yellow myrobalans, well bruiſed, and of curdled buffaloes milk; and being thoroughly penetrated and impregnated therewith, they were taken out, and the liquor being well ſqueezed from them, were dried by expoſure to ſunſhine, and afterwards, by preſſure and friction, made ſmooth enough for being drawn upon by the pencil, with the different mordants. The firſt of theſe was an iron liquor, ſimilar to that ſince employed by the calico-printers of Europe, excepting only that, inſtead of vinegar or alegar, the iron was diſſolved by a mixture of ſour palm-wine, and of water in which rice had been boiled. This liquor was applied to the figures or ſpots intended to become black, and afterwards the aluminous mordant was applied, commonly by children, with the pencil, to the parts intended to be made red. To prepare this mordant, two ounces of alum were diſſolved in two quarts of water, and evaporated till it left only a reſiduum of eleven grains of ſea ſalt. To colour this ſolution, ſo that the ſtrokes of the pencil in applying it might be viſible, a little ſappan wood, (*cæſalpinia ſappan* of Lin.) in powder, was ſteeped in the ſolution, which being afterwards ſtrained, was thickened with gum, and applied as before-mentioned; after which the cotton ſo penciled was expoſed to the hotteſt ſunſhine, in order that the parts to which the mordants had been applied might be dried as much as poſſible; and then the cottons were thoroughly ſoaked in large pits of water, to cleanſe them from the ſuperfluous parts of the different mordants, as well as from the buffaloes milk, &c. and this being done, they were dyed in water, with certain roots anſwering nearly in their effects to thoſe of madder. Of theſe there are ſeveral ſorts uſed for dying red in different parts of India; that above-mentioned is a ſpecies of gallium, called on the coaſts of Coromandel and Malabar by the names of *chaia*, *chayaver*, and *raye de chaye*. The cottons thus penciled, and gradually made to boil in water with a ſuitable quantity of this root, were dyed *red*, where the ſolution of alum had been applied, and *black* in thoſe parts on which the iron liquor had been penciled; and after being dyed, the cottons underwent three different waſhings with goats' dung, ſoap, &c. were then bleached by being expoſed to the ſun, and watered occaſionally, to remove the ſtain on the parts intended to remain white.

It appears, that in this operation the buffalo's milk, and more eſpecially the aſtringent juice of the myrobalans, produced very important effects, by their attraction for the aluminous earth, by which they contributed greatly to decompoſe or ſeparate it from the ſulphuric acid, and conſequently to fix it more firmly in the cotton; and, being ſo fixed, it was enabled more ſtrongly to attract and retain the colouring matter of the chaia root whilſt in the dying veſſel, and thereby to produce a more permanent red in the different ſpots, figures, or deſigns, where the alum liquor had been applied. A mixture of this and of the iron liquor, acting and applied in the ways before-mentioned, produced alſo a durable purple, in the ſame dying veſſel, upon the parts impregnated therewith; and conſequently one dying with the colouring matter of a ſingle root, produced at the ſame time reds, purples, and blacks. The Eaſt-Indian method of dying blue from indigo, by covering over the ground with wax, is to prevent the action of the blue upon the white parts; becauſe, from its fixed nature, it cannot be removed or bleached out. The yellow colour employed for calico-printing in that country is undeſerving of notice, it being compoſed only of a decoction of *cadoucai-pou*, a ſpecies of galls, produced on the yellow myrobalan tree, (which give a dull yellow,) and of a ſuitable portion of alum, which, being thickened with gum, and

penciled over blue figures or deſigns, produces a green, and on white parts or grounds, a yellow colour; neither of which is ſufficiently durable.

The art of calico-printing, ſince its introduction to Europe, has been diveſted of many tedious operations and manipulations, which would have proved inſupportably expenſive here, on account of the higher price of labour, and of almoſt every thing neceſſary to human ſubſiſtence. But the greateſt European improvement in this art reſpects the aluminous mordant, and depends on the employment of ſugar or acetit of lead, or the oxyd of that metal diſſolved by diſtilled vinegar, and cryſtallized; which, within the memory of man, has been gradually brought into uſe, without any theory or even ſuſpicion of its true effect, or of the way in which it proved ſo highly uſeful. This improved aluminous mordant is now generally made for calico-printing, by diſſolving three pounds of alum in a gallon of hot water; then adding one pound, or in ſome particular caſes one pound and a half, of the acetit or ſugar of lead, ſtirring the mixture well during two or three days, and afterwards adding to it about two ounces of pot-aſh, and as many of clean powdered chalk, called carbonat of lime. The mixture being thus made, and the clear liquor decanted from the ſediment, it is afterwards thickened with flour, if intended to be printed or applied by the block, and with the gum of the Mimoſa Nilotica, *gum Arabic*; or of the Mimoſa Senegal, *gum of Senegal*, if it be intended for pencilling; and being applied in either of theſe ways to linens or cottons, it is afterwards very thoroughly dried in a room artificially heated, and then the pieces of linen or cotton, ſo printed or penciled with the mordant in queſtion, are cleanſed as perfectly as poſſible, by ſoaking and working them in a ciſtern with warm water and cow-dung, and afterwards rincing them in clean water to diſſolve the gum or flour, and ſeparate the ſuperfluous or looſe parts of the mordant, which otherwiſe would in the dying veſſel combine with the colouring matter, and greatly ſtain the grounds, or parts intended to be preſerved white. This will indeed unavoidably happen in ſome degree, notwithſtanding the moſt perfect cleanſing. But as the colouring matter which theſe grounds or parts abſorb from the dying liquor will not, when the cloths have been thoroughly cleanſed, be retained or fixed by any baſis, they are ſpeedily whitened, by being boiled in water with bran, and expoſed upon the graſs with the wrong ſide upward.

When the practice of calico-printing was firſt introduced into Europe, a conſiderable number of uſeleſs recipes for making the ſeveral mixtures employed as mordants were introduced with it. The calico-printers, without any ſyſtem or reaſonable motive, appear in different inſtances to have uſed verdegris, arſenic, corroſive ſublimate, blue vitriol, litharge, and white lead. Finding at length that only the two laſt were of any uſe, it happened that ſome dyers began to omit one, and ſome another, of theſe ingredients, until at length all the uſeleſs ones were laid aſide, though without the aid of any chemical knowledge, and without any one ever ſuſpecting, as indeed few of them do at this day, that the lead which they continued to employ occaſioned any decompoſition of the alum, or that the mordant ſo produced, did not really contain all the ingredients uſed in preparing it.

If cottons printed with the above-mentioned acetated aluminous liquor be dyed with weld or quercitron bark, inſtead of madder, this baſis will attract their colouring particles in the ſame manner, and produce permanent yellows upon the figures where the alumine was previouſly fixed; the other parts, being but ſlightly tinged, are afterwards eaſily bleached or whitened, becauſe there is no mordant to hinder the ſeparation or deſtruction of the colouring matter of theſe dying drugs. The dying of yellows, however, in this way, is an European invention; the people of India having only given them, as already mentioned, by a mixture of the decoction of the galls of mirobalans with alum. And, indeed, this practice was followed here for ſome time after the introduction of the art into Europe, excepting that inſtead of the galls of the mirobalan tree, a decoction of French berries was employed; by which, indeed, a very full bright yellow was at firſt communicated, but of ſo fugitive a nature, that the uſe of theſe berries, which in ſome degree ſtill ſubſiſts, ought to be prohibited; it being impoſſible, by any means yet known, to obtain from them a colour fit for any other purpoſe than that of *deception*. If, inſtead of the aluminous baſis, cottons or linens be impregnated with iron-liquor (acetit of iron) of different degrees of ſtrength, and dyed with madder, they will receive permanent dark browns of different ſhades, and even a full black: and if, inſtead of iron liquor alone, it be mixed in different proportions with the acetit of alumine, the mixture will produce with madder all the ſhades of flea-colour, purple, violet, &c. But when, inſtead of madder, cottons or linens are printed with iron-liquor, and dyed with weld or quercitron bark, they receive a variety of olive-brown, drab, and dove colours; and if, inſtead of iron-liquor alone, a mixture of it, with acetit of alumine, be uſed as a mordant, they will take various ſhades of olive, olive-green, &c. And, indeed, by the help of theſe two mordants only, (from iron and alumine,) uſed ſeparately, as well as mixed in various proportions, and afterwards combined with the colouring matters of madder and of weld, or (inſtead of the latter) of quercitron bark, aided by indigo, nearly all the poſſible varieties and ſhades of colour are now given in the way of calico-printing.

Hitherto the art of calico-printing has been confined almoſt ſolely to linens and cottons, which are ſuited to it, by being made ſuſceptible of a permanent union with colouring matters, and eſpecially with their baſes, by only the common warmth of the atmoſphere: and as this is alſo the caſe of ſilk, there can be no doubt but this might alſo be made the ſubject of new and beautiful embelliſhments in that way, which, if properly executed, would undoubtedly become a ſource of gratification to the public, and of profit to individuals. And lately, a ſpecies of dying or ſtaining, very much reſembling ſome parts of calico-printing, has been ingeniouſly applied to woollen ſtuffs, particularly to thoſe called kerſemeres, for waiſtcoat patterns, &c. The colours are made to penetrate and unite with the wool, by placing the ſtuff ſo to be printed, in the ſteam of boiling water, for a ſufficient length of time.

It now only remains to deſcribe the manner in which calico-printers perform the work. Some calicoes are only printed of one colour, others have two, others three, or more, even to the number of eight, ten, or twelve. The ſmaller the number of colours, the fewer are the proceſſes. 1. One of the moſt common colours on cotton-prints is a kind of nankeen yellow, of various ſhades, down to a deep yellowiſh brown or drab. It is uſually in ſtripes, flowers, or ſpots. To produce it, the printers beſmear a block, cut out into the figure of the print, with acetit of iron thickened with gum or flour; they apply it, thus charged, to the cotton; which, after being dried and cleaned in the uſual manner, is plunged into a pot-aſh ley. The quantity of acetit of iron is always proportioned to the depth of the intended ſhade. 2. For yellow, the block is beſmeared with acetit of alumina. The cloth, after receiving this mordant, is dyed with quercitron bark, and then bleached. 3. Red is communicated by the ſame proceſs, only madder is ſubſtituted for the bark. 4. The fine light blues, which appear ſo often on printed cottons, are produced, by applying to the cloth a block beſmeared with a compoſition, conſiſting partly of wax, which covers all thoſe parts of the cloth which are to remain white. The cloth is then dyed in a cold indigo

indigo vat; and, after it is dry, the wax compoſition is removed by means of hot water. 5. Lilac, brown, and blackiſh brown, are given by means of acetit of iron; the quantity of which is always proportioned to the depth of the ſhade. For very deep colours, a little ſumach is added. The cotton is afterwards dyed in the uſual manner with madder, and then bleached. 6. Dove-colour and drab, by charging the blocks with acetit of iron and quercitron bark.

When different colours are to appear in the ſame print, two or more blocks are employed, upon each of which that part of the print only is cut or engraved, which is to be of ſome particular colour. Theſe are beſmeared with different mordants, and applied to the cloth, which is afterwards dyed as uſual. Suppoſe, for inſtance, that three blocks are applied to cotton; one with acetit of alumina, another with acetit of iron, a third with a mixture of theſe two mordants, and that the cotton is then dyed with quercitron bark, and bleached. The parts impregnated with the mordants would have the following colours:

Acetit of alumina . . .	Yellow,
iron	Olive, drab, dove,
The mixture	Olive-green, olive.

If the cotton be dyed with madder inſtead of quercitron bark, the print will exhibit the following colours:

Acetit of alumina	Red,
iron	Brown, black,
The mixture	Purple.

When a greater number of colours are to appear; for inſtance, when thoſe communicated by bark and thoſe by madder are wanted at the ſame time, mordants for part of the pattern are to be applied; the cotton is then to be dyed in the madder-bath, and bleached; then the reſt of the mordants, to fill up the pattern, are added, and the cloth is again dyed with quercitron bark, and bleached. This ſecond dying does not much affect the madder colours; becauſe the mordants, which render them permanent, are already ſaturated. The yellow tinge is eaſily removed by the ſubſequent bleaching. Sometimes a new mordant is alſo applied to ſome of the madder colours; in conſequence of which they receive a new permanent colour from the bark. After the laſt bleaching, new colours may be added by means of the indigo liquor. The following table will furniſh an idea of the colours which may be given to cotton by theſe complicated proceſſes:

I. *Madder dye.*	*Colours.*
Acetit of alumina	Red,
iron	Brown, black,
Ditto diluted	Lilac,
Both mixed	Purple.
II. *Bark dye.*	
Acetit of alumina	Yellow,
iron	Dove, drab,
Lilac and acetit of alumina .	Olive,
Red and acetit of alumina .	Orange.
III. *Indigo dye.*	
Indigo	Blue,
Indigo and yellow	Green.

Thus no leſs than twelve colours may be made to appear together in the ſame print by theſe different proceſſes. If it were poſſible to procure colours ſufficiently permanent, by applying them at once to the cloth by the block or the pencil, as is the caſe with the mordants, the art of calico-printing would be brought to the greateſt poſſible ſimplicity: but at preſent this can only be done in one caſe, that of indigo; every other colour requires dying. Compoſitions, indeed, may be made by previouſly combining the dye-ſtuff and the mordants. Thus yellow may be applied at once by employing a mixture of the infuſion of quercitron bark and acetit of alumina; red, by mixing the ſame mordant with the decoction of alumina, and ſo on. Unfortunately the colours thus communicated are far inferior in permanency to thoſe produced when the mordant is previouſly combined with the cloth, and the dye-ſtuff afterwards applied ſeparately. In this way, therefore, are applied almoſt all the fugitive colours of calicoes, which waſhing, or even expoſure to the air, ſo commonly deſtroys; but which an act of the legiſlature might in future prevent, by prohibiting, under a high penalty, the uſe of falſe and fugitive dyes.

The following are the preſent exiſting laws which regulate the trade of a dyer: By 3 & 4 Edw. VI. c. 2. no dyer may dye any cloth with orchel, or with Brazil, to make a falſe colour in cloth, wool, &c. on pain of twenty ſhillings. By 23 Eliz. c. 9. dyers are to fix a ſeal of lead to cloths, with the letter M. to ſhew that they are well mathered, &c. or forfeit three ſhillings and four-pence per yard. By 23 Geo. III. c. 15. ſeveral penalties are inflicted on dyers, who dye any cloths deceitfully, and not throughout with woad, indigo, and mather; dying blue with logwood to forfeit twenty pounds. Dyers in London are ſubject to the inſpection of the dyers company, who may appoint ſearchers; and out of their limits, juſtices of the peace in ſeſſions to appoint them: oppoſing the ſearchers, incurs ten pounds penalty.

DYKE-REED, rather DYKE-REEVE, *ſ.* An officer that hath the care and overſight of the dykes and drains in fenny countries; as of deeping-fens, &c. 16 & 17 Car. II. c. 11.

DYLE, a river of the Netherlands, which riſes on the north-weſt of Namur, and joins the Scheld above Niel, after receiving from the eaſt the waters of the Dermer, the Nette or Nethe from the north, and the Senne from the ſouth.

DY'MAS, a Trojan, who joined himſelf to Æneas when Troy was taken, and was unfortunately killed by his countrymen, who took him to be an enemy, becauſe he had dreſſed himſelf in the armour of one of the Greeks he had ſlain. *Virgil.*

DY'NAMIS, *ſ.* [from δυναμαι, Gr. to be able.] With phyſicians, the power by which any medicine operates, or from whence any action proceeds.

DYNA'MICS, *ſ.* [*dynamique*, Fr. of δυναμις, Gr. power, force, &c.] That department of mechanics which relates to the motion of bodies; as ſtatics relates to the equilibrium of bodies, or where no motion is produced: the two grand diviſions of mechanics being *ſtatics* and *dynamics*; the former relating to quieſcence, and the latter to moving forces. See the article MECHANICS.

DYNANO'METER, *ſ.* an ingenious inſtrument for aſcertaining the relative ſtrength of men and animals.—When Sanctorius invented his balance, he taught us what we loſe by inſenſible perſpiration; and no one, without this diſcovery, would perhaps ever have imagined that the matter thrown out from the body is more than half what we receive as nouriſhment. Knowledge no leſs important might be acquired, had we the eaſy means of aſcertaining, in a comparative manner, our relative ſtrengths at the different periods of life, and in different ſtates of health. With this view a dynanometer was firſt invented by Graham, and improved by Dr. Deſaguliers, at London; but this machine, conſtructed of wood, was too bulky and heavy to be portable; and, beſides, to make experiments on the different parts of the body, ſeveral machines were neceſſary, each ſuited to the part required to be tried. The next improvement was the dynanometer of Cit. Leroy of the academy of ſciences at Paris. It conſiſted of a metal tube, ten or twelve inches in length, placed vertically on a foot like that of a candleſtick, and containing in the inſide a ſpiral ſpring, having above it a graduated ſhank terminating in a globe. This ſhank, together with the ſpring, ſunk into the tube in proportion to the weight acting upon it, and thus pointed out, in degrees, the ſtrength of the perſon who preſſed on the ball with his hand.

This inſtrument, though very ingenious, has not proved adequate to the purpoſe intended. Therefore, to remedy its defects, an improved dynanometer has been recently invented by M. Regnier, of the Polytechnique ſchool. Beſides the uſe which an enlightened naturaliſt may make of this machine, it may be poſſible to apply it to many other important purpoſes. For example, it may be employed with advantage to determine the ſtrength of draught cattle; and, above all, to try that of horſes, and compare it with the ſtrength of other animals. It may ſerve to make known how far the aſſiſtance of well-conſtructed wheels may favour the movement of a carriage, and what is its *vis inertiæ* in proportion to the load. We might appreciate by it, alſo, what reſiſtance the ſlope of a mountain oppoſes to a carriage, and be able to judge whether a carriage is ſufficiently loaded in proportion to the number of horſes that are to draw it. In the arts, it may be applied to machines of which we wiſh to aſcertain the reſiſtance, and when we are deſirous to calculate the moving force that ought to be adapted to them. It may ſerve, alſo, as a Roman balance to weigh burdens. In ſhort, nothing would be more eaſy than to convert this machine into an anemometer, to diſcover the abſolute force of the wind, by fitting to it a frame of a determined ſize, filled up with wax cloth; and it would not be impoſſible to aſcertain by this machine the recoil of fire arms, and conſequently the ſtrength of gunpowder.

This dynanometer, repreſented at C, in the annexed engraving, conſiſts of a ſpring twelve inches in length, bent into the form of an ellipſis; from the middle of which ariſes a ſemicircular plate of braſs, having engraved upon it the different degrees that expreſs the force of the power acting on the ſpring. The whole of this machine, which weighs only two pounds and a half, oppoſes, however, more reſiſtance than may be neceſſary to determine the action of the ſtrongeſt and moſt robuſt horſe. The ſimplicity of its mechaniſm will be better illuſtrated by the following deſcription: A, an elliptical ſpring, ſeen in perſpective, covered with leather, that it may not hurt the fingers when ſtrongly preſſed on with the hands. This ſpring is compoſed of the beſt ſteel, well welded and tempered, and afterwards ſubjected to a ſtronger proof than is indicated by its graduation, in order that it may not loſe any of its elaſticity by uſe. B, a piece of ſteel ſtrongly faſtened to the ſpring by means of a claw and ſcrews, in order to ſupport the ſemicircular plate of braſs C, mounted on the ſpring, ſeen geometrically. On this plate are engraved two arcs, one divided into myriagrammes, and the other into kylogrammes. Each of theſe arcs is ſtill farther divided by points, which expreſs the weight in pounds *de marc*; and all theſe degrees having been exactly valued by accurate weights, it thence reſults that all dynanometers of this kind may be compared with each other. D, a ſmall ſteel ſupport, adjuſted like the former to the other branch of the ſpring, and having a cleft towards its upper extremity to receive a ſmall copper lever E, which is kept in its place by a ſmall ſteel pin *a*. The whole of this mechaniſm is ſeen at H, of its full ſize. F, a ſteel index, very light and elaſtic, fixed upon its axis by a ſcrew in the centre of the braſs ſemicircle. This index has a ſmall bit of leather or cloth glued upon the ſmall circular part G, in order to render the friction on the plate eaſy, uniform, and almoſt inſenſible. It is to be obſerved, that this index is terminated by a double point, adapted to the diviſions on both the ſemicircular arcs. The firſt, divided into myriogrammes and points, expreſſing ten pounds *de marc*, ſerves for all experiments which oblige the ſpring to be *elongated* in the direction of its greater axis, as is the caſe in trying the ſtrength of the body: in a word, for all trials where it is neceſſary to draw the ſpring by the two ends. The ſecond, divided into kylogrammes and points, expreſſing pounds *de marc*, is deſtined for experiments which *compreſs* the two ſides of the ſpring, as in trying the force of the hands. I, a ſmall plate of braſs which covers the mechaniſm, to prevent it from being injured. This ſmall plate has on it alſo a divided arc, the degrees of which correſpond with thoſe of the firſt arc of the machine; and by the play of a ſmall index *b*, which is under the plate, the movements of the ſpring may be aſcertained. K, an aperture in the covering plate, through which may be introduced a ſmall turnſcrew, for the purpoſe of tightening or eaſing the index as may be neceſſary. L, a pallet of braſs, with a ſcrew, having a cap like that on the needle of the mariner's compaſs, in which the lower pivot of the lever, that puſhes round the index or handle, is made to play. This pallet, acting as a ſpring, yields to any ſudden ſhock, and prevents the derangement of the mechaniſm. M, a ſocket riveted on the plate I, in which the upper pivot of the lever turns. N, N, N, ſmall cylindric pillars that ſupport the covering plate, which is fixed to them by three ſcrews. O, an iron rack, on the lower part of which the feet muſt be placed when it is intended to try the ſtrength of a perſon's body. P, a double handle of wood, with an iron hook, to be held at the ſame time in the two hands. Q, a double hook made of iron, one end of which is to be hooked to the end of the ſpring, and the other to a rope faſtened to a poſt, as at *c*, when experiments are to be made on the ſtrength of horſes, or others, that require the dynanometer to be ſupported by hooks. R, the manner of holding the dynanometer by perſons who wiſh to aſcertain the ſtrength of the hands. S, poſition of a man when trying the ſtrength of his body. T, diſpoſition of the dynanometer to try the ſtrength of a horſe, or any other draught animal.

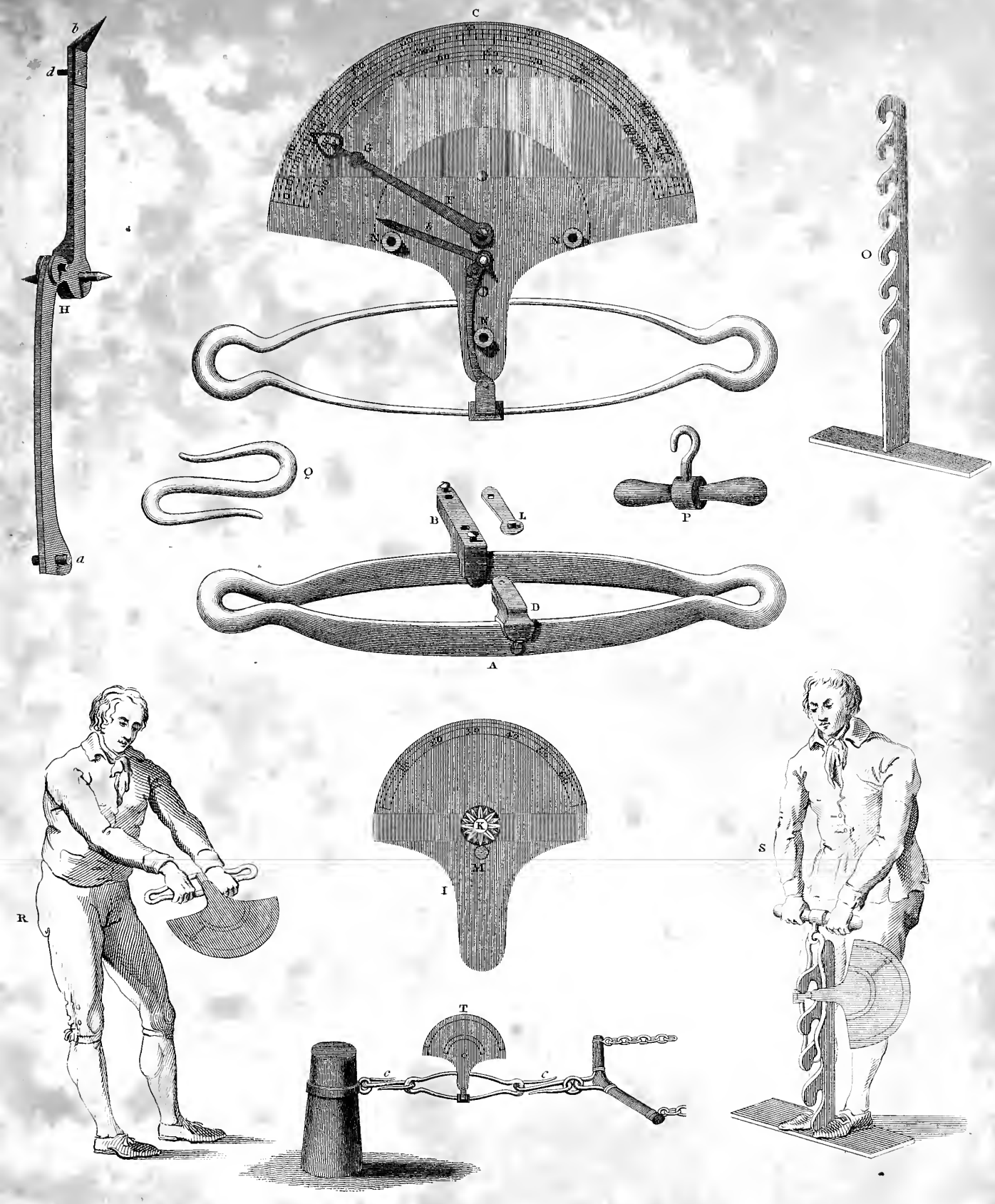
The effects of this machine may be thus explained: If a perſon preſſes on the ſpring with the hands, or draws it out lengthwiſe, by pulling the two extremities in a contrary direction, the two ſides of the ſpring approach each other; and in proportion as they are brought nearer, the ſmall lever of the mechaniſm puſhes before it the index, which, by the tightneſs with which it is ſcrewed in its place, will remain at the point to which it has been brought by the pin *d*, in conſequence of the force acting on the ſpring. The muſcular force of the arms, or rather the ſtrength of the hands, may be tried by laying hold of the two ſides of the ſpring neareſt to the centre, as may be ſeen in figure R; ſo that the arms may be a little ſtretched, and inclined downwards, almoſt at an angle of forty-five degrees. This poſition, which appears the moſt natural, is alſo the moſt convenient for a man to act with his full force. It is to be recollected, that the lower arc of diviſion, divided into kylogrammes, is that which ſerves to expreſs the force of the hands, and of all the actions which *preſs* the two ſides of the ſpring. The ſtrength of the hands may alſo be tried one after the other; and if an account be kept of the degree of preſſure of the right hand, and then of the left, and theſe two ſums be added together, it will be found that the ſum-total is, in general, equal to the ſtrength of both the hands when acting together.

To try the ſtrength of the body, the perſon muſt place his feet on the bottom part of the rack O; one of the ends of the ſpring is then to be placed in one of the hooks of the rack; and the hook P is to be put into the other end. In this poſition the body is perpendicular; the ſhoulders only being inclined a little forwards, to be able, in throwing back the body, to pull the ſpring with all the force which a perſon is capable of exerting. In this ſituation, repreſented by S, a man may raiſe a great weight without being expoſed to thoſe accidents which might be occaſioned by an effort made in a more conſtrained poſition.

Nothing can be more convenient than this dynanometer to aſcertain and compare the ſtrength of horſes, and that of all draught animals. The apparatus at T, ſhews in a ſufficient manner, the diſpoſitions neceſſary for experiments of that kind. The trials made by the inventer ſerve to give a very juſt idea of the abſolute force of

horſes

DYNANOMETER.



The improved Dynanometer of M. Regnier.

J.Pass sculp.t

London Published as the Act directs Nov.r 12.1803. by J.Wilkes.

horſes of middling ſtrength. For this purpoſe, four horſes of middle ſize, in good health and well-conditioned, were ſubjected ſeparately and in ſucceſſion to the ſame trial. The firſt drew equivalent to thirty-ſix myriagrammes; the ſecond thirty-eight and an half; the third twenty-ſix and an half; and the fourth forty-three. The ſum of all theſe is 144 myriagrammes; and if we take the mean of this ſum, we ſhall have, for the ſtrength of ordinary horſes, thirty-ſix myriagrammes, or 736 pounds *de marc.*

DYNAS'TICAL, *adj.* Relative to mode of government.—The Hiſtory and Antiquities of Harwich and Dover-court, topographical, *dynaſtical*, and political. *Title to Dale's Harwich.*

DY'NASTY, *ſ.* [δυναστεια of δυναστευω, Gr. to be powerful, or king.] A race or ſucceſſion of kings of the ſame line or family. Such were the dynaſties of Egypt, of China, &c.

DYNDYME'NE, in heathen mythology, one of the names of the goddeſs Veſta.

DY'NISH, a ſmall iſland in the Atlantic, near the weſt coaſt of Ireland, and county of Galway. Lat. 53. 16. N. lon. 9. 44. W. Greenwich.

DYP'TYCHA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A kind of public regiſter among the ancients.

DYR'NITZ, or TYRNITZ, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſeventeen miles ſouth of St. Polten.

DYRRA'CHIUM, anciently a town on the coaſt of Illyricum, before called *Epidamnum*, or *Epidamnus*; originally built by the Corcyreans. A Roman colony. *Pliny.*

DY'SÆ, *ſ.* Inferior goddeſſes among the Saxons, being the meſſengers of the great Woden, whoſe province it was to convey the ſouls of ſuch as died in battle to his abode, called *Valhall*, i. e. the hall of ſlaughter.

DYSÆSTHE'SIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficulty, and αισθανομαι, to feel or perceive.] A dulneſs of ſenſation, or diſeaſe called a *faulty ſenſe*, from ſome defect of the external organs.

DY'SART, a town of Scotland, in the county of Fife, with a ſmall harbour on the north ſide of the Frith of Forth; the principal trade is in coals: eleven miles north of Edinburgh. Lat. 56. 7. N. lon. 3. 8. W. Greenwich.

DYSCINE'SIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. and κινεω, to move.] A difficulty of motion. Alſo a defect of ſome of the limbs.

DYSCOPHO'SIS, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. with difficulty, and κοφοω, to be deaf.] A defect in the ſenſe of hearing.

DYSECŒ'A, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. with difficulty, and ακουω, to hear.] The medical term for deafneſs.

DYS'CRASY, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficulty, and κερανυμι, to mix.] An unequal mixture of elements in the blood or nervous juices; a diſtemperature, when ſome bad humour or quality abounds in the body.—In this pituitous *dyſcraſy* of blood, we muſt vomit off the pituita, and purge upon intermiſſions. *Floyer.*

DYSEN'TERIC, *adj.* Belonging to a dyſentery, tending to a dyſentery, attended with a dyſentery.

DYSEN'TERY, *ſ.* [*dyſenterie*, Fr. from δυσεντερια, Gr.] A looſeneſs or flux of the bowels. See the article MEDICINE.—From an unuſual inconſtancy of the weather, and perpetual changes of the wind from eaſt to weſt, proceed epidemical *dyſenteries. Arbuthnot.*

DYSLO'CHIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and λοχια, the lochia.] A morbid ſuppreſſion of the lochia, or menſtrual diſcharge.

DYS'NOMY, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. bad, and νομος, a law.] The act of conſtituting bad laws.

DYSO'DES, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. bad, and οζω, to ſmell.] The diſeaſe called a *fœtid* or *ſtinking breath*. Fœſius ſays, that in Hippocrates we are to underſtand by this word, a *fœtid* diſorder of the ſmall inteſtines. Dr. Percival calls it *dyſodes pulmonica*, to which, he ſays, perſons with a narrow cheſt and ſcorbutic habit are peculiarly incident. He obſerves, that it ſeems to originate from a want of power to make a full expiration, by which too much perſpirable matter is retained, and corrupted by ſtagnation in the veſicles of the lungs. In ſuch caſes he hath found the moſt ſalutary effects from the uſe of myrrh and fixed air, internally adminiſtered. Theſe antiſeptic ſubſtances are probably carried to the lungs, and diſcharged together with the offenſive vapour, which correct, at the ſame time that they invigorate, the ſmalleſt ramifications of the bronchiæ.

DYSO'PIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and οπτομαι, to ſee.] An indiſtinct and difficult viſion, occaſioned by ſome natural or acquired defect in the eye. We are told, in vol. iv. of the Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, 1795, that this complaint is known in Ruſſia by a name ſignifying *hen blindneſs*. The patient loſes his ſight at ſun-ſet, and does not recover it till ſun-riſe; and is blind even during the lighteſt nights of ſummer. The diſeaſe is chiefly among the peaſants during the hay-harveſt, when they generally work all night, to avoid the ſultry heat of day, and when they ſleep leſs than uſual. M. Guthrie, M. D. at Peterſburgh, attributes the cauſe to an exhauſtion of the irritability of the retina, by exceſs of light. This temporary amauroſis goes off ſpontaneouſly; but they uſe a decoction of blue-bottle, *centaurea cyanus*, *Lin.*

DYSOREX'IA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. bad, and ορεξις, appetite.] A bad or depraved appetite; a loathing of food.

DYSPEP'SIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and πεπτω, to concoct.] A difficulty of digeſtion; a weakneſs of the digeſtive organs.

DYSPERMATIS'MUS, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and σπερματω, to procreate.] An inability to beget children; an infirmity of the procreative members.

DYSPHO'NIA, *ſ.* [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and φωνη, the voice.] An impeded voice; a difficulty of ſpeech; a defect of utterance.

DYSPNŒ'A, [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and πνεω, to breathe.] A difficulty of breathing; an impeded reſpiration; a ſtate of aſthma.

DYSTHY'MIA, [from δυς, Gr. bad, and θυμος, the mind.] Inſanity; a diſorder of the mind; a ſtate of phrenzy.

DYSTI'CHIA, *ſ.* [from δυω, Gr. and στιχας, a row.] A double row of hairs on the eyelids.

DYSTO'CHIA, [from δυς, Gr. difficultly, and τικτω, to bring forth.] A difficulty of parturition; a lingering and unnatural labour.

DYSTRYACHI'ASIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A continued defluxion of tears occaſioned by the ſhort points of the hairs growing under the eyelids.

DY'SURY, *ſ.* [*dyſuria*, Lat. from δυς, Gr. painful, and ουρον, urine.] A difficulty of voiding the urine, commonly called *ſtrangury*. For the cauſe and cure, ſee the article MEDICINE.

DYTIS'CUS, *ſ.* the water-beetle; in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera; the antennæ are ſlender and ſetaceous; they have ſix filiform palpi or feelers; the hind feet are hairy, and formed for ſwimming; and are alſo furniſhed with claws; the under ſide of the fore feet of the males is hemiſpherical; the elytra of the female are moſtly furrowed. From the indefatigable reſearch of modern entomologiſts, no leſs than one hundred and forty-ſeven ſpecies are now aſcertained, diſtinguiſhed chiefly by their antennæ, the colour of the elytra, &c. The larvæ of the dytiſcus are often met with in water. They are oblong, and have ſix ſcaly feet. Their body conſiſts of eleven ſegments. The head is large, with four filiform antennæ and a ſtrong pair of jaws. The laſt ſegments of their body have rows of hairs on the ſides; and the abdomen is terminated by two ſpines charged with the like hairs, forming a kind of plumes. Theſe larvæ are frequently of a greeniſh variegated brown: they are lively, active, and extremely voracious: they devour and feed upon other water-inſects, and often tear and deſtroy each other. The perfect in-

ſect

ſect is little inferior to its larvæ in voraciouſneſs, but it can only exerciſe its cruelty on the larvæ; the perfect inſects, like himſelf, being ſheltered by the kind of ſcaly cuiraſs with which they are armed. This creature muſt be touched cautiouſly; for, beſides its power of giving a ſevere gripe with its jaws, it has, under the thorax, another weapon, a long ſharp ſpine, which it will drive into one's fingers by the effort it makes to move backward. The eggs of the dytiſcus are rather large, and are incloſed in a kind of ſilky duſkiſh bag, of a ſtrong and thick texture, in form round, and terminated by a long appendix or ſlender tail, of the ſame ſubſtance. Theſe bags are often found in the water, and from them are brought forth the eggs and larvæ of the inſect. Many ſpecies of the perfect inſect are commonly ſeen in ſtagnant waters, which they quit in the evening to fly about. They ſwim with incredible agility, making uſe of their hinder legs after the faſhion of oars. The elytra of the females are in general furrowed, and thoſe of the male plain: when they firſt arrive at their perfect ſtate, their elytra are almoſt tranſparent, and in many ſpecies of a beautiful dun or fire colour, mingled with ſhades of a greeniſh brown, or punctulated, or banded, grooved, or ſtriated. Five ſpecies are delineated in the engraving, common to different parts of Europe, and found in this country, viz.

Fig. 1. the marginalis: colour above ſhining raven grey, except the outward edge of the thorax and elytra, and the fore part of the head, which has a tranſverſe ſtreak or band of a dun colour, ſituate on the upper lip; the under part of the body is a mixture of yellow and brown. The elytra are exceeding ſmooth and glaſſy, with obſcure ſpots or lines, forming two longitudinal bands on the edge of each of the elytra. The ſternum underneath is forked and blunt. The legs have no other articulation than that which reſembles a hinge. The four anterior feet are ſingularly ſhaped in the males. The four firſt articulations of the tarſi are very ſhort and broad, with bruſhes underneath, which form a round ſcoop, with which the inſect lays hold of his female. The laſt joint of thoſe tarſi is long, and bears the nails. The hinder feet have their tarſi flat, bearded, ſhaped like fins, and the claws of thoſe feet are ſtraight and nowiſe hooked. The antennæ and palpi are dun coloured. This ranks among the largeſt of the ſpecies. Fig. 2, repreſents the female of the ſame inſect; the elytra ſubſtriated and brown, and black at the ends. Fig. 3, the uliginoſus; with dark poliſhed ſhining elytra; antennæ, legs, and body, ferruginous. Fig. 4, the bipuſtulatus: dark and ſhining, with two red dots on the head behind, but ſcarcely viſible to the naked eye. Fig. 5, dytiſcus Hermanni: body gibbous; head, thorax, and baſe of the ſhells, ferruginous red; elytra truncate; native of Alſace. Fig. 6, the maculatus: thorax with a paliſh brown band; body black; elytra variegated with ſpots or ſtreaks. The males in general reſemble moſt the dermeſtides, and the females the carabi.

DYVO'UR, *ſ.* otherwiſe BARE-MAN: a Scotch term for a perſon involved in debt, and unable to pay his creditors: ſynonymous with the word BANKRUPT

DZAR GURBAN, a river of Ruſſian Tartary, which runs into the Irtiſch, twenty miles eaſt of Semipolatnoi.

DZIEWIENISZ'KI, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: thirty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Wilna.

DZIWATO'W, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: four miles weſt of Wilkomierz.

DZONMU'REN, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into Angara: twenty-four miles north of Irkutſch.

DZU'RA, a Tartarian village of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Irkutſch. Lat. 56. 4. N. lon. 142. 10. E. Ferro.

DZWING'ROD, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Kaminiec: twenty miles ſouth-weſt of Kaminiec.

E.

E, THE ſecond vowel, and fifth letter of the alphabet, poſſeſſes two ſounds; long, as in *ſcéne*, and ſhort, as in *men*. It is alſo the moſt frequent vowel in the Engliſh language; for it not only is uſed like the reſt in the beginning or end of words, but has the peculiar quality of lengthening the foregoing vowel; as, *căn, cāne*; *măn, māne*; *găp, gāpe*; *glăd, glāde*; *brĕd, brēde*; *chĭn, chīne*; *wĭp, wīpe*; *thĭn, thīne*; *nŏd, nōde*; *tăn, tāne*; *plŭm, plūme*. Yet it ſometimes occurs final, where yet the foregoing vowel is not lengthened; as, *gĭve, knowlĕdge, ĕdge, gĭve*. Anciently almoſt every word ended with *e*, as for *can, canne*; for *year, yeare*; for *great, greate*; for *need, neede*; for *flock, flocke*. It is probable that this *e* final had at firſt a ſoft ſound, like the female *e* of the French; and that afterwards it was in poetry either mute or vocal, as the verſe required, 'till at laſt it became univerſally ſilent. *Ea* has the ſound of *e* long: the *e* is commonly lengthened rather by the immediate addition of *a* than by the appoſition of *e* to the end of the word; as *mĕn, mēan*; *sĕl, sēal*; *mĕt, mēat*; *nĕt, nēat*.

The Greeks have the long and ſhort *e* which they call *epſilon* and *eta*. The French have at leaſt ſix kinds of *e*'s: the Latins have likewiſe a long and ſhort *e*; they alſo write *e* inſtead of *a*, as *dicem* for *dicam*, &c. and this is no doubt the reaſon why *a* is ſo often changed into *e* in the preter tenſe; as, *ago, egi*; *facio, feci*, &c. As a numeral, E ſtands for 250, according to the verſe,

E, *quoque ducentos et quinquaginta tenebit.*

In muſic it denotes the tone *e-la-mi*. In the kalendar it is the fifth of the dominical letters. And in ſea-charts it diſtinguiſhes all the eaſterly points: thus, E. alone denotes eaſt; E. by S. means eaſt by ſouth; and E. by N. eaſt by north.

EACH, *pron.* [elc, Sax. *elch*, Dut. *ilk*, Scot.] Either of two:

Though your orbs of diff'rent greatneſs be,
Yet both are for *each* other's uſe diſpos'd;
His to incloſe, and your's to be inclos'd. *Dryden.*

Every one of any number. This ſenſe is rare, except in poetry:

Wiſe Plato ſaid, the world with men was ſtor'd,
That ſuccour *each* to other might afford. *Denham.*

To *each* the correſpondent word is *other*, whether it be uſed of two, or of a greater number.—Let *each* eſteem *other* better than themſelves. *Phil.* ii. 3.

Lovelieſt of women! heaven is in thy ſoul;
Beauty and virtue ſhine for ever round thee,
Bright'ning *each other!* *Addiſon.*

EACH'ARD (John), an ingenious divine of the church of England, a deſcendant from a reſpectable family in Suffolk, born about 1636. After receiving a claſſical education, he was ſent to Catharine-hall in the univerſity of Cambridge, where he took the degree of bachelor of arts in 1656, was elected fellow of his college in 1658, and was admitted to the degree of maſter of arts in 1660. He publiſhed a treatiſe, intitled The Grounds and Reaſons of the Contempt of the Clergy and Religion enquired

Merian del.ᵗ

J. Pass sculp.ˢ

The Duroia eriopila, and five Species of Water Beetle.

London Published as the Act directs. Sept.ʳ 25. 1803. by J. Wilkes.

quired into, 1670. This contempt he proves to be the improper ſelection of young men who are intended for the miniſterial office, the defective ſyſtems purſued in their education, and the wrong motives which determine many parents to educate their children for the church. He blended his ſerious remarks with ſo much wit and humour, that his treatiſe drew very general attention, and paſſed through many editions. In 1671, he publiſhed Mr. Hobbes's State of Nature conſidered, in a Dialogue between Philautus and Timothy, &c. and ſoon afterwards he publiſhed ſome farther remarks on the writings of Mr. Hobbes, in A Second Dialogue between Philautus and Timothy. In theſe dialogues he did not attempt to confute the Philoſopher of Malmeſbury by ſerious argumentation, but endeavoured to expoſe his ſyſtem to ridicule by keen raillery, and lively ſallies of humour. In 1675, Mr. Eachard was choſen maſter of Catharine-hall; and in the year following was created doctor of divinity by royal mandamus. It does not appear that he afterwards produced any literary work. He died in 1697. The moſt complete edition of his works was publiſhed in 1774, in 3 vols. 12mo.

EAD, [*æd, ed,*] in compound, and *eadig* in ſimple names, denotes happineſs, or bleſſedneſs. Thus *Eadward* is a happy preſerver; *Eadulph*, happy aſſiſtance; *Eadgur*, happy power; *Eadwin*, happy conqueror; which *Macarius Eupolemus, Fauſta, Fortunatus, Felicianus*, &c. do in ſome meaſure reſemble. *Ead* may alſo in ſome caſes be derived from the Saxon *eath*, which ſignifies eaſy, gentle, mild. *Gibſon's Camden.*

EA'GER, *adj.* [eaȝor, Sax. *aigre*, Fr.] Struck with deſire; ardently wiſhing; keenly deſirous; vehement in deſire; hotly longing:

With joy th' ambitious youth his mother heard,
And, *eager*, for the journey ſoon prepar'd;
He longs the world beneath him to ſurvey,
To guide the chariot, and to give the day. *Dryden.*

It is uſed ſometimes with *of*, ſometimes with *for*, ſometimes with *on* or *after* before the thing ſought. Hot of diſpoſition; vehement; ardent; impetuous.—A man, charged with a crime of which he thinks himſelf innocent, is apt to be too *eager in* his own defence. *Dryden.*—Quick; buſy; eaſily put in action:

His Numidian genius
Is well diſpos'd to miſchief, were he prompt
And *eager on* it, but he muſt be ſpurr'd. *Addiſon.*

Sharp; ſour; acid:

With a ſudden vigour it doth poſſet
And curd, like *eager* droppings into milk,
The thin and wholeſome blood. *Shakeſpeare.*

Keen; ſevere; biting.—The fleſh ſhrinketh, but the bone reſiſteth, whereby the cold becometh more *eager*. *Bacon.*—Brittle; inflexible; not ductile. A cant word of artificers.—Gold will be ſometimes ſo *eager*, as artiſts call it, that it will as little endure the hammer as glaſs itſelf. *Locke.*

EA'GERLY, *adv.* With great ardour of deſire; with impetuoſity of inclination.—To the holy war how faſt and *eagerly* did men go, when the prieſt perſuaded them that whoſoever died in that expedition was a martyr. *South.*

How *eagerly* he flew, when Europe's fate
Did for the ſeed of future actions wait. *Stepney.*

Ardently; hotly:

Brutus gave the word too early,
Who having ſome advantage on Octavius,
Took it too *eagerly*; his ſoldiers fell to ſpoil,
Whilſt we by Antony were all enclos'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

Keenly; ſharply.—Abundance of rain froze ſo *eagerly* as it fell, that it ſeemed the depth of winter had of a ſudden been come in. *Knolles.*

EA'GERNESS, *ſ.* Keenneſs of deſire; ardour of inclination:

She knew her diſtance and did angle for me,
Madding my *eagerneſs* with her reſtraint. *Shakeſpeare.*

The *eagerneſs* and ſtrong bent of the mind after knowledge, if not warily regulated, is often an hindrance to it. *Locke.*

Juba lives to catch
That dear embrace, and to return it too,
With mutual warmth and *eagerneſs* of love. *Addiſon.*

Impetuoſity; vehemence; violence:

I'll kill thee with ſuch *eagerneſs* of haſte,
As fiends, let looſe, would lay all nature waſte. *Dryden.*

EA'GLE, *ſ.* [*aigle*, Fr. *aquila*, Lat. *ealler*, Erſe.] A well-known bird of prey, for the natural hiſtory of which ſee the article FALCO. The eagle, from being conſidered, in the heraldic ſcience, as an emblem of royalty or majeſty, has been borne as an enſign or ſtandard by ſeveral nations. According to Dr. Bryant it was one of the inſignia of Egypt; and it was alſo aſſumed by the Perſians. It was adopted by the Romans in the ſecond year of the conſulate of C. Marius. Conſtantine is ſaid to have firſt introduced the eagle with two heads, to intimate, that though the empire ſeemed divided, it was yet only one body. Others ſay, that it was Charlemagne who aſſumed the eagle as the Roman enſign, and added to it a ſecond head; but that opinion is deſtroyed, by an eagle with two heads, noted by Lipſius, on the Antonine column; as alſo by the eagle's only having one head on the ſeal of the golden bull of the emperor Charles IV. The conjecture, therefore, of F. Meneſtrier appears more probable, who maintains, that as the emperors of the eaſt, when there were two on the throne at the ſame time, ſtruck their coins with the impreſſion of a croſs, with a double traverſe, which each of them held in one hand, as being the ſymbol of the Chriſtians; the like they did with the eagle in their enſigns; and inſtead of doubling their eagles, they joined them together, and repreſented them with two heads. The eagle on medals, according to M. Spanheim, is a ſymbol of divinity and providence; and, according to all other antiquities, of empire. The princes on whoſe medals it is moſt uſually found, are the Ptolemies and the Seleucides of Syria. See HERALDRY.

EA'GLE, *ſ.* in aſtronomy; a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere, having its right wing contiguous to the equinoctial. See AQUILA, vol. i. p. 841. There are alſo three ſtars, called by the Arabian aſtronomers, *naſr*, i. e. eagle. The firſt, *naſr ſohail*, the eagle of canopus, called alſo *ſitareh jemen*, the ſtar of Arabia Felix, over which the Arabians ſuppoſe it to preſide; the ſecond, *naſr althair*, the flying eagle; and the third, *naſr alvake*, the reſting eagle.

White EAGLE, a Poliſh order of knighthood, inſtituted in 1325, by Uladiſlaus V. on marrying his ſon Caſimire with a daughter of the duke of Lithuania. The knights of this order were diſtinguiſhed by a gold chain, to which was appended a ſilver eagle crowned.

Black EAGLE, an order of knighthood inſtituted in 1701, by the elector of Brandenburgh, on his being crowned king of Pruſſia. The knights of this order wear an orange-coloured ribbon, to which is ſuſpended a black eagle.

EA'GLE-EYED, *adj.* Sharp-ſighted as an eagle.—As he was quick and perſpicacious, ſo was he inwardly *eagle-eyed*, and verſed in the humours of his ſubjects. *Howel.*

Every one is *eagle-ey'd* to ſee
Another's faults and his deformity. *Dryden.*

EA'GLE-FLOWER, *ſ.* See BALSAMINE.

EA'GLE-ISLAND, an iſland in the Atlantic, near the weſtern coaſt of Ireland, and county of Mayo. Lat. 54. 17. N. lon. 9. 54. W. Greenwich.

EA'GLE-ISLAND, an iſland on the north-eaſt coaſt of New Holland; low, ſandy, and covered with trees. Lat. 14. 32. S.

EA'GLE-SIGHTED, *adj.* With a ſight like an eagle's:

What peremptory *eagle-ſighted* eye
Dares look upon the heaven of her brow,
That is not blinded by her majeſty? *Shakeſpeare.*

EA'GLE-SPEED, *ſ.* Swiftneſs, like that of an eagle:

Abrupt, with *eagle-ſpeed* ſhe cut the ſky,
Inſtant inviſible to mortal eye. *Pope.*

EA'GLE-STONE, *ſ.* A ſpecies of argillaceous iron ore, fancifully ſaid to be found at the entrance of the holes in which the eagles make their neſts, and affirmed by the ancients to have a particular virtue in defending the eagle's neſt from thunder.—The *eagle-ſtone* contains, in a cavity within it, a ſmall looſe ſtone, which rattles when it is ſhaken; and every foſſil, with a nucleus in it, has obtained this name. The analogy between a ſtone, thus containing another within it, or, as the fanciful writers expreſs it, pregnant with another, and a woman big with child, led people to imagine that it muſt have great virtues and effects in accelerating or retarding delivery; ſo that, if tied to the arm of a woman with child, it prevents abortion; and if to the leg, it promotes delivery. On ſuch idle and imaginary virtues was raiſed all the credit which this famous foſſil poſſeſſed for many ages. *Hill.* See the articles ÆTITES and MINERALOGY.

EA'GLE-WINGED, *adj.* With the wings of an eagle:

At his right hand Victory
Sat *eagle-wing'd.* *Milton.*

EA'GLE-WOOD, *ſ.* See EGLE.

EA'GLES, a town of the American States, in North Carolina, on the weſt ſide of the river Clarendon, or Cape Fear, oppoſite Wilmington.

EA'GLET, *ſ.* A young eagle.—This treaſon of his ſons did the king expreſs in an emblem, wherein was an eagle with three *eaglets* tyring on her breaſt, and the fourth pecking at one of her eyes. *Davies.*

EA'GRE, *ſ.* [*ægir*, in Runic, is the ocean: *eggia*, in Iſlandic, is to agitate, to incite.] A tide ſwelling above another tide, obſervable in the river Severn:

For as an *eagre* rides in triumph o'er the tide,
The tyrant paſſions hope and fear,
Did in extremes appear,
And flaſh'd upon the ſoul with equal force. *Dryden.*

EAK, *ſ.* [*obſolete*; from the Sax. æak.] Eternity. *Scott.*

EAL'DERMAN, *ſ.* [ealdɔejman, Sax.] The name of a Saxon magiſtrate; alderman.—*Ealderman* among the Saxons was as much as earl among the Danes. *Termes de la Ley.*

EAL'HORDA, *ſ.* [from the Sax.] The privilege of aſſizing and ſelling beer. *Scott. Obſolete.*

EAME, *ſ.* [eam, Sax. *oom*, Dut.] Uncle; a provincial word, ſtill uſed in ſome parts of Staffordſhire.

Daughter, ſays ſhe, fly, fly; behold thy dame
Foreſhews the treaſon of the wretched *eame!* *Fairfax.*

To EAN, *v. n.* now ſpelt YEAN; [from eanian, Sax.] To lamb:

He ſtuck them up before the fulſome ewes,
Who, then conceiving, did in *eaning* time,
Fall party-colour'd lambs. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAN'LING, *ſ.* A lamb juſt dropped:

That all the *eanlings*, that were ſtreak'd and py'd,
Should fall as Jacob's hire. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAOO'WE, or EOOA, or MIDDELBURG, one of the Friendly iſlands, in the South Pacific Ocean, which abounds with groves of fruit, and other trees, interſperſed with tracts covered with graſs. It was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, who called it *Middleburg*. Lat. 21. 24. S. lon. 174. 30. W. Greenwich.

EAR, *ſ.* [eare, Sax. *oor*, Dut.] The organ of hearing. See ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 601, 2.—His *ears* are open unto their cry. *Pſalm* xxxiv. 15.

What fire is in my *ears*? Can this be true?
Stand I condemn'd! *Shakeſpeare.*

That part of the ear that ſtands prominent.—His maſter ſhall bore his *ear* through with an awl. *Exodus.*—Power of judging of harmony; ſenſe of diſcriminating the notes in muſic.—She has a delicate *ear*, and her voice is muſic. *Richardſon.*—The head; or the perſon: in familiar language.—Better paſs over an affront from one ſcoundrel, than draw the whole herd about a man's *ears*. *L'Eſtrange.*—The higheſt part of a man; the top—A cavalier was up to the *ears* in love with a very fine lady. *L'Eſtrange.*—The privilege of being readily and kindly heard; favour.—Ariſtippus was earneſt ſuitor to Dionyſius for ſome grant, who would give no *ear* to his ſuit. *Bacon.*

They being told there was ſmall hope of eaſe,
Were willing at the firſt to give an *ear*
To any thing that ſounded liberty. *Ben Jonſon.*

Diſpoſition to like or diſlike what is heard; judgment; opinion; taſte.—He laid his ſenſe cloſer, and in fewer words, according to the ſtyle and *ear* of thoſe times. *Denham.*—Any prominences from a larger body, raiſed for the ſake of holding it.—There are ſome veſſels, which, if you offer to lift by the belly or bottom, you cannot ſtir them: but are ſoon removed, if you take them by the *ears*. *Taylor.*—The ſpike of corn; that part which contains the ſeeds.—From ſeveral grains he had eighty ſtalks, with very large *ears*, full of large corn. *Mortimer.*

The leaves on trees not more,
Nor bearded *ears* in fields, nor ſands upon the ſhore.
Dryden.

To be by the EARS; or, *to fall together by the* EARS. To fight; to ſcuffle; to quarrel. In Dutch *oorlogen*. A familiar phraſe.—Fools *go together by the ears*, to have knaves run away with the ſtakes. *L'Eſtrange.*

All Aſia now was *by the ears*,
And gods beat up for volunteers. *Prior.*

To ſet by the EARS. To make ſtrife; to quarrel; *low language.*—She uſed to carry tales from one to another, 'till ſhe had *ſet* the neighbourhood together *by the ears*. *Arbuthnot.*

Loſs of one ear is a puniſhment enacted by 5 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 4. for fighting in a church-yard; and by 2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 15. for combinations to raiſe the price of proviſions, labour, &c. if it be the third offence, beſide pillory, and perpetual infamy, or a fine of 40l.

To EAR, *v. a.* [*aro*, Lat.] To plough; to till. *Obſolete.*—A rough valley, which is neither *eared* nor ſown. *Deuteronomy.*—Five years, in the which there ſhall neither be *earing* nor harveſt. *Gen.* xiv. 6.—The field of love, with plough of virtue *ear'd*. *Fairfax.*

To EAR, *v. n.* To ſhoot into ears.

"Wide EARS and a ſhort tongue."—The Latins ſay: *Audi multa, loquere tempeſtiva.* The Germans ſay: *Hore allea, lerne viel, ſage wenig:* Hear all, learn much, and ſpeak little. To hear, ſee, and ſay little, are evident marks of prudence, ſagacity, and good ſenſe; which it is the intent of this proverb to inculcate.

"In at one EAR and out at the other." In Italian, *Dentro da un orecchia & fuore dall' altra.* The Italians ſay likewiſe: *Havere orecchie di mercante:* To have a merchant's or tradeſman's ears. This is either ſpoken of thoſe careleſs and inattentive perſons, who in receiving admonitions, orders, or inſtructions, are too apt to forget or diſregard them; or, it is a leſſon to perſons in trade, not to notice the faults and reflections caſt upon them by petulant cuſtomers, who are ſooneſt overcome by civility and attention.

EAR-ACH, *ſ.* A pain in the ear.

EAR-KISSING, *adj.* Heard in a whiſper.—You have heard of the news abroad; I mean the whiſpered ones; for they are yet but *ear-kiſſing* arguments. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAR-PICK, *ſ.* an inſtrument of ivory, ſilver, or gold, ſomewhat in form of a probe, for cleanſing the ear. Sir Hans Sloane obſerves, that the uſe of this inſtrument muſt be very prejudicial to ſo delicate an organ, by bringing too great a flow of humours into it.

EAR-PIERCING, *adj.* Having a ſhrill ſound.—Th' *ear-piercing* fife. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAR-RING, *ſ.* Jewels ſet in a ring and worn at the ears; ornament of a woman's ear:

With gold and ſilver they increaſe his ſtore,
And gave the precious *ear-rings* which they wore. *Sandys.*

EAR-SHELL, *ſ.* A ſpecies of ſhell reſembling the form of the ear.

EAR-WAX, *ſ.* The cerumen or exudation which lubricates the inſide of the ear.—The ear being to ſtand open, becauſe there was ſome danger that inſects might creep in thereat; therefore hath nature loricated or plaiſtered over the ſides of the hole with *ear-wax*, to entangle inſects. *Ray.*

EAR'ABLE, *adj.* Arable; fit to be ploughed; tillable. *Scott.*

EARCH, a river of North Wales, which runs into the ſea, near Pwllhely, in Caernarvonſhire.

EAD'ORBURG, *ſ.* [from the Sax.] The metropolis; the chief city. *Obſolete.*

EA'RED, *adj.* Having ears, or organs of hearing. Having ears, or ripe corn.

The covert of the thrice-*ear'd* field
Saw ſtately Ceres to her paſſion yield. *Pope.*

Tilled; ploughed. *Deut.* xxi. 4.

EAR'ING, *ſ.* The act of ſhooting out in ears; the act of tilling the ground; the act of gathering the ears of corn. In ſea-affairs, that part of the bolt rope which is left open at the corner of the ſails in form of a ring.

EAR'ING-TIME, *ſ.* The time of harveſt.

EARL, *ſ.* [eorl, Saxon; *eoryl*, Erſe.] A title of nobility, formerly the higheſt of this nation, now the third:

Thanes and kinſmen,
Henceforth be *earls*, the firſt that ever Scotland
For ſuch an honour nam'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

This title ſeems to have originated with the Saxons, and is the moſt ancient of the Engliſh peerage, there being no title of honour uſed by the preſent nobility that was likewiſe in uſe by the Saxons, except this of earl, which was uſually applied to the firſt in the royal line. Verſtegan derives this word from the Dutch *ear*, i. e. honour, and *ethel* which ſignifies noble: but whencefoever it is derived, the title earl was at length given to thoſe who were aſſociates to the king in his council and martial actions; and the method of inveſtiture into that dignity was *per cincturam gladii*, without any formal charter of creation. *Dugdale's Warwickſh.* 302. William the Firſt, called the Conqueror, gave this dignity in fee to his nobles, annexing it to this or that county or province; and alloting them for the maintenance of it a certain portion of money ariſing from the prince's profits, for the pleadings and forfeitures of the provinces. *Camd.* And formerly one earl had divers ſhires under his government, and had lieutenants under him in every ſhire, ſuch as are now ſheriffs; as appears by divers of our old ſtatutes. *Cowel.*

But about the reign of king John and ever ſince, our kings have made earls of counties, &c. by charter; giving them no authority over the county, nor any part of the profits ariſing out of it; only ſometimes they have had an annual fee out of the exchequer, &c. An earl, *comes*, was heretofore correlative with *commitatus*; and anciently there was no earl but had a ſhire or county for his earldom; but of late times the number of earls very much increaſing, ſeveral of them have choſen for their titles ſome eminent part of a county, conſiderable town, village, or their own ſeats, &c. Beſides theſe local earls, there are ſome perſonal and honorary; as earl-marſhal of England; ſee titles CONSTABLE, COURT of CHIVALRY; and others nominal, who derive their titles from the names of their families. *Lex Conſtitutionis*, p. 78. Their place is next to a marquis, and before a viſcount: and as in very ancient times, thoſe who were created counts or earls, were of the blood royal, our Britiſh monarchs to this day call them in all public writings, "Our moſt dear couſin:" they alſo originally did, and ſtill may, uſe the ſtyle of *nos*. See COUNT, PEERS, SHERIFF.

EARL, a townſhip of the American States, in Lancaſter county, Pennſylvania.

EARL-MARSHAL, *ſ.* He that has chief care of military ſolemnities:

The marching troops through Athens take their way;
The great *earl-marſhal* orders their array. *Dryden.*

EARL'DOM, *ſ.* The ſeigniory of an earl; the title and dignity of an earl.—The duke of Clarence having married the heir of the earl of Ulſter, and by her having all the *earldom* of Ulſter, carefully went about redreſſing evils. *Spenſer.*

When I am king, claim thou of me
The *earldom* of Hereford. *Shakeſpeare.*

EARLE (William Benſon), a gentleman of ſingular benevolence and philanthropy of mind, deſcended from an ancient family long ſettled at Newton-Toney in Wiltſhire. He was born at Grately in Hampſhire; but reſided long in the Cloſe, Saliſbury. Poſſeſſed of literary endowments of the higheſt order; well verſed in the whole circle of the belles lettres, but particularly bleſſed with a moſt exquiſite taſte for muſic, his time and talents ſeemed devoted to theſe engaging purſuits; yet, amidſt them, he forgot not the humble and lowly among men, but was ever relieving their neceſſities, and leſſening their wants. The following bequeſts will evince the generoſity and goodneſs of his heart. To the matrons of biſhop Seth Ward's college, in the Cloſe, Saliſbury, he bequeathed the ſum of two thouſand guineas; to St. George's hoſpital, Hyde-park-corner, to Hetherington's charity for the relief of the blind, to the Philanthropic ſociety, and to the fund for the relief of decayed muſicians, a contingent legacy of one thouſand guineas each; to the three hoſpitals eſtabliſhed at Wincheſter, Saliſbury, and Briſtol, one hundred guineas each; to the reſpective pariſhes of the Cloſe, St. Edmund, St. Thomas, and St. Martin, in Saliſbury, fifty guineas each; for different charitable purpoſes in the pariſh of Grately, Hants, the ſum of four hundred guineas; and to the poor cottagers in Grately, his tenants, the fee ſimple of their cottages; and to the pariſh of North Stoke, in Somerſetſhire, thirty guineas. As a man of literature, and a friend to the arts, he bequeathed to the royal ſociety two hundred gnineas; to the ſociety of antiquaries two hundred guineas; and to the preſident of the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, two hundred guineas, for the purchaſe of books for the public libraries of thoſe three reſpectable ſocieties; to the Bath agricultural ſociety one hundred guineas. Wiſhing to add a beauty to the many which now adorn one of the fineſt Gothic ſtructures in the world, he bequeathed the ſum of four hundred guineas for erecting a window of painted glaſs in the great weſt nave of Saliſbury cathedral, which has ſince been magnificently completed. To encourage the art he loved, and give a grateful teſtimony of his partiality to the Saliſbury concert, he has left an annual ſubſcription of five guineas for ten years, towards its ſupport; and a farther ſum of 150 guineas for the three next triennial muſical feſtivals at Saliſbury after his deceaſe. Beſides the above public legacies, he amply remembered his friends; and bequeathed many others, with a view to encourage merit, and to reward induſtry and goodneſs. He died at Saliſbury, on the 21ſt of April, 1796; and on the 30th his remains were privately interred in the pariſh-church of Newton Toney, near thoſe of his anceſtors.

EA'RLESS, *adj.* Without any ears:

Earleſs on high ſtood unabaſh'd Deſoe,
And Tutchin flagrant from the ſcourge below. *Pope.*

EAR'LINESS, *ſ.* Quickneſs of any action with reſpect to ſomething elſe: as, *earlineſs* in the morning, the act of riſing ſoon with reſpect to the ſun; *earlineſs* of growth,

growth, the act of growing up ſoon in compariſon with other things of the ſame kind.—The goodneſs of the crop is great gain, if the goodneſs anſwer the *earlineſs* of coming up. *Bacon.*

EARL'STON, or EARSILTON, a town of Scotland, in Berwickſhire, ſeated on the river Leader, thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Edinburgh. It is the birth-place of the celebrated Thomas the Rhymer, whoſe real name was Thomas Lermont: the ruins of the little tower he poſſeſſed, ſtill remain at the weſt end of the town. A little below Earlſton, on a rocky bank overlooking the Leader, ſtands Cowdenknows, an ancient building, now ſomewhat modernized; and on the adjacent knolls may be ſeen the remains of its *broom*, ſo renowned in Scottiſh lore.

EAR'LY, *adj.* [æꝛ, Saxon, before.] Soon with reſpect to ſomething elſe: as, in the morning, with reſpect to the ſun; in time, with reſpect to creation; in the ſeaſon, in compariſon with other products.—Sickneſs is *early* old age: it teaches us diffidence in our earthly ſtate, and inſpires us with thoughts of a future. *Pope.*

I am a tainted wether of the flock,
Meeteſt for death: the weakeſt kind of fruit
Drops *earlieſt* to the ground, and ſo let me. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAR'LY, *adv.* Soon; betimes.—The princeſs makes her iſſue like herſelf, by inſtilling *early* into their minds religion, virtue, and honour. *Addiſon.*

None in more languages can ſhew
Thoſe arts, which you ſo *early* know. *Waller.*

"EARLY to bed, and EARLY to riſe,
Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wiſe."

This proverbial diſtich is addreſſed to every claſs of indolent perſons; and eſpecially to thoſe nocturnal revellers, gameſters, and drunkards, who convert the night into day, and finally bring upon them mental imbecility, poverty, and diſeaſe.

"The EARLY bird catches the worm;" or, The cow that's firſt up gets the firſt of the dew. Or, "EARLY ſow, EARLY mow."—Theſe proverbs are ſo many admonitions to riſing early, and well-ſpending the day.

"It EARLY pricks that will be a thorn."—Spoken of the inclinations and tendencies of children which are ſoon to be diſcovered, and conſequently eaſy to be provided againſt, if attended with an earneſt, ſteady, and philanthropic, mind. The Latins ſay: *Protinus apparet, qui arbores frugiferæ futuræ.*

To EARN, *v. a.* [eaꝛnman, Sax.] To gain as the reward or wages of labour; or any performance.—Thoſe that have joined with their honour great perils, are leſs ſubject to envy; for men think that they *earn* their honours hardly. *Bacon.*—The great expence of the poor takes up almoſt all their *earnings*. *Locke.*—To obtain, as a conſequence of action:

To do the act, that might th' addition *earn*,
Not the world's maſs of vanity could make me. *Shakeſp.*

EARN, a river of Scotland, which riſes in Loch Earn, nd joins the Tay, a little below Perth.

EARNE, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, thirty miles in length. It is narrow in the middle; and in this part is an iſland on which ſtands Inniſkilling.

To EARNE, *v. n.* now YEARN; [from ȝýꝛnan, Sax.] To have a great longing; to feel great anxiety. *Spenſer.*

EAR'NEST, *adj.* [eoꝛnȝꝛe, Sax.] Ardent in any affection; warm; zealous; importunate.—He which prayeth in due ſort, is thereby made the more attentive to hear; and he which heareth, the more *earneſt* to pray. *Hooker.*—Intent; fixed; eager:

On that proſpect ſtrange
Their *earneſt* eyes they fix'd; imagining,
For one forbidden tree, a multitude
Now ris'n, to work them further woe or ſhame. *Milton.*

Serious; important. Some ſay in *earneſt*, not in *jeſt*.—They whom *earneſt* lets do often hinder from being partakers of the whole, have yet this the length of divine ſervice, opportunity for acceſs unto ſome reaſonable part thereof. *Hooker.*

EAR'NEST, *ſ.* Serioufneſs; a ſerious event, not a jeſt; reality; not a feigned appearance.—The main buſineſs and *earneſt* of the world is money, dominion, and power. *L'Eſtrange.*

Nor can I think that God, Creator wiſe!
Though threat'ning, will in *earneſt* ſo deſtroy
Us, his prime creatures. *Milton.*

[*Ernitz penge*, Dan. *arres*, Fr.] Pledge; handſel; firſt fruits; token of ſomething of the ſame kind in futurity.—The apoſtles term it the handſel or *earneſt* of that which is to come. *Hooker.*—It may be looked upon as a pledge and *earneſt* of quiet and tranquillity. *Smalridge.*

Which leader ſhall the doubtful vict'ry bleſs,
And give an *earneſt* of the war's ſucceſs. *Waller.*

EAR'NEST, *ſ.* in law, money paid in part of a larger ſum, or part of the goods delivered, on any contract, &c. which being done by way of earneſt, the property of the goods is abſolutely bound by it: and the buyer may recover the goods by action, as well as the vendor may the price of them. And by the ſtatute of frands, 29 Car. II. c. 3. no contract for ſale of goods, to the value of ten pounds or more, to be valid, unleſs ſuch earneſt is made or given.

EAR'NESTLY, *adv.* Warmly; affectionately; zealouſly; importunately; intenſely.—*Earneſtly* invoke the goodneſs and power of an all-merciful and almighty God. *Smalridge.*—Eagerly; deſirouſly:

My ſoul, more *earneſtly* releas'd
Will outſtrip her's; as bullets flown before,
A latter bullet may o'ertake, the powder being more.
Donne.

EAR'NESTNESS, *ſ.* Eagerneſs; warmth; vehemence; impetuoſity:

Marcus is over warm; his fond complaints
Have ſo much *earneſtneſs* and paſſion in them,
I hear him with a ſecret kind of horror,
And tremble at his vehemence. *Addiſon.*

Solemnity; zeal; ſerioufneſs.—There never was a charge maintained with ſuch a ſhew of gravity and *earneſtneſs*, which had a ſlighter foundation to ſupport it. *Atterbury.*—Solitude; care; intenſeneſs.—With overſtraining, and *earneſtneſs* of finiſhing their pieces, they often did them more harm than good. *Dryden.*

EARSH, *ſ.* [from *err*, to plough.] An arable field, from which the corn has been cut and carried, and the ſtubble only remains. See STUBBLE.

Fires oft are good on barren *earſhes* made,
With crackling flames to burn the ſtubble blade. *May.*

EAR'SHOT, *ſ.* Reach of the ear; ſpace within which words may be heard.—Gomer, ſtand you out of *earſhot*: I have ſomething to ſay to your wife in private. *Dryden.*

EARTH, *ſ.* [eoꝛꝺ, Sax.] Soil; terrene matter:

The ſmiling god is ſeen; while water, *earth*,
And air, atteſt his bounty. *Thomſon.*

The terraqueous globe; the world.—This ſolid globe we live upon is called the *earth*; which word, taken in a more limited ſenſe, ſignifies ſuch parts of this globe as are capable, being expoſed to the air, to give rooting and nouriſhment to plants, ſo that they may ſtand and grow in it. *Locke.*

Nought ſo vile that on the *earth* doth live,
But to the *earth* ſome ſpecial good doth give. *Shakeſp.*

Different modification of terrene matter: In this ſenſe it has a plural; as in the different genera of *earths*, viz. boles, clays, marls, others, &c.—*Earths* are opake, inſipid, and, when dried, friable, or conſiſting of parts eaſy to ſeparate, and ſoluble in water; not diſpoſed to burn, flame,

flame, or take fire. *Woodward.*—This world oppoſed to other ſcenes of exiſtence:

What are theſe,
So wither'd, and ſo wild in their attire,
That look not like th' inhabitants o' th' *earth*,
And yet are on't? *Shakeſpeare.*

The inhabitants of the earth.—The whole *earth* was of one language, *Gen.* xi. 1.—Country; diſtinct region:

In ten ſet battles have we driven back
Theſe heathen Saxons, and regain'd our *earth*,
As *earth* recovers from the ebbing tide. *Dryden.*

The act of turning up the ground in tillage. [from *ear*, to plow.]

Such land as ye break up for barley to ſow,
Two *earths*, at the leaſt, ere ye ſow it, beſtow. *Tuſſer.*

To EARTH, *v. a.* To hide in earth.—The fox is *earth-ed*; but I ſhall ſend my two terriers in after him. *Dryden.*—To cover with earth.—*Earth* up with freſh mould the roots of thoſe auriculas which the froſt may have uncovered. *Evelyn.*

To EARTH, *v. a.* To retire under ground:

Hence foxes *earth'd*, and wolves abhorr'd the day,
And hungry churls enſnar'd the nightly prey. *Tickel.*

For the natural hiſtory and habitudes of the different earths, ores, ſtones, and other ſubſtances, of which our globe appears to be compounded, *as far as at preſent known*, ſee the articles CHEMISTRY and MINERALOGY.

For the magnitude, motion, figure, denſity, magnetiſm, ſeaſons, and other phenomena, of the Earth, conſidered as a planet; with the theories of Deſcartes, Burnet, Steno, Woodward, Whiſton, and Buffon, as to its primordial and preſent ſtate; ſee the article ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 361–370.

But the "Theories of the Earth," erected by the above-mentioned able philoſophers, having, in many reſpects, been found defective, later writers have endeavoured to ſatisfy inquiſitive minds on this important ſubject, by propoſing ſeveral new hypotheſes, ſupported by great depth of reſearch, and equal learning and ability. The firſt who ventured on this devious ground, is Dr. James Hutton, who publiſhed his New Theory of the Earth, in the firſt volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. This theory ſoon attracted the notice of other ingenious men, and became a ſubject of the moſt intereſting inveſtigation. Dr. Hutton's ſyſtem may be compriſed under four general propoſitions: 1ſt. That our preſent continents, rocks, and ſtrata, have been formed by ſubſidence, under the waters of a former ocean, from the decay of a former earth, carried down to the ſea by land-floods, torrents, and tempeſts. 2d. That the ſtrata formed at the bottom of the ocean are brought into fuſion, and conſolidated, by ſubterraneous fire. 3d. That the ſtrata, thus melted and conſolidated under the waters of the ocean, are forced up by ſubterraneous fire, to form new continents, mountains, and iſlands. 4th. That the three foregoing operations of nature, viz. the waſte of the old land, the formation of new under the ocean, and the elevation of the ſtrata thus forming under the waters for future dry land, are a progreſſive work of nature, which always did, and always will, go on forming world after world in perpetual ſucceſſion.

The firſt who has ventured to combat this theory, is the learned and ingenious M. de Luc. This able philoſopher has alſo propoſed a theory of his own; nearly the ſame in principle with that of Dr. Hutton, but extremely different in its mode of operation. Both the theories have been cloſely inveſtigated and compared, in letters from M. de Luc to Dr. Hutton, publiſhed in the Monthly Review, and commencing June 10, 1790. And as this correſpondence develops a conſiderable portion of new and intereſting information in geology, we think it right to preſent our readers with the ſubſtance of it, in M. de Luc's own words, who addreſſes Dr. Hutton as follows: "We ſet out, on both ſides, from this indubitable fact; that our *continents* have been once the *bottom of the ſea*: which is the grand phenomenon to be explained in a *Theory of the Earth*. Yours is compoſed of three fundamental hypotheſes: 1ſt. That no *ſolid ſtratum* of the earth can have been formed, but by its ſubſtance having been firſt *melted*, and then cooled. 2d. That the ſame *heat* by which our *ſtrata* have been *melted*, has raiſed them above the level of the *ſea*. 3d. That new *continents*, ſimilar to ours, are now forming at the bottom of the ocean, of the materials of the preſent ones, as theſe have been formed of the materials of former *continents*; and that the *continents* now forming, will riſe alſo, when ours ſhall be entirely *waſted*.

1ſt HYP. *No ſolid ſtratum of the earth, can have been formed, but by its ſubſtance having been firſt melted, and then cooled.*—The preſent diſquiſition having *ſolids* for its object, I muſt premiſe what I underſtand by *ſolidity*. I define a *ſolid*, a body whoſe conſtituent parts have been brought, by whatſoever cauſe, into ſo cloſe a *contact*, that they remain united by *coheſion*; the cauſe of which is not our object. Two principal cauſes may bring incoherent particles into *cloſe contact*; either *fuſion*, or the *medium* of a *liquid*; but the final effect is the ſame; the particles *adhere* to one another by *coheſion*. You mention both theſe cauſes; but you fix excluſively on the firſt. Now, *ſolids* formed by theſe two different mediate cauſes, muſt have different characters; and from theſe we may firſt determine which of the two cauſes has *conſolidated* our *ſtrata*. The diſtinctive characters of *ſolids* produced by *fuſion* are, that ſuch *ſolids* may be *melted* again by mere *heat*; and that, after cooling, they ſhall be the ſame, or nearly ſo, as before: but of all the *ſolid ſtrata* of our *continents*, *lavas* only are of that nature; conſequently, none of the other *ſtrata* have been *melted*. The ſame concluſion may be drawn from a more remote theory. *Fuſion* is an operation of *fire*, by which a *liquid* is produced of ſubſtances which, before, were not in that ſtate: but the proceſs of *liquefaction* is very different, when ſubſtances have been already *melted*, from what it is when they have not; and from that difference, we may alſo judge your hypotheſis, by premiſing ſome principles. A *liquid* is a ſubſtance compoſed of homogeneous particles, either *ſimple* or *mixed*; which particles are in a certain *combination* with *fire*, from which reſult theſe two characteriſtic properties; that the conſtituent particles of ſuch ſubſtances have but very little *adherence* together; but that, however, they have a *tendency* towards one another at a ſenſible *diſtance*. It is from the firſt of theſe properties, that particles of *liquids* ſubmit ſo readily to the law of *gravitation* in their maſs itſelf, ſo that their ſurface is always horizontal; and from the latter, that the ſmall maſſes of *liquids* tend to aſſume a *ſpherical* form. Now, from theſe properties alſo it is, that a *liquid conſolidates* by a certain degree of cooling; and that the *ſolid* produced has a peculiar character. For, while the ſubſtance was *liquid*, its conſtituent particles, from their *tendency* to one another, were come to the cloſeſt poſſible *contact*; without yet *adhering*, becauſe of their *combination* with *fire*: but when that *combination* ceaſes by a ſufficient degree of cooling, their *adheſion* inſtantly takes place.

Let us now examine, from theſe principles, what muſt be the proceſſes of *fuſion*, in the two claſſes of *ſolids* above diſtinguiſhed. Fragments or powders of ſubſtances which have been already *melted*, are immediately *liquefied* again by a ſufficient degree of *heat*; their conſtituent particles having been brought before to homogeneity and to the faculty of *combining* immediately with *fire*: from which, when they cool, they produce *ſolids* ſimilar to thoſe which have been *melted*: but the caſe is very different with *ſolids* which are known to be produced by other cauſes than *fuſion*; as for inſtance, *mortar*, *concretions* made by ſome *waters*, the *ſolid* parts of animals and *vegetables*, beſides many others controverted between us. *Coheſion*, or its modification called *affinity*, is alſo the immediate cauſe

cauſe of the *conſolidation* of thoſe bodies; but not one of them can be *liquefied* by *fire*; without undergoing great alterations in its conſtituent parts. If ſuch a *ſolid* is compoſed of *heterogeneous* particles, theſe muſt firſt combine together and with other particles, ſo as to become *homogeneous*: they muſt alſo be reduced to ſuch a ſtate, as to combine with *fire* in the manner which produces *liquidity*: and it is known by experience, that theſe *combinations* are produced by more or leſs alterations in the very ingredients of the ſubſtance; either by the loſs of ſome of theſe ingredients, or by the addition of new ones, or by both. From which cauſes, the new *ſolid* afterwards produced by cooling, bears hardly any reſemblance to the *ſolid* melted, and frequently none at all. Now, ſuch is the caſe of all our *ſtrata*, (*volcanic products* excepted;) and this, as I have ſaid before, is an immediate and evident proof, that they have not been *conſolidated* by *fuſion*.

I might confine myſelf to that general demonſtration; but I will examine ſome of the facts you allege for the ſupport of your hypotheſis. You ſay, p. 237, "I ſhall only mention one ſpecimen, which muſt appear more *deciſive of the queſtion* . . . . In this ſpecimen, *petro-ſilex*, *pyrites*, and *cinnabar*, are ſo mixed together and cryſtallized *upon each other* . . . . that it is impoſſible to conceive any one of thoſe bodies to have had its *fluidity* and *concretion* from a cauſe which had not affected the other two." This is, indeed, a *deciſive* fact, but *againſt you*: for, if that aggregation of various ſubſtances had been *melted*, they would not have remained as they are; you may try it. You ſay alſo, p. 232, "It may be aſſerted, that no *ſiliceous* body, having the hardneſs of *flint*, nor any *cryſtallization* of that ſubſtance, has been formed *except* by *fire*." What may be *aſſerted* in that reſpect, is, that no known operation of *fire* has ever produced, either *flint*, or any *cryſtallization* of that ſubſtance. *Flint*, and other hard ſubſtances of that kind, appear to be your great object; therefore I ſhall confine myſelf to them. You ſay, that the actual form in which *flinty maſſes* are found, demonſtrates that they have been *introduced* among the *ſtrata* in a *fluid* ſtate, by *injection* from *ſome other place*:" and you "refer thoſe who would enquire *more minutely* into the ſubject, to examine the *chalk countries* of France and England." If you have examined thoſe countries with as much attention as I have done, we may ſpeak from recollection. Suppoſe then that we have before us ſome of the high *chalk cliffs* along the Thames, or on the ſea coaſt. We ſee there a number of *ſtrata*, as diſtinct and regular as the rows of cut ſtones in buildings. Each of thoſe *ſtrata*, from the loweſt to the higheſt, is interſperſed, in its maſſes, with *flints* of all ſizes. Thoſe, now diſtinct bodies, are not in the *chalk*, as *knots* in the wood, round which the fibres are bent; or as *nodes* in *ſtalactites*, which alſo have cauſed inflections in the coatings of the dominant ſubſtance; they lie in the *chalk*, as would equal and ſimilar pieces of the *chalk* itſelf, without any alteration or diſturbance in the *chalk* round them. Now, ſir, was each of thoſe *ſtrata*, from the loweſt to the uppermoſt, *injected* while it was forming? If ſo, the *melted flint* ought to have come from the water above; but this is impoſſible. Or did the *injection* continue from below? But why were not ſuch *injections* ſtopped in the lower *ſtrata*, inſtead of being ſo equally diſſeminated in them all? Where did the *chalk* retire that was diſplaced by theſe new maſſes? Where are the traces of their paſſage through the *chalk*? What was the *power* that *ſhot* thoſe maſſes through ſuch a reſiſting *medium*, in which, as in all others, the reſiſtance would have been as the ſquares of the velocities; Why was that *power* intermittent? Theſe are queſtions, to which I cannot find any anſwer for you. After this external inſpection of *flints* diſſeminated in *chalk ſtrata*, let us come to ſome of their particulars. In breaking many of them, we find them hollow, and filled with unaltered *chalk*: many round pieces have only a *flint-ſhell*, and the inſide is *chalk*. How can it be conceived, that a *melted matter* has been thrown up in *bubbles* through the *chalk*, and filled with it? Great quantities of *marine bodies* are found in thoſe *ſtrata*, ſome of which (the *echini* of various ſpecies) are like *egg-ſhells*, both in ſhape and fragility, and they have only one or two very ſmall apertures. Theſe *ſhells* are moſtly filled with *chalk*: but a great many, which, by their external appearance and their ſituation in the *chalk*, are abſolutely ſimilar to the others, are filled with *flint*. How could you conceive, that *injections* of *melted flint* made through the *ſtrata* have met exactly, not only thoſe *ſhells*, but their ſmall aperture, in whatever ſituation it happened to be in the *chalk*? And how could the *chalk* that was in before, come out by the ſame ſmall hole through which the *melted flint* was introduced? I cannot doubt, that if you had examined, as I have done, theſe and a great many other ſtriking facts, you would have alſo thought, as I do, that *flint* is only a particular modification of the *chalk* itſelf. The manner, indeed, is unknown; but we know of no particular proceſs that can produce *flint*; and every circumſtance belonging to its maſſes in the *chalk*, leads to that general opinion alone.

You quote, alſo, as a proof of your hypotheſis, *foſſil wood*, found in looſe *ſtrata*, impregnated with hard ſubſtances, as *ſpar*, *pyrites*, *flint*, and *agate*; and the reſult of your obſervations on that *foſſil* is, p. 234, "that however little of the *wood* is left unpenetrated, the diviſion is always diſtinct between the *injected* part and that which is not penetrated by the *fluid flint*:" but, again, how can you conceive, that ſuch *denſe* and *hot* fluid would be *injected* into a cloſe ſubſtance compoſed of *combuſtible fibres*? I have myſelf found in many ſorts of *ſtrata*; petrified pieces of *wood* of all the ſorts you deſcribe, and of many others; and they contradict your hypotheſis by every one of their various appearances, a few of which I ſhall mention. In *ſtrata* of looſe *ſand*, I have found pieces of *wood*, ſo hard, as to ſtrike fire with ſteel, though impregnated only with fine concreted *ſand*; and the ſame *ſtrata* contain alſo *concretions* of mere *ſand*, in various ſhapes, very ſimilar to thoſe of *flints*. In *clayey* ſtrata I have found pieces of *wood*, hardened by a penetration of *clay*, that was afterwards *concreted*: they are generally involved by a *concretion* of the ſame ſubſtance; and ſimilar *concretions* are found in the ſame *ſtrata*, either round other extraneous bodies, or in homogeneous maſſes, either ſolid, or cracked, and filled with *ſpar*. In *ſtrata*, where proceſſes of *agatization* have taken place, I have found pieces of *wood* penetrated with *agate*; and in one of theſe pieces the *agatization* has been ſo gradual, that ſome of the fibres may be ſcraped with the nail, and are ſtill *combuſtible*, though between other fibres fixed and hardened by imperceptible *agate*. I did not find any ſeparate maſſes of *agate* in thoſe ſtrata, as ſeparate maſſes of *flint* are found in the *chalk* ones; but all the extraneous bodies were either impregnated or filled with that ſubſtance. Many *ſea-ſhells* of the ſcrew kind are thus circumſtanced: ſome are involved by a concretion of the ſurrounding ſubſtance, ſome are looſe in it. If theſe *ſhells* are put into an acid, they are diſſolved, and a *nucleus* only remains, which ſhews all the ſhades of *agatization*. In the wideſt revolutions of the *ſhell*, where the ſubſtance of the *ſtratum* had been firſt admitted, this has remained opaque; but it is hardened, and has a gloſſy ſurface. Farther in, the *agate* is ſtill mixed with the ſubſtance of the *ſtratum*; but it begins to have ſome tranſparency; and in the deepeſt and narroweſt revolutions, the *agate* is almoſt as tranſparent as glaſs. Now, if a maſs of *melted agate* had been *injected* in thoſe *ſhells*, the appearance would have been abſolutely reverſed; the *opaque* part would have been in the bottom of the *ſhells*, where the ſand would have been forced; and the pure *agate* would be in the outward revolutions.

You mention, p. 233, the *pudding-ſtones of England*, which, you ſay, you *have not ſeen in their natural ſituation*: but, ſir, this is only a particular phenomenon belonging to a numerous claſs, conſiſting of *concretions* of large and diſtinct materials mixed with ſand, formed in looſe *ſtrata*

of

of the ſame ſort. You look upon ſuch *concretions* as being inexplicable by any other cauſe than *fire*. "If it is, (you ſay, p. 230,) by means of *heat* and *fuſion* that the looſe and porous ſtructure of *ſtrata* ſhall be ſuppoſed to have been *conſolidated*, then every difficulty . . . is at once removed. The looſe and *diſcontinuous* body of a *ſtratum* may be *cloſed* by means of *ſoftneſs* and *compreſſion*." I have found a great variety of thoſe groups *in their natural ſituation*, and among theſe the *pudding-ſtones* you mention; and I will deſcribe their general characters. The groups properly called *pudding-ſtone* by lapidaries, are found in looſe gravelly *ſtrata* of *pebbles*, ſuch as compoſe them; and they only differ from the reſt of the *ſtratum*, by the *ſand* being *concreted* in that particular maſs. Similar *concretions*, but not worth the attention of lapidaries, are found in the *ſtrata* of the common flinty *gravel*; and neither in theſe, nor in the former, is there any ſign of *compreſſion* upon *ſoft* materials: the *gravel* of which they are formed has its natural ſhape. The general cauſe of ſuch diſtinct groups in looſe *ſtrata*, is the *conſolidation* of the *ſand* between larger materials; which *ſand*, from the beginning of the *ſtratum*, filled up the interſtices between thoſe materials. I have ſeen, in various countries, hills formed of looſe *ſand*, in which were *ſtrata* almoſt entirely compoſed of *ſea ſhells*, mixed with *ſand*; and in theſe *ſtrata* I have found *pudding-ſtones* formed of thoſe *ſhells* inſtead of *gravel*: the *ſand* between them was concreted. In other *ſand-ſtrata*, where *concretions* have been only produced between or round ſcattered *ſhells*, I have found many ſuch groups, in which the *ſhells* ſtill retained their native colour. Laſtly, I have ſeen, in *ſtrata* of *gravel* mixed with *ſhells*, *pudding-ſtone* containing theſe two ſorts of bodies; and the *ſhells* alſo had their native colours. All theſe facts are ſo contrary to ſuppoſitions of *heat*, *fuſion*, and *ſoftneſs*, that I am ſure you would never have formed your hypotheſis, had you had more opportunities of ſtudying, in *their natural poſition*, the ſpecimens you have in your cabinet. The *ſea ſhells*, mentioned in many of the above examples, lead me to a more general objection againſt your hypotheſis. It would be ſufficient to examine thoſe bodies, to be convinced, that the *concretions* in which they are found did not undergo a *melting-heat*; but, moreover, how could you conceive, that the *animals* themſelves, of which theſe are the *relicts*, could have lived upon theſe very *ſtrata*, which you ſuppoſe to have been ſucceſſively *conſolidated* by *fuſion*? Here ends every appearance of poſſibility: and I might have confined myſelf to this ſingle objection, had I not thought it more convenient, to follow all the arguments you have adduced in favour of your own hypotheſis.

Since the ſtrata of our *continents* have not been *conſolidated* by *fire*, it muſt be by ſome proceſs of *water*; for you agree that their *conſolidation* muſt have been the effect of one of thoſe two cauſes: but you object againſt the laſt, and I muſt now examine your objections. We have ſeen that it is ſufficient for the *conſolidation of looſe* materials, that any vehicle can help minute particles to inſert themſelves between larger ones, ſo as to multiply the points of cloſe *contact* in the maſs; and *water* is fit for that purpoſe. Againſt this you allege, p. 227, firſt, the difficulty of finding *conſolidating* matters; and that alſo, of explaining, "whence came the matter with which the numberleſs *cavities* in thoſe maſſes were to be filled." I ſhall anſwer to theſe difficulties by a fact. If we take proper *lime* and *ſand*, we produce *mortar*: if we mix it with *ſtones*, we form a *wall*: if this be built in a place that ſhall be afterwards covered with *water*, it will in time *conſolidate*, not only as well as in the air, but better. Now, ſir, if your firſt objection, that of finding *conſolidating matters*, relates to *lime-ſtone*, *ſand-ſtone*, or other homogeneous *ſolid ſtrata*, I anſwer, that thoſe *matters* were originally in the *ſtrata* themſelves, as they are in *mortar*; and if you ſpeak of *ſtrata* compoſed of diſtinct large materials, with other ſubſtances between them, as *ſtrata* of *granite*, *pudding-ſtone*, or of ſome broken hard bodies now conſolidated together, theſe *ſtrata* have been *conſolidated* as walls, becauſe of the intervals between the large materials being filled with other ſubſtances which could *conſolidate*. Here, ſir, there is a circumſtance which is again deciſive between your theory and mine. In yours, where *fuſion* is to be the *conſolidating* cauſe, it is impoſſible to conceive, that *ſtrata* of *lime-ſtone* could be found upon *looſe marle*; or *ſand ſtone* and *petro-ſilex*, upon *looſe ſand*; which, however, is common: for, how could the uppermoſt *ſtrata* be *melted*, while thoſe under them remained unaltered? but that fact is eaſily explained in my theory; for, as improper *mortar* would not *conſolidate* in *water*, ſo all our *ſtrata* which did not contain proper particles for their *conſolidation* in the bottom of the ſea, remain *looſe*, either wholly, or in part.

You ſay again, p. 227, "Without ſome power by which *water* . . . . ſhould be ſeparated . . . . it is inconceivable how thoſe maſſes (our *ſtrata*) ſhould be abſolutely *conſolidated* without a particle of *fluid water* in their compoſition." You are miſtaken, ſir; the moſt part of our *ſtrata* are ſtill capable of imbibing *water*, in the ſame manner as they contained it when they were *conſolidated*; as does *mortar*, either *conſolidated* in water or in the air: and we have in the *ſtalactites*, and in *concretions* made in *water*, inſtances of more compact bodies *conſolidated* in that manner. But another of your objections will bring us to a diſquiſition of greater importance: it is at p. 228, where you ſay, "If *water* has been the *menſtruum* by which the *conſolidating matter* was introduced into the interſtices of *ſtrata*, maſſes of thoſe bodies could only be found *conſolidated* with ſuch ſubſtances as *water* is capable of diſſolving." This argument is again contradicted by *mortar* and *plaſter*; which, though *conſolidated* by the medium of *water*, are not *ſoluble* in it: but I ſhall now take a larger field, and maintain, not only the *precipitation* of *conſolidating* ſubſtances, but that of the whole of our *ſtrata* themſelves; and, firſt, of what *water* do you mean to ſpeak: is it *diſtilled water*, *rain-water*, or any particular *ſpring-water*? Here you have already ſome ſorts of *waters*, different in their faculty of *diſſolving*: but, in general, what are all our *menſtrua*, if not *water* impregnated with ſuch ſubſtances as make it capable of *diſſolving* certain other ſubſtances? and how ſhort is our knowledge of the power of nature, in reſpect of the compoſition of *menſtrua*, by previous ſolutions in that primary *liquid*, which is common to every *menſtruum*?

To prove to you the neceſſity of having recourſe to *precipitation* for the explanation of our *ſtrata*, I ſhall begin by pointing out the chaſm you have left in your theory, by too ſuperficial an examination of our continents. They are entirely formed of *ſtrata*: conſequently that ſort of compoſition muſt have a common general origin; and to diſcover this, our attention muſt be firſt fixed upon the lowermoſt of theſe *ſtrata*. However, you ſay, p. 256, "The nature of *granite* is too intricate a ſubject to be conſidered where we have only to prove the *fuſion* of ſubſtances from the *evident marks* which are to be obſerved in a body." This is not applicable to *granite*, which ſurely bears no *mark* of *fuſion*: and, in the mean time, it is the opinion of the moſt informed naturaliſts, that *granite*, or ſome other ſuch hard rock, forms the lowermoſt *ſtrata* of our continents. Perhaps that claſs of ſtrata has the more embarraſſed you, becauſe of a very important circumſtance, viz. that thoſe lowermoſt *ſtrata* contain no *relicts* of *marine animals*: but immediately above the *ſtrata* of *granite*, there is an immenſe maſs of other *ſtrata*, alſo without *marine bodies*: theſe are formed of *grey rock*, intermixed with the ſhivering *ſtrata* of *ſchiſtus*. What then became of the *animals* of a former *ſea*, during the accumulation of thoſe ſubſtances in their future abode? Whence came the materials of thoſe two *primary* ſets of diſtinct *ſtrata*, ſo generally ſpread at the bottom of the ancient ocean? Why did their, ſo different, ſubſtances, come at diſtinct periods? Where was the fire kindled, that *conſolidated* them, before the exiſtence of the *ſtrata* accumulated

lated over them? Immediately after thoſe two *primary* ſets of *ſtrata*, we find, all over our continents, *ſtrata* formed of *calcareous* ſubſtances. With theſe you do not appear embarraſſed: you think it ſo certain that they were formed from the *relicts* of *ſea animals*, that you lay this down as a fact not neceſſary to be proved: but, ſir, are thoſe pretended *animal relicts* the accumulated product of that ſucceſſion of changes of *ſea* into *land*, and *land* into *ſea*, in which conſiſts the peculiarity of your hypotheſis? or, have all theſe ſubſtances been produced in that *ſea* which has immediately preceded the preſent? I ſhall anſwer, 1ſt. That we ſee no pure *calcareous* ſubſtance migrating from our *continents* toward the *ſea*, to form there *calcareous ſtrata* ſimilar to ours; and that, conſequently, ſuch a ſuppoſition would be gratuitous. 2d. That the general idea, of a ſeparate migration from the land of different unmixed materials, keeping again ſeparate in the *ſea*, though accumulating upon one another in diſtinct *ſtrata*, is abſolutely chimerical. It would at firſt appear leſs improbable, that the whole of our *calcareous ſtrata* had been produced in the former *ſea*: however, this alſo is contrary to all phenomena of that claſs. 1ſt. Why are thoſe pretended *relicts* of *ſea animals* depoſited in ſo many diſtinct *ſtrata*, inſtead of forming only one maſs? 2d. Why do we find as great accumulations of *marine bodies*, in *ſtrata not calcareous*, as in the *calcareous* ones? 3d. How were the *calcareous ſtrata* accumulated all over the bottom of the former *ſea*, unmixed with any other ſubſtance: while the *land* is ſuppoſed to have furniſhed, *at the ſame time*, the materials of the other ſorts of *ſtrata* accumulated *over* thoſe? Theſe remarks are only general ideas, which I offer to your meditation; and I am ſure, that when you come to examine attentively ſome of the parts of our *continents* which exhibit ſucceſſive and diſtinct claſſes of *ſtrata*, you will, yourſelf, be glad to find, in the following pages, a twilight ſpread on that grand phenomenon, by the theory of *diſſolution* and *precipitation*, which at firſt appeared to you ſo abſurd.

It is a very common fact, that *water* may depoſite *concrete* ſubſtances, which afterward it cannot *diſſolve*. This, principally, is the effect either of the *emiſſion* of ſome *elaſtic fluid*, whoſe ingredients, previouſly *diſſolved* by *water*, had enabled it to *diſſolve* the ſubſtances now precipitated; or of *water*, at the time of that *precipitation*, diſſolving ſome other ſubſtance. Thoſe are operations performed in many ways, ſpontaneouſly upon our continents, and artificial in our laboratories: and by analogy to thoſe known operations, I ſhall undertake to ſhew, that the whole of our *ſtrata* has been produced by *precipitation*. We clearly perceive in the *ſucceſſion* of our *ſtrata* a variety of diſtinct operations, nearly the ſame, in every reſpect, all over our continents; which, in the firſt place, muſt have been performed during PERIODS diſtinct from each other, not only in point of time, but by eſſential differences in the productive cauſes; and which alſo muſt have begun at a diſtinct EPOCHA of the exiſtence of our globe. Theſe are undoubtedly in the number of the moſt important circumſtances to be explained in a *Theory of the Earth*; and, in the mean time, they point out *precipitation*, not merely as a vague cauſe, but as the cauſe which affords the cleareſt idea of a beginning, and is the moſt ſuſceptible of modifications adequate to that variety of diſtinct effects. We are ſtill, no doubt, too ignorant in natural hiſtory and chemiſtry, to form a fixed and preciſe theory of thoſe operations; but we can trace their out-lines; and this I ſhall attempt. In this ſketch of the hiſtory of the *earth*, prior to its preſent ſtate, I fix upon a very remote, but diſtinct, EPOCHA, from which I ſhall come down to the complete formation of our *continents*. At that time, *light* did not exiſt: but, that ſubſtance excepted, our globe contained all the ingredients from which were to reſult its preſent ſtate, and that of its *atmoſphere*. In the number of thoſe ingredients, were the conſtituent particles of *water*, and another ſubſtance, which, with *light*, forms *fire*. No *liquid* exiſted in that ſtate of the *earth*, becauſe *fire*, which is a neceſſary part of their compoſition, did not exiſt. This is a moſt material point, not only in the hiſtory of the *earth*, but in natural philoſophy; and, from the general principles of that ſcience, together with indubitable facts, I have ſhewn, (in my work, *Idées ſur la Meteorologie*,) that *light* is one of the conſtituent parts of *fire*, as certainly, as this is a conſtituent part of *water*, of *aqueous vapour*, of *aëriform fluids*, and of numberleſs other *elaſtic* and *non-elaſtic* ſubſtances. To theſe propoſitions I here refer; and, from that determined ſtate, in which our globe was once, I propoſe to trace the operations which have produced our *continents*.

FIRST PERIOD.—A great event changed that primordial ſtate of the *earth*, which, elſe, had exiſted everlaſtingly; this was the addition of *light* to the confuſed maſs of its ingredients; and the following were the immediate conſequences of that addition: 1ſt. From *light*, united to one of the other ſubſtances, *fire* was compoſed, and the various effects of *heat* began. 2d. The moſt immediate effect of the exiſtence of *fire*, was its union with the conſtituent particles of *water*: from which that univerſal *liquid* was produced. 3d. From fire alſo, and from ſeparate *light*, the production of all the *atmoſpherical fluids* took place in determined circumſtances. 4th. *Water* diſſolved ſucceſſively a variety of ſubſtances; being unable to perform ſome of thoſe *diſſolutions* by antecedent ones. 5th. A number of other ſubſtances, ſome of a difficult ſolution, ſome inſoluble in that firſt ſtate of the liquid, ſubſided in it, and promiſcuouſly formed the *unliquefied* part of our globe. 6th. When *ſoftneſs* had been thus produced in the maſs of our globe, it aſſumed, by gravity and by its rotatory motion, the form that it now wears.

SECOND PERIOD.—An *original* LIQUID being thus compoſed, it began to *diſſolve* ſome of the ſubſtances which, at firſt, had ſubſided; and that *diſſolution*, together with the emiſſion of various *elaſtic fluids*, occaſioned, in the greateſt part of the LIQUID, the ſimultaneous *precipitations* of two ſorts of cryſtallized ſubſtances, of *mica* and of other *powders*, which, altogether, compoſe *granite*. In other parts of the LIQUID, different ſubſtances, partaking of the nature of the former, were promiſcuouſly *precipitated*; and, laſtly, in ſome parts, a pure *quartzeous powder*. That firſt general *precipitation*, and all the following ones of other kinds, were intermittent; becauſe of the ſlowneſs of the communication of the *precipitating* ſubſtances from the bottom to higher parts of the LIQUID, and of the ſlowneſs alſo of the emiſſion of *elaſtic fluids* from its ſurface downward. To thoſe intermiſſions were owing diſtinct *ſtrata*, formed in the courſe of each diſtinct *precipitation*. A mixture of proper particles, both in ſize and in form, *precipitated* together in a liquid, is an adequate cauſe to produce the multitude of points of *cloſe contact*, neceſſary to *conſolidate* a maſs by *cohęſion*: and that circumſtance having exiſted in a high degree in thoſe firſt *ſtrata*, they formed a very hard and thick *cruſt* at the bottom of the LIQUID all over the globe. The ſame cauſe, but with different combinations, produced various degrees of *ſolidity* in moſt parts of the ſubſequent *ſtrata*. During that PERIOD, the LIQUID emitted a great abundance of *aqueous vapour* and of other *elaſtic fluids*, which formed a firſt *atmoſphere* round the globe.

THIRD PERIOD.—The formation of *granite* and of other *quartzeous ſtrata*, was ſucceeded in the LIQUID, by very different *precipitations*. To this PERIOD belongs, eſpecially, the *grey rock* intermixed with the ſhivering *ſtrata* called *ſchiſtus*, which, all over our continents, appears as having formed immenſe *ſtrata* over the *granite*. At ſome part of this PERIOD, a great effect was produced, which, by its repetitions in the following PERIODS, has been the immediate cauſe of all the revolutions undergone by our *ſtrata*; and the following was its firſt cauſe. After the *ſolid cruſt* had been produced on our globe, the looſe ſubſtances on which it was laid, having continued to ſhrink in many parts, by gravity, and by a more intimate combination

bination between themſelves, vaſt cavities were formed under that *cruſt*. The firſt great event depending on that cauſe, fixes the end of this PERIOD: this was the ſinking at once of a great part of the *cruſt*, and the accumulation of the LIQUID over that ſunken part. Thus *dry lands* of various ſizes were produced, on which *vegetation* began.

FOURTH PERIOD.—It is only from that firſt revolution in the bottom of the LIQUID, that we may ſeparately conſider our *continents* as being then the *bed of the ſea*. That great alteration in the combinations of cauſes, both in the now broken bottom of the LIQUID, and in the LIQUID itſelf, together with an increaſe of *light*, prepared new events. The *bed of the ſea*, though formed of ſunken *ſtrata*, was not yet ſo broken, nor thoſe *ſtrata* ſo diſlocated, as they became afterward, from a continued *retreat* of the looſe ſubſtances under them: but they were, in many parts, covered with fragments of their ſubſtances, which, mixed afterward with various powders, either gathered or precipitated, were conſolidated in diſtinct *ſtrata*. To this *period* I aſcribe the beginning of the *phoſphoric* decompoſition by which our ſun emits *light*, and from which our globe then began to receive a conſtant ſupply of that ſubſtance.

FIFTH PERIOD.—Many great events belong to this part of the exiſtence of our globe; the firſt of which is, that the *ſea* began to be peopled with *animals*. They had not exiſted before; for we find none of their *relicts* in the former *ſtrata*, and their firſt appearance is in ſome *ſtrata* of *ſchiſtus*, which were ſtill forming: but a little after, probably by a new and conſtant ſupply of *light*, the LIQUID was diſpoſed to the diſtinct *precipitation* of *calcareous* ſubſtances, and all the former *precipitations* were ſtopped. Immenſe *calcareous ſtrata*, of various ſorts, were then formed all over the bottom of the LIQUID, by which the *primary ſtrata* were covered. In ſome of theſe *ſecondary ſtrata*, either in the ſame ſets, or in different parts of the *ſea*, a great quantity of *relicts* of *ſea animals* were buried; but in many other *ſtrata* of the ſame kind, even in the ſame ſets, there were few or none depoſited. The ſame difference, reſpecting the *exuviæ* of *ſea animals*, happened in ſome of the following *ſtrata*: ſome have none; and ſome, in which no *calcareous* ſubſtance was depoſited, excepting thoſe *exuviæ* themſelves, contain a prodigious quantity of them. Among the *ſea animals*, whoſe *relicts* are depoſited in thoſe *calcareous ſtrata*, were many ſpecies which diſappeared when that kind of *precipitation* was at an end. During that diſtinct *precipitation* a new ſort of revolution began in the bottom of the *ſea*, by *volcanic eruptions*: and many *volcanic cones* were ſurrounded, as *lavas* covered by *calcareous ſtrata*. Towards the end of this PERIOD, other great revolutions of the firſt claſs took place, by partial *falls* of the bottom of the ſea, in its whole extent, owing to the continued retreat of the looſe materials under the ſolid *ſtrata*. In thoſe *falls*, ſome of the deeply broken *ſtrata* being turned up, in falling more on one ſide than on the other, and ſome parts of them being prevented from falling, by the reſiſtance of *concreted* ſubſtances under them, vaſt *ridges* of different forms were produced on the ſurface of our future *continents*. To this only it is owing, that the lowermoſt *ſtrata* of our *land* happen to be under our inſpection: we ſee them clearly turned up in the center of our great ridges of mountains; and, directed by that immediate information, we diſcern them in ſmaller ridges, and in their fragments ſcattered over many parts of the uppermoſt *ſtrata*. In thoſe revolutions, alſo, many *iſlands* which had remained up in the third PERIOD, and on which *vegetation* had produced great accumulations of *peat*, ſunk for the firſt time, and were afterward covered with other kinds of *ſtrata*. At that time, however, the bed of the *ſea* was the only theatre of revolutions; a great maſs of *land* remained, which had not yielded to the *retreat* of the looſe ſubſtances under it.

SIXTH PERIOD.—Another great alteration happened now in the *ſea*. Not only the *precipitation* which had produced *ſolid calcareous ſtrata* ended in moſt parts of the LIQUID; but this was rendered capable, perhaps by the *volcanic eruptions* continuing with violence, of *diſſolving* many *calcareous ſtrata* of the *chalk* kind, of which remains only the *flinty gravel* found in ſo many parts of our continents. The origin of that *gravel* is manifeſted by the ſame *marine bodies* which exiſt in our *chalk ſtrata*, and ſometimes by *chalk* itſelf being found in its maſſes. Many ſorts of *ſtrata* belong to this PERIOD; the firſt of which proceeded from a *precipitation* of *ſand*, which, in many parts of the ſea, was *conſolidated* in *ſtrata* over thoſe of *lime-ſtone*. After this, and ſome other *precipitations*, new revolutions happened in the bed of the *ſea*, by which the *ſand* and *calcareous* ſtrata were broken and diſlocated; as were the particular ſets which contain our *coals*. As all theſe revolutions had for their common cauſe the ſinking of new parts of the bottom of the *ſea*, the level of the *ſea* itſelf ſunk alſo more and more; and then the upper parts of the high *ridges*, which had remained between fallen parts, appeared as *iſlands* over that level, and began to be covered with *vegetation*. In the latter part of this PERIOD, many new ſorts of *ſtrata* were formed over the ruins of the former: theſe are ſtrata of *clay*, *marle*, *ſand with gravel*, and ſtrata of various ſorts of pure *ſand*. The moſt parts of thoſe *ſtrata* were ſuch as could not *conſolidate*, except partially. The *ſea animals*, which, notwithſtanding the above revolutions, continued to propagate in many parts of the *ſea*, became nearer and nearer the ſpecies which inhabit the preſent *ſea*, and their *relicts* were depoſited in great abundance in many of the new *ſtrata*: ſome are not very ancient, for we find them ſtill with their native *colours*, which have vaniſhed in the more ancient ones: however, among the more recent, there are ſome whoſe ſpecies now exiſt only in very remote parts of our *ſea*. Theſe remains of the lateſt inhabitants of the ancient *ſea* are often found mixed with remains of *animals* and *vegetables* proceeding from a *continent*, which then ſtill exiſted: or rather, this fact proves the exiſtence of that *continent*, and that it was then peopled with *animals*. We are now come near another revolution, of which I am not to ſpeak in this place, having here only to trace the formation of our *continents* under the *ſea*. The revolutions which produced their characteriſtic form were moſtly at an end, by the looſe ſubſtances under them being ſettled; conſequently they were nearly the ſame as we ſee them now. The *continent*, on which the *animals* lived, whoſe *exuviæ* were carried to ſome parts of the *ſea*, ſtill exiſted; being, by its ſolid compoſition, ſupported over the *cavities* formed by the *retreat* of the looſe ſubſtances under it: however, in that ſtate, it was expoſed to the ſame ſort of revolution which had happened over the reſt of the globe.

I confine myſelf, ſir, within thoſe narrow limits, in reſpect of the operations and revolutions that happened on our globe, prior to the retreat of the *ſea* from our *continents*: but, in that mere ſketch, I have pointed out a ſucceſſion of cauſes, whoſe characteriſtic effects are diſtinctly marked on the ſurface of thoſe *continents*: and this I think ſufficient to ſhew, that the theory of *precipitation* is the only one that can bear to be examined comparatively with the preſent ſtate of our *ſtrata*. The only argument which you have oppoſed to that theory is, that *ſubſtances precipitated in a liquid, ought to be ſtill ſoluble by that liquid*: but a moment's reflection would have made you diſcover, that, on the contrary, no ſubſtance can be *precipitated* in a *liquid*, while that *liquid* ſtill retains the faculty of *diſſolving* it; and, in general, that the very modifications which produce the *precipitation* of ſubſtances in a *liquid* are the cauſe of its incapacity of diſſolving them again. As for the admiſſion of an *original* LIQUID, ſuch as I have explained it, if it gives a clear, though not a preciſe, idea, of the great phenomena obſerved on the ſurface of our

globe, of the intricate compound of the *liquid* called *sea-water*, and of the no less intricate assemblage of *elastic fluids* which now forms our *atmosphere*, I think you will not oppose to it, our incapacity of producing such a *liquid*. I have said before, that we are too little advanced in general, precise, and well-directed, observations, to determine exactly those phenomena: it will be then, particularly, to establish, from a number of new observations, the characteristic facts, from which I have drawn these out-lines. I come now to your second hypothesis, in the examination of which, new proof will occur of what I have hitherto stated.

2d. HYP. *The same heat that has melted our solid strata has been capable of raising them.*—According to this hypothesis, when our *strata* had been produced by a pretended *fusion*, they were *raised* by the same *heat* that had *melted* them. On this I must quote your own words: "There has been, you say, p. 263, an extreme degree of *heat* below the *strata* formed at the bottom of the sea; and this is *precisely* the *action of a power* required for the *elevation* of those *heated bodies* into a higher place." In explanation of this, I find only these few words, which are in the same paragraph: "The power of *heat* for *expanding* bodies, is, so far as we know, *unlimited*." Being deprived of more explanation from you, I must suppose, what only can give the idea of an adequate *power* of that kind; and this would be, the sudden and copious production of some *elastic fluid*: but, sir, if you had taken notice of what I have said, respecting that idea, in my Letters on the *Theory of the Earth*, you would not have renewed that ancient hypothesis. When that supposed operation took place, the *strata* which were to form our *continents*, were either in their first state of *fusion*, or *consolidated* by cooling. In the first case, the expanding fluid would have raised an immense *bubble*, the middle of which would have soon burst, by the soft matter falling down its sides; or if the *strata* had been before *consolidated*, they would have been broken to pieces: and in both cases, the *elastic fluid* having made its escape, the raised materials would have sunk again. To prove that our continents have been *raised* by the expansion of some substance below them, you say, p. 271, "One thing is demonstrable, from the inspection of the *veins* and their contents; this is the *successive irruptions* of those *fluid substances*, breaking the solid bodies which they met, and *floating* these fragments of the broken bodies in the *vein*." This is unintelligible to me: for you here suppose a very dense *liquid*, since it is to *float* fragments of *stones*; but such a substance cannot afford the smallest idea of an *expansion* such as you want it: however, let us go on. "It is very common, you say, to see three *successive series* of those operations; and all these may be perceived in a small fragment of stone, which a *man of science* may examine *in his closet* often *better* than *descending the mines* . . ." But first, if an *expanded matter* had broken through our *strata*, would it have only filled up the fissures? would it not have rushed out in torrents? However, no exuberance of the substances of *veins* is found any where. On the other hand, you give afterwards *lavas* as a proof of those *irruptions of melted substances*: we ought then to find it in *veins*; and none of them contain *lava*. Thus, the phenomenon of our *veins*, which you thought so favourable to your hypothesis, is absolutely against it. You do not say what is that *small fragment of stone* which is to inform a *man of science*; but I have *descended* into various *mines*, and there I have seen a variety of quite different substances laid over one another, either regularly or promiscuously. Many sorts of *metallic ores* form their distinct layers, between other mineral substances; and *veins* entirely different from each other are found, at but a little distance, in the same ridges of mountains. These, and many other circumstances, which you would have seen *better* in the *mines*, than in a *small fragment of stone*, would have led you to think, that if a *liquid substance* had been forced, from some furnace, through our *strata*, and had filled up the fissures, it would have been an homogeneous substance, as *lavas* are, and not such a variety of distinct substances.

In order to determine the *power* exerted in your supposed operation, you say, p. 271, "Let us consider what *power* could be required to force up, from the most unfathomable depth of the ocean, to the *Andes* or the *Alps*, a *column of fluid metal or stones*: this *power* cannot be much less than that required to elevate the *highest land upon the globe*." As you allude afterwards to the *columns* of *lava* forced up to the top of high *volcanos*, I will apply to them your argument, for shortness sake; and I shall suppose, that the principle on which you depend is, that a *liquid column*, whatever be its diameter, presses upon its base, in proportion to its *height*: but, sir, if the *vaults*, against which the *liquid column* presses upwards, were to give way, the column would instantly subside; and in the case you want to explain, the *vaults* against which the *power* was to exert itself were our whole *continents*; which were to be *raised*, and so to give way. I do not think that you have given a sufficient degree of attention to that pretended analogy. You quote an example of such an operation; and, as the case is real, the above argument will thereby be exemplified. "It must be evident, you say, p. 275, that in the case of the *new-island* near *Santorini*, had the *expansive power* been *retained*, instead of being *discharged*, much more *land* might have been *raised* above the level of the ocean." My proposition is, that no *land* can be raised in that manner, because the *expansive power* must be *discharged*: and this is an instance of it; for no *land* was *raised*. I have examined that event, with that of a *new hill* formed near *Naples*: in both, the *discharge* of the *power* was the first and constant symptom observed; and the blast itself was the cause of the new exuberances formed on the surface of the ground: not by raising a *land*, by which must be understood *whole strata*, but by heaping up melted and broken materials. These, in short, were only two *volcanic cones*, similar to all those which, in the sea, form *islands* and *mountains* on our continents.

The common *mole-hills* give us a clear and precise idea of the mechanic operations by which such *heaps* are formed upon the solid *ground*; those operations being of the same general kind, from the little disregarded excrescence made by the *mole*, up to the *Etna*, and to the *volcanic cones* of the *Andes*. A first *opening* is made at the surface of the ground, by the *power* which is to perform the whole mechanic operation. The ground afterwards is undermined, and the *power* throws up the *loose materials*, which accumulate round the opening. In the formation of a *mole-hill*, the whole operation is mechanic; the animal is, in the mean time, the *miner* and the *heaper*. In the formation of *volcanic cones*, there are also chemical operations, by which, first, a great *heat* is produced, that melts certain mineral substances, which I have some reasons for supposing to lie under all the *strata*: at the same time, *elastic fluids*, especially *steam*, are produced; and these form the mechanic *power*. The first effect of that *power* is, to burst the *strata* above. If, then, the *melted matter* obstructs the passage to those constantly forming *elastic fluids*, they force it up through the *opening*, mixed with masses of the broken *strata*: whence the accumulation of those materials, on the outside, in the uniform shape of a *cone*. The constant rushing out of the *elastic fluids*, keeps a channel open in the axis of the *cone*, through which, from time to time, are forced up *lavas*, either compact, or frothy; these are the *pumice stones*. At other times, when the *liquid matter* is not sufficient to fill up the channel, the *blast* bursts through it, and drives along, even at a great height above the *crater*, showers of red-hot masses of that *liquid*; these are the *volcanic cinders*. When those *showers* are thrown up from a great depth, part of the *melted matter* consolidates against the sides of the *channel* in its cooler

parts,

parts, by which at laſt it is obſtructed. Then a threatening quiet takes place, during which the *melted matter* and the *elaſtic fluids* are accumulated; and at laſt theſe burſt open the *cone* in ſome weak part, whence a *lava* flows, followed ſometimes by ſhowers of *cinders*, and broken pieces of the *ſtrata*, from which a new *cone* is formed on the ſide of the main one. Such are the operations by which *volcanic* iſlands and mountains are formed: we ſee thoſe operations in the few *volcanoes* which are ſtill in action; but they are very inconſiderable, comparatively to ſimilar operations, which, having taken place in the bottom of the *ancient ſea*, have formed there the *volcanic* mountains now found every where upon our continents, many of which are partly buried under *ſtrata* of *lime* and *ſand* ſtones. Some of the *cones* produced at that time have been immenſe, as we may judge from the ſkirts of their baſes, exiſting now under the form of circular ridges of hills: the *cones* themſelves have ſunk into caverns over which they were heaped; and the circular ridges of hills, ſeemingly formed of a ſeries of *cones*, are only the ſections of *lavas*, which had flowed from and around the immenſe ſunken *cone*. Many of thoſe *circular ridges* I have called *volcanic crowns*, (*couronnes volcaniques*;) and it ſeems probable that the ſame events have happened on the ſurface of the *moon*.

Now, ſir, if you read the deſcriptions given by contemporary authors, of the riſing of the *Iſolà-nuovo*, near *Santorini*, in the year 1707, and of the formation of the *Monte-nuovo*, in ſight of the inhabitants of *Naples*, in 1538, you will find, that thoſe events anſwer perfectly to the theory I have ſtated above. There was no *land* raiſed, but only *broken materials* thrown up. In the *new iſland*, thoſe materials came out from many *openings*; in the *new hill* there was only one *opening*, through which came out ſuch a quantity of broken and melted materials, as to form, in a ſhort time, a *cone* of three miles in circumference, and of a proportionable height. Theſe examples, conſequently, inſtead of ſupporting your hypotheſis, are evident inſtances in favour of the arguments by which I have ſhewn its impoſſibility. You yourſelf complete the proofs againſt that hypotheſis, in the cloſe of that article, where you ſay, p. 285, "How that *land* is preſerved in its *elevated ſituation*, is a ſubject on which we have *not even the means of forming a conjecture*:" but, ſir, the abſolute impoſſibility of ſuch *pieces of land* as our *continents* remaining in that *elevated ſituation*, after having been *heaved up*, and thereby *broken to pieces*, is preciſely what I oppoſe againſt that hypotheſis; and your acknowledging that we have not *even the means of forming a conjecture* for its explanation, is giving it up entirely.

Since our *continents*, though now *dry*, have evidently been covered by the *ſea*, and ſince, as I have ſhewn, they cannot have been *raiſed* from its bottom, the *ſea* muſt have ſunk, and retired to that part of the globe where it now is. You admit that *dilemma*; but having adopted the firſt of thoſe operations, you object againſt the laſt; and this is one of your arguments, p. 264: "If the preſent *land* has been diſcovered by the *ſubſiding* of the waters, there has not been a *former land* from whence the *materials* had been produced for the conſtruction of the preſent, when at the bottom of the *ſea*; for there is no veſtige remaining of that *land*." I do not underſtand the argument. We both admit a *former land*, from an evident ſymptom, which is, the *relics* of *land* animals and vegetables found in our *ſtrata*. We both alſo acknowledge, that there is *no veſtige remaining of that land*, it being now covered by the ocean. As for the neceſſity of a *former land*, to provide *materials* for the preſent, it is what I am far from admitting, as you have ſeen above. In this reſpect, you add in the ſame place: "Neither could the natural productions of the *ſea* have been accumulated in the *ſhape* we now find them on the ſurface of the earth; for how ſhould the *Alps* and *Andes* have been formed within the *ſea*, from the natural production of the water? Conſequently this is a ſuppoſition inconſiſtent with *every natural appearance*." I have explained before, how thoſe *ridges* have been *formed*: but what, in that reſpect, is contrary to *every natural appearance*, is, that in any way, our *mountains* can have been formed *in the ſhape in which we now find them*. The higheſt parts of the *Alps*, as well as the loweſt hills, are formed of *ſtrata*; but in theſe firſt huge maſſes, and in the parallel ridges that follow them, the moſt parts of the *ſtrata* are *broken* and *turned up*. This you may have ſeen clearly defined in M. DE SAUSSURE's *Voyages dans les Alpes*. The ſame ſituation of the *ſtrata* is obſerved in many parts of every ridge of mountains, and even in hills; and it is evident that they are now the *higheſt* parts of the ground, only becauſe the other parts have *ſunk* round them.

You ſay again, p. 265, "The ſinking the body of the *former land* into the *ſolid* globe, ſo as to ſwallow up the greateſt part of the ocean after it, if not a natural impoſſibility, would be at leaſt a *ſuperfluous exertion* of the *power of nature*. Such an operation would diſcover as little *wiſdom* in the *end elected*, as in the *means* appropriated to that *end*." Certainly it would be an odd *attempt* of any *power*, to ſink the *body of the former land* into the *ſolid globe*; and I do not know who has thought of it. That *land* had *cavities* under it, as I have explained above; and it required very little *exertion of power* to ſink it into them; and here, your objection of an unwiſe *exertion of power*, which does not affect my theory, is again entirely againſt you; according to your theory, the revolution by which our *land*, formerly under the *ſea*, is now above its level, is only one, in a ſeries of alternate revolutions, ſome already paſt, ſome to come, in which the ſame parts of the globe have been ſometimes *ſea*, at other times *land*. The *firſt land* that *roſe* from the bottom of the water, ſtood already upon a firſt *cavity*. The *materials* of that *land* went into the *ſea*, to form there a *ſecond land*; which roſe, and driving the *ſea* over the *firſt land*, remained *dry* in that manner. Upon the *firſt land*, then become again the *bottom of the ſea*, new *materials*, coming from the *ſecond land*, were accumulated; and, at a proper time, a *third land* roſe, either the *firſt land* newly ſtocked, or only the *ſtrata* formed upon it. In the firſt caſe, the *cavity* under the *firſt land* was double the ſize of what it was before, and conſequently that *land* had been again *ſtretched* in proportion to the *cavity* under it: in the latter caſe, a new *vault*, of the ſize of a continent, was to ſwell over the firſt, and ſo to leave a ſecond *cavity*. I cannot go any farther; I am overwhelmed by the weight of thoſe *broken materials*, forming, however, a ſucceſſion of *vaults* over *vaults*, in an indefinite ſeries; and I am ſure, that when you come to conſider theſe conſequences of your theory, you will be perſuaded to abandon it.

I now come to your opinion, "that our *continents* are *wearing away*." This is a very material object of enquiry, both in its nature, and by its connections with the whole of your *Theory*. It is important by its nature, becauſe every queſtion relating to it is to be determined by immediate facts; which renders it ſuſceptible of an abſolute deciſion: it is ſo by its connection with the whole of your *Theory*; for, if it is demonſtrated that our continents are not *decaying*, other *continents* cannot have been *deſtroyed* by the cauſes you aſcribe to the pretended *decay* of ours; nor conſequently could theſe have been formed from the *materials* of decayed continents. The whole, then, of your Theory will depend on this queſtion, to be decided by immediate facts: *Are our continents in a ſtate of decay*; *ſo that it might be foreſeen, that, in time, they will be deſtroyed, and their materials returned into the ſea?*

The following is the manner in which you introduce this new ſubject: "Our *land*, you ſay, p. 296, has two *extremities*; *the tops of the mountains* on one hand, and the *ſea-ſhores* on the other: it is the intermediate ſpace between theſe two, that forms the habitation of plants and animals. While there is a *ſea-ſhore*, and a *higher ground*, there is that which is required in the ſyſtem of the world: take that away, and there would remain an aqueous globe,

in

in which the world would periſh." On this there is no queſtion. "But in the *natural operations* of the world, the *land* is *periſhing continually*; and this is that which now we want to underſtand." In this, no doubt, conſiſts the general queſtion. "Upon the one *extremity* of our *land*, there is no increaſe, or there is no acceſſion of any mineral ſubſtance. That place is the *mountain-top*, on which nothing is obſerved but *continual decay*." This is much too generally expreſſed: for there are many *tops* of mountains which do not *decay*, but, on the contrary, receive ſome *increaſe* by the accumulation of *vegetable earth*. However, to avoid particular queſtions, I grant, that, upon the whole, the *mountain-tops* may be conſidered as being in a ſtate of *decay*.

"The *fragments* of the *mountain* are *removed* in a gradual ſucceſſion, *from the higheſt ſituation to the loweſt*. Being *arrived* at the *ſhore*, and having *entered* the *dominion of the waves*, in which they find perpetual agitation, theſe hard *fragments*, which had eluded the reſolving powers natural to the ſurface of the earth, are incapable of reſiſting the powers here employed for the *deſtruction of the land*. By the *attrition of one hard body upon another*, moving ſtones and rocky ſhores are mutually impaired. And that *ſolid maſs*, which of itſelf had potential ſtability againſt the violence of the waves, affords the inſtruments of its own *deſtruction*; and thus gives occaſion to its actual *inſtability*." This I do not grant in any reſpect. As to the manner of treating this ſubject, it is determined by one of your own remarks. "In the *deſtruction* of the preſent *earth*, you ſay, p. 297, we have a *proceſs* that is performed *within the limits of our own obſervation*: therefore, in knowing the *meaſure* of this *operation*, we ſhall find the means of calculating what has paſſed on a former occaſion, the *deſtruction of former continents*." Therefore I ſhall neither uſe, nor admit, any argument, which is not founded on *immediate obſervation*.

You aſſert in theſe few words, the *deſtruction* of our *continents*, in ſetting out from the *mountain-top*. "The *fragments* of the *mountain* are *removed* in a gradual ſucceſſion, *from the higheſt ſtation to the loweſt*." Here, ſurely, the *proceſs* is *within the limits of our obſervation*. But inſtead of adducing preſent and obſervable facts, you have recourſe to ancient ſuppoſed ones. You mention the *materials* of which our *continents* are compoſed; and, taking for granted that thoſe *materials* proceed from former *continents*, you make that mere hypotheſis the foundation of your proofs of the preſent *deſtruction* of ours. This will appear from the following examination: "*Gravel*, you ſay firſt, p. 289, forms a part of the *materials* which *compoſe our ſolid land*. But *gravel* is no other than a collection of the *fragments* of ſolid ſtones worn round, or having their regular form deſtroyed by agitation in water, and the attrition upon each other, or upon ſimilar hard bodies. *Conſequently*, in finding maſſes of *gravel* in the *compoſition* of our land, we *muſt conclude* that there had exiſted a *former land*, on which there had been tranſacted certain *operations of wind and water*, ſimilar to thoſe which are *natural to the globe at preſent*, and *by which* new *gravel* is *conſtantly prepared*." Then, inverſely, if I demonſtrate, by actual *obſervation*, that the *operations of wind and water* upon our *continents* do not prepare any *gravel* for *future* ones; I ſhall have proved that the whole of your *Theory* is without foundation.

"*Sand* (you ſay alſo) is the material *which enters, perhaps, in greateſt quantity, the compoſition of our land*. But *ſand* is *no other* than *ſmall fragments* of hard bodies, worn or rounded, more or leſs, by attrition. *Conſequently*, the *ſame natural hiſtory of the earth* which is *inveſtigated* from the maſſes of *gravel*, is alſo *applicable* to thoſe maſſes of *ſand* which we find forming ſo large a portion of our land *throughout all the earth*." You agree here to a fact, which is very important in more than one reſpect, viz. the immenſe quantity of *ſand* throughout all the ſurface of the earth. As for your concluſion, you will agree alſo, that if no *gravel* goes to the *ſea* from our *continents*, the *ſand* cannot proceed there from its *attrition*. But, previouſly, that definition of *ſand*, which you here intend as a foundation for your argument, is in itſelf a mere hypotheſis. In your Theory, you ſometimes accumulate *materials* on the bottom of the *ſea*, there to form *ſtrata*; then you ſpeak of raiſed *ſtrata*, whoſe *materials* return to the *ſea*. But before introducing thoſe alternate operations, it was incumbent on you to explain the *origin* of thoſe *materials*. For, you undertake to explain the general fact of the *ſtratification* of our *continents*; a leading one in the former hiſtory of the earth: and in that undertaking it anſwers to nothing, to ſuppoſe, on whatever foundation, that new *ſtrata* are formed of antecedent *ſtrata*; as it would be nothing towards explaining the *origin* of *vegetation*, to ſhew how a *plant* proceeds from another *plant*. You were then to explain, whence came the *materials* of which the *firſt* of all *ſtrata* were formed, before you could ſay with any foundation, that *ſand is no other than ſmall fragments* of former hard *ſtrata*: for it may be, and I think it is, a ſubſtance which has formed *ſtrata* by *precipitation* in a *liquid*. You ſee, then, that you uſe controvertible arguments: while, the *proceſs* being within the *limits of our obſervations*, you ought to have proved, that both *gravel* and *ſand* are carried from our *continents* to the *ſea*: which, on the contrary, I ſhall prove not to be caſe.

You come next to *clay*; and, as this ſubſtance bears a greater appearance of having been floated in water, it ſeems at firſt more probable that our *ſtrata* of *clay* might have proceeded from the *decay* of former *continents*. I could ſhew you, however, even by following directly the operations from which you ſuppoſe our *clay* to have been formed, that its phenomena do not anſwer to that deſcription. But ſuch a diſquiſition would be here uſeleſs, ſince, what we have now to find out, and that by *actual fact*, is, whether or not *our continents are wearing away*.

You ſpeak, laſtly, of *calcareous ſubſtances*; and, continuing to follow your method of proving the exiſtence of *preſent operations* by ſuppoſed *paſt ones*, you ſay, firſt, p. 288, "We have already obſerved, that all the *ſtrata* of the earth are compoſed either from *calcareous relicts of ſea animals*, or from the collection of ſuch *materials* as we find *upon our ſhores*:" and, after having ſo taken for granted, that our *calcareous ſtrata* are the *relicts of ſea animals*, you enter into a long ſpeculation on *vegetation and animal life*, to prove that our continents *muſt* wear away, to feed the preſent *ſea animals*. But I have proved above, that our *calcareous ſtrata* cannot be ſuppoſed to be the *relicts of ſea animals*: and, by proving to you now, that our *continents* do not *decay*, I ſhall anſwer, in the moſt incontrovertible manner, to the reſt of your ſpeculation. In that demonſtration I ſhall follow a plan that you have laid yourſelf. Before you entered into theſe ſpeculative diſquiſitions, you had uſed an argument, *à priori*, from which you firſt concluded, that it was neceſſary that our *continents* ſhould be deſtroyed. There you trace operations which ought to have been proved; and I ſhall follow the ſame order, to prove that thoſe operations do not exiſt: "A ſolid body of land, you ſay, p. 214, could not have anſwered the purpoſe of a habitable world; for a *ſoil* is neceſſary to the growth of plants: and a *ſoil* (1ſt. *Hyp.*) is *nothing but the materials collected from the deſtruction of the ſolid land*. Therefore (2d. *Hyp.*) the ſurface of this land, inhabited by man, and *covered with plants* and animals, *is made by nature to decay*, in diſſolving from the hard and compact ſtate in which *it is found below the ſoil*: and this *ſoil* (3d. *Hyp.*) is *neceſſarily waſhed away*, by the continual circulation of the water running from the ſummits of the mountains towards the general receptacle of that fluid. (4th. *Hyp.*) The *heights of our land* are thus *levelled with the ſhores*: our fertile *plains* are formed from the *ruins of the mountains*; and thoſe *travelling materials* are ſtill *purſued* by the *moving water*, and *propelled* along the inclined ſurface of the earth. (5th. *Hyp.*) Theſe *moveable materials* delivered into the ſea, cannot for a

long continuance, reſt upon the ſhore; for, by the agitation of the *winds*, the *tides*, and the *currents*, every *moveable* thing is *carried* farther and farther *along the ſhelving bottom of the ſea, toward the unfathomable regions of the ocean.*" I ſhall follow the ſame order in proving, from facts, the contrary of every one of theſe *Hypotheſes*.

1ſt. HYP. *A ſoil is nothing but the materials collected from the deſtruction of ſolid ſtrata.*—You have yourſelf contradicted that aſſertion, in acknowledging "that *ſand* is the *material* which enters, perhaps, in greateſt quantity the compoſition of our land . . . . throughout all the earth." For it does not appear that you look upon that *ſand* as proceeding *from the deſtruction of the ſolid ſtrata below it*; or in caſe you did, I am going to prove that it is not ſo. 1ſt. That *ſoil* is found in *ſtrata* of various ſorts, laid over one another; they may be alternately mixed or unmixed with *gravel*, more or leſs loamy, and ſometimes of pure *clay*: which is abſolutely contrary to the idea that it is a *ſoil* formed there, from the decompoſition of *hard ſubſtances*. 2d. That *ſoil* is ſometimes ſo thick, that no *hard ſubſtance* is found in ſinking deep wells into it. This alſo is contrary to the idea of a decompoſition of *hard ſubſtances*, ſuch as are *below*; for, in the few inſtances (comparatively to the whole) where a *ſoil* proceeds really from ſuch a deſtruction, the *ſolid ſtrata* are found at a little depth. 3d. When *ſolid ſtrata* are found under that almoſt general *ſoil*, their nature bears ſeldom any reſemblance to it; which, however, ought to be the caſe, if it proceeded from their decompoſition. 4th. There are ſome inſtances of *ſandy ſoils* proceeding from the *decompoſition of the ſame ſand-ſtone* which is found below them; and then there is no difference between the *ſoil* and the *ſtone*, except in *hardneſs*; but in many more caſes, apparently ſimilar, notwithſtanding a great reſemblance between the *ſand* above, and the *ſand-ſtone* below, there are evident proofs that the firſt is not a decompoſition of the laſt. For inſtance: *ſand* lying over *ſand-ſtone* very like it, contains often a *flinty gravel*, which is not found in the *ſtone*, nor in any ſolid *ſtrata* in the whole country. Whatever then be the origin of the *ſand* that we find laid in *ſtrata* almoſt all over the ſurface of our *continents*, there cannot be any doubt that it came out of the ſea with them, *looſe* as it is: and conſequently there was no need of a *deſtruction of ſolid ſtrata*, to produce a firſt *ſoil* upon them.

2d. HYP. *The ſurface of our continents has been made by nature to decay, for the growth of plants.*—You are anxious, ſir, to produce a *ſoil* fit for *vegetation*, though there was a *ſoil* ready upon our *continents*; and you never mention how *vegetation* began upon the *ſoil* you think to have been produced afterwards. According to your Theory, *hard* and *hot* ſtrata roſe from the bottom of the *ſea*, when the *continents* which exiſted before were waſted. But by a neceſſary conſequence of that operation, the *ſea* was to be repelled upon the decayed continents. You think that they were formed in ſucceſſion: but whenever a ſet of *continents* roſe from the *unfathomable bottom* of the *ſea*, it could not but drive the water upon thoſe that exiſted. Then the *plants* and their *ſeeds* were to be ſubmerged; and if any of theſe laſt had come by chance to the ſhore, they muſt have been unfit for vegetation, before the ſcorching *heat* of the new continents could be diſſipated, and a *ſoil* produced by the decay of thoſe *hard ſtrata*. After a ſatisfactory explanation of the manner in which our continents were abandoned by the ſea, one of the moſt important points in a *theory of the earth*, is to give a clear and diſtinct account of the beginning of *vegetation* upon them: I find none in yours, but you have it in mine. I have explained how the *tops of our mountains* were become, in the former *ſea*, *iſlands* or *peninſulas*, which had been covered with *vegetation* and ſtocked with animals. Thence, when they were become the *high grounds* of our land, proceeded the *ſeeds* by which *vegetables* were produced upon the *ſoil*, ready to receive them. The *ſeeds* of moſſes, ferns, gramina, heath, and many other ſmall *plants*, were carried every where by winds; and thoſe were the vegetables that firſt covered the *original ſoil* all over the continents. Many *trees* and other vegetables have *winged ſeeds*; by which form, though heavier, they were alſo carried by winds: from them proceeded the firſt *foreſts*, and a variety of dominant vegetables, according to the *ſoil*. Birds and other vehicles propagated other ſorts of plants. From that theory, we have upon the new continents a *ſoil* covered with *vegetation*; while the hypotheſis of *our land having been made by nature to decay for the growth of plants*, explains nothing in that reſpect.

3d. HYP. *A* SOIL *is neceſſarily waſhed away.*—This is completely contradicted by a general fact. An immenſe part of our continents, ſtill in the hands of nature, is left to its ſpontaneous products. I have ſeen vaſt extents of thoſe grounds, and received informations of many more of Europe and Aſia; and the following is their general ſtate: In every part where the winds have not diſturbed *vegetation*, or moiſture forwarded it to *peat*, thoſe grounds are covered with a ſtratum of *vegetable earth*, produced from the remains of decayed *vegetables*. That *ſtratum* is as diſtinct from the *original ſoil*, as *oil-paint* from cloth, wood, or metal, over which it is laid: it is compoſed upon every *ſoil*, of a black powdery ſubſtance, mixed with roots, under which are found *ſands* of all ſorts, either pure, or mixed with gravel, loam, and even hard rock very little impaired. This is an evident proof that the *ſoil* is not *waſhed away*; for, if it had been the caſe, in reſpect of thoſe grounds, the *vegetable earth* had not gathered over them.

Perhaps you thought only of *culture*, and ſo accuſed *man* of the deſtruction of his own *dwelling*: but I can vindicate him, both by the nature of the proceſs, and by the fact. In reſpect of the proceſs, it is one of my objects to ſhew the care taken by the huſbandman, to collect in ditches what comes out of his fields by rain, and to lay over it as *manure*, what he does not eat of his crop, with the product of the *unmoved* ſurface of his graſs fields, and of the neighbouring uncultivated grounds. This extends to all ſorts of cultivated lands; but here I ſpeak only of the plains: and as a proof of the efficacy of thoſe proceſſes, I may quote alſo a general fact. All the *uncultivated* lands I have obſerved, are more or leſs intermixed with *cultivated* ones, and ſome from a time immemorial; and I have never found (without ſome particular reaſon) the level of the laſt, lower than that of the firſt; on the contrary, I have found it often higher. Conſequently, the *original ſoil* of the plains and of rounded hills, has not been, and is not to be, waſhed away.

4th. HYP. *The heights of our land are levelled with the ſhore, by the continual circulation of water, running from the ſummits of mountains towards the ſea.*—The examination of this hypotheſis will take in again the whole of your ſpeculations; for it will lead us to the *ſea*, in purſuit of the *rivers*, loaded with the *depredations* of all the *moving waters* upon our land. But as precipitation only can have been the cauſe of ſome natural philoſophers miſtaking the nature of the operations which take place on the ſurface of our globe, we muſt follow them ſtep by ſtep. At the beginning of our *continents*, they had a quantity of *ſteep grounds*; and *ſtreams* began to flow in every part of their ſurface. But this is too large a field to be traced in all its particulars; therefore I ſhall proceed at once to the *tops* of the *Alps*, and thence follow the courſe of *natural cauſes* down to the *ſea*. That part of the inveſtigation will ſupply the whole; for what I ſhall eſtabliſh upon that great ſcale, will be applicable to the ſame proceſſes on ſmaller ones. I ſhall not, however, here ſtop at thoſe high parts of the central ridge of the *Alps*, where ice covers the ruins of tumbling rocks; it being ſufficient for our preſent purpoſe to obſerve, that no *fragment* of thoſe rocks can come out of their high region, but by coming to mix with thoſe of the lower ones, of which I ſhall follow the courſe. Our preſent

ſent object will be only thoſe parts of the *Alps* where a ſufficient *vegetation* can reach, and which incloſe completely that part which I ſet aſide for the preſent. It is certain that every *ſteep rock* is falling down faſter or ſlower; and theſe are the *fragments* which you think are *propelled along the inclined ſurface of the earth*, to be *delivered into the ſea* by the *moving water*: let us then follow their courſe.

It is evident, that the *fragments* of tumbling rocks muſt firſt accumulate under them, and riſe there in a ſlope, which I ſhall call *talus*; a word uſed in fortification, for that ſort of ſloping grounds which have the natural declivity of looſe materials rolling over one another. *Taluſes* of that ſort are found now on all the ſides of every ridge of the *Alps*; and they may be divided into three claſſes, in reſpect of their forwardneſs. The firſt claſs is under *rocks*, ſtill very high, and decaying very faſt. Theſe *taluſes* are almoſt *barren*; the conſtant fall of new rubbiſh prevents *vegetation* from covering them: they are known to increaſe both in extent and in height, and by increaſing in this laſt dimenſion, they tend to cover the ſteep ſurface of their *rocks*. The ſecond claſs is under rocks which, either originally were only ſteep at their upper part, or were much diſpoſed to crumble down. Theſe *taluſes*, though ſtill barren towards the top, are, more or leſs, covered with *vegetation* in their lower parts; for here the acceſſion of new materials is leſs frequent, the larger fragments only roll down, and by their acquired velocity, they extend the baſe of the *talus*. There the ſhade produced between the large materials, preſerves more moiſture; *moſs* begins to cover them, and it becomes the receptacle of the ſeeds of other plants, whoſe decay forms a firſt ſtock of *vegetable earth* between the ſtones. Then ligneous plants alſo begin to grow; and, when *vegetation* is ſo eſtabliſhed, it fights its way up, covering and binding ſucceſſively the new falling materials. Laſtly, a third claſs of *taluſes* is found under *rocks*, whoſe decay is nearly, or entirely, at an end. Here *vegetation* has got up to the remaining veſtiges of the *rocks*; which, if no longer decaying, are themſelves covered with *moſs*. There are frequently many rows of thoſe *taluſes* at different heights on the ſame ſides of high mountains: in that caſe the upper ones undergo the fate of the *rocks* over which they are forming. Sometimes the operation ends in a ſucceſſion of *ſlopes* and *terraces*; and, in ſome other caſes, the whole ſide of the mountain is reduced to one ſingle *ſlope*. Various ſorts of *vegetations* cover thoſe *taluſes*: under ſhivering *rocks* they are generally covered with graſs and a few ſhrubs: if their materials, though ſmall, are not in flakes, they are moſtly covered with ſhrubs; and, where the materials are larger, trees are the dominant products of the ſoil. In the immenſe *taluſes* of the *Alps*, there are frequently three diſtinct zones, determined by their elevation, and alſo by the ſize of the materials; the lowermoſt are foreſts, the middle ones are thickets, and the uppermoſt are paſtures. That operation is, either finiſhed or going on, within and all round ſteep mountains; and, when it is completed, both in the large valleys and in the external parts, it produces an everlaſting ſecurity againſt further demolitions by *wind* and *rain*. For the whole of that ground is covered by *vegetation*, and ſtocked with *vegetable earth*; and this ought to be torn off, before any of the *fragments* under it could be moved: while, on the contrary, the quantity of that *earth* is conſtantly increaſing by the decay of *plants*, whoſe roots, in the mean time, bind the materials more and more. Theſe *taluſes*, to which every ſteep *mountain* has been, or tends to be, reduced, cannot have then any aggreſſors but *men* and *ſtreams*; and I will examine the operations of both.

The inhabitants of the *mountains*, both within and round them, make great uſe of the lower parts of thoſe *taluſes*, when they are compoſed of an arable ſoil; and this is inevitably brought down by culture. If the huſbandman has a ſufficient ſpace at the bottom of the ſlope, he does not trouble himſelf with that effect of his work: for the parts of the ſlope which he does not cultivate, as being too high, follow by degrees the parts that ſubſide by culture: and the only conſequence of the operation is, that the whole *talus* tends to acquire a ſmaller degree of declivity. But if, either by other proprietors, or for want of room in the bottom, the cultivator is confined to a certain ſpace, then begins his care for the preſervation of the ſoil: he ſtops the ſmaller materials by ditches, and the larger by walls. In vineyards, where the culture has the greateſt tendency to level the ſlope, the vine-dreſſer extends further his care: his yearly work in winter is to bring up on his back the ſoil that he has brought down by digging downwards. Through theſe precautions, prompted to each individual by ſelf-intereſt, thoſe bulwarks of *mountains* are as ſafe in the hands of men as we have ſeen them in the hands of nature.

Streams will at firſt appear more powerful agents for the deſtruction of mountains; but let us follow their operations, and begin from the high valleys, where ſudden *torrents* are formed, at every heavy rain, and great thawing of the ſnow. Theſe violent *ſtreams* daſh againſt every *talus*, which, in extending itſelf, has reached their bed. As long as a *torrent* can bend its courſe round ſuch projections, it is only repelled; but by their increaſe there comes a moment when, falling upon them with great violence, it undermines them, and produces at once a great ſliding down of the ſurface of the *talus*, even though ſometimes already covered with trees. Theſe momentary dams force the water to riſe; but its increaſing weight at laſt breaks them; and the impetuoſity with which it falls, favoured by the uſually great declivity of thoſe narrow valleys, gives it the power of driving along the moſt part of thoſe materials which had been accumulated gradually within its reach. Here, ſir, you might ſay with reaſon, "the *travelling materials* are purſued by the *moving water*, and propelled along the inclined ſurface of the ground:" but they only *travel* for a ſhort time: in every hollow place, or in any part where the *torrent* can ſpread, it loſes the power of driving them; thereby are filled up all the deep parts of its bed, and all the ſinuoſities of the valley through which it runs; and if, when every part of that valley is levelled in its breadth, and reduced to an equal declivity, the *taluſes* are not yet retired to a proper diſtance and ſettled there, the new accumulated materials are propelled by the *torrent* down to ſome large valley, where at laſt they are ſtopped; for there the *torrent* can ſpread without bounds. At the beginning of thoſe operations, *caſcades* were formed in many of thoſe outlets from narrow valleys into large ones; but now, in moſt parts, the materials brought down by the *torrents*, which have been accumulated there in the form of very obtuſe *ſemi-cones*, reach the entrance of the *defiles*, and the *torrents* flow over them. Not one of the *fragments* of the high parts of the *mountains* comes out of them but through ſuch a paſſage; conſequently we have, in thoſe *ſemi-cones*, the whole of the rubbiſh that does not remain in the upper parts; and we ſhall not loſe ſight of it, nor even of the *duſt*, which is carried away at firſt by the *torrents*.

Theſe ſecondary accumulations of *fragments*, proceeding from the high regions of great mountains, are very conſpicuous in their large valleys; and they are now of the three claſſes already deſcribed in reſpect of the primary *taluſes*. In the parts where the *torrents* continue to produce great havoc above, the *ſemi-cones* are ſtill barren; a continual recruit of new materials, in times of great floods, prevents *vegetation*. When the great demolitions above are become rare, *vegetation* begins to take poſſeſſion of the parts which the *torrent*, by dividing itſelf in many branches upon the ſlope, has abandoned. Laſtly, in many places, where every great revolution in the upper valleys is at an end, the *torrent*, confined in various furrows that it has formed, leaves full ſcope to *vegetation*, upon a ſoil which yields to all ſorts of culture. There hamlets and villages are built, near the leſs turbulent,

lent, and now embanked, rills of the ſame *torrent* which formerly would have appeared threatening the whole mountain with deſtruction.

Our *fragments*, ſo gathered in the lower vallies, are not all yet at their laſt ſtage, but I muſt leave them for a moment, in order to examine the effects of *vegetation*. I had already deſcribed thoſe effects; and I muſt ſuppoſe that you had not given attention to them, when you aſſerted that the *heights of our land* were to be *levelled with the ſhore*; therefore, to ſhew you that the preſerving power of *vegetation* is a fact, not only general, but ſtriking to every attentive obſerver, I will tranſlate here a paſſage of one of the moſt intereſting works upon mountains, *(Obſervations ſur les Pyrenées,)* publiſhed lately by M. RAMOND DE CHAR CONNIERE, who had before given ſome obſervations on the *Alps*, in a tranſlation of Mr. Coxe's inſtructive *Letters on Switzerland*. "In tracing up (he ſays) the ſucceſſive cauſes of the fertility of the *valley of Campan*, one of the high valleys of the *Pyrenées*, it is to the creſt of *Tourmalet*, between the pointed rocks of the valley of *Baſton*, and the blunted rocks of the *Eſcalette*, that I ſhall tranſport the obſerver. I ſhall ſhew him, on one ſide, the *Gave*, ſtill rolling the fragments of the tumbling hills; while on the other, the *Adour* now ſpares even a blade of graſs. We ſhall follow this lively but beneficent ſtream, we ſhall view his meanders traced by the turf and by rocks covered with moſs: we ſhall behold him at *Trames-aigues*, falling in a magnificent caſcade, between rocks covered with flowers. The firs will ſoon embelliſh with their vigorous and picturesque tufts, his bold, but inoffenſive, falls: for now he has forgotten his ancient fury, and vegetation approaches with confidence. The mountains are tumbled; he has levelled their fragments: the declivities are ſoftened; nothing now irritates him; every thing favours his deſtination: and to the obſerver, who never beheld a torrent thus at peace with nature, the apparent tumult of his waters forms a ſurpriſing contraſt with the tranquillity of his banks.

"It is from the lowering of ſteep rocks and the levelling of ragged declivities, that the valley of *Campan* is now one of the moſt delicious receſſes of paſtoral life. It was before a deep furrow, between the foot of the *Pic-de-Midi*, and the calcareous rocks which lean againſt it. There the firſt torrents were impetuous in proportion to the ſteepneſs of the declivity, and boiſterous from the aſperity of the forms ſketched by the ancient ocean. But the tops of the lofty ſummits are come to fill up the bottom of thoſe precipices; the running waters have inceſſantly tended to level the ſoil; the accumulated rubbiſh has been ſpread: a reſt has ſucceeded to long convulſions, and vegetation has covered theſe heaps of ruins. The valley of *Campan* is then an anticipated picture of the future ſtate of the whole earth; it inſtances that ſtate of calm announced and determined by M. de Luc. Such will be all the valleys of the Alps and Pyrenées, of Caucaſus, Atlas, and the Andes; when the powers which tend to preſerve ſhall be in equilibrium with thoſe which tend to deſtroy; when the ſummits ſhall ceaſe to deſcend towards the foundations, and the foundations to riſe towards the ſummits; when the declivities ſhall have acquired that degree of inclination which prevents any farther rolling down of materials; when active vegetation, ſo ready to take poſſeſſion of every ſurface as is for a ſhort time at reſt, after having often been repulſed by the laſt agitations of theſe expiring giants, ſhall ſit in peace upon their mouldered limbs." This, ſir, is a true picture of numberleſs valleys in the high ridges of mountains: and if ſudden falls of ſteep rocks continue ſtill for a time to diſturb their peace, they only protract thoſe neceſſary operations, which will ſecure *eminences* upon our ſettled *plains*, as long as the known *natural cauſes* ſhall remain ſuch as they are.

Let us now return to the low and large valleys of the Alps, in which we have gathered all the *fragments* that have either fallen immediately from their ſides, or deſcended from the upper parts by the impulſe of the *torrents*. Every accumulation of that rubbiſh which remains at a ſufficient diſtance from the bed of the gathered waters in the valley, is perfectly ſecured by *vegetation*; a certain *criterion* of *reſt*, and a *ſafeguard* againſt *wind* and *rain*. But this is not yet the caſe with all thoſe accumulations; ſome have advanced up to the banks of the *river*, which, in great floods, undermine them. There new falls happen, and we have again *travelling materials*; for the *river* riſes againſt that rubbiſh; but again it is only to level it: it remains in every part of the valley where the *river* can ſpread, and the large *fragments* are there buried in the *duſt* that had been produced at their firſt falling from the rocks. This laſt tumultuous operation in *mountains* protracts the ſettling of their whole maſs; for this will not be completed till every *talus* of the ſides of the low valleys, and every *ſemi-cone* formed there by *torrents*, ſhall be *ſettled* at a proper diſtance from the *river*; and with this circumſtance are, more or leſs, connected all the operations in the upper parts of the *mountains*. Such a *river* will continue to attack ſome part of its banks, as long as the above-mentioned cauſes ſhall bring materials along them; and the baſes of the *taluſes* being ſo impaired, it gives occaſion to new ſliding down of materials. But when all thoſe operations ſhall be completed, and the ſmoothing work of thoſe rivers finiſhed, they will flow as harmleſsly as the *Adour* in the valley of *Campan*.

So far we are ſure not to have loſt ſight of one of the fragments that, ſince the origin of our *continents*, are fallen from any of the rocks in the *Alps*; they were all to paſs through ſome of the large *valleys* before they could come out of their boundaries; and what I am now going to prove is, that they have only raiſed and levelled the bottom of every *valley*, without one of them being, either come, or to come, out of thoſe boundaries. We could not chooſe any field of obſervation larger than this; ſince the greateſt *rivers* of Europe proceed from the *Alps*. When the various original branches of thoſe *rivers* began to flow in the hollow parts of that vaſt ridge of *mountains*, they found numberleſs cavities, which they firſt filled with water, and where they depoſited the rubbiſh they drove before them in every part where they were confined: and a great number of thoſe cavities are ſtill *lakes*, ſome of which are large enough to appear in the maps. Now, before one ſingle *fragment* of the *Alps* could come out of their boundaries, theſe *lakes* ought to be filled with rubbiſh; and they are not. This is a complete demonſtration for paſt events; and the following will anſwer for thoſe to come.

The largeſt *lakes* receive immediately the waters of the wideſt *valleys*, in which unite the ſmall branches of the *rivers*. There alſo ought to unite all the *fragments*, before they could proceed any farther: but thoſe *fragments* do not even reach there; they all remain in the *valleys*, and *duſt* only is depoſited in thoſe *lakes*, except by ſome *torrents* falling immediately from the mountains round them. It is a curious object in time of flood, to ſee, from ſome high ground, the *turbid* water of the *river*, firſt forcing its way through the *limpid* water of the *lake*, and by degrees becoming *limpid* itſelf, by depoſiting the *minute materials* which it carries ſo far, but *no farther*. Conſequently, ſince, even at this period when the *mountains* are not yet ſettled, nothing but ſuch inconſiderable *materials* arrive in thoſe *lakes*, no *gravel* will ever come out of the *Alps*.

When, however, theſe very *rivers*, which glide out of the *lakes* as *limpid* as the *rain* fallen on the mountains, are obſerved flowing in the *plains*, we often ſee *gravel* in their bed. This fact, which cannot contradict the former, leads us to enquire into the origin of the *gravel* ſo generally found in the bed of almoſt every river; and the following are the general facts relating to that intereſting phenomenon: 1ſt. The *gravel* of a *river* flowing in a *plain*, is conſtantly the ſame that is found in the adjacent land,

land. 2d. A *river* may have much *gravel* in its bed, though the land near it has very little: but the bed of ſuch *river* is much below the ſurface of the land, and the *gravel* it contains is no more than might be contained in the maſs of the land that has been dug away. 3d. The *gravel* of many *rivers* bears no reſemblance to any of the *hard ſtrata* that it has pervaded in its courſe: it is ſometimes a *gravel* of *flint*, though there are no *chalk ſtrata* on its banks; it is frequently of *primordiary ſtones*, even in large *blocks*, though there are no *mountains* nor *ſtrata* of thoſe *ſtones* even to a great diſtance: but the ſame *gravels* and *blocks* are in the adjacent land. 4th. The bed of ſome *rivers* is *gravelly* in ſome parts, and without *gravel* in other parts, alternately; and this again is found in the grounds correſponding to theſe different parts of the *river*. The conſequences of theſe facts are as obvious in themſelves, as great in the *theory of the earth*. 1ſt. It is evident, that the *gravel* depoſited in the bed of *rivers* flowing in the *plains* was before in that part of the ground which they have furrowed in forming their channels. 2d. Since thoſe *rivers* have no other *gravel* but what proceeds from the *plains* themſelves, it is evident alſo, that the *plains* cannot have been *formed from the ruins of mountains*; for thoſe *ruins* ought to have been ſpread over them by theſe very *rivers* which, on the contrary, rob them in cutting their channels. 3d. Conſequently all the *gravel* of the *plains* is come out of the *ſea*, as well as every other of their *ſtrata*, when our *continents* were left dry. 4th. But no *gravel* goes to the *ſea* from our *continents*; ſince *rivers*, which have *gravel* in ſome parts of their bed, do not even move it along with their whole courſe. This laſt conſequence, which relates to the main object of all our preſent enquiries, will be more and more aſcertained, by the following conſiderations and facts.

When water has a free paſſage along or above ſome obſtacles, without bending much its courſe or riſing ſenſibly, a part of it remains ſtagnant between thoſe obſtacles, and the reſt glides over it as it would upon a ſolid and ſmooth body. This is the reaſon why, in following the courſe of *moving water* from the tops of the mountains, we have ſeen it driving materials before it, when it was obliged to riſe; and leaving them on its bottom wherever it could ſpread: it is alſo the reaſon why, when a *river* which flows in a plain, happens to drive *ſand* and *gravel* from ſome narrow path, theſe ſubſide in wider parts, and the *gravel* is buried in the *ſand*. The reſiſtance found by water, in a well-ſettled bed, from its flowing over a nearly horizontal plane, is ſufficient to determine its principal current in the parts above; and the growth of aquatic plants upon the bed of ſuch *rivers* is a clear proof that they do not even drive the *ſand* which lies on that bottom. But there are few *rivers* which do not ſtill drive ſome *ſand* in ſome parts of their courſe; and this proceeds from their having cut deeply ſome parts of the ground, when they firſt formed their beds. There the *rivers* cannot ſpread: in floods they attack thoſe ſteep banks; and, at every fall of new materials, either by theſe attacks, or by the waters filtrating in the ground, they riſe againſt them, and drive them along, till they find a ſpace to ſpread, where all thoſe materials ſink and remain. But in time thoſe *ſteep banks* will give way, the *rivers* will find ſpace to ſpread along their whole courſe, their ſmoothed banks will be covered with *vegetation*, and in their very floods they will, as the *Adour, even ſpare a blade of graſs!*

Let us now go to the ſea, to meet there the *rivers* loaded with the *whole* of the depredations made upon our continents by every *moving water*. "We never ſee, you ſay, p. 295, a *river* in a flood, but we muſt acknowledge the carrying away of *part* of our *land*." This is true; but we are now enabled to eſtimate that part, and to determine how far it may favour your *theory of the earth*. If a *river*, at its coming into the *ſea*, does not meet on the *coaſt* with a *gravelly* and *ſandy* ground, the only *materials* that it brings out of our continent, as the total reſult of all the cauſes which act upon the grounds whence its waters proceed, are nothing but mere *duſt*, as may be certified by the inhabitants of the coaſts near the mouth of every *river*. No *gravel*, nor even *ſand*, is gathered there, but what proceeds from the coaſt itſelf; and we have ſeen the reaſons of that fact, in following the *moving waters* from the *higheſt* to the *loweſt* grounds. *Duſt* then is the only ſort of *material* that our *continents* could furniſh to future ones, from the *waters moving* on their ſurface; and that proviſion, inconſiderable as it is even now, is temporary: it proceeds only from the beds of the *rivers* not being yet wide enough in every part, nor their *banks* ſo ſmoothed, as to prevent their ſtill hurting the ground in ſome parts of their courſe. But thoſe very demolitions are the work of *rivers* for ſettling their *bed*; which operation ſhall be completed without a ſenſible loſs of the maſs of our continents; and a time will come, when the loſs of ſome *duſt*, that they may continue to undergo in great floods, will be more than compenſated, by the acquiſition they conſtantly receive all over their ſurface, from the increaſe of *vegetable earth*, a product in which *water* and *air* enter as ingredients. From that collection of facts, which are *within the limits of our inſpection*, it is evident, that no materials can be expected from our *continents* for new ones, by the *natural cauſes* acting over their ſurface. What remains then to examine is, the immediate effect of the *ſea* in that reſpect; a part of which, in your opinion, is contained in the laſt of the hypotheſes which I have enumerated before.

5th. HYP. *The moveable materials delivered into the ſea are there by the agitation of the water, carried farther and farther along the ſhelving bottom of the ſea, towards the unfathomable regions of the ocean.*—The propoſition I am going to eſtabliſh in that reſpect, from theory and from facts, is, that upon every *ſhelving ſhore*, where the declivity is ſmall, the *agitation of the water*, inſtead of carrying materials *from the coaſt towards the bottom of the ſea*, carries them, on the contrary, *from the bottom of the ſea towards the coaſt*; and that there is a degree of *declivity* in which there is no tendency to alteration. You mention three ſorts of *agitations* of the ſea; the *tides*, the *current*, and the *waves*: the firſt of which, however, will, I think, appear to you incapable of any immediate effect, if you conſider how ſlow the water riſes and falls upon open ſhelving ſhores: in the firſt of theſe motions it brings along ſome *ſea-weeds* floating in the water, and it leaves them moſtly on the ſhore. I think it then ſufficient to examine the operations of the *currents* (another effect of the *tides*) and of the *waves*.

Currents never reach ſuch *ſhores* with any perceivable degree of action, except againſt *capes*, which they only tend to round: and when thoſe projections have acquired a ſufficient degree of obliquity, the *currents* move nearly in a parallel direction with the *coaſt*, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, having no other effect than that of tending conſtantly to ſmooth it. The whole action of the *ſea* upon the *coaſts* is then concentrated in the *waves*: it is almoſt only by their means that the *tides* and *currents* have ſome influence in that action; and this is, becauſe, when the water is higher, the *waves* reach farther upon the ſhore. Let us then conſider the effect of that cauſe. If the wind blows *from* the coaſt, the *ſea* is not agitated near it; there are hardly any *waves*: and if it blows *againſt* the coaſt, the impulſe of the *waves* being in that direction, tends to roll the materials *from the bottom towards the ſhore*; by which *ſhoals* are firſt produced, and the *ſtrand* extends by degrees. This is known upon every *ſhelving* ſhore; and I will give you ſome inſtances of that operation. It is by the *ſea-ſand* carried up in that manner, that the formerly main branch of the *Rhine*, which paſſed through *Holland*, has been ſtopped. It is by the ſame operation that the acceſs of moſt part of the ſea-ports, along the coaſt of the North Sea, and of many others, would be ſtopped, if *roads* were not kept open by great labour. In the ſame manner are the *ſediments* of the *rivers* accumulated

accumulated *againſt* ſuch ſhores: and when theſe *ſediments* do not come to bind the light *ſand* of the *ſea*, beſides its accumulation againſt the ſhore, it is raiſed by the winds at ſome diſtance, and forms thereby ſucceſſive rows of *ſand-hills*, ſometimes very high. Theſe are natural and certain effects of the *waves* upon every *ſhore*, either originally *ſhelving*, or reduced to that form by the operations I ſhall deſcribe hereafter: and its *maximum* takes place, when there is ſuch a *declivity*, as to produce an *equilibrium* between a greater impulſe of the advancing *waves*, but along an aſcending plane, and the ſmaller impulſe of the retreating waves, but on a deſcending plane. When that *equilibrium* is produced, nothing more can happen, nor in fact happens, upon any *coaſt*, but ſmall alternatives of partial increaſes and decreaſes, according to variable circumſtances.

I come now to the remarkable reſult of your enquiries on the *deſtruction* of our *continents*. "Every *revolution of the globe*, you ſay, p. 298, wears away *ſome part of ſome rock upon ſome coaſt*; but the quantity of that *decreaſe*, in *meaſured time*, is not a *meaſurable thing*; . . . the age of man does no more in that eſtimate, than a ſingle year . . . . But man is not confined to what he ſees; he has the experience of former men. Let us then go to the Romans and the Greeks in ſearch of a *meaſure* of our *coaſts*, which may be compared with the preſent ſtate of things." After that enquiry, you acknowledge, p. 301, "that this *decreaſe* of the *coaſts* in general *has not been obſerved*; and that it is as generally thought that *the land is gaining upon the ſea*, as that *the ſea is gaining upon the land*." However, you conclude in this manner: "To ſum up the argument, *we are certain that all the coaſts* of the preſent *continents* are *waſted* by the *ſea*, and conſtantly *wearing away* upon the whole." This is a very poſitive deciſion againſt acknowledged facts; and it would require very ſtrong arguments to ſupport it: however, you adduce none but thoſe which I have quoted above, to which I ſhall anſwer, in continuing to deſcribe the operations of the *ſea* upon the *coaſts*.

When our *continents* firſt appeared above the level of the *ſea*, their *coaſts* were not all of that *ſhelving* form on which I have proved that the *ſea* has no deſtructive power? ſome were *abrupt*, and there began an apparent deſtruction. The *cliffs*, compoſed of looſe materials, fell down apace, the *currents* drove along the ſhore a great part of the light materials, but the *gravel*, and the coarſe *ſand*, ſunk and remained under the *cliffs*. In that manner have been formed thoſe *ſtrands* and *beaches* which we find now along every ſteep *coaſt*, and over many of which we ſee already the inoffenſive ſurge of the *ſea*, dying away, in rolling ſome *gravel* backwards and forwards, or ſmoothing the *ſand*. This is the *attrition of one hard body upon another*, which, p. 296, you ſuppoſe to *give occaſion to the inſtability of our continents*. But the *duſt* produced thereby does not vaniſh: in falling between the large materials, it concurs with the *ſand* of the *cliffs* to give them *ſtability*; for, in that manner, a ſolid bottom is produced, that riſes by degrees, and on which the new *gravel* only continues to be rolled by the *waves*.

I have had many opportunities of ſtudying thoſe *ſtrands* and *beaches* along various ſteep coaſts: very few of theſe are ſtill attacked by the *ſea* itſelf; they are moſtly impaired by the *land-water* filtrating in them, which, in looſening the materials, brings down ſometimes large maſſes of them within the reach of the *waves*. Then the *agitation* of the *ſea* carries away again the minute materials, but leaves the large ones upon the *beach*, which thereby riſes more and more. I have ſeen thoſe growing *outwarks* of our *land* in all their degrees. In ſome parts, where the quantity of large materials is but ſmall in the land, the ſea ſtill over-runs the beach every tide: in other parts, it only riſes over it in ſpring-tides with high winds; and in many parts, the *cliffs* are already retired at a diſtance, and reduced in a ſoft ſlope covered with *vegetation*. There ends all deſtructive power of the *ſea*: for it reaches no more ſuch *coaſts*, being ſeparated from them by the *ſtrand*. Thoſe *coaſts*, then, are in the caſe of continental grounds, which are preſerved when covered by *vegetation*; and the *ſtrand* itſelf has acquired that degree of *declivity*, which renders it unimpairable by the *waves*. Now, ſir, by the obſervable gradation of thoſe effects of known cauſes, we are irreſiſtibly led to conclude, that, in time, our *land* will, in the ſame manner, be every where abſolutely *inattackable* by the *ſea*.

In your ſpeculative ſyſtem of *decay* of our *continents*, you had not conſidered any of thoſe objects; for you ſpeak only of the *wearing away of ſome part of ſome rock upon ſome coaſt*, by *every revolution of the globe*. In this reſpect, not having found any certain diminution of any known rocks, from the times of the Greeks and Romans, you think, with reaſon, that this proceeds only from the want of an exact meaſurement of theſe rocks in ancient times: but this remark does not imply that theſe rocks will *conſtantly* wear away; and I am going to prove to you that they will not. If a *rocky* coaſt is of ſuch a nature as not to be eaſily deſtructible by the weather, it is covered with *ſea-weeds* to the reach of the waves, and above with *moſs*: a clear proof that ſuch a *coaſt* is not *wearing away*. But if the rocks come to fall in large maſſes, or in general, when any of them decay, the fragments are accumulated in the water under them, and the preſerving *beach* is formed. Then the remaining rocks themſelves differ no more, for preſervation, from thoſe of our mountains.

Let us now ſum up all the operations which are going forward along our *coaſts*; and firſt, thoſe by which our continents acquire more extent. The land *increaſes*, 1ſt. In the places where the original declivity of the *ſhore* was ſuch, that the motion of the waves, in bringing *ſand* from the bottom of the *ſea*, has extended the *ſtrand*. 2d. Near the mouth of *rivers*, where the motion of the waves has alſo accumulated their *ſediments* along the coaſts. 3d. Near every part where looſe *cliffs* have been, or are ſtill, falling; where every creek has received, by the *currents*, all the minute materials ſo fallen; becauſe the currents loſe their rapidity in thoſe receſſes. Thoſe are the well-known and very great *acquiſitions* of our *continents*; which have no other compenſation by real *loſſes*, but from the retreat of *ſteep coaſts*; ſo ſmall in itſelf that it can hardly be recorded any where elſe, but on each ſpot, and which is to have an end. There is another ſort of *loſs* of our *continents*, which has been much inſiſted upon by thoſe authors who have thought, like you, that the *ſea* threatened the *land*; but that loſs is not real. The *new grounds* along the coaſts are in general very fertile; and ſome have been early incloſed: but when that has been done before the ground has acquired a ſufficient ſolidity, it has ſunk by drying. Storms, then, in a high ſea, have broken the dikes, and the waves have daſhed away the ſoil; which thereby has been tranſported to other parts of the coaſt. This has been the caſe in a manner very dreadful and fatal for thouſands of inhabitants of the coaſts of the North Sea, but very inconſiderable, comparatively with the whole of the acquiſitions of thoſe coaſts.

From the oppoſite operations it is, that, in conſulting only hiſtorians, you have concluded, "that it is as generally thought that the *land is gaining upon the ſea*, as that *the ſea is gaining upon the land*." But if theſe oppoſite deciſions are meant to expreſs *continuance*, they are both without foundation; for each of thoſe effects has, in its nature, a *maximum* which I have explained; and when it ſhall be produced, every *coaſt*, upon the whole, will be *at reſt*. I might ſtop here, in the examination of your *Theory of the Earth*; for, if our *continents* cannot be *deſtroyed* by the known cauſes acting upon them, they cannot have been *formed* of the *materials* of other *continents* deſtroyed in that manner. However, as it would be difficult to demonſtrate, that the *duſt* that probably will continue, in ſome meaſure, to go out of our *continents*, ſhall be compenſated by the increaſe of the *vegetable earth*; it might remain in your mind, that our *land*, though thereby gaining in extent, may *in time* be *levelled with the ſhore*. But I

ſhall render that diſquiſition uſeleſs to our preſent purpoſe. If the *natural operations* which, according to your opinion, are to deſtroy our *continents*, go on ſo ſlowly that there is no trace upon the ſurface of the earth, nor any record in the memory of man, by which we may judge *when* thoſe operations *began*, their *beginning* muſt be very *remote*; and you think it ſo. But I will ſhew you, that we have both theſe ſorts of documents, by which it is demonſtrated that our *continents* are not *old*; which demonſtration will render it uſeleſs, in reſpect of your theory, to determine how long theſe *continents* will laſt.

This brings me to a different kind of ſurvey of our *continents*, which I ſhall introduce by your own expreſſions. "We are inveſtigating," you ſay, p. 297, the *age* of the *preſent land*, from the *beginning* of that body which was *in the bottom of the ſea*." Having thus announced the object of your inveſtigation, we were to expect a concluſion relating to *time paſt*; but in the cloſe of your inquiry, we find its object entirely different; the concluſion relates to *future time*: "It is in vain, you ſay, p. 293, to meaſure a quantity which eſcapes our notice, and which hiſtory cannot aſcertain: we might juſt as well attempt to meaſure the diſtance of the ſtars without a parallax, as to calculate the *deſtruction* of the *ſolid land* without a *meaſure correſponding to the whole*." Permit me to repreſent to you, that with the view of inveſtigating the *age* of the preſent *land*, an inquiry reſpecting the *time* in which its *deſtruction* ſhall be completed, was far from your purpoſe. It is not ſurpriſing that you find no means of calculation in this reſpect, ſince the operation *that* you ſuppoſe going on, does not exiſt; our *continents* are certainly not *deſtroying*: but you might have acquired, by various means, a diſtinct idea of their *age*; for we ſee on them many ſorts of *effects*, which, from the nature of their *cauſes*, muſt have had their origin at the *beginning of that body which*, before, *was in the bottom of the ſea*; and diſtinct *parts* of thoſe *effects*, produced in *known times*, are *comparable* to the *whole*. This new inquiry will relate to ſome of the ſame diſtinctive parts of the ſurface of our continents, as were the objects of the former; *continued changes* tending to a *maximum*, are their characteriſtics. I have already proved that tendency, as relating to *future time*; and now I ſhall examine the ſame *changes*, in their correſpondence with *time paſt*.

In returning, for the preſent purpoſe, to the tops of our *mountains*, I ſhall begin a ſtep higher than in the former diſquiſition. I had then only to collect, without any poſſibility of loſs, all the *fragments* ſeparated from thoſe high grounds by natural cauſes: therefore I paſſed over the central ridges of their great chains; it being ſufficient to take notice of thoſe *fragments*, by meeting them in certain paſſages, where they muſt firſt gather, before they fall into the beds of the main ſtreams; the only conveyance for them out of the mountains: but we ſhall have a number of intereſting objects to ſtudy in thoſe high regions, where the characters of *decay* ſeem ſo ſtrongly impreſſed, that to thoſe who arrive there uninformed, they muſt appear as the tomb-ſtones of our continents. However, from thoſe towering monuments of devaſtation, to the ſteep hillock riſing over a ſmooth plain, there is no difference, either in the general cauſes of their deſtruction, or in the inference that may be drawn from them, to determine the *age* of our continents: all thoſe grounds came out of the *ſea* in a much more rugged ſtate than that in which they now appear; which ſtate has been the original cauſe of their *decay*; and whatever be their height, if they are ſtill *abrupt*, the operation which tends to ſmooth them is not finiſhed.

It is unneceſſary to enlarge on the proof, that all the *ſteep* high grounds of our *continents* came out of the *ſea* in the ſame decaying ſtate in which they now are. Abrupt ſides of mountains, ſometimes many thouſand feet high, exhibit the *ſections* of numberleſs *ſtrata*, the moſt part of which are conſiderably out of the horizontal poſition in which they muſt have been formed. Conſequently, thoſe *ſections*, and *à-fortiori* thoſe of leſs magnitude, but having the ſame characters, muſt have been the effect of ſome cauſe which had the power of overturning the whole maſs of the *ſtrata* themſelves. So far we cannot but agree; for your theory on the formation of our *continents* is founded, as well as mine, on cauſes which muſt have produced ſuch a diſorder; and in reſpect of the *continents* once dry, we agree alſo, that no other cauſes of alteration can be admitted, than thoſe which are ſtill in action. This then ought to be ſufficient to eſtabliſh, that the great *chaſms* of our *continents* exiſted at their origin; but as many other queſtions depend on that primary one, I muſt treat it more particularly.

The huge ruins of high mountains incloſe, in the moſt chaotic manner, immenſe ſpaces, now vacant, though they muſt have been filled, formerly, with the continuation of the ſame *ſtrata*, the remains of which now ſurround them. This is a very ſtrong feature of our *continents*, which muſt ſtrike every beholder capable of feeling aſtoniſhment at the wonders of nature; and he will aſk himſelf, "What is become of the immenſe bulk of materials which are miſſing in thoſe vacancies?" This then is the firſt and preciſe object which muſt excite the attention of the curious, with reſpect to geologic ſyſtems; but at the ſame time it muſt create a juſt diffidence of every ſyſtem which does not give a clear and ſatisfactory account of ſuch ſtriking monuments of revolution. It is not even neceſſary to travel in mountains, in order to receive the impreſſion of thoſe wonderful objects: *landſcape* painters and engravers have ſpread their pictures in every claſs of dwellings, from the ſumptuous palace to the humble cottage; ſteep mountains, threatening rocks, deep-winding valleys, waterfalls, tumultuous torrents, foaming between tumbled maſſes of impending caves, are the objects which they commonly intermix with ſofter ſcenes, for picturesque effect; and far from ever exceeding nature in that ruinous appearance of ſome parts of our *land*, they muſt ever remain much below the ſtupendous ſcenes which they attempt to repreſent.

If it were not for the vague idea of ſome geologiſts, that the *running waters*, working, ages after ages, on the ſurface of our *continents*, have ploughed down their deepeſt *valleys*, and have formed the *hills*, either by ſcooping the ſoil round them, or by raiſing heaps of rubbiſh, every attentive man would conſider thoſe objects with a curious eye; and finding on every *ſteep ground* evident marks of a *continued decay*, it would naturally occur to his mind, that ſuch an operation muſt have had a *beginning*, not impoſſible to be determined; and that its diſcovery might lead to ſome great event in the hiſtory of our globe. I ſhall then firſt remove that cauſe of incurioſity, by proving, that the *land-waters*, thoſe which have run over the ſurface of our *continents* ever ſince they exiſted, have had no ſhare whatever in the production of the ruinous appearance of ſo many of their parts, except along the immediate channel of ſome ſtreams: for if that queſtion is once determined beyond the power of diſpute, the phenomena which I have deſcribed, will re-aſſume the power that they ought to have had long ſince on thoſe who think nature worth obſerving: and that attention will anſwer a greater purpoſe than is commonly thought; which I will explain when all the previous queſtions have been thoroughly examined.

The *icy valleys* of the *Alps* are now known to moſt curious travellers; it is become the faſhion to viſit them: let then *faſhion* be, in this inſtance, uſeful to mankind, by aſcertaining ſome facts, the light of which, being ſpread over all the phenomena of the ſame kind, will render them equally great in their conſequences. To the viſitors of the *Alps* then, I appeal, for the exactneſs of what I am going to deſcribe; and from ſome of them I expect, that by their example, they will excite curioſity and attention to numberleſs objects, not ſo ſtupendous, but equally important in the hiſtory of the earth. Lofty and abrupt ranges of pyramidal rocks are the wonderful

borders of the *icy valleys* of the *Alps*; and every part of them is in continual decay. If *decay* and *propulsion of materials* by *running waters* had been the causes of the vast excavations manifested by the *sections* of the *strata* all around, every channel of the *waters* thence proceeding would be levelled with rubbish: for, the necessary effect of running waters propelling broken materials, is to fill up with them every hollow place, till all the grounds which they pervade, being reduced to a regular slope, they wander promiscuously over those spread materials. Let us then consult attentively the phenomena on that first leading question.

There is hardly any *water* that *runs* in those immense high *valleys* of the *Alps*: the waters that come down their steep sides, from rain or thaw of snow, pass immediately under the accumulated *ice* which fills them; where, constantly stopped in the points of bearing of the ice upon the ground, they *filtrate* more than they *run*. This is a first view of the object, which, in the very theatre of the greatest *past* devastations, excludes completely the idea that they have been produced by *running waters*; and the other following facts will only illustrate that peremptory exclusion. 1st, A part of the *waters* that come out of those valleys, falls in *cascades*, from the edges of steep rocks, over lower grounds: if *waters*, thus issuing from under the *ice*, had contributed to produce the vacancies now existing between the upper ridges, the rubbish carried off, accumulating up to those rocks, would have long ago prevented *cascades*, as it has happened in many parts of those mountains, where rubbish is really carried down. 2dly, In the lower outlets of the *icy valleys*, the *water* comes out of the *ice* in the same manner as some celebrated streams, *Arethusa*, *Vaucluse*, and others, come out at once from under some rock or hillock; that *water* has no open channel, till it has cleared the *ice*, and being first filtered through its crevices, it never brings out any other materials than coarse sand: surely, the immense quantity of materials missing in the upper parts, cannot have been carried away through such channels. 3dly, When those *waters*, being united in the first lower valleys, begin to form torrents, they often meet with narrow cuts, where they still undergo repeated falls between broken rocks; and these are the only passages through which any *water* can have come out of the same extent of high grounds, ever since the existence of our *continents*: now, if the materials missing in the upper valleys had been carried away by *waters*, that immense quantity of rubbish would have either stopped or widened those passages, and reduced the whole length of the channel to an equal declivity. Lastly, if it were objected, that the rubbish has been carried down by degrees to wider places, we should then come to a decisive proof of the contrary, from a fact already stated: many hollow places, now *lakes*, are pervaded by some of those accumulated *waters* ever since they ran; there the whole quantity of the rubbish which they have propelled, has remained, and it amounts to nothing, compared with the vacancies above.

I have begun this particular survey of our *continents*, by distinct and well-known parts of the great scene of ruin and devastation exhibited in the *Alps*; not on account of their great *vacancies* between *eminences* composed of broken and mouldering *strata*, which is a common phenomenon on the surface of our continents; but because of the peremptory proofs which we have in those parts, that *running waters* have had no share in the ruinous state of our *mountains*; and that consequently their *chasms* existed, *from the beginning of the present land, which was before in the bottom of the sea*; and now I shall give a similar demonstration, in respect of *abrupt eminences*. None of the deeply dissected tops of the immense ridge of the *Alps*, can be affected by any *water*, except that of immediate rain or thaw of snow, which, trickling down the rising grounds in a thousand rills, never unites on them in any stream capable of disturbing large or weighty materials; and consequently, the operations of the various causes designed by the collective word *weather*, may be observed there unmixed with any sensible effect arising from the impulse of *running waters*. Now, sir, those immense obelisks, which no *continental* cause can have produced, are as shattered as any part of the valleys where torrents are raging; and the only alteration produced on them by the *weather*, an alteration which still continues at a great rate, is that of softening their abrupt surfaces, without any sensible loss of their materials, which accumulate round the steep grounds whence they fall.

When a long-continued inattention to certain objects of nature, has rendered man insensible to them, he commonly remains so, till some object of the same class, but of a great magnitude, rouses his attention. Our soft *vales*, their rich meadows, their *rising grounds* covered with verdure up to picturesque *rocks*, have been in all ages attracting spots for men; there were the first settlements, and there still the traveller slackens his pace: but we do not expect to receive any important instruction from those objects, and, not being consulted, they remain silent. If the decaying ornaments of the bordering hills, those *rocks* boldly projecting with endangered trees over them, excite some degree of astonishment, it is soon dissipated by the vague idea, that *time past* has no bounds; and if some attention is given to *causes*, without which, *time* effects nothing, the innoxious *stream*, meandering in the *vale*, is charged with devastations, from which the *vale* itself is supposed to have proceeded: nothing, in that cursory manner of studying nature, stops the spirit of system; the space is wide open before the presumed thief; and his accomplice, as receiver of the boundless succession of thefts, is no less than the *ocean*: but in the great ridges of mountains, there are immense *excavations*, bordered also by ruin-like *eminences*; and we are absolutely sure, that the *materials* missing in those *valleys*, have not been carried into the *ocean*. Here imagination is stopped, and the astonishment of reason begins. I shall now suppose, that some attentive men, roused by that first fact, and conceiving great doubts on what has been maintained by some geologists on the operations of *running waters*, is resolved to observe for himself.

Our observer comes first into one of those *vales*, so numerous on our continents, where *rapid slopes*, covered with verdure and surmounted by *abrupt rocks*, are the winding borders of a space, the bottom of which is *levelled* and pervaded by a clear *stream*. Nothing in that quiet scene raises the idea of devastation; but our observer knows, that the now pacific water, sometimes swells, becomes *turbid*, overflows the meadows, and that, in some of its floods, it has produced great havock in the neighbouring grounds; and as this is the cause referred to by some geologists, he will not form any judgment on its effects, till he has some opportunity to see it at work. This may happen in autumn, when all the surrounding grounds having been soaked by a long continuance of heavy rain, the flood is greater than usual: rapid and turbid torrents rush out from all sides; the clear river is changed into a muddy pool, which covers the bottom of the *vale*; and trees carried down by the stream, are signs of a violent attack on some parts of the neighbouring grounds. Those unwelcome changes of scene may have lodged in many minds a prejudice which they might remove: nobody is fond of going in quest of knowledge, during such an inauspicious state of the elements: but our observer is resolute; and notwithstanding the inclemency of the weather, and the badness of the roads, he approaches the scene, where the wet and weakened grounds are attacked by the raging waters. In going up the main inundation he meets with muddy torrents, rushing from recesses of the *vale*; and there being stopped, he climbs by the sides of those *waters*, in order to examine their operations, and to find a passage higher up. There he first observes, that those swoln *rills* are only made *turbid*, because their channels are still too narrow for the quantity of water gathered in them: for, the sides of the sort of trough in which those

thoſe channels conſiſt, are *ſlopes*, formed of looſe materials fallen from the abrupt incumbent rocks; and the unuſual bulk of the rapid water which now paſſes in that trough, cauſes the baſe of thoſe ſlopes to be attacked, and ſome of their materials to be carried away. There alſo he obſerves, that all the *trees* now ſtanding on the upper parts of thoſe *ſlopes*, muſt tumble down ſucceſſively: for the looſe grounds on which they have grown are undermined; and the ſteep ſections of thoſe grounds, though out of the reach of the torrents, are gradually demoliſhed by the weather; thereby forming new *ſlopes* under thoſe which are now decaying. It is eſpecially from thoſe attacks of the *water* on looſe grounds, that it is made *turbid*; but at the ſame time he obſerves, that all the gravel, ſo torn, ſubſides as ſoon as the water comes to wider and leſs inclined parts of the channel, and that mere duſt is carried down into the main flood. Laſtly, in ſome widened parts of thoſe channels, he obſerves, that the new *ſlopes* formed under the ruinous ones, are, even in that extraordinary weather, out of the reach of the torrents; and he may judge, that, when every other part of the bottom of thoſe troughs ſhall be made wide enough to contain the ſame quantity of water in a fixed bed, the *ſlopes*, covered again with verdure, will remain unimpaired. Theſe ſide torrents are the feeders of the main flood below, and the ſame operations take place along the courſe of every one of them, up to the remoteſt *rill*, which is then alſo become a *torrent*.

Our obſerver has now entered on a diſtinct *field*; or what I ſhall call a diſtinct *ſyſtem of grounds*; in which he is ſure, that, ever ſince the origin of our continents, all the *rain-water* that has not immediately ſunk into the ſoil, muſt have followed the ſame courſe which it now purſues. He knows every part of that ſet of grounds where the *rain-water*, by gently following oppoſite declivities, divides itſelf between that *ſyſtem* and the next grounds which feed other *Rivers*, without any power of altering their original boundaries; and thence he traces in his mind, the firſt gathered *rills*, the forms of their various channels, the places of their meeting, many ſpots where they fall abruptly, and many where they abate their courſe. Comparing, then, what he has now obſerved of the effects of a heavy and laſting *rain* in that *area*, with its effects on other high grounds of equal extent, but whoſe declivities are regular and ſmooth, he is ſtruck with the idea, that the firſt ſmall *rills* produced by the firſt *rain* which fell on his *ſyſtem*, could not have gathered, ſo as to form thoſe diſtinct *ſtreams* which he has obſerved, if that *area* had not *previouſly* been interſected by deep *furrows* tending to a *lower place*: for, *rain-water*, the ſource of all our *continental waters*, has not the power of driving heavy materials, till it has acquired bulk and velocity; and being once ſettled in a channel, it cannot have any materials to drive along, except what may fall in its way. Now, the firſt of thoſe circumſtances muſt ariſe from *previouſly* wide and deep interſection of the ground, which alſo muſt have a great declivity; and the laſt can only proceed from originally abrupt and decaying ſides of thoſe excavations. Thence the preſent regular ſtate of ſo many high grounds, which, though *looſe*, are not interſected by *chaſms* on any of their declivities: their ſurface was originally *even*, and the firſt ſmall *rills* of the *rain-water*, remaining conſtantly ſeparate on that ſurface, have never acquired the power of digging *dales* and *vales* bordered with *ſteep* ſides. Such is the firſt general conſequence derived by our obſerver, both from his preſent remarks, and from all the facts which they recall to his mind; and on that previous point he concludes finally, that attributing the *deep channels* which interſect his *ſyſtem of grounds*, to the *waters* which are now ſeen pervading it, would be, taking for the *effect* of *ſtreams*, the very *cauſe* of almoſt every diſtinct *ſtream* on our *continents* from their beginning; namely, *original hollow tracks*.

A firſt ſettled point in ſuch inquiries is a firſt ſtep that may lead farther. Our obſerver now intends to examine, what has been the *real* effect of *running-waters*, for altering the *original form* of his *ſyſtem*; and in that inquiry he firſt compares the *ſides* of the *vale* with its *lower ground*. The inundation which he has obſerved, notwithſtanding its exceſs, did not reach the *ſlopes* of looſe materials, formed on the *ſides* of that *vale*, under the vertical *ſections* of the upper grounds; conſequently, the *ſtreams* cannot have had any ſhare in the *form* of thoſe *ſides*; they were originally ſteep and crumbling, and their rubbiſh has ſucceſſively formed thoſe *ſlopes* now covered with verdure: but ſince thoſe *ſides* were originally *abrupt*, it is not in the nature of things that they could then incloſe an *horizontal* ground: ſuch a *chaſm* was to have an irregular bottom, and muſt have extended below the preſent level; conſequently, that *horizontal ground*, extending from hill to hill in the bottom of the *vale*, muſt conſiſt of looſe materials carried down by the *ſide-torrents*. When our obſerver forms that conjecture, the *ſtream* is confined in its uſual bed, and much reduced by long dry weather: from that circumſtance, a deep ſection of the ground is left uncovered on the banks of the *ſtream*, and there his conjecture is confirmed; for the upper part of that ground is mere ſand, and the *fragments* of the *ſtony ſtrata* which compoſe the neighbouring hills, are ſeen in the loweſt parts of the ſection.

That *ſucceſſion* in the *ſediments* compoſing the horizontal ground of the *vale*, points out to our obſerver a ſort of *chronometer*; by comparing that ſucceſſive work of the *ſtreams*, with the ſtate of the *ſlopes* and *ſteep grounds*, in the channels of the *ſide torrents*: which channels, hereafter, I ſhall call *dales*. In a new ſurvey of thoſe, now quiet paſſages of mere *rills* or *rivulets*, he finds firſt, that many of them are ſurmounted, like a *vale* itſelf, by abrupt ſections of the upper grounds; and a greater proximity of their ſides permitting an immediate compariſon between them, he obſerves, in many places, that their *ſtrata* have no correſpondence, either in *direction*, *ſituation*, or *height*: which is a new proof that all theſe *chaſms* have been the effects of *convulſions*, antecedent to the preſent ſtate of our continents. He alſo remarks characteriſtic differences between moſt part of the *dales* and the *vale*; from which differences muſt have reſulted thoſe which are obſerved in the effects of *running-waters*. The *vale* was a wide and deep *chaſm*; the *dales* were narrow *crevices*, branching from that main one. The rubbiſh, which, from the beginning, has fallen from the abrupt ſides of the *vale*, has never been carried off by any external cauſe; the bottom of that wide *chaſm* became firſt a ſort of lake, along which the accumulated rubbiſh remained undiſturbed: but in the narrower and rapid *dales*, the firſt *fragments* falling from the ſteep ſides, met together in the bottom of the trough; and the *torrents*, whenever they were formed by heavy rains, drove them down to the *vale*; where they were ſpread by the united waters. None of thoſe fragments could remain in the rapid parts of the troughs, except what filled their hollow parts, and levelled ſome wide ſpaces; but every fragment carried farther, remained in the *vale*, where the water, from the extent of the ſpace, could not have any ſenſible degree of rapidity. All the hollow parts of the bottom of the *vale* were then to be filled and levelled, before any *fragment* could proceed farther: that operation, begun with *fragments*, has been finiſhed with *ſand*; ſince *ſand* only is found at ſome depth in the *horizontal ground*: conſequently, nothing but *ſand* can ever have been carried out of that *vale*, by the *waters* paſſing through it.

The preſent ſtate of the *dales* affords inſtances of the ſame phenomenon, and points out its cauſe. In going up ſome of thoſe paſſages, our obſerver finds, at ſucceſſively higher levels, ſome *horizontal grounds*, whoſe *ſections* on the banks of the contracted *rivulet*, exhibit the ſame order of materials that is obſerved in the *horizontal* ſoil of the *vale*: no large *fragments* are perceived in thoſe *ſections*, but in the loweſt parts; and conſequently, none

of

of thoſe proceeding from higher grounds, have paſſed farther. Theſe grounds lie in wide parts of the *dales*, which parts originally were hollow; and there alſo, as in the *vale*, the *ſlopes*, produced by the decay of the ſides, deſcend without interruption, from the upper abrupt parts (if any remain) down to the *horizontal ſoil*: thoſe *ſlopes* were formed originally round ſmall *lakes*, in which the ſpread *water* had no power to diſturb them; and thoſe *lakes* have been filled, firſt with *fragments*, and then with *ſand*; the whole proceeding from above: but in greater declivities and narrower paſſages, many of the *ſlopes* are divided in their height by abrupt ſections; the higheſt and moſt ancient parts being in decay, and new *ſlopes* having been formed under them. This is found in very deep parts of the *chaſm*, which receive a great abundance of water in times of flood, and are much wider overhead than in the bottom. In ſuch parts of the *dales*, the firſt *ſlopes* produced by their decaying ſides could only be preſerved ſo long as they did not obſtruct the courſe of the water: for when they came to meet, from ſide to ſide, they were ſoon deſtroyed, and their materials were carried away by the ſtream. Such demolitions were frequent, as long as the trough remained too narrow to contain a moderate quantity of water: but thereby the decay of the ſides was more rapid, as they remained uncovered with *ſlopes*; and the paſſage widened: but when, by thoſe repeated demolitions of the *ſlopes*, they were retired to ſuch a diſtance, as to be out of the reach of common floods, they roſe againſt the decaying rocks, and vegetation binding their ſurface, it was no longer ſuſceptible of ſliding down. However, thoſe firſt ſettled *ſlopes* were not yet ſafe; in extraordinary floods they were attacked at the bottom, and afterwards, while they were increaſing in height, from the continued decay of the rocks above, their abrupt ſections mouldered by the weather: thence *ſlopes* under *ſlopes*, the loweſt of which were from time to time attacked by great *torrents*, till they were removed out of their reach.

Such are the general claſſes of *ſucceſſive* operations, which our obſerver clearly traces on the ſides of his *dales*; and their varieties in different parts, may generally be aſſigned to determinable differences in the *original ſtate* of thoſe parts. Some *rocks*, for inſtance, peeping here and there out of the ſloping grounds, betray the original ruinous ſtate of thoſe ſides, and ſhew evidently that the *chaſm* has been the effect of a convulſion: immenſe pieces of rock were, at firſt, either projecting out of the broken ſides, or heaped againſt them; and now they are almoſt buried in a quantity of rubbiſh, which is, or will be in time, bound together by *vegetation*. In every part where thoſe ſloping grounds have already their baſe out of the reach of torrents, they are covered with verdure: the *rain*, which they can only receive from the air, ſinks into their porous ſoil; and being collected in millions of internal channels, it only helps to feed the ſprings. The moiſt part of thoſe grounds, though from a long time covered with *vegetation*, ſtill receives rubbiſh from the ſteep upper parts; but moſs, herbaceous plants, and ſhrubs, bind ſucceſſively thoſe layers of new ſoil into a tenacious cruſt, unimpairable by the weather. This is the cauſe why ſo few large fragments of the ſtill decaying parts of the *dales* are now carried down to the general receptacle: the fragments which, in their firſt fall, attain the bed of the torrents, or thoſe which are ſtill torn by theſe from their banks, if propelled as far down as the *vale*, ſubſide there, forming promontory-like accumulations over the general level. Nothing then, but *ſand*, is now, in the greateſt flood, floated by any of the *ſide-torrents*, when they meet together in the *vale*; and the whole quantity of that *ſand*, which cannot remain ſuſpended in water that moves ſlowly, as does that of the *vale*, is depoſited on the overflowed grounds.

Our obſerver has now accompliſhed the different purpoſes for which he had undertaken that exact ſurvey of a certain extent of grounds, which, from the *origin* of our *continents*, muſt have been drained by the ſame ſet of *channels*. The firſt of thoſe purpoſes was to diſcover, from the preſent ſtate of thoſe grounds, and the cauſe acting on them, the ſtate in which they were *when they came out of the ſea*; and he has found that they were to be interſected by great *chaſms*, the ſides of which were abrupt, and ſuſceptible of decay by the natural cauſes acting on our *continents*. His ſecond purpoſe was, to aſcertain the real effects of *running waters* in that *area*, and to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe which may collectively be aſſigned to the *weather*; and in this reſpect he has found, 1ſt. That a great impetuoſity is neceſſary for *ſtreams* to carry along any materials heavier than *ſand*. 2dly. That a great declivity is required to produce that impetuoſity. 3dly. That thoſe *waters* being the reſult of collected *rain*, become only impetuous by being aſſembled in *ſettled* channels. 4thly. That before thoſe *ſtreams*, once ſettled, can propel any looſe *materials*, theſe muſt fall in their way, by cauſes foreign to their own impulſe. 5thly. That looſe *materials* can only come into the beds of *ſtreams*, by falling from *ſteep grounds* lying along them. 6thly. That when, either at firſt or in time, the falling fragments of *ſteep grounds* find a ſuitable ſpace for accumulation, they form *ſlopes*, which riſe againſt the abrupt ſurfaces, and at laſt ſtop their decay. 7thly. That if, for want of a proper ſpace, thoſe *ſlopes* are at firſt demoliſhed by *ſtreams*, they themſelves, with the decaying grounds, retire thus by degrees to greater diſtances, till, placed at laſt out of the reach of their aggreſſors, they are covered by *vegetation*. Laſtly, That it is only during that ſettling of the *ſides* of their *channels*, that impetuous *ſtreams* have looſe materials to drive along; that thoſe materials, propelled in great declivities, ſubſide in every hollow place, or are ſpread in wide ſpaces which have leſs declivity; and that the *ſections* of thoſe *ſediments* exhibit at preſent the ſucceſſive work of *running waters* in time paſt.

The third and fundamental purpoſe of our obſerver, in analyſing thoſe operations, was to diſcover whether it were poſſible, by their help, to go back, with ſome degree of certainty, to the *time* when they *began*, and conſequently to the *origin* of our *continents*; and he is now ſatisfied that this view may be attained by a general *formula*, whoſe conditions, as pointed out by his *ſyſtem of grounds*, are the following: 1ſt. A certain *original ſtate* of things, to be traced up from the known *cauſes* which could *alter* it. 2dly. A meaſurable quantity of *alteration*, already produced by thoſe *cauſes*. 3dly. Continued *alterations* produced by the ſame *cauſes*, the quantity of which, in the life of a man, may be meaſurable. Laſtly, (as a check over thoſe points, when it is in the nature of the object,) a certain quantity of *alteration*, ſtill to be performed in ſome parts, to reduce them to the ſame *unalterable* ſtate already produced in other parts. This he conceives to be an incontrovertible manner of inquiring into the *age* of our *continents*: and though he finds it ſtill difficult to determine, with a certain degree of accuracy, thoſe quantities which are to ſerve as *co-efficients* in his *formula*; yet he conceives clearly, from the ſtate of things in that reſpect, as exhibited in every part of his *ſyſtem of grounds*, that what has vaguely been alleged for aſſigning a very great antiquity to our *land*, is void of any ſort of foundation.

The only certain way of finding general laws in a claſs of phenomena, is to begin by fixing on a well-determined phenomenon of the claſs, and then analyſing it accurately. This our obſerver has done; and thereby he finds himſelf warranted to conclude, that all the diſtinct *congeries of channels*, interſecting every *ſyſtem of grounds*, of whatever extent, whoſe *waters* proceed at laſt to the *ſea* in one *ſtream*, were, like that of his *ſyſtem*, original ſeries of *chaſms*, or of other ſorts of *hollow tracks*; and that, in the ſame circumſtances, the ſame operations which he has obſerved, muſt have taken place in thoſe *ſyſtems*: for a great *river* is only a congeries of leſs ones, ſimilar to that which came out of his *vale*; and the private *ſyſtems of grounds* whence theſe ſmall *rivers* proceed, are to the

grounds pervaded by the great *river*, as the *dales* are to the *vale* in the *ſyſtem* which he has ſurveyed. Conſequently, all thoſe *ſtreams* have fixed channels, determined by the *original form* of the ſurface of our *continents*; and, ſince *natural cauſes* act always in the ſame manner, by the ſame circumſtances, he cannot doubt that clear *data* for the calculation of the *age* of our *continents*, are to be found along many of thoſe *ſtreams*.

In the courſe of his ſurvey, our obſerver has taken notice of another claſs of phenomena, which appears to him clearly expreſſive of the little *age* of our *continents*. He has found, in the upper parts of his *ſyſtem*, ſcattered eminences, conſiſting of ſteep decaying *rocks*, which, from their ſituation, muſt have conſtantly been out of the reach of every poſſible *ſtream*, ever ſince their origin as *dry land*; along which he has found undiſturbed *ſlopes*, formed of fallen materials, and riſing againſt their abrupt and ſtill decaying ſides. That obſervation recalls to his mind many elevated *plains*, which alſo, ever ſince they have exiſted, muſt have been above the level of every *ſtream*; and on which, however, riſe inſulated *hills* or *hillocks*, compoſed of *ſtony ſtrata*, which, dipping one ſide into the ground, preſent their abrupt *ſections* on the oppoſite ſide. That claſs of phenomena ſtrikes him as a very important one: for thoſe *eminences* muſt have exiſted in a ſtate of *decay* from the *origin* of our *continents*; and the rubbiſh accumulated under their ſteep ſurfaces ſometimes bears no reſemblance to the ſurrounding ſoil. There then *progreſſes of effects* may be obſerved, unmixed with foreign cauſes of any importance; and the above general *formula*, for finding *time paſt* by *laſting operations*, may be applied to thoſe grounds with more accuracy than along *ſtreams*. The ſpirit of ſtrict analyſis being thus raiſed in our obſerver, he conceives laſtly this general idea, that all the *cauſes* which have acted on the ſurface of our *continents*, ever ſince they have exiſted, being known, and the nature of their *effects* being alſo determined, thoſe *effects* muſt be eaſily diſtinguiſhed from what exiſted before they took place; and that conſequently, a number of ſuch *effects*, (not only of different natures, as proceeding from different *cauſes*, but even without any connection with each other, excepting that of *time*,) might afford diſtinct *chronometers*, which, by their reunion, would lead to a *natural chronology*, overlooked till now, from a precipitate deciſion that it was not to be found.

I have now, ſir, under the aſſumed character of *an obſerver*, given you a ſketch of my own hiſtory, in a courſe of conſtant obſervation for above forty years. I conceived, very early, the importance of an exact determination of the *changes* which have happened to our *continents*, from the time of their exiſtence as *dry land*; and very ſoon alſo I perceived, that curſory obſervations could not afford any certain reſults in that reſpect. I then began to fix my attention on thoſe parts of the mountains, or other high grounds, which, from their elevation above every poſſible (either paſt or preſent) *ſtream*, could not have been affected, at any time, but by the direct action of *rain* or *ſnow*, and by their immediate conſequences. There, however, frequently finding the ſame great excavations, which, in lower grounds, are vaguely attributed to *running waters*, the fallacy of this laſt idea ſtruck me; and I firſt concluded, that thoſe *excavations* exiſted from the *origin* of our *continents*. There alſo I could ſtudy, without any poſſible miſtake, the effects of all the immediate cauſes which have acted on the *abrupt parts* of the ſurface of our *continents*, ever ſince they have exiſted; namely, the tendency of thoſe parts to moulder down by the effects of the *weather*; the progreſs of that *decay*; its tendency to an *end*, when the rubbiſh is undiſturbed; the cauſes that can diſturb it; and the *maximum* of their effects. That preliminary ſtudy enabled me, afterward, to diſtinguiſh, in other places, the real effects of *running waters*, from the effects of other cauſes, which are only rendered effectual by certain original ſtates of the grounds, eaſily traced back; and from that ſingle diſcrimination of cauſes, light ſucceeded to the obſcurity in which the phenomena of the ſurface of the *earth* had been involved by ſome geologiſts: for then, rendered attentive to *origins* and *progreſſes* of *natural operations* on our *dry land*, I found many different claſſes of them, which fix its origin at a time not very remote.

The importance of the final reſult of thoſe obſervations has made me deſirous to facilitate them to others, by ſketching a plan of reſearches, and pointing out the objects which are to be examined. That ſtudy is, in a great degree, almoſt within the reach of every man; for there is hardly any country which does not afford ſome of the claſſes of phenomena, which may lead to the *age* of our *continents*; and I have known from experience, what intereſt ſuch a fixed and endleſs object of obſervation can ſpread on the ſuppoſed loſt hours of *travelling* or *airing*. After a little practice in that kind of obſervation, the effects of the principal cauſes which have acted on every part of our *land*, may eaſily be diſtinguiſhed: the effects produced by each of thoſe cauſes, in former times, have left clear monuments: their preſent operations are ſeen; and the whole together affords various *meaſures of time*, which I ſhall next explain.

The following are the principles of inveſtigation which may enable us to diſcover the *time* when our *continents* began to exiſt.—1ſt, To find out ſuch *effects* as could only begin at that time, but muſt neceſſarily have begun then.—2d, To determine the mode of action of the *cauſes* which produce thoſe *effects*.—3d, To examine, whether the *whole* of the *operations* thus determined, may be known; by endeavouring to diſcover what was the ſtate of things in thoſe parts of our *continents* at their *origin*.—4th, To compare the *parts* of thoſe *effects* which have been performed within the memory of men, with the *whole* of what has been produced.—5th, To direct the ſame inquiry to various claſſes of *effects* having thoſe determined characters, in order to find out whether the ſeparate deductions drawn from them, coincide in reſpect of the *time* when their various *cauſes* began to act on our new-born *continents*.

Whatſoever be the claſs of *geological phenomena* which we examine with that view, the principles of enquiry are the ſame. It is evident, for inſtance, that all the *waters* which unite in one main *ſtream*, arriving laſtly at the *ſea*, proceed from a *ſet of grounds*, whoſe declivities tend towards that common receptacle: and that no material alteration can have happened to that *ſet* from the *beginning*; ſince, for the production of any change in that reſpect, the original *high boundaries* of the various *ſyſtems* of *grounds*, thus diſtinguiſhed, ought firſt to have been deſtroyed; while thoſe high lands are the very parts of our *continents* where the action of *running waters* is at its *minimum*, and conſequently incapable of producing any eſſential alteration in thoſe boundaries. That incontrovertible propoſition puts a ſtop to all wandering conjectures: each of the various *ſyſtems* of *grounds* whence a main *ſtream* proceeds, is the ſame that it was at the *origin* of our *continents*: and by ſetting out from that firſt reſult of theory and obſervation, I have clearly determined two diſtinct cauſes of alteration in the *original ſtate* of thoſe *ſyſtems*; one proceeding from the *decay* of their *ſteep parts*; the other from the action of *running waters*. The *effects* of thoſe two only cauſes of deſtruction, are as diſtinct as the cauſes themſelves; their *accumulation*, from the *time* when they *began*, is very conſpicuous; and their *progreſs* in a given *time*, is traced by *monuments*. From thoſe very intelligible phenomena, I have already demonſtrated that our *continents* have undergone but very ſmall and well-determined alterations; and in my preſent enquiry into their *age*, I ſhall begin by the ſame phenomena, in which we ſhall find various kinds of *chronometers*.

Let us return to the higheſt *boundaries* between ſeparate *ſyſtems* of *running waters* on our hemiſphere; namely, the *tops* of the *Alps*. There we find immenſe *ruins* of *ſtrata*, the moſt part of which, being turned up, form the towering ſummits of thoſe mountains. The chaotic ſtate of

thoſe

thoſe high grounds muſt have exiſted at the time when all the known cauſes acting on our *continents* began their action: for, not only the power of *ſtreams* is there at its *minimum*, but thoſe high valleys are filled up with *ice*, which prevents the propulſion of any large materials by *waters*: and as for the *duſt* and ſmall *gravel*, which ſometimes come out from under that *ice*, they have been ſtopped in hollow places, not yet filled with them; and their very diſtinct maſs cannot account for any ſenſible part of the *cavities* obſerved above. However, the broken *ſtrata* which ſurround thoſe *cavities* are conſtantly mouldering down: but the falling materials accumulate under them in the form of *ſlopes*, which ſhew ſenſibly the quantity of that *effect* from its *beginning*, coeval with our *continents*. Conſequently, the degree of *rapidity* in the decay of thoſe ſummits, may give us a firſt idea of the *time* when all the *continental* cauſes began to act. On that particular, I ſhall only uſe the expreſſions of a celebrated obſerver of the *Alps*, M. De Sauſſure. Among other material obſervations which he has publiſhed from a fortnight's ſtay, in July 1788, on the *Col-du-géant*, a ſummit of thoſe mountains elevated 1880 fathoms above the level of the ſea, is the following: "The water proceeding from the thawing of ſnow, filtrates conſtantly in the crevices of the inclined *ſtrata* of thoſe ſummits, and being expanded by froſt, it ſplits them aſunder. It is well known by all who frequent thoſe mountains, *that their rocks are conſtantly crumbling down*; but on the *Col-du-géant*, that phenomenon is impreſſed on the mind in a very forcible manner, by the frequency of the *reports* of cruſhing maſſes of rocks: I ſhall not exaggerate in ſaying, that we did not paſs one hour, without hearing ſuch *reports* as equalled the roaring of thunder, produced by the falls of rocks from the ſides of the *Mont-blanc*, of the *Aiguille-marbrée*; and of the very *eminence* on which we had fixed our ſtation." This is not a *ſlow progreſs*; and when compared with the *whole* that has been performed, it cannot carry us far back in tracing its *beginning*.

That fact is the greateſt of its kind exhibited on our hemiſphere; but the circumſtances and cauſes on which it depends, being common to a multitude of *grounds*, the ſame effects may be obſerved over the whole ſurface of the land. The vague operations attributed to *running waters*, veiled that important field of enquiry into the *age* of our *continents*: but attention only, with the moſt common knowledge of the laws of *hydraulics*, will now direct every obſerver, in finding out, within his rambles or in his travels, many *ſteep grounds*, which muſt have been ſuch from the origin of our *continents*. For that purpoſe it is ſufficient to examine, whether any cauſe, belonging to the preſent ſtate of things, can have either raiſed the ſteep eminences obſerved, or ſunk the ground before them. Thoſe objects, of great importance to geology, will be found, not in a few ſpots, but in millions; not in mountains only, but in hills and hillocks: they will be diſtinguiſhed along *ſtreams*; as the fancied effects of theſe are now exploded; by which means two particular *progreſſes* will be there obſervable, the ſmoothing of originally *abrupt chaſms*, and the ſettling of the *channel* of the *ſtream*. In that way of inveſtigation, founded on real principles, *vegetation* in particular, as aſcending over the *ſlopes* of *rubbiſh* under the *decaying grounds*, will afford, in almoſt every country, one of thoſe *chronometers*. Vegetation tends inceſſantly to take poſſeſſion of thoſe *ſlopes*, and it is only protracted by the falling rubbiſh. Many *ſlopes* are already fixed; the *ſteep grounds* from which they have proceeded, were, either leſs high, or more diſpoſed to crumble down, than others: but in numberleſs ſpots that operation is ſtill going on; and by comparing the *whole* that has been produced, as ſhewn by the maſs of the *ſlope*, with determined points in the *progreſs*, and examining in that reſpect, the ſteps upwards of *vegetation*, this general concluſion will be obtained every where, *that our continents are not very old*.

If the laws aſſigned to ſome great operation of nature be real, they generally are confirmed by various claſſes of phenomena, which have the ſame remote cauſe; and here we have many confirmations of that ſort. The *ſand* and ſmall *gravel* carried off from the great mountains, has been (as I have explained,) ſtopped in various receptacles, where, if it has not yet filled them up, it lies ſtill without any ſenſible loſs. Thoſe ſpaces, as they now are obſerved, have a general level, conſiſting partly of *water*, and partly of gathered *ſediments* of the *river*: which laſt are as diſtinct as the *water* itſelf, from the ſurrounding original boundaries of their common receptacle. The known *lakes* are the moſt conſpicuous inſtances of that kind; we find, in all of them, *new grounds* formed round the mouth of every *ſtream* diſcharged there. The *ſediments* depoſited by *rivers*, at their meeting that almoſt ſtagnant water, being conſtantly accumulated againſt the ſhore by the waves, are thereby raiſed ſome feet above the common level of the *lake*, and the moſt ancient parts are ſeldom overflowed. Theſe *new grounds* being very fertile, are inhabited, as ſoon as, by the help of ſome embankments, there is ſafety in ſettling upon them. Thus, traditions and records indicate the *progreſs* of thoſe acquiſitions of *lands*; and if, in conſulting thoſe hour-glaſs-like *chronometers*, we did not conſider that it has required more or leſs time for the firſt *ſediments* to riſe to the level of the water, the *calculated time* ſince thoſe *rivers* began to deſcend from the *mountains* would fall ſhort of what we know, from clear documents of hiſtory, on the *age* of our *continents*.

The whole of the operations performed by *rivers* along their courſe, affords the ſame reſult in various modes; but here I muſt confine myſelf to ſuch general outlines as may lead to particular obſervations. It is evidently againſt the laws of *hydraulics* to ſuppoſe, that a *ſtream* which, at its beginning, found a ſucceſſion of natural *troughs* in the interſected declivity of the grounds, has ſince changed its main courſe: but its inflections may have been altered; and as this is a proceſs which required *time*, it becomes alſo a *chronometer*. When a *river*, in following ſome original *troughs*, met with high grounds which ſtopped its paſſage, it was forced to change its courſe; but at the ſame time it attacked the obſtacle which repulſed it, and there began an operation which could only end when the *ſtream*, having acquired a proper ſweep, ſhould ceaſe to act againſt a ſteep bank. I ſhall not ſpeak of rocky channels, as no material alterations have been produced in their original forms: looſe grounds only can ſhew us the work of *ſtreams*; and in theſe it is very diſtinguiſhable, becauſe they have really cut ſome parts of their beds through them. When the *rivers* were firſt ſtopped againſt ſuch grounds, by undermining them, they formed a peculiar ſort of *cliffs*, very diſtinct from the *ſteep grounds* which had been produced by the convulſions of the *ſtrata* before the birth of our *continents*; for, in the firſt, there is always a horizontal ſoil oppoſite to them on the other ſide of the *river*, proceeding from the heavy materials fallen from the *cliffs* which have been accumulated on the parts abandoned by that river. Theſe *cliffs* then, being produced by *demolition*, gradually retreated; and the materials which continued to fall from them, accumulating at their foot, began to embank the *ſtream*. Such of the *cliffs* as thereby ceaſed to be attacked, continuing however to moulder down, were reduced into *ſlopes*, ſoon covered by *vegetation*; and ſo *ended* the deſtructive power of the *river* in ſuch parts, by its *bed* being there *ſettled*. Theſe are the evident operations performed by *rivers* in their originally ſhort *turnings*; which effects have been either favoured or retarded by particular circumſtances, eaſily diſcovered on almoſt every ſpot. If that operation is completed the *cliffs* firſt formed, are ſeen at ſome diſtance, either cultivated or covered with verdure; and *horizontal grounds* are found on the oppoſite ſide of the *river*; and if the *cliffs* are ſtill attacked, the inhabitant of the ſpot can generally aſcertain what demolition has been performed in known times. In this laſt caſe, conſi-

dering the parts where the attacks muſt have begun, and the extent of the *horizontal grounds* oppoſite to the *cliffs*, the private hiſtory of thoſe ſpots, which, in point of *chronology*, is the ſame as that of the *continent* itſelf, is eaſily diſcovered. I have frequently obſerved phenomena of that kind; and I am convinced, that every body who will dedicate ſome time to that ſtudy, will wonder why it has been ſo often repeated by geologiſts that our *continents* are *very old*.

In this ſketch of the temporary deſtructive operations of the *rivers*, we find, at the ſame time, the origin of the *ſediments* which have formed, and are ſtill forming, *new grounds* along their beds, and the reaſon why that *progreſs*, which evidently has been at firſt very rapid, tends now to ceſſation. No *large materials* can be *floated*; and as for their being *impelled*, this cannot happen except in narrow ſteep channels. But the *ſand* is *floated* at firſt, and it only ſubſides when the *water*, having a ſufficient ſpace for ſpreading itſelf, loſes its rapidity: there its accumulation forms *new grounds* along the *river*, which maintains its courſe through them; but that operation alſo is diminiſhing every where, as the demolitions above become leſs and leſs. This again may be obſerved in ſome parts of almoſt every *river*, with circumſtances indicate the *beginning* and the *rate* of the *progreſs*; but I ſhall confine myſelf to one example. The *Rhine* and the *Mozelle*, in coming out of narrow valleys, meet together in an open ſpace where the town of *Coblentz* is ſituated. I happened, in the year 1778, to be there at a time when a great excavation had been made on one of the banks of the *Rhine*, a little above the confluence of the two *rivers*, for the building of a palace. The late M. La Roche, chancellor of the elector of Trieſt, a learned and obliging man, ſuperintended theſe works, which I viſited in his company; and on the ſpot he informed me of ſome circumſtances that had been obſerved before I came there. The whole of the facts concerning that place are worthy to be recorded, as they are now covered by the thick and long-laſting veil of a magnificent palace. In the lower part of that excavation, I ſaw large rounded ſtones, ſuch as muſt remain in every part of the bed of a *river* when it ceaſes to be boiſterous. Over thoſe ſtones, forced out of the valleys by the ſtill raging *rivers*, have been laid irregular *ſtrata* of ſmaller and ſmaller *gravel*, intermixed with *ſand*; and the uppermoſt *ſtrata*, to a thickneſs of about eight feet, are mere *ſand*. The *Romans*, in their conqueſt of Germany, encamped along that part of the *Rhine*, where they have left various kinds of monuments: the ſpot here mentioned was one of their *burial* places; for which purpoſe they had ſunk *wells* in the *new ground*, as it then exiſted. Many of thoſe *wells*, containing *urns*, various other *ſepulchral attributes*, and ſome *legion-ſtones*, were diſcovered in making the above excavation; and I ſaw ſtill on its ſides, the ſections of two of them, the contents of which, taken out when they were firſt opened, were ſhewn to me by M. La Roche. Theſe ſections, which I could exactly obſerve, were in the ſmall *gravel* mixed with *ſand*, and had been filled up to its level; and all the other *wells* had been found in the ſame ſituation: conſequently, it is from that time that the accumulation of eight feet of *ſand* has happened; and now the *river* never riſes to the level of that *ſand*, but in the moſt extraordinary floods. Here then we have, not only a clear *ſucceſſion* of effects, ſhewn by that of the *ſtrata*; but ſuch a *ſucceſſion*, as anſwers perfectly to the nature of the operations by which the *beds* of *rivers* have been fixed as they are at preſent; and an *hiſtorical monument* is found in ſuch a ſtage of that *progreſs*, as precludes abſolutely the ſuppoſition that our *continents* are *very old*.

I ſhall now proceed, with the ſame *river*, to the *ſea-ſhore*, there to meet another *Roman monument*, which contradicts many other geological hypotheſes. Some geologiſts in particular, with a view of ſupporting the opinion that our *continents* are gradually demoliſhed by the *rivers*, have alleged a fact, little known in its nature, that of the *Rhine* having been prevented, by an accumulation of *ſediment*, from continuing to reach the *ſea*. Many important phenomena are connected with that fact, for the determination of which I muſt now reſume, with more particulars, the operations going on along the *ſea-coaſt*, which I only ſlightly ſketched before. In the courſe of that expoſition will be ſeen, what is the real fact in reſpect to the diſcharge of the *Rhine* into the *ſea*, and that it is totally foreign to the above-ſuppoſed cauſe.

Speculative geologiſts have ſuppoſed various kinds of imaginary operations, as performed on our *coaſts*; and they have attributed alſo imaginary effects to real cauſes. There are only three general *operations* really going on around our *continents*; and they are ſuch as exclude every idea of a *ſlow* change of the *level* of the *ſea*, and of any ſort of production of new *continents* while others are deſtroying: each of thoſe *operations* having a very decided character, which implies particularly, that it is tending to an end. The firſt of them, ſtill performed by the *ſea* on ſome parts of our *coaſts*, has been conſidered by ſome geologiſts, as a cauſe of deſtruction of the *continents* themſelves, either on every coaſt, or in ſome particular direction, according to various ſyſtems. That operation however is nothing more than the demoliſhing and ſmoothing of what remains within the reach of the ſea, of *abrupt ſections* of the *land*. For the ſupport of thoſe ideas, inſtead of argument, pompous and terrifying deſcriptions of ſtorms have been uſed; but they vaniſh at the appearance of theory alone, as the raging waves (their acting cauſe) die away on the ſhelving ſhores. The *ſea* has no deſtructive power over *coaſts* which do not impede its motions; it could not therefore produce *cliffs* where there were none originally: it has only attacked the parts of the *coaſts*, which, at the revolution which changed its beds, remained ſteep by the rupture of *ſtrata*; and the effect of that operation has been, and is ſtill in ſome parts, the reduction of thoſe *cliffs* into *inclined planes*, on which, when brought to a proper declivity, the operation is at an end. This I have before ſufficiently explained.

The ſecond *operation* performed along our *coaſts* is the gathering of the *ſediments* carried there by the *rivers*: which effect has been conſidered as a ſign of the deſtruction of our *continents* by the *waters* running on their ſurface. I have refuted that idea in its principle; and, from what I have proved in that reſpect, it is evident, that the *rivers* will carry leſs and leſs *ſediments* into the *ſea*, as their channels ſhall be nearer to a complete ſettlement. The laſt *operation*, which ſtill continues on many of our *coaſts*, is the waves and tides bringing up materials from the bottom of the *ſea* againſt the *ſhore*; which has been conſidered by ſome geologiſts as the productive cauſe of our *continents* by *ſlow* progreſs, either all around them, or on one ſide, while the oppoſite ſide is ſuppoſed to be deſtroying. But I have proved that this *operation*, by its nature, is alſo temporary: it takes place only on ſhallow and moveable bottoms, and it muſt ceaſe when the *ſea*, by thus extending the *ſtrand*, becomes deeper near it. Theſe three deſcribed operations, I repeat, are the only general ones known to be performed on our *coaſts*; and it is very evident that they cannot have had, at any time, any influence on the *exiſtence* of our *continents*; they being only cauſes of ſome *alterations* of their *boundaries*: the firſt of them, the only one that could diminiſh their extent, has operated very little, and in but few parts of our *coaſts*; while, in other parts, theſe have made very conſiderable *acquiſitions* by the two laſt cauſes: and as theſe *additions* to our *land* have been produced *by degrees*, I ſhall now explain how they afford us a new kind of *chronometer*.

Many parts of the bottom of the *ſea*, probably the greateſt part, conſiſt of a very fine hard *ſand*, incapable of binding by itſelf, and ſo eaſily moved, that, when brought up and dried on the ſtrand, the wind blows it about; unleſs it mixes, near the ſhore, with the *clayey ſediments* of *rivers*. When that mixture does not happen,

and

and the wind drives the *ſand* along the ſhore, a curious proceſs takes place, which is, that in the parts where the ſea-water does not reach, many plants which prefer *ſand* to other ſoils, as *ſalix arenaria*, *carix arenaria*, ſome *thiſtles*, &c. grow on that *ſand*, and ſtop that which flies about along the ſhore; for it ſubſides between thoſe plants which impede the velocity of the wind. Thereby, on every ſandy *coaſt* of that kind, repeated ridges of *ſand-hills (dunes)* have been formed; and thoſe natural *dikes*, which preſerve the loweſt lands againſt the *ſea*, are, by the ſame operation, conſtantly increaſing in height and breadth. If the coaſt is inhabited, and then ſome partial demolition is produced in the *dunes* by ſome violent whirl-wind, it is ſufficient to plant on the beach ſmall *tufts* of ſtraw, for the wind itſelf to repair the damage, by the flying *ſand* ſubſiding between the *tufts*, and new plants growing in it. But when that ſame *ſand* happens to mix under water with the *ſediments* of ſome *river*, it then binds, and when brought out of the *ſea*, it accumulates, and forms *new land* along the *coaſts*.

In order to exemplify the effects of thoſe two cauſes, which I have obſerved on many parts of the boundaries of our *continent*, I ſhall fix on a well-known part of the *North-ſea coaſt*; that of *Holland*, which is comprehended between the two *new lands* called *Zealand* and *Frieſland*, and lies between two branches of the *Rhine*. That *river*, at ſome diſtance from the *ſea*, divides itſelf into three *branches*, two of which, the *Iſſel* to the north, and the *Waal*, connected with the *Meuſe*, to the ſouth, include that ſpace; in which alſo is comprehended the third *branch*, which, as it tended the moſt directly to the *ſea*, retained the name of *Rhine* when the main *river* received it. Every *new land*, being laid *horizontally*, and compoſed of various recent *ſediments*, is always very diſtinct from the *continental land*, which riſes irregularly above that level, and is of a different nature. The *continental land* of the whole *North-ſea coaſt*, conſiſts of *ſand*, variable in its nature, and variouſly mixed with fragments of *flint* and *quartz*, ſometimes alſo with gravel and blocks of *granite*; and it extends in that manner to a great diſtance from the *ſea*, over hills and plains. The boundaries of that *continental ſoil*, which were the original *coaſts* of that *ſea*, are almoſt as diſtinct now as if the *ſea* ſtill bordered them. In the ſpace which I am now deſcribing, their waving line comes down near the mouth of the *Iſſel* in the *Zuyder-ſee*, it paſſes near *Utrecht* acroſs the channel called *Rhine*, and at *Moerdyk*, a Dutch village on the part of the original *coaſt* where the *Waal* came firſt to the *ſea*, at a little diſtance from the ancient mouth of the *Meuſe*. Such then was evidently the *original* ſtate of that part of the boundaries of our *continents*. It is to that determined part of the new-born *continent*, that *Holland* has been added; and here we have one of the moſt complete examples of both operations by which our *land* has received an increaſe of extent. The bottom of the *North-ſea* conſiſts entirely of the light *ſand* above-mentioned, and the water is very ſhallow at a great diſtance from the *coaſts*; which are the principal cauſes of the great tracts of *new lands* that now border on that ſea. In the ſpace here fixed, a *new land* was ſoon formed in an extent of thirty-five or forty miles forwards; conſiſting firſt of *clayey ſand-banks*, alternately formed of *ſea-ſand* and of the *ſediments* of the *rivers*; which *banks*, by degrees, united with each other, and with the *coaſt*; while, from time to time, ſtreams of *peat* ſlided over them from the ſkirts of the *continental land*; and when, by the action of tides and waves, thoſe *ſediments* had riſen above the moſt ordinary level of the *ſea*, *peat-moors* were formed on ſome parts of their ſurface. That addition to the *continent* might have extended much farther, on account of the ſhallowneſs of the *ſea*, if the quantity of *ſand* there accumulating had not exceeded the power of the *ſediments* of the *rivers* to bind it: but early in the courſe of thoſe operations, a long ridge of *ſand-banks*, which paſſed on the fore-part of the growing *new land*, and extended much farther on a line bending to the north-eaſt, being arrived at the common level of the water, *ſand-hills*, or *dunes*, roſe over them, forming a ſtring of *new iſlands* along that line. Thus the extent of the *new land*, which was afterwards to be pervaded by the prolonged three branches of the *Rhine* and the *Meuſe*, was fixed to the ſpace there incloſed by the *dunes*; where confuſed *ſediments* of *clay* from the *rivers*, of *ſand* mixed with *ſhells* from the *ſea*, and of *peat* from the *continental land*, roſe firſt up to the common ſurface of the water: after which, every inundation adding new *ſediments* over thoſe *marſhes*, their ſoil roſe ſo as to be overflowed only in times when great floods of the *rivers* concurred with great tides of the *ſea*.

That circumſtance, of the *new land* here in view being ſo protected againſt the *ſea* on its fore-part, gave riſe to the celebrated nation of the *Belgi*; as, in order to enjoy quietly the *land* within the *dunes*, which was very fertile, and in a ſituation favourable for the communication between the *ſea* and the continent, it was ſufficient to embank the *rivers* againſt their temporary riſings: which at that time was eaſily executed; and this *new land* is probably the firſt that has been *incloſed* on thoſe *coaſts*: a circumſtance to which I ſhall more particularly attend. The middle branch of the *Rhine*, which retained its name, continuing then to flow down to the *ſea*, was conſequently embanked, and it became the moſt direct communication between the *ſea* and the land. Such was the ſtate of the *Belgic coaſt*, when the *Romans* took poſſeſſion of it; and, conſidering its favourable ſituation for trade, they raiſed a toll on the veſſels at their entrance into the *ſtream* called *Rhine*: for which purpoſe they built there, on the ſea-ſhore, a *toll-houſe*, the *ruins* of which ſtill remain, ſunk in the ſand below the common level of the ſea. Thoſe *ruins* have been ſeen ſometimes at very low water, and round them were found many old *coins* of various northern nations then trading with the *Belgi*, and ſome *legion-ſtones*. Since thoſe times, the ſcene has much changed on that *coaſt*; and to begin by the pretended *obſtruction* of the *Rhine*, (as M. DE BUFFON calls it,) the *ſea-ſand* having continued to accumulate along the *dunes*, and theſe to extend, the mouth of the *branch* called *Rhine* was ſtopped, and the *dunes* united together over it. The communication of that *branch* with the *ſea* being thus cut off, it was turned into an inland channel, by ſtopping the entrance of the water into it from the land; and ſince that time the *river Rhine* diſcharges wholly through its *branches*, the *Iſſel* and the *Waal*.

The above is the main hiſtory of the *new land* now called *Holland*, from its beginning, coeval with the origin of our *continents*, to the time when the middle *branch* of the *Rhine* was ſtopped; and before this laſt epocha, the *Romans* had ſettled on its ſhore: what remains then to be determined in reſpect of *chronology*, is, what may be the length of the *period* anterior to that *hiſtorical event*. A fact will lead us to that determination; and at the ſame time will ſerve to explain ſome other alterations which have happened on the *Belgic coaſt* ſince the epocha of its conqueſt by the *Romans*. The ſoil of that *new land* ſunk conſiderably after it was *incloſed*; which made it neceſſary, at different times, to raiſe the dikes which were alſo ſinking, and to increaſe their breadth. Hence the ſurface of a great part of that rich *peninſula* has long lain below the level of low water in the *rivers*; and the rain-water, which, at the beginning, was diſcharged through *ſluices* at every returning tide, muſt now be all pumped out; and, in ſome parts, from a depth of fifteen feet from the level of the loweſt water in the *rivers*. This will firſt account for ſome events, which being little known by a certain claſs of geologiſts, they conceived that the *ſea*, by its attacks on our *continents*, is conſtantly encroaching on them. The moſt famous of thoſe events are three irruptions of the *ſea* in the *new land* above deſcribed; the firſt of which, in the year 1222, invaded its north ſide, and formed there the gulf *Zuyder-ſee*, on the part where the *Iſſel* had prolonged its courſe through the ac-

cumulated *new ſoil*; and the two others, which, in 1421, and 1446, formed alſo many gulfs, in the ſouth part of the ſame *land*, on the prolonged courſe of the *Waal* and the *Meuſe*: to which irruptions, ſome more recent, that happened from the ſame cauſe in ſome parts of the *Baltic*, eſpecially in the peninſula of *Jutland*, have been added by this ſame claſs of geologiſts. Theſe are, indeed, dreadful events in the hiſtory of mankind: for thouſands of inhabitants periſhed by the entire ſubmerſion of their dwellings, which even ſunk into the ground, that was then reduced again to mud: but in reſpect of the *continent* itſelf, it loſt only a part of the *new lands*, which, having been *too early* incloſed, had already ſunk below the loweſt level of the *ſea*. It is eaſy to conceive, that a high and agitated *ſea*, breaking the *dikes* of ſuch *lands*, fell over them with an impetuoſity capable of reducing their looſe ſoil into mud, and to waſh it away. A great part of the beautiful country of *Holland*, the remains of the *new land* above deſcribed, would be expoſed to the very ſame accident, if, from the opulence and greater knowledge of the inhabitants, there were not a ſtrict watch kept, and great expence beſtowed on every part of its *dikes*; for maintaining them in conſtant repair: for, if the *Zuyder-ſee*, or the main *river*, were to break open thoſe *dikes*, that country would be loſt paſt recovery, up to the *continental land*; which was the caſe in the above irruptions; and there would remain only a ſtring of *ſand-iſlands* bordered with *dunes*, as thoſe are which range before the entrance of the *Zuyder-ſee*, and extend, at a certain diſtance, round *Zealand*.

We know then the real cauſe of thoſe dreadful and irreparable ſubmerſions of ſome *new lands*: thoſe which have undergone that fate; had been *incloſed* at *too ſmall a diſtance of time* from their *formation*, or from the *origin* of our *continents*, when the ſediments of the *ſea* and of the *rivers* began to gather in thoſe places. *New lands*, ſo formed, require a certain length of *time* to ſettle and become firm. While yet unincloſed, though raiſed above the common level of the *ſea*, they ſink alſo for a long time; but as long as they are lowered by that cauſe, they continue to be overflowed by the *ſea* and the *rivers* every time they riſe above a certain level; whereby the *low lands* receive new *ſediments* on their ſurface, till at laſt they become firm. But if a new land is *incloſed*, only becauſe it is but ſeldom overflowed, and without conſidering its *age*, ſinking then, without receiving new ſupplies of *ſediments* on its top, it may be depreſſed below the loweſt level of the *ſea*: which was the caſe of the *new land* between the *Waal* and the *Iſſel*. But ſome *new lands* have not been ſo early *incloſed*, and we have an object of compariſon in that reſpect, from a *new land* next to that firſt, between the *Iſſel* and the *Eems*, which will lead us to an eſtimate of the length of *time* that may prevent ſuch *ſinking*. The *new land* which we have now in view, is a *peninſula* that contains the *low grounds* belonging to the provinces *Frieſland* and *Groninguen*. When the inhabitants of that country undertook to improve their *new lands*, they did not *incloſe* them: their ſettlements were on the edge of the *continental land*, where are now the towns of *Groninguen*, in the province of that name, and of *Leeuwarden* in that of *Frieſland*; whence they began to cultivate the low land, though ſtill expoſed to inundations. By cutting ditches and channels, they obtained materials for raiſing the ground in ſome places, where they built their farm-houſes and ſome villages, which thus were ſecured againſt the floods. I have ſeen thoſe materials; they are a clayey ſea-ſand, mixed with *recent ſhells*. At that time the inhabitants could cultivate no grains but what were ſown in the ſpring, and ſometimes they even loſt their crops; but in the mean time the land was improved, and it roſe yearly; for the water, by riſing and retiring ſlowly, always left new *ſediments*, which were very fertile, and at the ſame time compenſated the *ſinking* of the maſs: and when thoſe *lands* became *firm*, they increaſed ſenſibly in height. This has been the practice on many other parts of thoſe *coaſts*, where the inhabitants were not rich enough to be bad economiſts.

In the ſixteenth century, a great tract of *new lands* in both the above provinces was only expoſed to temporary inundations in winter: and GASPARD ROBLEZ, a Spaniſh governor, undertook to incloſe it with *dikes*. That work was completed in 1570; but as the outward new lands, though ſtill expoſed to frequent inundations, were of a ſufficient *age* for being *firm*, a century more brought an almoſt equal tract of thoſe *lands* to the ſame ſtate as the firſt, which then was alſo *incloſed*. The *progreſs* of that *increaſe* has not yet been checked, becauſe of the range of *new iſlands* formed in the *ſea* at ſome diſtance, which prevents too great an acceſs of *ſea-ſand*; by which means the ſediments of the rivers are ſufficient for binding the *ſand* on the fore-part of the *new lands*. Every generation, by private undertakings of the inhabitants next to the *ſea*, incloſes ſome new parts of thoſe extenſions, and no *ſinking* is obſerved within the *dikes*. The incloſers always leave out of their *dikes* the parts of the new grounds which are ſtill expoſed to frequent inundations: they afford paſture for their cattle during a great part of the year; and every time that they are overflowed, they improve for future generations. Now, had we only that well-known *progreſs* of an *operation*, which *muſt* have *begun* at the *origin* of our *continents*, nothing could contradict that proof that they are not *very old*: and when we compare alſo the ſteadineſs of that *peninſula*, incloſed only in 1570, with the ſinking of the next, the remains of which is *Holland*, there can be no doubt, that the *Belgi* incloſed the laſt at *too ſmall a diſtance* from its *origin*.

I ſhall now reſume that particular demonſtration under a general view. Wherever there is an *increaſe* of *land* by the influence of the *ſea* and *rivers*, it is very eaſy to diſtinguiſh the *original boundaries* of the *continent*, from which the *new land* may be meaſured; and if there is any *monument* or *record*, that determines ſome *ſtage* in its *progreſs*, the *ratio* between the *increaſe* from that *point*, and what had been produced before, is a real *chronometer*. I have made that ſort of obſervation on many parts of our *coaſts*, and I have always found the ſame general reſult. All thoſe *patched* works have begun at the ſame time; and their differences, in extent and rapidity of progreſs, proceed from a combination of the depth of the *ſea* near the *coaſt*, with the nature of its bottom, the ſituation of the *coaſt*, and the quantity of *ſediments* of the *rivers*. The outward aſpect of thoſe *new lands* is ſufficient for diſcerning them, but their compoſition ſerves alſo to diſtinguiſh them in depth, by boring through them. This has been the caſe by the want of *freſh water* for their inhabitants: they ſink *wells* through the *patched land*, and, when they attain the *original ſoil*, they often find in it *ſprings* which filtrate in the prolonged *ſtrata* of the next *continental ground*.

So far, ſir, I have only followed your own directions: I have examined various *progreſſes* going on by *natural cauſes*, namely, the actions of *gravity* and of *water*, from the *tops of the mountains*, to the *ſea-ſhore*; and in that ſurvey I have ſhewn you various *modula* for the calculation of *the time elapſed ſince the origin of our continents*. But theſe *proceſſes* are only ſome particular claſſes in the variety of different *effects* which were to begin at the ſame *time*, from known *natural cauſes*, when ſuch a revolution took place as formed a *dry land* from what was before the *bottom of the ſea*. At that *time*, every effect obſerved on our *continents*, except their general ſhape, and the nature of their *materials*, began to take place, and has continued ever ſince: conſequently, if, by following the ſame principles of inveſtigation, applied to different *proceſſes* depending on diſtinct *cauſes*, we find, in reſpect of the *time* when they *began*, the ſame general reſult as from the former; that agreement will produce a degree of certainty in our inveſtigation, much beyond what would have appeared to you ſatisfactory, from only one claſs of unequivocal phenomena.

Since our *mountains*, which have been *under* the *ſea*, are

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now *above* it, a change muſt have happened in their comparative *level*. Therefore, if any phenomenon can lead us to eſtimate how long it is ſince that change of *level* took place, it will be a new means of diſcovering the *age* of our *continents*. The *level* of the *ſea*, whatever be its abſolute *height*, is the loweſt, and *(cæteris paribus)* the *warmeſt* part of the *atmoſphere*; it was ſo before the *revolution*, and it remained the ſame after it. But in reſpect of our *mountains*, a great change happened: ſuppoſing that their *tops* were already *iſlands* in the former *ſea*, or that they were ſtill under it, at that *epocha*, either by the *ſea* ſubſiding, or by their riſing, they were placed in a *colder* region of the *atmoſphere*; and conſequently, every effect proceeding from that diſtinct new circumſtance, *began* at that *time*: a *temperature* often near the *freezing point* on the tops of high *mountains*, (of the *Alps*, for inſtance,) produced frequent falls of *ſnow*, the thawing of which happening to be leſs than its production, the yearly exceſs of this, transformed partly into a ſpongy *ice*, began to clog their upper valleys, and to cover the inclined ſurfaces that could retain it. When thoſe accumulations had much increaſed, the weight of the *ice* made it ſlide down; which was effected by the *ice* thawing on its ſides, which diſengaged it from the rocks, and by its breaking acroſs the ſlopes, from its tendency downwards. In that manner, the accumulated *ice* entered various channels, through which it ſlided down in the form of *lavas*; and when it had attained a *warmer* region, it there thawed, rapidly, every ſummer. That ſtate of the accumulations of *ice* in the *Alps*, which brought them on the whole to a regular *progreſs* of *increaſe*, was produced after a certain time; and as it ſtill continues, it becomes a new *chronometer*, abſolutely independent of thoſe that we have conſidered before. The faſter thawing of the *ice*, when it has attained the lower valleys, depending in many reſpects on local and accidental circumſtances, does not afford a juſt idea of the *progreſs* of the *ice* in thoſe mountains: on the whole, it would there appear at a ſtand, the *lavas* of *ice*, called *glaciers*, ſometimes advancing, at other times retreating: but that *progreſs* is very obſervable in the upper parts; for each generation tranſmits to the following, ſome account, either of the formation of new laſting heaps of *ice*, or of the extenſion of old ones, ſo as to fill up paſſages which till then had remained open; and many ſuch ſigns of continued *increaſe*, are even within the memory of individuals. Therefore, it is impoſſible to ſuppoſe, that our *continents* are very old; for, if that were the caſe, the upper region of thoſe mountains, in every part that could retain *ice*, would be at this time incruſted with it.

From the revolution which produced our *continents*, another alteration happened on the ſurface of our globe relating to *temperature*, the *cauſe* of which is not here my object, except, in this reſpect, that it is quite different from the former; as for the *effect*, it is an *accumulation* of *ice* in the *polar regions*, which is ſtill going on. We have alſo ſome meaſure of a *rate* of *progreſs* in this effect; on which I ſhall only quote the following paſſage, in a paper written by Dr. BLAGDEN, *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. lxxiv. p. 231. "Since our northern navigations, the coaſt of *Weſt Greenland*, and its ſurrounding *ſeas*, have *gradually* become more and more *inacceſſible* on account of *ice*." Here then, *obſervation* embraces alſo a *proportional part* of the *whole* effect, from which we may conclude, that, with ſo rapid a *progreſs*, if our *continents* were *very old*, all thoſe *coaſts* would be *inacceſſible*. It might be ſaid, from BUFFON'S hypotheſis, that our globe is cooling; which would account for undetermined progreſſes of ice: but that inconſiſtent naturaliſt has acknowledged, that the very reverſe is the reſult of a compariſon between recorded ſymptoms of *temperature* in ancient times, and what we obſerve now. Beſides, that objection is precluded by various ſubordinate phenomena of the growing *ice*, ſome of which have been pointed out by M. DE SAUSSURE, who, from a long and attentive ſtudy of the *Alps*, has formed the ſame concluſion that I have in reſpect to the *age* of our *continents*.

I have ſaid, that no large fragment of rock can be removed, by the impulſe of *water*, from the upper valleys of the *Alps*; ſince thoſe valleys themſelves, and every channel from them to lower valleys, are filled with *ice*: but ſome of thoſe fragments, and very large ones, are tranſported on the *ice* itſelf. Thoſe *blocks* fall on the *ice* from the ſteep ſides of the adjacent mountains; and if, by their acquired velocity, they roll over its ſurface, ſo as to attain ſome part of its ſluggiſh *ſtream*, they follow it down to the next low valley, and are there depoſited on thoſe ſpots where the *ice* entirely thaws under them. There is always ſome ſuch *block* on its long journey down; and it is eſpecially from obſervations on their *march*, that the ſlow motion, downwards, of the whole maſs of *ice*, has been diſcovered, and in ſome degree determined. M. DE SAUSSURE explains that proceſs, and then adds: "From theſe *blocks*, accumulated at the end of the *Glacier-des-bois*, (valley of *Chamouny*,) reſults an important remark. Conſidering that they are depoſited on that ſpot as the *ice* thaws which brings them down, it is ſurpriſing that they are not in *greater number*. That fact, *concordant with many others which I ſhall ſucceſſively mention*, leads us to think with M. DE LUC, that the preſent ſtate of our *continents* is not *ſo ancient* as ſome philoſophers have conceived it." See *Voyages aux Alpes*, ſect. 625.

You may judge now, ſir, that it was not ſo difficult as you thought, to find ſome means of enquiring into the *age* of our *continents*: it required only to reflect on the various effects that were to *begin* at their origin; and then to fix on ſome ſuch an effect, the *progreſs* of which might be obſerved, and to apply to that obſervation: I have deſcribed ſome of thoſe effects, and their reſult; but almoſt every phenomenon continuing, progreſſively, on the ſurface of our *continents*, might, from ſome connection with *time*, and ſome ſign of *beginning*, afford materials for the ſame enquiry; I was therefore obliged to confine myſelf to ſome general claſſes of objects, and I ſhall only add one more. I muſt obſerve firſt, that ſince it is already evident that our *continents* are not of an unbounded *antiquity*, none of the theories which ſuppoſe their production to have reſulted from ſome *ſlow* progreſs, can be ſupported for an inſtant; as thereby the imaginary cauſes to which thoſe progreſſes are attributed, are brought too near us, for remaining hidden under the veil of *time paſt*. Therefore, I ſet aſide thoſe theories, which have no foundation whatever; and I take for granted with you, that the *ſea* has changed its *bed* by the ſudden action of ſome powerful cauſe: which propoſition, as one of the moſt important in geology, I ſhall alſo directly prove in the courſe of the following examination.

When *vegetation* was generally ſpread over the ſurface of our *continents*, the decay of *plants* began to form a *layer* of a particular *earth*, nearly the ſame over every kind of original ſoil, and always perfectly diſtinct from it: it is a blackiſh *duſt*, bound by the roots of vegetables which continue to grow over it. I paſs by the *foreſts*, as there the work of *vegetation* is too obſcure; I ſhall then mention only, that it appears, in that reſpect, that ſome *foreſts* were firſt produced on grounds where they could not continue. Some decaying *foreſts* of *oaks* are recorded in *Germany*, and even in ſome parts there remain ſcattered ſtunted *oaks*, on grounds where it has in vain been attempted to renew them; but I ſhall confine myſelf to open countries. *Heath* has been the predominant *plant* over *ſandy* grounds in hills and plains, and common *graſs* on the flat ſummit of mountains, and on *rocky* and *clayey* ſoils at a ſmaller elevation. Many and very extenſive parts of our *continents* are ſtill totally undiſturbed: I have viſited ſome of them in various parts of Europe; and a great part of Aſia is ſtill in that ſtate. In the countries of that nature which I have viſited, and on grounds that, ever ſince they exiſted, remained in the hands of Nature, the whole of the *vegetable layer* is found under the ſpontaneous

turf;

turf: it varies according to local circumſtances; but not according to the *elevation*; for, *cæteris paribus*, I have found it ſenſibly of the ſame thickneſs on the loweſt and higheſt grounds; a direct proof, that thoſe diverſely *elevated* parts of our *continents* were not ſucceſſively, but at once, abandoned by the *ſea*. In the places where no particular cauſe has either diſturbed or forwarded *vegetation*, that *vegetable layer* is about eighteen inches thick. This then is the whole product of that particular *operation*, begun at the origin of our *continents*.

There are many ways by which we can find a *modulum* for concluding, from the above phenomenon, the *age* of our *continents*; but I ſhall confine myſelf to one, as *hiſtorical monuments* are the means of obtaining it. In the undiſturbed *heaths* of Germany, and eſpecially upon barren hills of great extent, are found numbers of *tumuli*, or burial-places of the firſt and ſtill rambling inhabitants of the country: I have had the opportunity of ſearching ſome of them; they are heaps of earth and ſtones, covering *urns*, in which are found remains of bones and aſhes. In the places where a great many of thoſe *tumuli* are on the ſame ſpot, there is often ſomething like an *altar*, formed of two upright ſtones with one acroſs on the top; and in ſearching round thoſe places, ſome inſtruments have been found made of *flint* and in the form of knives. Thoſe heaps of *moved* ſoil are now covered with *vegetation*; and the *vegetable layer* under the *turf* differs ſo little in thickneſs from that of the neighbouring *undiſturbed* grounds, that if we did not conſider that a certain length of time was requiſite before *vegetation* could be generally ſpread, we ſhould be led to refer the *origin* of our *continents* to a very little diſtance beyond the epocha when thoſe *tumuli* were heaped.

It has been agitated among philoſophers, whether or not the *hiſtory* of *arts* and *ſciences* can throw any light on the degree of the *antiquity* of *mankind*. I have no doubt in reſpect of the affirmative; if we only diſtinguiſh what human underſtanding can diſcover by following the conſequences of ſome *axioms*, (as in geometry and mechanics,) and what may be concluded from conſpicuous and well-obſerved *phenomena* (as in aſtronomy); from what cannot be attained by long obſervations and experiments, tranſmitted from one generation to another, paſſing through many errors afterwards corrected (as in natural philoſophy and natural hiſtory). But this would lead me too far; therefore I ſhall confine myſelf to one object, that of the *progreſs* of *agriculture*: and as I have ſtated many facts of that claſs in my *Letters on the Hiſtory of the Earth and of Man*, I ſhall now only mention the general reſults of my obſervations in that reſpect. I muſt here diſtinguiſh two ſtates of *culture* as now obſerved upon our *continent*; one of which relates to their completely inhabited parts, where the origin and progreſs of ſettlements are ſo much effaced, that it would be very difficult, if not impoſſible, to trace them by immediate obſervation: the other of countries in which the inhabitants are very few in compariſon to the extent of the *land*, but where they are increaſing in number, in proportion as *culture* is gaining over grounds never cultivated before: which laſt caſe is that of the greateſt part of Aſia, and of much of the north-eaſt of Europe: here the *progreſs* of *culture* and *ſettlements* is very diſtinct, and the following are the general facts obſervable in that reſpect.

In all thoſe countries there are certain *centres* of *culture*, or more ancient *ſettlements*; which, with ſubordinate *centres* of different degrees round them, are, in the *wilderneſs*, like the ſyſtems of *celeſtial bodies* in *ſpace*. The main *centre* of *culture* and *ſettlement* firſt exiſted, and from that have ſprung *colonies*, which have been new *centres* afterwards themſelves ſurrounded by ſubordinate *ſettlements*. Hence the origin of diſtinct *nations*, or of the firſt empires, with their ſubdiviſions, into provinces, diſtricts, commons, and private ſets of families; which ſubdiviſions have been aided by the main *centre*, or at leaſt have enjoyed through it the protecting power of the whole *ſyſtem*. The ſmalleſt ſubdiviſions, like the ſmall branches of trees, are thoſe which, by inceſſant endeavours to extend *culture*, contribute the moſt to aggrandize the *empire*, and to increaſe the ſtrength of the other branches and of the ſtem itſelf.

All the accounts which are given of the progreſs of *culture* in *Aſia*, correſpond in that reſpect with what I have obſerved in the *wilderneſſes* of the north-eaſt of *Europe*. I may give that name to countries, which, when only known from maps or political hiſtories, may appear wholly cultivated and intirely inhabited; while in fact they are, what I have deſcribed before, ſets of *centres* of *culture* in the *wild heath*. The original *ſettlements* were moſtly along main *ſtreams*, and in the parts of their courſe were a great extent of *ſediments*, firſt gathered, had been abandoned by the *rivers*, when they were ſettled in deeper channels. Thoſe rich ſoils, producing abundant and laſting paſture, ſtopped ſome rambling ſhepherds, who fixed there, by firſt contriving ſome ſort of huts, and planting round them the fruit-trees and particular plants, which, growing ſpontaneouſly in other places, had been a part of their food. A more ſedentary life increaſed their families; they found a ſatisfaction, before unknown to them, in their ſocial intercourſe; and the firſt endeavours of thoſe ſettlers towards *culture*, were produced by their deſire of remaining together. That wiſh, naturally excited by the enjoyment of mutual ſervices, was increaſed by the neceſſity of guarding againſt invaders the effects of their labour, which had produced a greater and a more permanent fertility: therefore, in proportion as they multiplied, they augmented the number of habitations on the ſame ſpot; till at laſt, as they alſo occupied more land, they found it inconvenient to carry on *culture* at too great a diſtance. Then they began to form *colonies* beyond their convenient ſphere of activity; aſſiſting them in their firſt ſettlement, and remaining bound to them by the reciprocal ties of friendſhip, mutual benefit, gratitude, and common ſecurity.

The extent of the grounds whoſe natural fertility had produced thoſe nurſeries of men being limited, they at laſt were obliged to ſend *colonies* to greater diſtances: they then looked round for rivulets, dales, borders of foreſts, and other deſirable ſpots, with favourable means of communication between the multiplying new ſettlers; and, at laſt, when thoſe reſources were alſo exhauſted, their increaſed power and induſtry prompted them to extend culture over the leſs fertile grounds between them, and at greater diſtances. One of the practices of higheſt antiquity in thoſe difficult ſettlements was, that of firſt chooſing the moſt convenient ſpot at ſome diſtance, often very great; and after having cut a ditch round the determined place, and raiſed its internal ſide with the materials taken from it, to enrich the incloſed land by the *vegetable layer* belonging to the neighbouring grounds, as far as they conveniently could get it. Thoſe ſtript ſpots are ſoon covered with a new vegetation, and the cattle, grazing on them, keep down the young heath; by which means they ſometimes become tolerable paſture: the more remote parts remain wild, and they ſerve only for rambling flocks of ſheep, and for great quantities of bees, which feed on the bloom of the heath. For all thoſe undertakings, the new *ſettlers* were firſt aſſiſted by their families, and afterward by the *government* and by the ſtock of diſcovered means: then the ſucceſsful *colonies* helped their own families round them. By thoſe means, the increaſing difficulties on leſs favourable lands were compenſated by the increaſing power of the protecting *centres*, and by the *progreſs* of the *arts* of *agriculture*.

Thoſe endeavours have never ceaſed from the earlieſt times; they go on, in thoſe numerous parts of our *continents* where the cultivated grounds are ſtill like *iſlands* in *wilderneſſes*; and the *progreſs* from each original *centre of culture* may be traced back, by only obſerving what is going on in its ſkirts, and round each of its firſt diſtant *ſettlements*. None of thoſe *ſyſtems* of *culture* are at reſt, nor can be found to have ſtopped at any time: they are thriving

thriving and extending over the ſtill undiſturbed grounds; and if it were not for the growing *capital towns* and *cities*, which ſwallow up a part of the cultivating tribe; for the ſpirit of novelty ſpringing up, with many vices, in ſuch crowds of men; and for the ſchemes of opulence originating in thoſe centres of luxury and idleneſs, which, in ſo many minds, have changed the original motive of extending *culture*, that of producing food for a growing population, into a view of greater revenue; that *progreſs* would be ſtill more rapid. Nothing can be more intereſting, more inſtructive for the hiſtory of *mankind*, than the ſtudy of countries where thoſe *progreſſes* are ſtill far from approaching near their end. Beſide what their external appearance unfolds to an experienced eye, there are numberleſs characteriſtic circumſtances, to be collected by proper inquiries, from records, monuments, traditions, conformities of methods, of rites, of feaſts, of manners, of errors, of parts, of language; which lead us to refer various *ſettlements* to the common *centres* whence they proceed; and the *names* of a great many places, deſcriptive of certain ſpots, point out by the language from which they are derived, the time when the preſent *towns* or large *villages* were only *mills*, *farms*, *hamlets*, *fords*, *bridges*, &c. at the ſame time that *names* of the ſame ſignifications, but moderniſed, belong to modern ſettlements which are ſtill what their names expreſs.

That preſent ſtate of the north-eaſt part of Europe, as a mean ſtate between a great part of Aſia and America on the one hand, and the ſouth-weſt part of Europe on the other, throws a great light on the ſtate of this laſt country, one of thoſe which I had firſt ſet aſide. Here, by particular circumſtances, the *archipels* (may I be permitted to introduce this word?) of *culture* have moſtly coaleſced: from which cauſe, the diſtinctions between their parts appear to be merely artificial or conventional diviſions. There are indeed ſuch diviſions, produced by wars, and by the ſchemes and jealouſies of commerce, which have introduced a great confuſion between the original *groupes* of men, even in ſome parts of the countries where the natural connections may eaſily be traced; but at the ſame time, from analogy with the growing countries, we may as ſurely conclude the *origin* of countries of full growth; as by analogy with the improving *marſhes* on the outſide of long incloſed *new lands*, the *origin* of theſe, though in full culture, is clearly underſtood. Conſequently, the *progreſſes* of *culture*, and of the *art* of *agriculture*; to which now I may add that of *commerce*, as a conſequence of the growth of *nations*; agree with the general reſult of the *progreſſes* of ſpontaneous effects over the ſame *grounds*; and the whole leads to this irreſiſtible and great conſequence, that the *origin* of our *continents* is at too ſmall a diſtance from our times, for the *revolution* which produced them to be blotted out of the *memory of men*.

Thoſe real inquiries into the *hiſtory* of our *continents*, when more generally attended to, will be the *tomb-ſtone* of every *theory of the earth*, the *agents* of which, and their agency, muſt be hidden under the veil of *unbounded antiquity*, for fancy to take the appearance of genius, and aſſertion that of knowledge. What ſtudy had thoſe philoſophers made of the real facts, who firſt decided, ſeemingly from natural hiſtory and the hiſtory of mankind, (and thus were believed,) that our *continents* were of an *antiquity* loſt in the night of *time paſt?*

In oppoſition to ſuch determined *data* of real *chronology* as have been afforded by the *continents* themſelves, what are the dreams of ſome nominal antiquarians, whoſe imagination, fond of the *remote*, (and the more remote, the greater their fondneſs!) inclines them to adopt the fables of ſome Aſiatic ſects, contradicted by their own monuments when attentively examined, as Mr. BRYANT, and other learned men, have proved, and denied by ſome of their own countrymen! Shall we receive, on an object of ſuch moment as the *age* of our *continents* and that of the preſent *race of men*, the obſcure aſſertions of ignorance, pride, or deſign, in ſome ſets of men; when it is in our power to conſult the unbiaſſed and ſtubborn *phenomena of the earth!*"

We do not find that any of the poſitions ſet up by M. de Luc, either in refutation of the Huttonian theory, or in ſupport of his own, have been controverted by any ſubſequent writer. Mr. Williams, who publiſhed a Theory of the Earth in 1791, does not appear to have ſeen that propoſed by M. de Luc; but he offers many objections to that of Dr. Hutton; his remarks on which are as follow: "I acknowledge the truth of almoſt all Dr. Hutton has advanced about the weathering, decompoſition, and waſte of the ſuperficies of many of our rocks and ſtrata, and of our mountains and cavernous ſhores: and that the ſpoils of the mountains are carried down by land-floods to the valleys and to the borders of the ocean. So far we go together; but here we muſt part, as I poſitively deny that any ſtrata are formed under the waters of the ocean. It is evident to a demonſtration, that the ſea purges itſelf, by the tides, of all the earthy matter carried down by the floods, which earthy matter is thrown back upon the ſhores, in the bays and creeks, and at the mouths of great rivers, where, by degrees, it enlarges the bounds of the dry land in exact proportion to the quantity carried down by the floods. It is alſo clearly demonſtrated, that the earthy matter waſhed off the face of our mountains and rocks has no manner of tendency to the real waſte and deſtruction of the preſent earth; ſo far from it, that, on the contrary, the habitable parts of the earth are gradually, but really and effectually, renovated, enlarged, and improved, thereby. Many lakes, marſhes, and frightful gulfs, among the mountains and in the plains, have been filled up in the courſe of the rivers of the world, which are now rich, beautiful, and habitable, countries; many millions of acres of new land have been made in the valleys and plains, at the mouths of the rivers in the bays, creeks, and ſhores, of the ocean; and many and extenſive portions of this new land are now the fat valleys by the rivers, which are the ſcenes of population, wealth, and ſocial happineſs. It is upon this deſcription of land that the higheſt number of the great commercial cities of the world are ſeated, ſuch, as, for inſtance, London, Amſterdam, Alexandria, and many of the cities of China, &c. Whoever will take the trouble to peruſe my eſſays, will be convinced that the Deltas, Belgias, and Carſes, and other deſcriptions of new land, formed and forming in all parts of the world, fully and perfectly correſpond with the quantity of matter waſhed off the mountains and rocks; and all this is a real, a great, a ſubſtantial, and a durable, improvement of the preſent earth. Man cannot live upon the ſummits, nor high up the ſides of lofty mountains; but the froſts and thaws, and other changes of the air and weather, decompoſe part of the ſuperficies of the mountains, which is carried down by the floods to the valleys and to the margin of the ſea, where new land is gradually increaſed, which enlarges the bounds of the earth in convenient ſituations for increaſed population, &c. This uſe which benevolent Providence makes of the ſediment of rivers in the ordinary courſe of things, is not a fanciful hypotheſis, but a real and viſible fact, which may be viewed, examined, and thoroughly inveſtigated, by the man of leiſure and abilities; and I am perſuaded, that if Dr. Hutton will read my papers upon this ſubject, he will be convinced of the errors of his hypotheſis. I have made it evident to a demonſtration, that if, for argument's ſake, we allow the particles of matter carried down by the rivers to be ſpread out over the bounds of the ocean, and to ſubſide in it, we ſhould, in that event, have no coal, no lime-ſtone, free-ſtone, nor any other uſeful foſſil body. We ſhould have no ſuch thing as ſtrata nor bed, nor diviſion of any kind whatſoever, but all would be one uniform ſolid maſs of ſediment compounded of all things. If we can ſuppoſe any order of diſtinction in a ſediment, it muſt agree with the laws of gravitation; of courſe the heavieſt

heavieſt particles would ſubſide, and take poſſeſſion of the loweſt place, from which they would not be diſlodged by the lighteſt. But we need not deſcend to particulars: ſtratification muſt be performed by a ſhallow ſpread and flow of water; but we cannot allow of ſtratification, nor of any diſtinction of ſtrata of different qualities under the bed of the waters of the ocean, without a miracle.

"To have recourſe to the agency of fire, in order to conſolidate a ſtratum, is, in the firſt place, *unneceſſary*, ſince we daily ſee induration going on without it. We ſee various foſſil bodies of various qualities and degrees of hardneſs formed and forming before our eyes, which are as well conſolidated and cemented as if they had been fuſed by fire. In ſome places we ſee caverns of various degrees of extent and magnitude, ſome of which are almoſt, and others altogether, filled up by a ſmall flow of water, depoſiting particles of ſtony matter; and the bodies ſo formed are afterwards conſolidated, in the courſe of no very long time, to degrees of ſtrength and induration equal to any of our rocks and ſtrata. Mines recently worked are in many places ſo quickly choaked up by the formation of various concretions, that we are often obliged to demoliſh them, to prevent their ſtopping up the paſſage altogether. It is plain, therefore, that the matters depoſited by water, either contain in themſelves the principle of induration, or receive it from the atmoſphere; which laſt appears the moſt likely; and as the conſolidation and preſent ſtate of the rocks and ſtrata in the earth were producible, by powers which we ſtill ſee to exiſt in nature *without* fuſion, ſo it is but reaſonable to infer that they could not poſſibly have been produced *by* it. A fire that could bring the bed of the ocean into fuſion, muſt have heated the waters to ſuch a degree, that the whole race of animals in them muſt have become extinct. Fuſion would produce an immenſe maſs of glaſs or ſlag, which might crack indeed in cooling, but could never form regular horizontal ſtrata of ſuch diſſimilar matters as thoſe of which the ſtrata of the earth are compoſed. How could coals ſubſiſt in the intenſe heat which vitrified their concomitant ſtrata? The ſame may be ſaid of the argillaceous ſtrata which, in all countries, are found in a *ſoft* ſtate, immediately above and below very *hard* ſtrata of ſtone; for if fire had hardened the one, it muſt have hardened the other alſo. Moſt of the operations and effects of ſubterraneous fire, that we have any knowledge of, are outrageouſly violent and deſtructive, and only produce diſorder and ruin. If the bed of the ocean was really to be forced up by ſubterraneous fire to the height of our mountains, we might expect to find as great confuſion and diſorder, and marks of the ruins of the world, among Dr. Hutton's mountains as among Dr. Burnett's; but I have ſhewn, that the ſtrata of our real mountains are as regular as any of the plains. In truth, I have not ſeen ſuch regularity of the ſtrata any where elſe as among the highland mountains of Lochabar, which are the higheſt in Britain. Dr. Hutton lays great ſtreſs upon the phenomena of mineral veins;—but, in truth, every appearance of mineral veins, and of their contents, point to water with a diſtinct and legible index, as the chief agent in their formation. On the ſuppoſition of ſuch a theory being true, all theſe veins ſhould be wide above, and narrow below, which is not found true in experience, very many of them being exceeding ſtraight and narrow for many fathoms next the ſurface, which are very wide farther down; and every ſubſtance found in theſe veins ſhould be the hardeſt in all the bowels of the earth, becauſe the force and violence of the ſubterraneous fire would have a much freer paſſage through theſe open fiſſures than through ſolid unbroken ſtrata of ſeveral thouſand miles of thickneſs; but this, in fact, is not the caſe, the inſide of many of our mineral veins being exceedingly ſoft and argillaceous. Again, upon the ſuppoſition of the contents of our mineral veins being formed by metallic ſtreams, forced up from below by fire, our mineral ores ſhould be all pure and unmixed with earthy or ſtony matter, which is not ſo; and no metallic or mineral ore would be found out of the cavities of mineral veins; but neither is this the caſe."

Our limits will not permit us to follow the author farther in his remarks, nor to give more than a general outline of his theory. All his deſcriptions are full and accurate; but he falls into the defect of many geologiſts, that of ſuppoſing the whole ſurface of the earth to be like the ſpots which he has obſerved; and he does not appear to have ſufficiently partaken of the ſtock of knowledge daily increaſing by continual obſervations in all countries. It ſeems alſo extraordinary that a work, which contains ſo many uſeful and accurate obſervations, and ſo many well-drawn concluſions againſt theories which obtained credit in the world, ſhould alſo preſent to us a theory which has no real ſupport: the former imaginary theories of the earth reſting only on ſuperficial appearances, a competent knowledge of ſome claſs of characteriſtic facts would ſuffice to overturn them; and that knowledge Mr. Williams perfectly poſſeſſes. To ſubſtitute, however, a well-founded theory for thoſe fanciful ſyſtems, required a very extenſive knowledge of principles and general facts; which do not appear to have been objects of this author's particular attention. He has peremptorily refuted all thoſe theories that *ſuppoſe* only certain agencies, becauſe they *require* them, and which, either intentionally, or by conſequence, contradicted the Moſaic account of the events that took place at the creation of our globe: from which diſquiſitions this general conſequence reſults, that nothing has yet been ſtated, which really weakens the foundations of our faith in that hiſtory. Mr. Williams evidently ſhews, that if our continents were not, both internally and externally, compoſed as they are, they would be unfit for the ſupport of the vegetable and animal creation; which is a ſtrong ſupport of *final cauſes*: but when he undertakes to explain how that admirable arrangement has been produced, and in what manner the operations agree with what has been tranſmitted to us by the Moſaic revelation, which attempt required a full knowledge of the extenſive field of phenomena already explored, he falls ſhort of his mark.

Suppoſing, as many others have done, and as appears to be undeniable, that the ſuperficial parts of the earth were originally mixed with water into a fluid or chaotic ſtate, Mr. W. endeavours to prove, that all the regular ſtrata were formed by the flow of the tides ſucceſſively ſpreading out the depoſited matters on a large horizontal plane; and that the granites, and other ſtones, which he does not conſider as ſtratified, ſubſided when the water was in ſome degree of reſt, as at the height of the tides, or where local obſtructions occaſioned ſtagnation. He thinks that, when the whole ſurface was in a fluid ſtate, the tides would neceſſarily riſe to a prodigious height, ſeveral miles higher than the tops of any of our mountains; that the mountains of granite, which are uniform throughout, muſt have ſubſided in one tide; that the tides would be higheſt, and have their *reſting places*, on the two oppoſite parts of the globe, which are now the two continents; and that the direction of the tides, on different parts of the globe, would be ſuch as we now find that of the ſtrata to be. He ſuppoſes the interior body of the earth to have been formed in the ſame manner, prior to the ſuperficial parts; that, from various cauſes, it was full of inequalities; that it would contain much water, both in the compoſition of the not yet conſolidated ſtrata, and in ſeparate cavities; that when the ſuperficial ſtrata were laid between tides, and the ocean began to retreat into its preſent bed, the weight of theſe ſuperincumbent ſtrata would force out the water impriſoned below them; that theſe ſtrata themſelves, as yet ſoft and flexible, would, in many caſes, be bent and broken; that cracks would be occaſioned alſo by their contraction in drying, which cracks would be increaſed by

by the inclination of the ſtrata different ways, and be wideſt at the top; and that, as the whole ſolid matter would diminiſh in bulk as it became dry, high tides would ſtill overflow it, and pour extraneous ſtony matter into the fiſſures. On theſe principles, he explains all the declivities, ruptures, interruptions, and irregularities, of the ſtrata, which we now behold.

From a minute examination of the larger grains and fragments found in the compoſition of our rocks, viz. the talc and mica, quartz, feltſpat and ſhirl, whoſe texture is evidently of the very fine ſtratified or tabulated kind, Mr. Williams concludes that all theſe bodies, and thoſe, in general, which are of a ſimilar ſtructure and not cryſtallized, were once in a diſtinct ſtrata, though not now to be found in that ſtate. On this circumſtance he inſiſts, as one of the many evidences of the univerſal deluge; the effects of which, local and general, he conſiders at great length, adding ſome obſervations reſpecting its efficient cauſes, and the differences of the preſent from the antediluvian ſtate of the earth. By the high tides and violent agitation of the diluvian waters, the primitive ſtrata, which had never before felt any rain, were looſened and torn aſunder, and ground down by attrition againſt one another; and all the ſuperficial parts of the earth were reduced again into a chaos. When the waters began to abate, the larger ſtony particles and fragments would ſubſide firſt, and form the compound rocks and beds of ſand; and the finer and lighter ſediment would be ſpread into ſtrata by the tides, as already mentioned; the difference from the primitive operation ſeeming to conſiſt only in this, that the waters now carried vegetable and animal bodies, and fragments of ſtones and metals already conſolidated. In this enquiry, the ſtrata of coals are particularly examined, and attributed chiefly to diluvian wood; in ſome inſtances, to peat moſſes. In reſpect to theſe laſt, as they now exiſt, he proves that they are univerſally of poſtdiluvian formation, ſome of them very recent, all from vegetables, moſtly from heath.

With regard to the *reſting-places* imagined by this author in his theory of the tides, we cannot conceive any reaſon whatever, why, in the liquid globe, with the two oppoſite ſwellings of the water going inceſſantly round it, there ſhould be two oppoſite fixed points of *reſt* of thoſe ſwellings, where, by a *calm*, the material of our continents ſhould have ſubſided in both hemiſpheres. Admitting, however, for a moment, that this has been the caſe: as ſoon as the materials of thoſe ſuppoſed growing maſſes had arrived at ſuch a level as to divide the liquid into the Pacific and Atlantic oceans, even by mere ſhoals of the ſame extent as thoſe continents, the imaginary *great tides*, ſuch as he ſuppoſed to riſe eight miles above the common level, would have been ſtopped, and the motion of the ſea have been reduced to what it is now: for, ſuppoſing that all the *maſs* of both continents, down to the level of the ſhore, were now ſubtracted, not the ſmalleſt change would happen in the tides: therefore, that *maſs* cannot have been accumulated by tides.

The next writer on this intereſting ſubject, is the late celebrated Dr. Franklin, in his Conjectures concerning the Formation of the Earth, &c. publiſhed in the Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society for 1793. The doctor ſuppoſes the central maſs of the earth to be a fluid, probably air, in a ſtate ſo extremely condenſed as to float the heavieſt ſubſtances; and that the waves raiſed and propagated on this internal ocean, by ſubterraneous fires or the ſudden converſion of water into ſteam, ſhake the incumbent ſhell, produce earthquakes, and occaſion thoſe diſtant rumbling ſounds which announce their approach. He thinks that the remains of animals and plants now peculiar to the torrid zone, found in the moſt northern climates, afford a proof that the earth has changed its poles; which hypotheſis, in his opinion, accounts the moſt readily for the deluge, and for the various changes which have happened on the face of our globe. The doctor ſeems to confound the poles of the earth's axis with thoſe of the terreſtrial magnet; for he conjectures that the approximation of ſome large comet might, by its ſuperior magnetic power, have deranged the poles of our globe, and thereby have produced thoſe ſtriking revolutions on the ſurface. Dr. Franklin farther ſuppoſes that the iron ore in our globe is the gradual production of time; that it derived its magnetiſm from ſome external cauſe, and that the magnetic power is perhaps diffuſed through the univerſal ſyſtem. It is enough to mention theſe *conjectures*, for the notice of thoſe who engage in ſuch ſpeculations. That the matter of the earth is not homogeneous, but increaſes in denſity towards the center, is inferred by M. de la Place, from a compariſon of the obſervations made in different places to determine a degree of the meridian. Whether this nucleus be fluid, it is more difficult to decide. It cannot be air in its elaſtic form; ſince, under the enormous compreſſion, the particles would be ſo approximated as moſt probably to aſſume a new conſtitution.

In 1796, a new Theory of the Earth was publiſhed in Paris, by J. C. Delametherie; who alſo endeavours to refute that of Dr. Hutton. The ſentiments eſpouſed by this writer are nearly the following: The exterior cruſt of the globe, according to him, was formed in the boſom of the waters; from which it emerged in a ſtate not very different from its preſent appearance. The cruſt, after its formation, underwent petty alterations, from a variety of local cauſes. The waters ſurpaſſed the higheſt mountains: that is, they were at leaſt three thouſand *toiſes* above their preſent level. All mountains, all valleys, and all plains, were formed by cryſtallization amid the waters. The materials that compoſe them were truly diſſolved:—but how have they been diſſolved? every one of theſe ſubſtances requires much *water of ſolution*. The ſmall quantity of exiſting water would be abſolutely inadequate; ſince, if it were ſpread over the whole ſurface of the globe, it would only make a ſtratum of ſeven or eight hundred feet in thickneſs—a new proof that moſt of the waters of the primitive ſeas has diſappeared. If there may have exiſted an exterior ſtratum of water of three thouſand *toiſes*, or eighteen thouſand feet, and there remains now but ſeven hundred feet, or about one twenty-fifth part, what is become of the twenty-four parts that have diſappeared? The ſolution of this great queſtion is attended with many difficulties. The different changes of the axis of the globe, which have been ſuppoſed in order to account for this phenomenon, are contrary to the known laws of ſtatics, and to the aſtronomical theories at preſent prevailing. There remain but two hypotheſis. Either the waters have paſſed totally or in part to other ſpheres; or they have been buried in interior caverns of the earth.

M. Delametherie does not conſider the paſſage of the waters to other ſpheres as impoſſible. The cold of the ſuperior regions of the atmoſphere would not prevent it: evaporation takes place in the moſt intenſe cold; nor would the ſmall denſity of theſe upper regions be an obſtacle; for evaporation takes place even in the vacuum of the air-pump. Moreover, the ſolar atmoſphere, which envelopes the terreſtrial, would favour ſuch evaporation. Nevertheleſs, this cauſe ought not, according to analogy, to produce any great diminution of waters on the ſurface of the globe. It remains, then, that they muſt have taken refuge in its interior:—but how did this happen? In all ſyſtems, internal cavities are ſuppoſed. Their exiſtence is not hypothetical. It reſts on facts. They muſt be under all volcanoes. From the great extent to which earthquakes are felt, there are evidently fiſſures and caverns, that reach to immenſe diſtances. They muſt paſs under the ſea; and the water of the ſea finds its way into them. There are inſtances of this water having penetrated into the interior of volcanoes. They will therefore precipitate themſelves into the deep abyſſes, and be buried there. Now, this author thinks that theſe cavities are large enough to abſorb the maſs of water that has diſappeared

peared from the ſurface of the earth.—As to the formation of theſe cavities, he obſerves that it was effected at the time of the cryſtallization of the globe. They were filled at firſt with elaſtic fluids, which were gradually diſſipated by different cauſes. Afterward, the waters took their place. Some caverns have been formed by ſubterraneous fires:—but the moſt powerful cauſe has been the refrigeration of the globe. The author thinks (vol. v. p. 332) that, though the ſurface of the globe has been brought to its preſent ſtate by the action of water, it may, at the firſt moment of its formation, have undergone a very great degree of heat, as happens to a comet paſſing near the ſun. The aqueous cryſtallization of ſtrata has been before ſtrongly maintained: but we do not feel inclined to receive it as a ſolution of the various contortions of ſtrata, and of the curious poſition of the ſteeps, &c. The whole theory of this writer appears unſatisfactory. Inſtead of a comprehenſive plan, derived from an accurate ſurvey of nature, he has formed a Moſaic work, compoſed of pieces picked from different theoriſts. Had he obſerved for himſelf, he would not have believed the cauſes of confuſion, in the ſtrata of the earth, to have been ſo confined in their operation. He muſt alſo have perceived that their irregularity is not for the moſt part original, nor derived from cryſtallization, but the work of agents that have broken and diſturbed what was once continuous and uniform.

The lateſt work on geology with which we are acquainted, was publiſhed in 1797, by P. Howard, Eſq. intitled "Thoughts on the Structure of the Globe." A principal object of this work is, to refute thoſe theories which endeavour to place the origin of our globe anterior to the time ſtated by Moſes; or, as having been brought into exiſtence in any manner different from that expreſſed in the holy ſcriptures; or, that ſhall apply the preſent appearance of the earth's ſurface, to any other cauſe than that of a general deluge. The writings of Buffon are thought by Mr. Howard to furniſh many proofs of the above-mentioned nature. "The manifeſt object of his theory, ſays Mr. H. is to exclude the agency of a divine architect, by proving the poſſibility of the actual exiſtence of the univerſe from natural cauſes; but ſolid matter is of itſelf inert: whence, then, aroſe its activity? From heat or fire. Whence that fire? From the preſſure of attraction. Whence that attraction? No anſwer has been nor can be given, without recurring to the will of a Supreme Being. The hypotheſis of the igneous formation of the globe is replete with the moſt ſerious difficulties. That all terreſtrial bodies are vitrifiable by heat is an aſſumption contradicted by experiment: but, admitting the fact, is the being vitrifiable a proof of having been vitrified? After all, M. de Buffon is compelled to have recourſe to water to re-model the ſurface of the earth, and to produce thoſe varieties which could never have been effected by fuſion. But none of thoſe difficulties attend the account furniſhed to us by the ſcriptures. The philoſopher will find in the narration of Moſes, that the firſt elements of all material ſubſtances are there repreſented in one confuſed maſs, called the *abyſs*, without motion or animation; and that the preſent order of things was gradually and at diſtinct intervals drawn from it. In the commencement of each of theſe periods, diſtinct commands are given by the Creator, and diſtinct effects are produced before its cloſe. May he not conſider theſe commands as diſtinct laws impreſſed on nature, by whoſe operation theſe effects were generated and completed within the appointed time? In that idea he will apply to each command ſome one or more of thoſe well-known laws, and compare the effects which ſuch might have produced with the effects ſaid to be produced by that command; and in like manner progreſſively, until by their ſucceſſive application and re-union all material bodies are brought into that arrangement and order we now ſee exiſting. Theſe primary laws may be reduced to general and elective attraction; repulſion and re-action; gravity ſpecific or general; centripetal and centrifugal forces, nearly but not entirely balancing each other, ſo as to form ſpheroids inſtead of perfect globes, and to deſcribe ellipſes inſtead of circles; gravitation central and univerſal. If the progreſſive formation which Moſes deſcribes could be produced by the ſucceſſive application of theſe known means, in ſome one order which may be imagined and deviſed, the greateſt poſſible weight will certainly be given to his account of the creation; and the real ſecret of nature, as far as human underſtanding can dive, will be nearly diſcovered. Thoſe, therefore, who overlooking the marks of deſign univerſally exhibited in the works of creation, and in the adaptation of means to their reſpective ends, exclude the operation of a ſupreme intelligent architect, muſt feel it incumbent on them to demonſtrate, at leaſt to their own ſatisfaction, the poſſibility of this fair form of things exiſting as we behold it, by the ſole operation of the properties inherent to material ſubſtances.

The earth, ſays Mr. H. was originally conſtructed with its poles perpendicular to the equator, the centre of gravity in its centre, and the year conſiſted of 360 days. Leſs prominent inequalities, and a more equal diſtribution of land and ſea on its ſurface, occaſioned a more ſalubrious and equal temperature of the atmoſphere, atteſted by the longevity of its firſt inhabitants. The termination of this golden age might have been affected by the proximity of a comet, condenſing the vapours of the atmoſphere, and attracting the ſubterraneous waters; which, burſting open the vaults of the exterior ſurface, precipitated indiſcriminate portions of the primitive earth into their profound cavities. The more perfect conſolidation of the globe, in the ſouthern hemiſphere, changed the centre of gravity, which produced a proportionate deviation from the exact tract of the equator. It is, however, poſſible that the ocean did not at once ſink to its preſent level: the poſterior acceſſion of waters from hitherto inland ſeas may have cruſhed down other inferior vaults, and finally ſettled its loweſt degradation. As the lands thus became more elevated above the bed of the ocean, the cold became more intenſe; the viciſſitudes of climate were more ſeverely felt; and the life of man experienced a proportionate abbreviation. Thus we find that the age of the poſt-diluvian patriarchs was protracted to the age of 450 years, till the laſt great changes were effected, when the life of man was diminiſhed to its preſent extent.

Having cloſed his analyſis and refutation of Buffon's celebrated theory, Mr. Howard proceeds to conſider thoſe of other writers; and concludes that the real proceſs of nature ſince the deluge, is to level heights and to raiſe the ſubjacent valleys; from which imperceptible but conſtant operation, aided by the increaſing cultivation and population of the north, a milder temperature of the atmoſphere may eventually be predicted. He then ſuggeſts the following obſervations, equally ſolid and ingenious, as a complete refutation of the precipitate concluſions deduced from the phenomena attendant on volcanic eruptions: "Sir William Hamilton, Mr. Ferber, and Mr. Brydone, the two former of whom have particularly applied themſelves to the ſtudy of volcanos, without giving general ſyſtems, have affirmed that the certain indications furniſhed by theſe phenomena announce, beyond all poſſibility of doubt, not one but many revolutions in this globe, during an infinity of ages; inſomuch that the poor abbé Recupero trembles for the credit of the Old Teſtament. Seams of vegetable earth repeated at ſeveral depths, frequently found under and over diſtinct and ſucceſſive beds of hard lava, and the whole exteriorly covered with vegetable earth, compoſed of the mouldered ſcoria of lava, whilſt in other places lavas are found as intact as when firſt iſſuing from the mountain, appear to theſe gentlemen certain and undeniable proofs of the incalculable antiquity of volcanos, and conſequently of the earth itſelf. Theſe philoſophers do not recollect,

recollect that Herculaneum, the date of whose destruction is well known, is covered by nearly seventy feet of lava, interspersed with seven distinct seams of friable earth, the whole covered with good soil. Yet all this has been the undoubted produce of less than 1800 years!"

It appears to Mr. Howard, that M. de Saussure, in conceding the infinitely removed origin of what he terms the carcass of the globe, has not adverted to the heterogeneous assemblages which much have been produced by the deluge; and which, to a mind acquainted with the celerity of chemical processes, must prove the possibility of every alteration attested by natural phenomena having happened within the period assigned by the sacred writers. That the omnipotent Creator must, according to this author's hypothesis, have produced the visible material universe by means of the same general laws, which are now employed to preserve it, is a mere *petitio principii*; the affirmative is incapable of proof, and if it *were* demonstrated, leads to no important conclusion. The Mosaic account of the creation implies *a distinct revelation*. Mr. Howard must have forgotten that authentic tradition could not extend to events antecedent to the existence of mankind. We may justly conclude, that men are too short-sighted to claim *wisdom* as an argument *à priori*, to establish what *are* to be the *laws of nature*, and what have been the events that have happened in the world: the only thing that our *wisdom* can pretend to reach, is to judge, *what are those laws*, and what must have been the *acting causes* to have produced certain *effects*.—See the works above alluded to; and Monthly Review, New Series, vol. 2, 3, 5, 6, 15, 24, 25.

The merits of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth have in part been recently debated between Sir James Hall, Bart. and the ingenious Mr. Kirwan. In the third and fifth volumes of the Edinburgh Transactions, Sir James Hall attempted, by several experiments, to invalidate some of the positions laid down by Mr. Kirwan, in his explanation of this Theory. In reply to these, Mr. Kirwan has published a paper in the eighth volume of Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy for 1802, with the view of examining the force of the reasoning employed by sir James, as well as of determining the consequences fairly deducible from his experiments. Some difficulties had been started against the opinion that granite was ever in a state of fusion, from the feltspar contained in it being, though the most fusible of the two substances, found in this stone with its crystals regularly defined, while the quartz formed a confused and irregular mass, moulded on the crystals of feltspar; and sir James replied to them by arguments which Mr. Kirwan here endeavours to refute. As the principal circumstances, however, on which sir James rests his opinions respecting the subject of granite, depend on some experiments on whin, we shall explain them. Whin, it may be observed, comprehends in Scotland, grunstein, basalt, trap, wacken, and porphyry; stones in which (except the last) none of the component ingredients are found regularly crystallized. Grunstein, a compound of feltspar and hornblende, intimately mixed with each other, but imperfectly and confusedly crystallized in minute grains, was the subject of the experiments here related. "This substance, (says Mr. Kirwan,) sir James vitrified by a strong heat and subsequent rapid cooling. A fragment of the glass thus produced being introduced under a narrow muffle and heated to 21°, in one minute became so soft as to yield readily to the pressure of an iron rod, but after a second minute it became quite hard, though the temperature had been stationary; the substance thus hardened underwent a thorough change, it lost its vitreous character, its fracture was like that of *porcelain*, and it was fusible only in a heat of 31°. In another experiment he found this change to take place even before the glass was in perfect fusion; for while both ends of a fragment of this glass were supported on rests of clay, it was found not to sink down between them until the heat was raised to 30°. In another experiment he found the consolidation which he calls crystallization, to take place even while the heat was gradually increased, and the substance still so viscid as to retain the original shape of the fragments. In another experiment, where the glass was slowly cooled, its texture was found completely to resemble that of whinstone, the *fracture* was *rough*, *stony*, and *crystalline*, with a number of shining facettes interspersed through the mass, and a few crystals in the cavities produced by air-bubbles."

In order to shew that these experiments are deceitful in the conclusions to which they lead, Mr. Kirwan compares the discriminating characters of natural whin with those of the artificial: "1. The *natural* whins, particularly amygdaloids (vulgarly called *toadstones*), frequently contain calcareous spar and zeolyte, now as the former contains fixed air, and the latter a large proportion of water, I hardly think sir James, who professes not to agree with Dr. Hutton in all points, will allow these to have been vitrified or fused. 2. The *natural* whins, according to Dr. Kennedy's statement, lose five per cent. of water and other volatile matter when heated to redness. It is not said whether the artificial lose any part of their weight by such treatment, but it is plain they would not, since even the lavas of Catania and Piedmont, though of ancient date, lost none, as Dr. Kennedy expressly notices, and have thus afforded an excellent criterion for distinguishing the long contested origination of these substances. 3. As sir James has neglected giving a *complete* account of the external characters of the natural whins, which were the subject of his experiments, as also of regenerated or artificial whins derived from them, and as I have not myself seen them, it is difficult for me to compare them with each other, and would indeed be impossible if some account of them had not been given by Mr. Pictet in his valuable Journal Britannique, copied into the 5th vol. of the New Rozier's Journal, p. 313. It is the result of the examination both of the natural and artificial whins by the Society of Natural History at Geneva.

"As to the natural grunstein, they remark that it betrays not the least mark of an igneous origin, but that the whins which sir James produced from it had every distinctive character of a *lava*, and even of a *porous lava*. The basalt (or rather trapp) on which the castle of Edinburgh stands, is of a compact structure; the artificial produced from it, sir James tells us, so greatly resembles it both in colour and texture that it would be difficult or perhaps impossible to distinguish them, *but for a few minute air-bubbles, distinguishable in the artificial*. Neptunists will, however, consider this as a leading character of distinction. The mineralogists of Geneva add, that the colour of the artificial is deeper, and its hardness greater, than that of the natural. If the specific gravity and other characters of both were given, it is probable that other differences might be perceived. It is only in these characters that any difference can be expected, as the internal composition must be the same in both.

"Of the remaining artificial whins I can give no account, their external characters having been omitted; I cannot, however, pass over the general inferences that sir James deduces from his experiments, namely, 'that the arguments against the subterraneous fusion of whinstone, derived from its stony character, seem now to be fully refuted;' for, not to repeat what has been already said, that many of them contain substances whose existence is incompatible with that hypothesis, I must farther add, that the upright state in which many of them exist, for instance, the basaltic pillars of Staffa, and of the Giants Causeway, and of many other countries, the basis they rest on, sometimes granite, sometimes gneis, sometimes coal or lime-stone, and the total absence of all signs of the operation of fire, forbid us to entertain any doubt of their production in the moist way. Nay, the college of Dublin now possesses fragments of basaltic pillars in

which marine ſhells are imbedded; if ſuch evidence can be reſiſted, it is in vain to ſeek for greater."

In the eſſay which the preſent paper is intended to illuſtrate, the author conſidered it as an eſtabliſhed fact, that the emerſion of ſome portion of land from the primæval ocean occurred previouſly to the creation of fiſhes. The circumſtance on which he reſted for the proof of this fact, and which accorded with the Moſaic account of the ſubject, was, that "no petrifactions were found imbedded and incorporated in maſſes of ſtone in ſuch countries as were elevated 8500 or 9000 feet above the actual level of the ſea; for inſtance, in the great Tartarian platform and the elevated regions of Siberia, though in all inferior regions of the ſame extent ſuch petrifactions were abundantly found, at leaſt in limeſtones; but even in theſe none were found in thoſe elevated tracts, as was proved by the teſtimonies of all the philoſophic travellers who have traverſed and examined them. To repel this proof of the Moſaic account, it has been replied by the laborious, learned, and eloquent, writer of the *Hiſtoire du Monde primitif*, and others, that the keen air exiſting in theſe elevated regions had long ago decompoſed and conſumed the ſhells that might have been there depoſited; but as the ſtones ſtill remain, it is evident that the ſhells incorporated in their interior muſt alſo have remained, if any ſuch were ever contained in them."

It is, however, aſſerted by Don Ulloa, in his *Mémoires Philoſophiques*, and by *Gentil*, in the Mem. Par. 1771, that ſhells have been found in the Cordelieres at the height of 13,869 Engliſh feet above the level of the ſea. That the height was ſo great as is here ſtated, the author attempts to diſprove, by the evidence of other writers; as well as from the probable inaccuracy of the barometers by which the former gentlemen made their calculation:—but, let the height be what it may, Mr. Kirwan adds, "It is certain that theſe ſhells were depoſited there after the emerſion of land from the primitive ocean, and conſequently by a ſubſequent deluge; for Don Ulloa expreſsly tells us, that in the ſame rocks in which theſe ſhells are found, *petrified wood* is alſo found, Mem. Philoſophiques, p. 372. This wood muſt have grown on dry land, and muſt have been floated when the ſhells were depoſited, ſince both are found in the ſame rocks. It muſt have been brought thither by a deluge, as no wood can at preſent grow there, as Don Ulloa alſo atteſts. The ſhells are for the moſt part bivalves, which geologiſts allow to form petrifactions of the moſt modern date."

It is a fact in geology, eſtabliſhed by numerous obſervations, that, in mountains which extend from north to ſouth, the weſtern flank is the ſteepeſt, and the eaſtern the gentleſt; and that, where they run eaſt and weſt, the ſouthern declivity is the ſteepeſt, and the northern the moſt gentle. In this paper, the author brings forward the principal facts in ſupport of that deduction; and he conſiders it as clearly proved "that mountains are not mere fortuitous eruptions, unconnected with tranſactions on the ſurface of the earth:" ſince it has been uniformly found by Forſter that "the north and north-weſt ſides are gently covered, and connected with ſecondary ſtrata, in which organic remains abound," while the ſouth and ſouth-weſt ſides are almoſt invariably ſteep. In order to account for this nearly univerſal allotment of unequal declivities to oppoſite points, and for the greateſt being directed to the weſt and ſouth, and the gentleſt to the eaſt and north, Mr. Kirwan ſuppoſes, 1ſt. That all mountains were formed while covered with water. 2d. That the earth was univerſally covered with water at two different eras, that of the creation, and that of the Noachian deluge. 3d. That in the firſt era we muſt diſtinguiſh two different periods, that which preceded the appearance of dry land, and that which ſucceeded the creation of fiſh, but before the ſea had been reduced nearly to its preſent level; during the former, the primæval mountains were formed, and during the laſt, moſt of the ſecondary mountains and ſtrata were formed. 4th. That all mountains extend either from eaſt to weſt, or from north to ſouth, or in ſome intermediate direction between theſe cardinal points; which need not be particularly mentioned here, as the ſame ſpecies of reaſoning muſt be applied to them, as to thoſe to whoſe aſpect they approach moſt. Theſe preliminary circumſtances being noticed, we are next to obſerve, that during the firſt era, this vaſt maſs of water moved in two general directions, at right angles with each other, the one from eaſt to weſt, which needs not to be proved, being the courſe of tides which ſtill continue, but were in that ocean neceſſarily ſtronger and higher than at preſent; the other from north to ſouth, the water tending to thoſe vaſt abyſſes then formed in the vicinity of the ſouth pole. Before either motion could be propagated, a conſiderable time muſt have elapſed.

Now the primæval mountains formed at the commencement of the firſt era, and before this double direction of the waters took place, muſt have oppoſed a conſiderable obſtacle to the motion of that fluid in the ſenſe that croſſed that of the direction of theſe mountains. Thus the mountains that ſtretch from north to ſouth, muſt have oppoſed the motion of the waters from eaſt to weſt: this oppoſition, diminiſhing the motion of that fluid, diſpoſed it to ſuffer the earthy particles with which in thoſe early periods it muſt have been impregnated to cryſtallize, or be depoſited on theſe eaſtern flanks, and particularly on thoſe of the higheſt mountains, for over the lower it could eaſily paſs; theſe depoſitions, being inceſſantly repeated at heights gradually diminiſhing as the level of the waters gradually lowered, muſt have rendered the eaſtern declivities or deſcents, gentle, gradual, and moderate, while the weſtern ſides receiving no ſuch acceſſions from depoſitions muſt have remained ſteep and craggy. Again, the primæval mountains that run from eaſt to weſt, by oppoſing a ſimilar reſiſtance to the courſe of the waters from north to ſouth, muſt have occaſioned ſimilar depoſitions on the northern ſides of theſe mountains againſt which theſe waters impinged, and thus ſmoothed them. Where mountains interſect each other in an oblique direction, the north-eaſt ſide of one range being contiguous to the ſouth-weſt flanks of another range, there the afflux of adventitious particles on the north-eaſt ſide of the one, muſt have frequently extended to the ſouth-weſt ſide of the other, particularly if that afflux were ſtrong and copious.

It has of late been very much the vogue, particularly among the French writers, to endeavour to carry up the antiquity of the earth far beyond that which our received chronology attributes to it. This fancy has been greatly ſtimulated by ſome ancient monuments and inſcriptions diſcovered by the French during their late expedition in Egypt; particularly different figures of the zodiac, in one of which the ſolſtice is indicated in Virgo; and another found in the great temple of Dendara, repreſents the ſun in Leo, approaching Cancer. According to ſuch conſtructions of the zodiac, ſay theſe philoſophers, we muſt go back from the preſent period 15,000 years; and even then we ſhall only arrive at the time in which the figures of the zodiac were contrived: but the world may have undergone many previous revolutions.

With all the ſemblance of ſagacity and truth which accompanies this mode of argument, nothing can be more unphiloſophical than the inference. Is it not an admitted fact, that one of the firſt efforts of aſtronomers, after their ſcience had attained a certain degree of perfection, was to draw from it ſuch modes of arrangement and calculation as might be uſeful in adjuſting the *current* time; and that the period from which they *ſuppoſed* their account to ſet out was in a great meaſure *arbitrary*, depending on the multiplication of cycles into each other, counting backward from any poſition of the heavenly bodies in the then current age, to the period in which theſe bodies (according to their tables) muſt have ſtood in a poſition fitting the purpoſe they had in view? In proof of this, does

not

not the evidence adduced in different papers in the Aſiatic Reſearches amount almoſt to a demonſtration that, excepting a period which accords very well with the Scripture accounts, the whole Bramin chronology of *myriads* of years is merely a clumſy aſtronomical fiction, which at firſt was not even intended to deceive? We may alſo ſtate another well-known fact, that it was long a favourite opinion with aſtrologers, that all the planets muſt have been in conjunction in the firſt ſcruple of the ſign Aries when the world began; becauſe then, according to their notion, was the proper time to begin a year. Others might have contended for a different arrangement, i. e. a differently conſtructed zodiac; but whichever had the greateſt number of ſuffrages at any period, can never prove any thing as to the fact in queſtion. But, not to dwell on a ſubject ſo unfounded, or on the early propenſity of different nations to *forge* for themſelves an high antiquity, is it not known to every one that the Julian period had an arbitrary commencement? If the hiſtory of this fact had been loſt, and correſponding zodiacs had been found, would it have been correct to have inferred that they were made 6500 years ago?—See the article CHRONOLOGY.

EARTH-BAG, *ſ.* in fortification, a bag filled with earth, a ſand-bag to keep off the ſhot of the enemy.

EARTH-BOARD, *ſ.* The board of the plough that ſhakes off the earth.—The plough reckoned the moſt proper for ſtiff black clays, is one that is long, large, and broad, with a deep head and a ſquare *earth-board*, ſo as to turn up a great furrow. *Mortimer.*

EARTH-BORN, *adj.* Born of the earth; terrigenous:

The God for ever great, for ever king,
Who ſlew the *earth-born* race, and meaſures right
To heav'n's great habitants! *Prior.*

Meanly born.—*Earth-born* Lycon ſhall aſcend the throne. *Smith.*

EARTH-BOUND, *adj.* Faſtened by the preſſure of the earth:

Who can impreſs the foreſt, bid the tree
Unfix his *earth-bound* root? *Shakeſpeare.*

EARTH-FLAX, *ſ.* A kind of fibrous foſſil. See AMIANTHUS, vol. i. p. 474.—Of Engliſh talc, the coarſer ſort is called plaiſter, or parget; the finer *earth-flax*, or ſalamander's hair. *Woodward.*

EARTH-NUT. See ARACHIS and BUNIUM.

EARTH-PEA. See LATHYRUS.

EARTH-SHAKING, *adj.* Having power to ſhake the earth, or to raiſe earthquakes:

Now ſcarce withdrawn the fierce *earth-ſhaking* pow'r,
Jove's daughter Pallas watch'd the fav'ring hour;
Back to their caves ſhe bade the winds to fly,
And huſh'd the bluſt'ring brethren of the ſky. *Pope.*

EARTH-WORM, *ſ.* The common worm bred under ground. For its natural hiſtory, ſee the article LUMBRICUS.—Upon a ſhower, after a drought, *earth-worms* and land-ſnails innumerable come out of their lurking places. *Ray.*—A mean ſordid wretch:

Thy vain contempt, dull *earth-worm* ceaſe;
I won't for refuge fly. *Norris.*

EAR'THEN, *adj.* Made of earth; made of clay.—The moſt brittle water-carriage was uſed among the Egyptians, who, as Strabo ſaith, would ſail ſometimes in boats made of *earthen* ware. *Arbuthnot.*

EAR'THINESS, or EARTHLINESS, *ſ.* The quality of containing earth; groſſneſs.

EARTH'ING, *part. adj.* Covering with earth, driving to the earth, as a fox or badger in hunting.

EARTH'LING, *ſ.* An inhabitant of the earth; a mortal; a poor frail creature.—To *earthlings*, the foot-ſtool of God, that ſtage which he raiſed for a ſmall time, ſeemeth magnificent. *Drummond.*

EAR'THLY, *adj.* Not heavenly; vile; mean; ſordid:

When faith and love, which parted from thee never,
Had ripen'd thy juſt ſoul to dwell with God,
Meekly thou didſt reſign this *earthly* load
Of death, call'd life. *Milton.*

Belonging only to our preſent ſtate; not ſpiritual.—It muſt be our ſolemn buſineſs and endeavour, at fit ſeaſons, to turn the ſtream of our thoughts from *earthly* towards divine objects. *Atterbury.*—Corporeal; not mental:

Sudden he view'd, in ſpite of all her art,
An *earthly* lover lurking at her heart. *Pope.*

Any thing in the world; a female hyperbole:

Oh! if to dance all night, and dreſs all day,
Charm'd the ſmall-pox, or chas'd old age away,
Who would not ſcorn what houſewife's cares produce?
Or who would learn one *earthly* thing of uſe? *Pope.*

EARTH'QUAKE, *ſ.* A tremulous motion or convulſion of the earth, generally attended with noiſes under ground; often deſtroying towns and cities, ſubverting rocks, altering the courſe of rivers, and producing the moſt terrible devaſtations. Many fanciful and ſuperſtitious notions have in various ages been ſuggeſted as ſupernatural cauſes of earthquakes; but the late advances made in chemical knowledge contribute greatly to diſpel this miſt of ignorance, and to point out to the geologiſt and philoſopher a more rational theory of this ſtupendous effort of nature. But before we enter upon an explanation of this theory, it will be proper to enumerate the awful effects of ſome of the moſt dreadful earthquakes recorded in hiſtory, as well as to notice the phenomena of thoſe of the lateſt date.

In 1692, an earthquake happened in the iſland of Jamaica, attended with the moſt terrible circumſtances. In two minutes, it deſtroyed the town of Port Royal, at that time the capital of the iſland; and ſunk the houſes in a gulf forty fathoms deep. It was attended with a rumbling noiſe like that of diſtant thunder: the ſtreets roſe like the waves of the ſea; firſt lifting up the houſes, and then immediately throwing them down into deep pits. The wells diſcharged their waters with violent agitation. The ſea burſt over its bounds, and deluged all that ſtood in its way. The fiſſures of the earth were in ſome places ſo great, that one of the ſtreets appeared twice as broad as formerly. In many places it opened and cloſed again; and continued this agitation for ſome time. In ſome of them, the people were ſwallowed up at once; in others, the earth caught them by the middle, and cruſhed them to death; while others, more fortunate, were ſwallowed up in one chaſm, and thrown out alive by another. Other chaſms were large enough to ſwallow up whole ſtreets; and others, ſtill more formidable, ſpouted up immenſe quantities of water, drowning ſuch as the earthquake had ſpared. Yet, ſo great a ſufferer as Port Royal was, more houſes were left ſtanding therein than on the whole iſland beſides. Scarce a planting-houſe, or ſugar-houſe, was left above ground in all Jamaica; and, in lieu of them, appeared great pools of water; which, when dried up, left nothing but ſand, without any mark that either tree or plant had ever grown thereon. Moſt of the rivers were ſtopped in their courſe by the falling of the mountains; till, ſwelling up, they made themſelves new channels: and, it is ſhocking to relate, that the earthquake is ſaid to have ſwept away above 3000 perſons.

Another terrible account is that given by Kircher, of the earthquake which happened in Calabria in 1638. "On the 24th of March (ſays Kircher), we launched, in a ſmall boat, from the harbour of Meſſina in Sicily, and arrived the ſame day at the promontory of Pelorus. Our deſtination was for the city of Euphemia in Calabria; but on account of the weather, we were obliged to continue three days at Pelorus. At length, wearied with the delay, we reſolved to proſecute our voyage; and although the ſea ſeemed more than uſually agitated, yet we ventured

tured forward. The gulph of Charybdis, which we approached, ſeemed whirled round in ſuch a manner as to form a vaſt hollow, verging to a point in the center. Proceeding onward, and turning my eyes to mount Etna, I ſaw it caſt forth large volumes of ſmoke, which covered the iſland, and blotted out even the ſhores from my view. This, together with the dreadful noiſe, and the ſulphureous ſtench, which was ſtrongly perceived, filled me with apprehenſions that ſome more dreadful calamity was impending. The ſea itſelf ſeemed to wear a very unuſual appearance; thoſe who have ſeen a lake in a violent ſhower of rain all covered over with bubbles, will have ſome idea of its agitations. My ſurpriſe was ſtill increaſed by the calmneſs and ſerenity of the weather; not a breeze, not a cloud, which might be ſuppoſed to put all nature thus into motion. I therefore warned my companion, that an earthquake was approaching; and, after ſome time, making for the ſhore with all poſſible diligence, we landed at Tropæa. But we had ſcarce arrived at the jeſuits college in that city, when our ears were ſtunned with an horrid ſound, reſembling that of an infinite number of chariots driven fiercely forward, the wheels rattling and the thongs cracking. Soon after this, a moſt dreadful earthquake enſued; ſo that the whole träck upon which we ſtood ſeemed to vibrate, as if we were in the ſcale of a balance that continued waving. This motion, however, ſoon grew more violent; and being no longer able to keep my legs, I was thrown proſtrate upon the ground. Leaving this ſeat of deſolation, we proſecuted our voyage along the coaſt; and the next day came to Rochetta, where we landed, although the earth ſtill continued in violent agitations. But we were ſcarcely arrived at our inn, when we were once more obliged to return to our boat; and in about half an hour we ſaw the greateſt part of the town daſhed to the ground, burying its inhabitants beneath its ruins. Proceeding onward in our veſſel, we again landed at Lopizium, a caſtle midway between Tropæa and Euphemia, the city to which we were bound. Here, wherever I turned my eyes, nothing but ſcenes of ruin and horror appeared; towns and caſtles were levelled to the ground; Stromboli, though ſixty miles diſtant, belched forth flames with ſuch uncommon violence as to be diſtinctly heard. But my attention was quickly turned to more contiguous danger. The place on which we ſtood now began to ſhake; ſo that, being unable to ſtand, we caught hold of whatever ſhrub grew next us, and ſupported ourſelves in that manner. After ſome time, the concuſſion ceaſing, we again ſtood up, in order to proſecute our voyage to Euphemia, then within ſight. But while we were preparing for this purpoſe, I turned my eyes towards the city; but could ſee only a frightful dark cloud, that ſeemed to reſt upon the place. This the more ſurpriſed us, as the weather was ſo very ſerene. We waited, therefore, till the cloud was paſſed away: then turning to look for the city, it was totally ſunk; and nothing but a diſmal and putrid lake was to be ſeen where it ſtood."

In 1693 an earthquake happened in Sicily, which may juſtly be accounted one of the moſt terrible of which we have any account. It ſhook the whole iſland: and not only that, but Naples and Malta partook of the ſhock. It was impoſſible for any body to keep on their legs; and even thoſe that lay on the ground were toſſed from ſide to ſide as on a rolling billow. Fifty-four cities and towns, beſide an incredible number of villages, were either deſtroyed or greatly damaged. We ſhall only inſtance the fate of Catania, once the reſidence of ſeveral monarchs, and an univerſity. Father Antony Serrovita, being on his way thither, and at the diſtance of a few miles, obſerved a black cloud like night hovering over the city; and there aroſe from the volcano of Montgibello great ſpires of flame, which ſpread all around. The ſea all at once began to roar, as in a violent tempeſt; accompanied with a noiſe as great as if all the artillery in the world had been diſcharged at one ſignal. His horſes ſtopped ſhort, as if petrified; ſo that they were forced to alight. They were no ſooner off, but they were lifted from the ground above two palms; when caſting his eyes towards Catania, he with amazement ſaw nothing but a thick cloud of duſt in the air. This was the ſcene of their calamity; for of the magnificent Catania, there was not the leaſt footſtep to be ſeen. S. Bonajutus aſſures us, that of 18,900 inhabitants, 18,000 periſhed therein!

The next great earthquake was felt on the 1ſt of November 1755. At Liſbon, the capital of Portugal, its effects were moſt ſevere. In 1750, there had been a ſenſible trembling of the earth felt in this city: for four years afterwards, there had been an exceſſive drought; inſomuch that ſome ſprings, formerly very plentiful of water, were dried and totally loſt. The predominant winds were north and north-eaſt, accompanied with various, though very ſmall, tremors of the earth. The year 1755 proved very wet and rainy; the ſummer cooler than uſual; and for forty days before the earthquake, the weather was clear, but not remarkably ſo. The laſt day of October, the ſun was obſcured, with a remarkable gloomineſs in the atmoſphere. The firſt of November, early in the morning, a thick fog aroſe, which was ſoon diſſipated by the heat of the ſun; no wind was ſtirring; the ſea was calm; and the weather as warm as in June or July in this country. At thirty-five minutes after nine, without the leaſt warning, except a rumbling noiſe, a moſt dreadful earthquake ſhook, by quick vibrations, the foundations of all the city, ſo that many buildings inſtantly fell. Then, with ſcarcely a perceptible pauſe, the nature of the motion was changed, and the houſes were toſſed from ſide to ſide, with a motion like that of a waggon violently driven over rough ſtones. This ſecond ſhock laid almoſt the whole city in ruins, with prodigious ſlaughter of the people. The earthquake laſted in all about ſix minutes. At the moment of its beginning, ſome perſons on the river, near a mile from the city, heard their boat make a noiſe as if it had run aground, though they were then in deep water; and at the ſame time they ſaw the houſes falling on both ſides of the river. The bed of the Tagus was in many places raiſed to its ſurface. Ships were driven from their anchors. A large new quay ſunk to an unfathomable depth, with ſeveral hundreds of people who were upon it; nor was one of the dead bodies ever found. The bar of the harbour was at firſt ſeen dry from ſhore to ſhore: but ſuddenly the ſea came rolling in like a mountain; and about Belem Caſtle the water roſe fifty feet almoſt in an inſtant. About noon there was another ſhock; when the walls of ſeveral houſes that yet remained were ſeen to open from top to bottom more than a quarter of a yard, and afterwards cloſed again ſo exactly that ſcarcely any mark of the injury was left.

At Colares, about twenty miles from Liſbon, and two miles from the ſea, on the firſt of November, the day broke with a ſerene ſky, the wind continuing at eaſt; but about nine o'clock the ſun began to grow dim; and about half an hour after was heard a rumbling noiſe like that of chariots, which increaſed to ſuch a degree that it became equal to the exploſions of the largeſt cannon. Immediately a ſhock of an earthquake was felt, which was quickly ſucceeded by a ſecond and third; and at the ſame time ſeveral light flames of fire iſſued from the mountains, reſembling the kindling of charcoal. In theſe three ſhocks, the walls of the buildings moved from eaſt to weſt.

At Oporto, the earthquake began about forty minutes paſt nine. The ſky was very ſerene; when a hollow noiſe like that of thunder, or the rattling of coaches at a diſtance, was heard, and almoſt at the ſame inſtant the earth began to ſhake. In the ſpace of a minute or two, the river roſe and fell five or ſix feet, and continued to do ſo for four hours. It ran up at firſt with ſo much violence, that it broke a ſhip's hawſer. In ſome parts the river opened, and ſeemed to diſcharge vaſt quantities of air; and the agitation in the ſea was ſo great about a league

league beyond the bar, that air was ſuppoſed to have been diſcharged there alſo. St. Ube's, a ſea-port about twenty miles ſouth of Liſbon, was entirely ſwallowed up. Huge pieces of rock were detached at the ſame time from the promontory at the weſt end of the town, which conſiſts of a chain of mountains.

The ſame earthquake was felt all over Spain, except in Catalonia, Arragon, and Valencia. At Ayamonte, (near where the Guadiana falls into the bay of Cadiz,) a little before ten o'clock on the firſt of November, the earthquake was felt; having been immediately preceded by a hollow ruſhing noiſe. Here the ſhocks continued for fourteen or fifteen minutes, damaged almoſt all the buildings, throwing down ſome, and leaving others irreparably ſhattered. In little more than half an hour after, the ſea and river, with all the canals, overflowed their banks, laying under water all the coaſts of the iſlands adjacent to the city and its neighbourhood. On the adjacent ſhore, every thing was irrecoverably loſt; for all that was overflowed ſunk, and the beach became a ſea, without the leaſt reſemblance of what it was before.

At Cadiz, ſoon after nine in the morning, the earthquake began, and laſted about five minutes. The water of the ciſterns under ground waſhed backwards and forwards, ſo that a great froth aroſe. At ten minutes after eleven, a wave was ſeen coming from the ſea, at eight miles diſtance, at leaſt ſixty feet higher than uſual. It daſhed againſt the weſt part of the town, which is very rocky. Though theſe rocks broke a good deal of its force, it at laſt came upon the city walls, beat in the breaſt-work, and carried pieces of the building of eight or ten ton weight to the diſtance of forty or fifty yards. When the wave was gone, ſome parts that are deep at low water, were left quite dry; for the water returned with the ſame violence with which it came. At half an hour after eleven came a ſecond wave, and after that four other remarkable ones; the firſt at ten minutes before twelve; the ſecond, half an hour before one; the third, ten minutes after one; and the fourth, ten minutes before two. Similar waves, but ſmaller, and gradually leſſening, continued with uncertain intervals till the evening.

At Gibraltar, this earthquake was not felt till after ten. It began with a tremulous motion of the earth, which laſted about half a minute. Then followed a violent ſhock; after that, a trembling of the earth for five or ſix ſeconds; then another ſhock, not ſo violent as the firſt, which went off gradually as it began. The whole laſted about two minutes. Some of the guns on the battery were ſeen to riſe, others to ſink, the earth having an undulating motion. Moſt people were ſeized with giddineſs and ſickneſs, and ſome fell down; others were ſtupified; and many that were walking or riding felt no motion in the earth, but were ſick. The ſea roſe ſix feet every fifteen minutes; and then fell ſo low that boats and all the ſmall craft near the ſhore were left aground, as were alſo numbers of ſmall fiſh. The flux and reflux laſted till next morning, having decreaſed gradually from two in the afternoon.

At Madrid the earthquake came on at the ſame time as at Gibraltar, and laſted about ſix minutes. At firſt every body thought they were ſeized with a ſwimming in their heads; and afterwards, that the houſes were falling. It was not felt in coaches, nor by thoſe who walked on foot, except very ſlightly; and no accident happened, except that two lads were killed by the fall of a ſtone croſs from the porch of a church. Malaga alſo felt a violent ſhock; the bells rang in the ſteeples; the water of a well overflowed, and as ſuddenly retired. At Seville ſeveral houſes were ſhaken down; the famous tower of the cathedral called *La Giralda* opened in the four ſides; and the waters were ſo violently agitated, that all the veſſels in the river were driven aſhore.

In Africa, the ſame earthquake was felt almoſt as ſeverely as it had been in Europe. Great part of the town of Algiers was deſtroyed. At Arzilla, in the kingdom of Fez, about ten in the morning, the ſea ſuddenly roſe with ſuch impetuoſity, that it lifted up a veſſel in the bay, and dropped it with ſuch force on the land, that it was broken to pieces; and a boat was found two muſket-ſhot within land from the ſea. At Fez and Mequinez, great numbers of houſes fell down, and a multitude of the people were buried in the ruins. At Morocco, by the falling down of a great number of houſes, many people loſt their lives: and about eight leagues from the city the earth opened and ſwallowed up a village with all the inhabitants, who were known by the name of the *Sons of Beſumba*, to the number of from eight to ten thouſand perſons. At Salle, near a third part of the houſes were overthrown; the waters ruſhed into the city with great rapidity, and left behind them great quantities of fiſh. At Tangier, the earthquake began at ten in the morning, and laſted ten or twelve minutes. The ſea came up to the walls (a thing never heard of before); and went down immediately with the ſame rapidity with which it aroſe, leaving a great quantity of fiſh behind. Theſe commotions were repeated eighteen times, and laſted till ſix in the evening.

In the city of Funchal, in the iſland of Madeira, a ſhock of this earthquake was firſt perceived at thirty-eight minutes paſt nine in the morning. It was preceded by a rumbling noiſe, like that of empty carriages paſſing haſtily over a ſtone pavement. The obſerver felt the floor immediately to move with a tremulous motion, vibrating very quickly. The ſhock continued more than a minute; during which ſpace, the vibrations, though continual, were weakened and increaſed in force twice very ſenſibly. The increaſe after the firſt remiſſion of the ſhock was the moſt intenſe. The noiſe in the air accompanied the ſhock during the whole of its continuance, and laſted ſome ſeconds after the motion of the earth had ceaſed; dying away like a peal of diſtant thunder rolling through the air. At three quarters paſt eleven, the ſea, which was quite calm, retired ſuddenly ſome paces; then riſing with a great ſwell without the leaſt noiſe, and as ſuddenly advancing, overflowed the ſhore, and entered the city. It roſe fifteen feet perpendicular above the high-water mark, although the tide, which flows there ſeven feet, was then at half ebb. The water immediately receded; and after having fluctuated four or five times between high and low water mark, it ſubſided, and the ſea remained calm as before. In the northern part of the iſland the inundation was more violent, the ſea there retiring above one thouſand paces at firſt, and ſuddenly returning, overflowed the ſhore, forcing open doors, breaking down the walls of ſeveral magazines and ſtorehouſes, leaving great quantities of fiſh aſhore and in the ſtreets of the village of Machico.

Theſe were the principal phenomena with which this remarkable earthquake was attended in thoſe places where it was violent. The effects of it, however, reached to an immenſe diſtance; and were perceived chiefly by the agitations of the waters, or ſome ſlight motion of the earth. The utmoſt boundaries of this earthquake to the ſouth are unknown; the barbarity of the African nations rendering it impoſſible to procure any intelligence from them, except where the effects were dreadful. On the north, however, we are aſſured, that it reached as far as Norway and Sweden. In many places alſo of Germany its effects were very perceptible. Throughout the duchy of Holſtein, the waters were violently agitated, particularly thoſe of the Elbe and Trave. In Brandenburg, the water of a lake called *Libſee*, ebbed and flowed ſix times in half an hour, with a dreadful noiſe, the weather being then perfectly calm. The ſame agitation was obſerved in the waters of the lakes called *Muplgatz* and *Netze*; but at this laſt place they alſo emitted an intolerable ſtench. In Holland, the agitations were more remarkable. At Alphen on the Rhine, between Leyden and Woerden, in the afternoon of the firſt of November, the waters were agitated to ſuch a violent degree, that buoys were broken from their chains, large veſſels ſnapped their cables, ſmaller ones were thrown out of the water upon the

land, and others lying on land were ſet afloat. At Amſterdam, about eleven in the forenoon, the air being perfectly calm, the waters were ſuddenly agitated in their canals, ſo that ſeveral boats broke looſe; chandeliers were obſerved to vibrate in the churches; but no motion of the earth, or concuſſion of any building, was obſerved. At Haerlem, in the forenoon, for near four minutes together, not only the water in the rivers, canals, &c. but alſo all kinds of fluids in ſmaller quantities, as in coolers, tubs, backs, &c. were ſurpriſingly agitated, and daſhed over the ſides, though no motion was perceptible in the veſſels themſelves. In theſe ſmall quantities alſo the fluid apparently aſcended prior to its turbulent motion; and in many places, even the rivers and canals roſe twelve inches perpendicular. At Leyden, between half an hour after ten and eleven in the forenoon, the waters roſe ſuddenly in ſome of the canals, and made ſeveral very ſenſible undulations, ſo that the boats were ſtrongly agitated.

Round the iſland of Corſica, the ſea was violently agitated, and moſt of the rivers of the iſland overflowed their banks. In the city of Milan in Italy, and throughout that diſtrict, ſhocks were felt. At Turin in Savoy, there was felt a very violent ſhock. In Switzerland, many rivers turned ſuddenly muddy without rain. The lake of Neufchatel ſwelled to the height of near two feet above its natural level for the ſpace of a few hours. An agitation was alſo perceived in the waters of the lake of Zurich. At the iſland of Antigua, there was ſuch a ſea without the bar as had not been known in the memory of man; and after it, all the water at the wharfs, which uſed to be ſix feet deep, was not two inches. At Barbadoes, about two in the afternoon, the ſea ebbed and flowed in a ſurpriſing manner. It ran over the wharfs and ſtreets into the houſes, and continued thus ebbing and flowing till ten at night.

The agitation of the waters was perceived in many places of Great Britain and Ireland. At Barlborough in Derbyſhire, between eleven and twelve in the forenoon, in a boat-houſe on the weſt ſide of a large body of water called *Pibley Dam*, ſuppoſed to cover at leaſt thirty acres of land, was heard a ſurpriſing noiſe; a large ſwell of water came in a current from the ſouth, and roſe two feet on the dam-head at the north end of the water. It then ſubſided; but returned again immediately, though with leſs violence. The water was thus agitated for three quarters of an hour; but the current grew every time weaker and weaker, till at laſt it entirely ceaſed. At Buſbridge in Surrey, at half an hour after ten in the morning, the weather being remarkably ſtill, without the leaſt wind, in a canal near ſeven hundred feet long and fifty-eight feet broad, with a ſmall ſpring conſtantly running through it, a very unuſual noiſe was heard at the eaſt end, and the water there obſerved to be in great agitation. It raiſed itſelf in a heap or ridge in the middle; and this heap extended lengthwiſe about thirty yards, riſing between two or three feet above the uſual level. After this, the ridge vibrated towards the north ſide of the canal, with great force, and flowed above eight feet over the graſs walk on that ſide. On its return back into the canal, it again ridged in the middle, and then heeled with yet greater force to the ſouth ſide, and flowed over its graſs walk. During this latter motion, the bottom on the north ſide was left dry for ſeveral feet. This appearance laſted near a quarter of an hour, after which the water became ſmooth and quiet as before. During the whole time, the ſand at the bottom was thrown up and mixed with the water; and there was a continual noiſe like that of water turning a mill. At Cobham in Surrey, between ten and eleven o'clock, a perſon was watering a horſe at a pond fed by ſprings. Whilſt the animal was drinking, the water ſuddenly ran away from him, and moved towards the ſouth with ſuch ſwiftneſs that the bottom of the pond was left bare. It returned again with ſuch impetuoſity that the man leaped backwards to ſecure himſelf from its ſudden approach. The ducks were alarmed at the firſt agitation, and inſtantly flew all out of the pond. At Dunſtall in Suffolk, the water of a pond roſe gradually for ſeveral minutes in the form of a pyramid, and fell down like a water-ſpout. Other ponds in the neighbourhood had a ſmooth flux and reflux from one end to the other.

Near the city of Durham, about half an hour after ten, a gardener was alarmed by a ſudden ruſhing noiſe from a pond, as if the head of the pond had been broken down; when caſting his eye on the water, he ſaw it gradually riſe up, without any fluctuating motion, till it reached a grate which ſtood ſome inches higher than the common water level. After this it ſubſided, and then ſwelled again; thus continuing to riſe and fall during the ſpace of ſix or ſeven minutes, making four or five returns in the ſpace of one minute. The pond was about forty yards long and ten broad. At Earſy Court, Berks, about eleven o'clock, as a gardener was ſtanding by a fiſh-pond, he felt a violent trembling of the earth, which laſted about a minute. Immediately after, he obſerved a motion of the water from the ſouth to the north end of the pond, leaving the bottom at the ſouth end altogether dry for about ſix feet. It then returned, and flowed at the ſouth end, riſing three feet up the ſlope bank; and immediately after returned to the north bank, riſing there alſo about three feet. In the time between the flux and reflux, the water ſwelled up in the middle of the pond, collected in a ridge about twenty inches higher than the level on each ſide, and boiled like a pot. This agitation from ſouth to north laſted about four minutes. At Eaton-bridge, Kent, in a pond about an acre in ſize, a dead calm, and no wind ſtirring, ſome perſons heard a noiſe, and imagining ſomething had been tumbling in, ran to ſee what was the matter. On their arrival at the pond, to their ſurpriſe they ſaw the water open in the middle, ſo that they could ſee a poſt a good way down, almoſt to the bottom. The water in the mean time daſhed up over a bank two feet high, and perpendicular to the pond. This was repeated ſeveral times with a great noiſe.

At Eyam-bridge, Derbyſhire, in the Peak, the overſeer of the lead-mines ſitting in his writing-room about eleven o'clock, felt a ſudden ſhock, which very ſenſibly raiſed him up in his chair, and cauſed ſeveral pieces of plaſter to drop from the ſides of the room. The roof was ſo violently ſhaken, that he imagined the engine ſhaft had been falling in. Upon this he immediately ran to ſee what was the matter, but found every thing in perfect ſafety. At this time two miners were employed in carting the ore and other materials to be raiſed up at the ſhafts. The drift in which they were working was about 120 yards deep, and the ſpace from one end to the other fifty yards or upwards. The miner at the end of the drift had juſt loaded his cart, and was drawing it along; but he was ſuddenly ſurpriſed by a ſhock, which ſo terrified him, that he immediately quitted his employment, and ran to the weſt end of the drift to his partner, who was no leſs terrified than himſelf. They durſt not attempt to climb the ſhaft, leſt that ſhould be running in upon them; but while they were conſulting what means they ſhould take for their ſafety, they were ſurpriſed by a ſecond ſhock, more violent than the firſt; which frightened them ſo much that they both ran precipitately to the other end of the drift. They then went down to another miner who worked about twelve yards below them. He told them that the violence of the ſecond ſhock had been ſo great, that it cauſed the rocks to grind upon one another. His account was interrupted by a third ſhock, which, after an interval of four or five minutes, was ſucceeded by a fourth; and, about the ſame ſpace of time after, by a fifth; none of which were ſo violent as the ſecond. They heard, after every ſhock, a loud rumbling in the bowels of the earth, which continued about half a minute, gradually decreaſing, or ſeeming to remove to a greater diſtance. At Shirburn caſtle, Oxfordſhire, at a little after ten in the morning, a very ſtrange motion was obſerved

obſerved in the water of a moat which encompaſſes the houſe. There was a pretty thick fog, not a breath of air, and the ſurface of the water all over the moat as ſmooth as a looking-glaſs, except at one corner, where it flowed into the ſhore, and retired again ſucceſſively, in a ſurpriſing manner. The flux and reflux, when ſeen by lord viſcount Parker, were quite regular. Every flood began gently; its velocity increaſed by degrees, when at laſt it ruſhed in with great impetuoſity, till it had attained its full height. At White Rock in Glamorganſhire, about two hours ebb of the tide, and near three quarters after ſix in the evening, a vaſt quantity of water ruſhed up with a prodigious noiſe; floated two large veſſels, the leaſt of them above two hundred tons; broke their moorings, drove them acroſs the river, and had like to have overſet them. The whole riſe and fall of this extraordinary body of water did not laſt above ten minutes, nor was it felt in any other part of the river, ſo that it ſeemed to have guſhed out of the earth at that place.

At Loch Lomond in Scotland, about half an hour after nine in the morning, all of a ſudden, without the leaſt guſt of wind, the water roſe againſt its banks with great rapidity, but immediately ſubſided, till it was as low in appearance as in the greateſt ſummer-drought. A large ſtone lying at ſome diſtance from ſhore, but in ſuch ſhallow water that it could eaſily be ſeen, was forced out of its place in the lake upon dry land, leaving a deep furrow in the ground all along the way in which it had moved.

At Kinſale, in Ireland, between two and three in the afternoon, the weather being very calm, and the tide near full, a large body of water ſuddenly poured into the harbour with ſuch rapidity that it broke the cables of two ſloops, each moored with two anchors, and of ſeveral boats lying between Sicily and the town. But juſt at the time that a great deal of miſchief was apprehended by all the veſſels running foul of each other, an eddy whirled them round ſeveral times, and then hurried them back again with the ſame rapidity as before. This was ſeveral times repeated; and while the current ruſhed up at one ſide of the harbour, it poured down with equal violence at the other. A veſſel that lay all this time in the pool did not ſeem to be any ways affected by it; nor was the violence of the currents much perceived in the deeper parts of the harbour, but raged with moſt violence on the flats. The bottom of the harbour, which is muddy, was much altered; the mud being waſhed from ſome places, and depoſited in others. The waters did not riſe gradually at firſt; but, with a hollow and horrid noiſe, ruſhed in like a deluge, riſing ſix or ſeven feet in a minute, and as ſuddenly ſubſiding. From different accounts it appeared, that the water was affected in a ſimilar manner all along the coaſt to the weſtward of Kinſale.

In France, ſhocks were perceived in ſeveral places; as at Bayonne, Bourdeaux, and Lyons. Commotions of the waters alſo were obſerved at Angouleſme, Bleville, Havre de Grace, &c. but not attended with the remarkable circumſtances above mentioned.

Such were the moſt ſtriking phenomena with which the earthquake of November 1, 1755, was attended on the ſurface of the earth. Thoſe which happened below ground cannot be known but by the changes obſerved in ſprings, &c. which were in many places very remarkable. At Colares, on the afternoon of the 31ſt of October, the water of a fountain was greatly decreaſed: on the morning of the firſt of November it ran very muddy; and, after the earthquake, returned to its uſual ſtate both as to quantity and clearneſs. On the hills, numbers of rocks were ſplit; and there were ſeveral rents in the ground, but none conſiderable. In ſome places where formerly there had been no water, ſprings burſt forth, which continued to run. Some of the largeſt mountains in Portugal were impetuouſly ſhaken as it were from their foundation; moſt of them opened at their ſummits, ſplit and rent in a wonderful manner, and huge maſſes of them were thrown down into the ſubjacent valleys. From the rock called *Pedra de Alvidar*, near the hill Fojo, a kind of parapet was broken off, which was thrown up from its foundation in the ſea. At Varge, on the river Macaas, at the time of the earthquake, many ſprings of water burſt forth, ſome ſpouted to the height of 18 or 20 feet, throwing up ſand of various colours, which remained on the ground. A mountainous point, ſeven or eight leagues from St. Ube's, cleft aſunder, and threw off ſeveral vaſt maſſes of rock. In Barbary, a large hill was rent in two; the two halves fell different ways, and buried two villages. In another place, a mountain burſt open, and a ſtream iſſued from it tinged with red. At Tangier, all the fountains were dried up, ſo that there was no water to be had till night. A very remarkable change was obſerved on the medicinal waters of Toplitz, a village in Bohemia, famous for its baths. Theſe waters were firſt diſcovered in the year 762; from which time the principal ſpring of them had conſtantly thrown out hot water in the ſame quantity, and of the ſame quality. On the morning of the earthquake, between eleven and twelve in the forenoon, the principal ſpring caſt forth ſuch a quantity of water, that in the ſpace of half an hour all the baths ran over. About half an hour before this great increaſe of the water, the ſpring flowed turbid and muddy; then having ſtopped entirely for a minute, it broke forth again with prodigious violence, driving before it a conſiderable quantity of reddiſh ochre. After this it became clear, and flowed as pure as before. At Angouleſme in France, a ſubterraneous noiſe, like thunder, was heard; and preſently after the earth opened, and diſcharged a torrent of water mixed with red ſand. Moſt of the ſprings in the neighbourhood ſunk in ſuch a manner, that for ſome time they were thought to be quite dry. In England, no conſiderable alteration was obſerved in the earth, except that near the lead mine above-mentioned, in Derbyſhire, a cleft was obſerved about a foot deep, ſix inches wide, and 150 yards in length.

At ſea, the ſhocks of this earthquake were felt moſt violently. Off St. Lucar, the captain of the Nancy frigate felt his ſhip ſo violently ſhaken, that he thought ſhe had ſtruck the ground; but, on heaving the lead, found he was in a great depth of water. Captain Clark, from Denia, in lat. 36. 24. N. between nine and ten in the morning, had his ſhip ſhaken and ſtrained as if ſhe had ſtruck upon a rock, ſo that the ſeams of the deck opened, and the compaſs was overturned in the binacle. The maſter of a veſſel bound to the American iſlands, being in lat. 25. N. lon. 40. and writing in his cabin, heard a violent noiſe, as he imagined, in the ſteerage; and while he was aſking what the matter was, the ſhip was put into a ſtrange agitation, and ſeemed as if ſhe had been ſuddenly jerked up and ſuſpended by a rope faſtened to the maſt-head. He immediately ſtarted up with great aſtoniſhment; and looking out at the cabin-window, ſaw land, as he took it to be, at the diſtance of about a mile. But, coming upon the deck, the land was no more to be ſeen, but he perceived a violent current croſs the ſhip's way to the leeward. In about a minute, this current returned with great impetuoſity, and at a league's diſtance he ſaw three craggy-pointed rocks throwing up water of various colours reſembling fire. This phenomenon, in about two minutes, ended in a black cloud, which aſcended very heavily. After it had riſen above the horizon, no rocks were to be ſeen; though the cloud, ſtill aſcending, was long viſible, the weather being extremely clear.—Between nine and ten in the morning, another ſhip, forty leagues weſt of St. Vincent, was ſo ſtrongly agitated, that the anchors, which were laſhed, bounced up, and the men were thrown a foot and an half perpendicularly up from the deck. Immediately after this, the ſhip ſunk in the water as low as the main chains. The lead ſhowed a great depth of water, and the line was tinged of a yellow colour and ſmelt of ſulphur. The ſhock laſted about ten minutes, but they felt ſmaller ones for the ſpace of twenty-four hours.

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This very deſtructive earthquake is ſuppoſed to have extended over a tract of at leaſt four millions of ſquare miles. The earthquakes which happened in 1783, and which ruined a great part of Italy and Sicily, tho' much more confined in extent, ſeem to have been not at all inferior in violence.

From the moſt authentic accounts collected by his Sicilian majeſty's ſecretary of ſtate, it was learned, that the part of Calabria which had been moſt affected by this heavy calamity, is that comprehended between the 38th and 39th degree of latitude: that the greateſt force of the earthquake ſeemed to have exerted itſelf from the foot of thoſe mountains of the Appennines called the Monte Dijo, Monte Sacro, and Monte Caulene, extending weſtward to the Tyrrhene ſea: that the towns and villages neareſt theſe mountains, ſituated either on the hills or the plain, were totally ruined by the ſhock of the 5th of February about noon; that as the towns and villages were at a greater diſtance from this centre, the damage they received was leſs conſiderable; but that even theſe more diſtant towns had been greatly damaged by the ſubſequent ſhocks of the earthquakes, and effectually by thoſe of the 7th, 26th, and 28th of February, and that of the 1ſt of March; that from the firſt ſhock of the 5th of February, the earth had been in a continual tremor; and that the ſhocks were more ſenſibly felt at times in ſome parts of the afflicted provinces than at others; that the motion of the earth had been either whirling like a vortex, horizontal, or by pulſations, or by beatings from the bottom upwards. This variety of motions increaſed the apprehenſions of the diſtreſſed inhabitants, who expected every moment that the earth would open under their feet, and ſwallow them up. On the weſtern ſide of the mountains above-mentioned, many openings and cracks had been made; ſome hills had been much lowered, and others entirely ſwallowed up; deep chaſms had been opened, by which many roads were rendered impaſſable; huge mountains were ſplit aſunder, and parts of them driven to a conſiderable diſtance; deep valleys were filled up by the concourſe of the mountains which formed them before; the courſe of the rivers were altered; many ſprings of water dried up, and new ones formed in their place. A ſingular phenomenon was ſaid to have been obſerved at Laureana in Calabria Ultra; viz. that two whole tenements, with large plantations of olive and mulberry trees, ſituated in a valley perfectly level, had been detached by the earthquake, and tranſplanted, with the trees ſtill remaining in their places, to the diſtance of about a mile from their firſt ſituations; and that from the ſpot on which they formerly ſtood, hot water had ſprung up to a conſiderable height, mixed with ſand of a ferruginous nature: that near this place alſo ſome countrymen and ſhepherds had been ſwallowed up, with their teams of oxen, and their flocks of goats and ſheep. The number of lives loſt was eſtimated at 32,367.

The fate of the inhabitants of Scilla was extremely affecting. On the firſt ſhock, February 5, they had fled along with their prince to the ſea-ſhore, where they hoped for ſafety; but, in the night-time, a furious wave (ſaid to have been boiling hot, and by which many people were alleged to have been ſcalded) overflowed the land for three miles, ſweeping off in its return 2473 of the inhabitants, among whom was the prince himſelf, who were at that time either on the ſtrand or in boats near the ſhore. But the moſt ſingular of all the phenomena enumerated in theſe accounts was, that a hill, about 500 palms in height, and 1300 in circumference at its baſis, jumped to the diſtance of about four miles from the place where it formerly ſtood. At the ſame time the hill on which the town of Oppido ſtood, which extended about three miles, parted in two; and as its ſituation was between two rivers, both of theſe were of courſe ſtopped up; two great lakes were formed, and by their continual increaſe threatened to infect the air by their noxious exhalations.

Sir William Hamilton, who, early in the ſame year, made a tour of curioſity through that country, landed on the 6th of May at the town of Pizzo, in Calabria Ultra. Here he was aſſured that the volcano of Stromboli, which is oppoſite, and in view of the town, though diſtant about fifty miles, had ſmoked leſs, and thrown up a ſmaller quantity of inflamed matter during the earthquakes than it had done for ſome years before; and that ſlight ſhocks ſtill continued to be felt. Sir William had ſoon a convincing proof that this laſt information was true; for, ſleeping that night in his boat, (called a *Malteſe ſperonara*) he was awakened with a ſmart ſhock, which ſeemed to lift up the bottom of the boat, but was not attended with any ſubterraneous noiſe.

From Pizzo he paſſed through a moſt beautiful country to Monteleone. Here ſir William had an opportunity of ſeeing many people who had been thrown down by the violence of the ſhocks. Several peaſants told him, that the motion of the earth was ſo violent, that the heads of the largeſt trees almoſt touched the ground from ſide to ſide; that during a ſhock, the horſes and oxen extended their legs wide aſunder, that they might not be thrown down; and that they gave evident ſigns of being ſenſible of the approach of each ſhock.—From Monteleone, Sir William deſcended into the plain, having paſſed through many towns and villages which had been more or leſs damaged, according to their vicinity to the plain. The town of Mileto, ſtanding in a bottom, was totally ruined, not a houſe being left ſtanding. At ſome diſtance he ſaw Soriano, and the noble Dominican convent, a heap of ruins. Paſſing through the deſolated town of St. Pietro, in his way to Roſarno, he had a diſtant view of Sicily and the ſummit of Mount Etna, which then ſent forth a conſiderable ſmoke. Juſt before his arrival at Roſarno he paſſed over the river Meſſano or Metauro, on a ſtrong timber-bridge, 700 palms long, built by the duke of Monteleone. From the cracks made in the banks, and in the bed of the river, by the earthquake, it was quite ſeparated in one part; and the level on which the piers were placed having been variouſly altered, the bridge had taken an undulated form, ſo that the rail on each ſide was curiouſly ſcolloped; but the ſeparated parts having been joined again, it was then paſſable. The town of Roſarno, with the duke of Monteleone's palace there, was entirely deſtroyed; but the walls remained about ſix feet high, and were at that time fitting up as barracks. The only building that remained unhurt was the town gaol, in which were three notorious villains, who would probably have loſt their lives if they had been at liberty.

From Roſarno ſir William proceeded to Laureana, where he was conducted to the place above deſcribed, where the two tenements were ſaid to have exchanged ſituations. In this neighbourhood were ſeveral cracks, none of them above a foot wide; but during the earthquake they had opened very wide, and ſwallowed up an ox, with near 100 goats. Paſſing through the ſame beautiful country to the town of Poliſtene, ſir William did not perceive a ſingle houſe ſtanding. "I travelled (ſays he) four days in the plain, in the midſt of ſuch miſery as cannot be deſcribed. The force of the earthquake there was ſo great, that all the inhabitants of the towns were buried, alive or dead, in the ruins of their houſes in an inſtant. The town of Poliſtene was large, but ill ſituated, between two rivers that were ſubject to overflow. Two thouſand one hundred, out of 6000, loſt their lives here on the fatal 5th of February." At Caſal Nuova, the princeſs Gerace Grimaldi, with 4000 of her ſubjects, periſhed on the ſame day by the exploſion; for ſuch it appears to have been. Some who had been dug alive out of the ruins, ſaid that they had felt their houſes fairly lifted up, without having the leaſt previous notice. An

inhabitant of Caſal Nuova was at that moment on a hill overlooking the plain; when, feeling the ſhock, and turning round, inſtead of the town he ſaw only a thick cloud of white duſt like ſmoke, the natural effect of the cruſhing of the buildings and the mortar flying off.

The town of Caſal Nuova was ſo effectually deſtroyed by this dreadful ſhock, that neither veſtige of houſe or ſtreet remained, but all lay in one confuſed heap of ruins. Caſtillace and Milicuſco, which ſir William next viſited, were both in the ſame ſituation. Terra Nuova, ſituated in the ſame plain, ſtood between two rivers, which, with the torrents from the mountains, had in the courſe of ages, cut deep and wide chaſms in the ſoft ſandy clay ſoil of which it is compoſed. At Terra Nuova, the ravine or chaſm is not leſs than 500 feet deep, and three quarters of a mile broad. Here the accounts of the earthquake were confuſed, by not having the ſituation of the place and nature of the ſoil explained. It was ſaid, that a town had been thrown a mile from the place on which it ſtood, without mentioning a word of the ravine; that woods and corn-fields had been removed in the ſame manner, "when in truth (ſays our author) it was but upon a large ſcale, what we ſee every day upon a ſmaller; when pieces of the ſides of hollow ways, having been undermined by rain waters, are detached by their own weight. Here, from the great depth of the ravine, and the violent motion of the earth, two huge portions of the latter, on which a great part of the town ſtood, which conſiſted of ſome hundred houſes, had been detached into the ravine, and nearly acroſs it, at about the diſtance of half a mile from the place where they formerly ſtood; and what is very extraordinary, many of the inhabitants who had taken this ſingular leap in their houſes, were nevertheleſs dug out alive, and ſome unhurt." Our author's guide there, who was both a prieſt and phyſician, having been buried in the ruins of his houſe by the firſt ſhock, was blown out of it and delivered by the ſecond, which immediately followed the firſt; and there were many well atteſted inſtances of the ſame thing having happened in different parts of Calabria. At Terra Nuova, however, only 400 out of 1600 inhabitants were left alive.

In other parts of the plain, ſituated near the ravine, and near the town of Terra Nuova, our author ſaw many acres of land, with trees and corn-fields, that had been detached into the ravine, frequently without having been overturned; ſo that the crops were growing as well as if they had been planted there. Other ſuch pieces were lying in the bottom in an inclined ſituation; and others again that had been quite overturned. In one place, two of theſe immenſe pieces of land having been detached, oppoſite to one another, had filled the valley, and ſtopped the courſe of the river, the waters of which were forming a great lake; "and this (ſays ſir William) is the true ſtate of what the accounts mention of mountains that had walked, and joined together, ſtopped the courſe of a river, and formed a lake." At the moment of the earthquake the river diſappeared; but, returning ſoon after, it overflowed the bottom of the ravine about three feet in depth; ſo that the poor people who had been thrown with their houſes into the ravine from the top of it, and had eſcaped with broken bones, were now in danger of being drowned. The whole town of Mollochi di Sotto was likewiſe detached into the ravine, and a vineyard of many acres lay near it in the bottom in perfect order, but in an inclined ſituation. There was a foot-path through this vineyard which had a ſingular effect in its then impracticable ſituation. Some water-mills which were on the river, being jammed between two ſuch detached pieces as above-deſcribed, were lifted up by them, and were then to be ſeen on an elevated ſituation many feet above the level of the river. In ſeveral parts of the plain, the ſoil, with timber-trees and crops of corn, conſiſting of many acres, had ſunk eight and ten feet below the level of the plain, and riſen as many in other places. To explain this, it is neceſſary to remark, that the ſoil of the plain is a clay mixed with ſand, which is eaſily moulded into any ſhape. In the plain, near the ſpots where the above-mentioned pieces had been detached into the ravine, there were ſeveral parallel cracks; ſo that, had the violence of the earthquake continued, theſe pieces would alſo probably have followed. It was conſtantly obſerved, that near every ravine or hollow way, the parts of the plain adjoining were full of large parallel cracks. The earth rocking from ſide to ſide, and being ſupported only on one ſide, accounts very well for this circumſtance.

From Terra Nuova, ſir William continued his journey to Oppido. This city ſtands on a mountain of a ferruginous ſort of gritty ſtone, unlike the clay ſoil of its neighbourhood: and is ſurrounded by two rivers in a ravine deeper and broader than that at Terra Nuova. Here, a countryman, who was ploughing his field with a pair of oxen, was tranſported with his field and team clear from one ſide of the ravine to the other, and neither he nor his oxen were hurt.—"Having walked over the ruins of Oppido (ſays our author), I deſcended into the ravine, and examined carefully the whole of it. Here I ſaw indeed the wonderful force of the earthquake, which has produced exactly the ſame effects as thoſe deſcribed in the ravine at Terra Nuova, but on a ſcale infinitely greater. The enormous maſſes of the plain, detached from each ſide of the ravine, lie ſometimes in confuſed heaps, forming real mountains, and having ſtopped the courſe of two rivers (one of which is very conſiderable) great lakes were already formed. Sometimes I met with a detached piece of the ſurface of the plain of many acres in extent, with the large oaks and olive-trees, with corn or lupins under them, growing as well and in as good order at the bottom of the ravine as their companions from whence they were ſeparated do on their native ſoil, at leaſt 500 feet higher, and at the diſtance of about three quarters of a mile. I met with whole vineyards in the ſame order in the bottom, that had likewiſe taken the ſame journey. As the banks of the ravine from whence theſe pieces came are now bare and perpendicular, I perceived that the upper ſoil was a reddiſh earth, and the under one a ſandy white clay, very compact, and like a ſoft ſtone. The impulſe theſe huge maſſes received, either from the violent motion of the earth alone, or that aſſiſted with the additional one of the volcanic exhalations ſet at liberty, ſeems to have acted with greater force on the lower and more compact ſtratum than on the upper cultivated cruſt: for I conſtantly obſerved, where theſe cultivated lands lay, the under ſtratum of compact clay had been driven ſome hundred yards farther, and lay in confuſed blocks; and, as I obſerved, many of theſe blocks were in a cubical form. The under ſoil, having had a greater impulſe, and leaving the upper in its flight, naturally accounts for the order in which the trees, vineyards, and vegetation, fell, and remain at preſent in the bottom of the ravine."

From Oppido ſir William proceeded to the towns of Seminara and Palmi. The former, being ſituated higher up, had ſuffered leſs than Palmi, which ſtood nearer the ſea. Fourteen hundred lives were loſt at this place, and ſome ſingular circumſtances occurred. The town being a great market for oil, there were upwards of 4000 barrels of that liquid in it at the time of its deſtruction; ſo that by the breaking of theſe barrels and jars, a rivulet of oil ran from the ruins for many hours into the ſea. Here our author was informed by the perſon who conducted him, that he had been buried in the ruins of his houſe by the firſt ſhock; and that after the ſecond, which followed immediately, he found himſelf ſitting aſtride a beam at leaſt fifteen feet high in the air. After ſir William's departure from Palmi, in going through one of the narrow paſſes among the mountains of Bagnara and Solano, he felt a very ſmart ſhock of an earthquake, attended with a loud exploſion like that of ſpringing a mine; but fortunately it did not detach any rocks or trees from the high mountains which hung over their heads. In this coun-

try he was aſſured by ſeveral fiſhermen, that during the earthquake on the 5th of February, at night, the ſea was hot, and that they ſaw fire iſſue from the earth in many parts. This laſt circumſtance was frequently repeated in different parts of the plain, ſo that there ſeems to remain no doubt of its authenticity. The idea of ſir William Hamilton is, that "the exhalations which iſſued during the violent commotions of the earth were full of electrical fire; juſt as the ſmoke of volcanoes conſtantly is during violent eruptions: for I ſaw no mark (ſays he) in any part of my journey, of any volcanic matter having iſſued from the fiſſures of the earth; and I am convinced that the whole has been done by vapours and exhalations only. The firſt ſhock felt at this place, as I was aſſured, was lateral, and then vorticoſe, and exceedingly violent; but what they call violent here muſt have been nothing in compariſon of what was felt in the plain of Caſa Nuova, Poliſtene, Palmi, Terra Nuova, Oppido, &c. where all agreed that the violence of the fatal ſhock of February was inſtantaneous, without warning, and from the bottom upwards."

At Reggio the ſhock had been much leſs violent than in the places hitherto viſited by our author; and "though there was not a houſe in it inhabited or habitable, yet (ſays he) after having been ſeveral days in the plain, where every building is levelled with the ground, a houſe with a roof, or a church with a ſteeple, was to me a new and refreſhing object." He was here informed, that all animals are in a greater or leſs degree much more ſenſible of an approaching ſhock of an earthquake than any human being; but that dogs and geeſe, above all, ſeem to be the ſooneſt and moſt ſenſibly alarmed. The ſhock which damaged Reggio came on gently, ſo that the people had time to make their eſcape, and only 126 were killed; but in the plain this ſhock was as inſtantaneous as it was violent and deſtructive.

On the 14th of May, ſir William Hamilton having taken leave of Reggio, ſet ſail for Meſſina, where he found that the ſhock had been far inferior to what he had ſeen the effects of in other places. Notwithſtanding this comparative mildneſs, however, the miſchief had been very terrible. All the beautiful front of the palazzate, which extended in very lofty uniform buildings, in the ſhape of a creſcent, had been in ſome parts totally ruined, in others leſs; and there were cracks in the earth of the quay, a part of which had ſunk above a foot below the level of the ſea. The howlings of the dogs in the ſtreets of Meſſina, a little before the earthquake, were ſo loud and terrific, that orders were ſent to kill them; and it is ſaid, that during the earthquake, fire had been ſeen to iſſue from the cracks of the quay; but our author is perſuaded that this, as in other caſes, was only a vapour charged with electrical fire, or a kind of inflammable air. Here alſo he was informed, that the ſhock of the 5th of February had been from the bottom upwards; but the ſubſequent ones generally horizontal or vorticoſe. A remarkable circumſtance was obſerved at Meſſina, and through the whole coaſt of Calabria, which had been moſt affected by the earthquake, viz. that a ſmall fiſh called *cicirelli*, reſembling the Engliſh white bait, but larger, and which uſually lie at the bottom of the ſea buried in the ſand, had, ever after the commencement of the earthquakes to the time this account was written, continued to be taken near the ſurface, and that in ſuch abundance as to be common food for the pooreſt ſort of people: whereas before the earthquakes this fiſh was rare, and reckoned among the greateſt delicacies. Fiſh of all kinds alſo were taken in greater abundance on theſe coaſts after the commencement of the earthquakes than before; which ſir William ſuppoſes to have been occaſioned either by the volcanic matter having heated the bottom of the ſea, or that the continual tremor of the earth had forced them out of their retreats. At Meſſina our author was likewiſe informed, that on the 5th of February, and for three days following, the ſea, about a quarter of a mile from the citadel, roſe and boiled in an extraordinary manner, and with a moſt alarming noiſe; the water in other parts of the ſtrait being perfectly calm.

Theſe earthquakes were not perfectly ſettled even in 1784, when ſir William Hamilton wrote the account of the ſtate of Veſuvius, &c. to the royal ſociety of London. In a poſtſcript to that letter he adds the following confirmation of his conjecture, that the volcanic matter, which he ſuppoſed to have occaſioned the earthquakes, had vented itſelf at the bottom of the ſea betwixt Calabria and Sicily: "The pilot of one of his Sicilian majeſty's ſciabecques having, ſome time after the earthquakes, caſt anchor off the point of Palizzi, where he had often anchored in twenty-five fathom water, found no bottom till he came to ſixty-five; and, having ſounded for two miles out at ſea towards the point of Spartivento in Calabria, he ſtill found the ſame conſiderable alteration in the depth. The inhabitants of Palizzi likewiſe declare, that, during the great earthquake on the 5th of February 1783, the ſea had boiled and frothed up tremendouſly off their point."

From the time of this dreadful viſitation in Calabria, we hear no more of earthquakes, until Dr. Gray, F. R. S. publiſhed an account of one which was felt in various parts of England, on the 18th of November, 1795. Happily for this country, however, the circumſtances attending that phenomenon of nature ſo much dreaded in other parts of the world, are here ſo little ſtriking or alarming, that very cloſe enquiry is neceſſary to trace the minute footſteps of ſuch an event. In the ſame proportion, too, we ſhould conceive that its importance as a ſubject for philoſophical obſervation is leſſened; and, indeed, few narrations appear more tedious and unintereſting, than the ſuperſtitious and vague accounts, with which the public have too often been impoſed upon with reſpect to earthquakes in Great Britain. Dr. Grey, ſufficiently aware of this fact, concludes with becoming diffidence as to his obſervations on the *mixed cauſes* of this phenomenon, and with a hope that our iſland will continue to "contribute but a ſmall ſhare of thoſe materials which are requiſite to form a complete theory of earthquakes."

The next account we have of an earthquake in Great Britain, was felt at Edinburgh, on Monday the 7th of September, 1801, at ſix in the morning. It extended through Fife, along the north bank of the Forth, from Kirkaldy by Aberdown, Dunfermline, Kincardine, and Alloa; likewiſe northwards by Kinroſs, to ſome diſtance in a north-weſt direction to Callander, and various parts of Perthſhire. At Stirling and Glaſgow the ſhock was alſo very diſtinctly felt, at nearly the ſame time as in the other places mentioned. The appearances were nearly alike in all. At Edinburgh it continued two or three ſeconds; was preceded by a rumbling, ruſhing, hollow, noiſe from the ground; and had a tremendous, undulating, motion, ſomething reſembling the motion of the waves of the ſea. Beds, tables, chairs, &c. in ſome houſes were obſerved to ſhake, reſembling the rocking of a cradle. Some perſons who felt it had a very diſagreeable ſenſation, attended with a head-ach. The morning was gloomy, warm, and calm; the barometer high, and the thermometer about fifty. The preceding day, Sunday, there was a good deal of rain. A parrot in a gentleman's houſe in the ſouth ſide of the town, ſcreeched ſeveral times during the ſhock, in the ſame manner as theſe birds do in the Weſt Indies during an earthquake: and in one houſe the bells were ſet a ringing.

It ſeems that this ſhock was pretty general. At Dumfermline, its duration, it is ſuppoſed, was only two ſeconds. People who were in high ſtories, and conſequently had the beſt opportunities of obſervation, thought they felt two ſmall ſhocks, and in their ſituations, things that were hanging on the walls were evidently moved from their places, occaſioning ſome noiſe. Many people were awakened from their ſleep by the motion which they felt in their beds, which they generally deſcribe by the rocking of a cradle, or as if a perſon had lifted up one ſide of the bed from the floor, to which a tremulous motion

ſucceeded

ſucceeded for a ſhort ſpace. At Grangemouth, and over all that neighbourhood, two ſevere ſhocks were felt, one at four, the other at ſix, in the morning. At Crieff it reſembled the ſudden fall of a houſe, attended with a rumbling noiſe, which continued about the ſpace of ſix ſeconds. It appeared to go from weſt to eaſt. One perſon ſtates that the roof over his head cracked, and appeared as if it would burſt. The rattling of the diſhes on the ſhelves, and the looſe partitions, helped to increaſe the fears of the people, who ran to the doors. In Stirlingſhire it was felt in the ſame manner. There was not a breath of wind, and the ſky, though ſomewhat cloudy, was altogether calm. Soon after the morning became very bright and warm; nor was there any miſt on Benlomond, Benledy, or any of the neighbouring mountains. The gable end of a barn, a few miles to the weſtward of Edinburgh, where ſome ſhearers were ſleeping, fell in, and the unfortunate tenants were completely buried in the rubbiſh. When the accident was diſcovered, and theſe poor people dug out, two women were found dead, and another very much bruiſed. It was obſerved at Leith, that the tides, for three days, had not ebbed ſo much as uſual at the then age of the moon; ſo much ſo, that the workmen at the New Dock had not been able to accompliſh the work they ordinarily do while the tide is out.

We have ſome recent and awful accounts of the fatal effects of earthquakes in South America, communicated in a letter from Quito, dated February 20, 1797; which ſtates, "that a moſt dreadful cataſtrophe of this kind had been then juſt experienced in the provinces of Taninga, Ambato, Riobamba, Alaoſi, part of Chimbo, and Quito. Not a houſe was left ſtanding: every thing was levelled with the ground. The volcano of Maas made a moſt dreadful eruption, and ſplit in two parts, which ſeparated from each other; while the earthquake ſhook the mountains with ſuch violence, that they were daſhed againſt each other, and threw up ſometimes ſtones with clouds of duſt, and ſometimes ſtreams of burning lava, or water. The mountain Ygualata in falling threw out a ſtream of lava which rolled along with fiery waves, and which in its courſe totally deſtroyed Capalpi, San Andreas, Quaono, Emlyies, Guanando, and ſeveral other places. The mountain Moya almoſt diſſolved into water, and ſwept away Pelile and the celebrated plantation of St. Ildephonſo, where a thouſand perſons periſhed. The mountain Euero fell on the village of the ſame name, without leaving a ſingle witneſs of this melancholy event. The mountain Yatagui fell upon Maſoro, and opened ſuch a dreadful gulf, that every thing, houſes, churches, and inhabitants, all but two perſons, were ſwallowed up by it. This place was converted into a bituminous lake, which emitted a ſulphureous vapour. The ruins are every where ſo great, that all the gold and ſilver of America will hardly be ſufficient to repair the devaſtation. The number of thoſe who loſt their lives cannot be aſcertained; but it muſt have been very conſiderable. The provinces of Riobamba, &c. ſuffered moſt; for in theſe many died of hunger, and even of thirſt, as all the water was corrupted.

Accounts alſo from Bencoolen, Taponooly, and Padang, of the 5th and 7th of March 1797, give the following relation of an earthquake that happened on the weſt coaſt of Sumatra on the 20th of February preceding: The vibratory ſhocks of this earthquake are ſtated to have continued for three minutes, and to have recurred at intervals, during a ſpace of three hours, from its beginning, till the ſhock had completely ceaſed. At Padang, the houſes of the inhabitants were almoſt totally deſtroyed, and the public works much damaged. The ſnow Padang, lying at anchor in the river, was thrown, by the ſudden riſe of the ſea, upwards of three miles in ſhore. The number of lives loſt at Padang exceeded three hundred. Of theſe ſome were cruſhed under the ruins of falling houſes; ſome were literally entombed alive by the earth cloſing upon them, and others were drowned by the ſudden irruption of the waters of the ocean. The effects of this awful convulſion of nature do not appear to have extended to the northward of Taponooly; as at that place little or no damage was ſuſtained. It appears to have come from the ſouthward, and is ſuppoſed to have extended as far as Bencoolen. At Natal, very conſiderable damage was ſuſtained, and ſeveral houſes thrown down, but no lives were loſt.

Another account from Metz ſtates, that at ſix in the morning of the 24th of March 1797, a ſhock of an earthquake had been felt at Sarreguemines, Bliſcatel, and other communes of the department of la Meurthe. No preciſe obſervations were made on its direction. It was ſo violent at Bitche, that it raiſed up part of the arch of the bridge, ſo as to render it dangerous to be paſſed. A fact which ſeems to explain this phenomenon is, that the circumference where it took place contains ſeveral mines of naphtha. One of theſe burns continually, like the *ſolfaterra* at Naples. Some days before, a flaming meteor roſe from the earth, between Fey and Veron, three leagues to the ſouth of Metz. Its diſappearance was followed by a detonation which ſhook the atmoſphere to a conſiderable diſtance around.

To explain the phenomena of earthquakes, various hypotheſes have been ſuggeſted both by ancient and modern philoſophers. Anaxagoras ſuppoſed the cauſe of earthquakes to be ſubterraneous clouds burſting out into lightning, which ſhook the vaults that confined them. Others imagined, that the arches, which had been weakened by continual ſubterraneous fires, at length fell in. Others derived theſe accidents from the rarefied ſteam of waters, heated by contiguous fires; and ſome, among whom was Epicurus, and ſeveral of the Peripatetic ſchool, aſcribed theſe terrible convulſions to the ignition of certain inflammable exhalations. This laſt hypotheſis has been adopted by many of the moſt celebrated writers; as, Gaſſendus, Kircher, Schottus, Varenius, Des Cartes, Du Hamel, Honorius, Fabri, &c. They ſuppoſe that there are many and vaſt cavities under ground which have a communication with one another: ſome of which abound with waters; others with vapours and exhalations, ariſing from inflammable ſubſtances, as nitre, bitumen, ſulphur, &c. Theſe combuſtible exhalations they imagine to be kindled by a ſubterraneous ſpark, or by ſome active flame gliding through a narrow fiſſure from without, or by the fermentation of ſome mixture; and, when this happens, they muſt neceſſarily produce exploſions, tremors, and ruptures at the ſurface, according to the number and diverſity of the cavities, and the quantity and activity of the inflammable matter. This hypotheſis is illuſtrated by a variety of experiments, ſuch as mixtures of iron-filings and brimſtone buried in the earth, gunpowder confined in pits, &c. by all which a ſhaking of the earth will be produced.

Though none of theſe hypotheſes were thought ſufficient for explaining the phenomena of earthquakes in a ſatisfactory manner, one or other of them continued to be adopted by almoſt all philoſophers till the year 1749. In the month of March in that year, an earthquake was felt at London, and ſeveral other places in England. Dr. Stukeley, who had been much engaged in electrical experiments, began to ſuſpect that phenomena of this kind ought to be attributed, not to vapours or fermentations generated in the bowels of the earth, but to electricity. In a paper publiſhed by him on this ſubject, he therefore rejects all the above-mentioned hypotheſes, and finally concludes, that an earthquake is no other than a ſhock of the ſame kind as thoſe which commonly occur in electrical experiments. As to the manner in which the earth and atmoſphere are put into ſuch a ſtate, which prepares them to receive an electrical ſhock, and whence the electric matter comes, the doctor does not pretend to determine; but thinks it as difficult to be accounted for as magnetiſm, gravitation, and other ſimilar ſecrets of nature. The ſame hypotheſis was advanced at nearly the ſame time by ſignor Beccaria, without know-

ing any thing of Dr. Stukeley's diſcoveries. But this learned Italian imagined the electric matter which occaſions earthquakes to be lodged deep in the bowels of the earth, agreeably to his hypotheſis concerning lightning. Dr. Prieſtley alſo, in his Hiſtory of Electricity, contends for the agency of the electrical fluid in the production of earthquakes; and, from the doctrines previouſly advanced by Stukeley and Beccaria, he frames a third hypotheſis of his own.

All theſe, it is true, agree in the main; but, if a particular ſolution of the phenomena is required, perhaps every one of them will be found deficient. Later theoriſts have therefore attributed earthquakes to the ſudden exploſion of inflammable ſubſtances in the bowels of the earth, verified upon the principles of modern chemiſtry, and which feed volcanoes; or from the ſudden formation of elaſtic gas, by the burſting of the waters of the ocean into the fiery chambers of volcanoes. Dr. Mitchell, profeſſor of chemiſtry in Columbia college, New York, has lately written a very ingenious Eſſay on this ſubject, and adduced many ſatisfactory proofs that the earth is extremely cavernous under the ſea, and that ſubterranean communications exiſt between the moſt diſtant craters: a fact which ſeems moſt clearly evinced by the effects of the earthquake above deſcribed in 1755, which deſtroyed Liſbon, and which, from the point of its central exploſion, paſſed under the ſea, and found vent even at the narrow mouths of ſprings in very diſtant countries and iſlands, and even in another continent, and as far as the American iſles.

The theory juſt offered by Mr. Blanchet, of the American philoſophical ſociety, aſcribes the exploſion of volcanos and earthquakes to the expanſion of atmoſpherical air; upon the ſame principle that ſolid bodies are burſt by the froſt, or that trees are ſhivered by lightning. The moſt ſimple principles of natural knowledge, (ſays this writer,) teach us that atmoſpheric air cannot paſs from its permanently aëriform ſtate to that of fluid or ſolid, by any degree of cold with which we are acquainted. Admitting this to be true, there is no longer any ground of ſurpriſe in ſeeing the burſting of bodies which reſiſt the force of freezing water. The air, a fluid of permanent elaſticity, being compreſſed, and forced to give way to the particles of water, which cold, or the attractive power of the atoms of bodies, draws violently together, it follows that the ice, into which the water is converted, muſt break aſunder, in order to afford a paſſage to this aëriform ſubſtance, which cold can neither condenſe nor make ſolid, and muſt rend and ſhiver, with a cracking noiſe, the veſſels no longer able to hold it.

"No perſon ſeems yet to have accounted for the ſhattering of trees by the ſtroke of lightning. A moment's reflection, however, ſuffices to diſcover and explain the cauſe. As it is only by a careful analyſis of facts that we can deduce juſt concluſions, I proceed to examine what happens in the moment of the lightning ſtriking a tree, and it will be ſeen whether this ladder will enable us to reach the cauſe of this phenomenon. Repeated experiments have demonſtrated that caloric, or *the matter of heat*, is the cauſe of the repulſive power of the atoms of bodies; and there is no doubt that the more the atoms of a body are removed from one another, the greater is the capacity of ſuch a body to contain caloric. It is alſo inconteſtably proved, that the bodies which are conſtantly in the ſtate of gas, in the common temperature of the atmoſphere, contain a great quantity of caloric, and in proportion to their ſpecific capacity for holding it. So likewiſe the electric fluid, or what might with more propriety be called the electric gas, muſt contain a prodigious quantity of caloric, ſince this element always exiſts in the ſtate of gas, and the more this gas is accumulated, the more the amount of ſpecific heat muſt alſo be augmented. This being premiſed, whenever the lightning (which is only an accumulation of electric gas, diſcharged from one cloud to paſs to another containing a leſs quantity) happens, in its courſe, to ſtrike a tree, the tree becomes ſo ſuddenly overcharged with caloric, that the air and other conſtituent parts of it, which are diſpoſed rapidly to combine with heat, undergo *expanſion*, and thereby ſhiver the tree, in order to force a paſſage, and to ſet themſelves at liberty. I cannot compare this phenomenon to any thing better than to the diſcharge of a cannon or of a muſket; for every body knows that the diſcharge of a cannon is owing to the ſudden expanſion of the conſtituent parts of the powder by the introduction of caloric. The ſame principle is found to be the immediate cauſe of the eruption of volcanoes, and of earthquakes.

"Whatever may be the agent which kindles and inflames volcanic ſubſtances, whether it be the electric gas which communicates its fire to thoſe moſt inflammable ſubſtances, ſuch as ſulphur, nitre, &c. or whether it be the ſubterranean heat, which, in making its eſcape, ſets fire to thoſe ſubſtances, ſtill it is certain that atmoſpheric air muſt be found in great quantities in the interior of volcanoes. For, ſince the ever-memorable diſcoveries of Lavoiſier, of Fourcroy, of Scheele, and of Ingenhouz, on combuſtion, it is admitted as a demonſtrable truth, that the burning of combuſtible ſubſtances is owing to oxygen; that is to ſay, it is fixed and abſorbed by the body in combuſtion, while the caloric and the light, which are combined with it, eſcape, in order to form the flame, the light, and the heat. In this manner atmoſpheric air is one of the eſſential agents in ſupporting the fire of a volcano. Theſe things being premiſed, as ſoon as a volcano is kindled and ſet on fire, the atmoſpheric air which feeds it, as well as the baſes of ſulphur, of water, &c. which are alſo converted to the ſtate of gaſes by the evolution or accumulation of heat, are expanded, and break out with a violence and impetuoſity not to be reſtrained by the force of oppoſing bodies, and thereby give birth to earthquakes, &c. This theory is remarkably countenanced by the common and uniform ſeries of occurrences which follows the eruption of a volcano. In the firſt place, as ſoon as it is kindled, there appears a thick ſmoke; ſoon after, when the air, &c. become expanded, ſtones of enormous bulk are thrown out to great diſtances into the aërial regions, accompanied with earthquake, and agitation of all the ſurrounding country. As ſoon as the ſuperfluous air is diſcharged and ſet free, there ſucceeds a bright flame, which ſeems to reſtore ſerenity to the abyſs, which again, after a ſhort time, vomits forth a ſhower of fiery and deſtructive matters. In ſhort, all theſe exploſions are produced by the ſudden extrication of ſome matter incapable of confinement, or to the expanſion of air in a reſiſting body."

EAR'THY, *adj.* Conſiſting of earth.—All water, eſpecially that of rain, is ſtored with matter, light in compariſon of the common *earthy* matter. *Woodward.*

Long may'ſt thou live in Richard's ſeat to ſit,
And ſoon lie Richard in an *earthy* pit! *Shakeſpeare.*

Compoſed or partaking of earth; terrene:

To ſurvey his dead and *earthly* image,
What were it but to make my ſorrow greater? *Shakeſp.*

Inhabiting the earth: terreſtrial:

Thoſe *earthy* ſpirits black and envious are;
I'll call up other gods of form more fair. *Dryden.*

Relating to earth:

Mine is the ſhipwreck, in a watry ſign;
And in an *earthy*, the dark dungeon thine. *Dryden.*

Not mental; groſs; not refined:

Teach me, dear creature, how to think and ſpeak;
Lay open to my *earthy* groſs conceit,
Smother'd in errors, feeble, ſhallow, weak,
The folded meaning of your words deceit. *Shakeſpeare.*

EAR'THY TRIPLICITY, in aſtrology, the ſigns Taurus, Virgo, and Capricorn.

EAR'WIG, *ſ.* [eape and pizza, Sax. a grub.] An inſect, imagined to creep into the ear. See FORFICULA.

—*Earwigs*

—*Earwigs* and ſnails ſeldom infect timber. *Mortimer.*—By way of reproach, a whiſperer; a prying informer.

EAR'WITNESS, *ſ.* One who atteſts, or can atteſt, any thing as heard by himſelf.—All preſent were made *earwitneſſes*, even of each particular branch of a common indictment. *Hooker.*—The hiſtories of mankind, written by eye or *earwitneſſes*, are built upon this principle. *Watts.*

EAR'WORT. See HEDYOTIS.

EASE, *ſ.* [*aiſe*, Fr.] Quiet; reſt; undiſturbed tranquillity; not ſolicitude:

The prieſt on ſkins of off'ring takes his *eaſe*,
And nightly viſions in his ſlumber ſees. *Dryden.*

Freedom from pain; a neutral ſtate between pain and pleaſure.—That which we call *eaſe* is only an indolency, or a freedom from pain. *L'Eſtrange.*—Reſt after labour. Intermiſſion of labour.—Give yourſelves *eaſe* from the fatigue of waiting. *Swift.*—Facility; not difficulty:

Following with *eaſe*, if favour'd by thy fate,
Thou art foredoom'd to view the Stygian ſtate. *Dryden.*

Unconſtraint; freedom from harſhneſs, formality, forced behaviour, or conceits:

True *eaſe* in writing comes from art, not chance;
As thoſe move eaſieſt who have learn'd to dance. *Pope.*

At EASE. In a ſtate of undiſturbed leiſure; without pain; without anxiety.—No body is under an obligation to know every thing: knowledge and ſcience in general is the buſineſs of thoſe who are *at eaſe* and leiſure. *Locke.*

To EASE, *v. a.* To free from pain.—Help and *eaſe* children the beſt you can; but by no means bemoan them. *Locke.*—To aſſuage; to mitigate; to alleviate.—Thy father made our yoke grievous, now therefore *eaſe* thou ſomewhat the grievous ſervitude. 2 *Chron.*

Will he for ſacrifice our ſorrows *eaſe?*
And can our tears reverſe his firm decrees? *Prior.*

To relieve from labour, or any thing offends; with *of* before the thing.—I will *eaſe* me *of* my own adverſaries. *Iſaiah*, i. 24.—No body feels pain that he wiſhes not to be *eaſed of*, with a deſire equal to that pain, and inſeparable from it. *Locke.*

EA'SEFUL, *adj.* Quiet; peaceable; fit for reſt:

I ſpy a black, ſuſpicious, threat'ning, cloud,
That will encounter with our glorious ſun,
Ere he attains his *eaſeful* weſtern bed. *Shakeſpeare.*

EA'SEL, *ſ.* [of *eſel*, Teut. an aſs.] The frame on which artiſts place their canvaſs to paint on.

EA'SEL-PIECES, *ſ.* Pieces done on the eaſel, diſtinguiſhed from thoſe that are drawn on walls and ceilings.

EA'SEMENT, *ſ.* Aſſiſtance; ſupport; relief from expences.—He has the advantage of a free lodging, and ſome other *eaſements*. *Swift.*

EA'SEMENT, *ſ.* in law, a ſervice or convenience, which one neighbour hath of another, by charter or preſcription, without profit; as a way through his land, a drain or ſink, &c. A perſon may preſcribe to an eaſement in the freehold of another, as belonging to ſome ancient houſe, or to land: and a way over the land of another, a gate-way, water-courſe, or waſhing-place, on another's ground, may be claimed by preſcription as eaſements. But a multitude of perſons cannot preſcribe; though for an eaſement they may plead cuſtom. *Cro. Jac.* 170. To allege an eaſement by *conſuevit* only, is the beſt way: and things of neceſſity ſhall not be extinguiſhed by unity of poſſeſſion; but a way of eaſe may be thus extinguiſhed. *Lil. Abr.* 496.

EA'SILY, *adv.* Without difficulty.—Sounds move ſwiftly, and at great diſtance; but they require a medium well diſpoſed, and their tranſmiſſion is *eaſily* ſtopped. *Bacon.*

She aſk'd the reaſon of his woe:
She aſk'd, but with an air and mien
That made it *eaſily* foreſeen
She fear'd too much to know. *Prior.*

Without pain; without diſturbance; in tranquillity.—Is it not to bid defiance to all mankind to condemn their univerſal opinions and deſigns, if, inſtead of paſſing your life as well and *eaſily*, you reſolve to paſs it as ill and as miſerable as you can? *Temple.*—Readily; without reluctance:

Not ſoon provok'd, ſhe *eaſily* forgives
And much ſhe ſuffers, as ſhe much believes. *Prior.*

EA'SINESS, *ſ.* Freedom from difficulty.—*Eaſineſs* and difficulty are relative terms, and relate to ſome power; and a thing may be difficult to a weak man, which yet may be eaſy to the ſame perſon, when aſſiſted with a greater ſtrength. *Tillotſon.*

Believe me, friends, loud tumults are not laid
With half the *eaſineſs* that they are rais'd. *Ben Jonſon.*

Flexibility; compliance; readineſs; not oppoſition; not reluctance.—Since the cuſtom of *eaſineſs* to alter and change laws is ſo evil, no doubt but to bear a tolerable ſore is better than to venture on a dangerous remedy. *Hooker.*—The ſafeſt way to ſecure honeſty is to lay the foundation of it early in liberality, and an *eaſineſs* to part with to others whatever they have or like themſelves. *Locke.*—Freedom from conſtraint; not effort; not formality:

Abſtruſe and myſtic thoughts you muſt expreſs
With painful care, but ſeeming *eaſineſs*;
For truth ſhines brighteſt through the plaineſt dreſs. *Roſc.*

Reſt; tranquillity; eaſe; freedom from pain.—I think the reaſon I have aſſigned hath a great intereſt in that reſt and *eaſineſs* we enjoy when aſleep. *Ray.*

EASK, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Donegal: four miles north-eaſt of Donegal.

EAST, *ſ.* [eorꝑ, Sax. *heos*, Erſe.] One of the four cardinal points of the world. The quarter where the ſun riſes: oppoſite to the *weſt*. The regions in the eaſtern parts of the world:

I would not be the villain that thou think'ſt
For the whole ſpace that's in the tyrant's graſp,
And the rich *eaſt* to boot. *Shakeſpeare.*

The gorgeous *eaſt*, with richeſt hand,
Pours on her kings barbaric, pearl and gold. *Milton.*

EAST-BETHLEHEM, a townſhip of the American States, in Waſhington county, Pennſylvania.

EAST-BOURN, a ſmall town in the county of Suſſex, pleaſantly ſituated on the ſea ſhore, and much frequented for ſea-bathing: diſtant from Brighton, twenty miles; ſixteen from Lewes, and ſixty-four from London. A few years ago a Roman bath, and a beautiful teſſelated pavement, were diſcovered here, with evident marks that whatever buildings had been over it had been deſtroyed by fire. Here the proſpects are beautiful, commanding an extenſive view of the wilds of Suſſex, which ſkirt the South Downs; and of the numerous flocks of South-down ſheep which decorate and enrich thoſe alpine paſtures. Here alſo are taken in the proper ſeaſon, July and Auguſt, large flights of wheatears, a moſt delicate bird; decoyed on the downs where they flock by the ſhepherds, who cut the earth out like a Roman T, the hole is covered with the turf, the graſſy ſide downwards, and under it are two horſe-hair nooſes; the birds are ſo timorous, that upon the approach even of a cloud, they run into theſe cavities, and are taken. Two miles diſtant from Eaſt-Bourn is a decoy where a great number of wild-fowl reſort and are taken. Here is a free-ſchool for fifteen boys; and two annual fairs, viz. October 10, and March 12. Near Eaſt-Bourn is Beachy-Head, celebrated in hiſtory for the ſtupendous heights of its cliffs.

EAST-CHESTER, a townſhip of the American States, in Weſt-Cheſter county, New-York, on Long-Iſland Sound, about eight miles ſouth-weſt of Rye, five northerly of Weſt-Cheſter, and ſeventeen north-eaſt of New-York. It contains 740 inhabitants, of whom 106 are electors.

EAST-GREEN'WICH, a poſt town, and the chief townſhip of the American States in Kent county, Rhode-Iſland; ſixteen miles ſouth of Providence, and twenty-two north-north-weſt of Newport, containing, by the cenſus, 1824 inhabitants. The town has a handſome court-houſe; and, although its commerce is greatly reduced, it carries on the fiſheries to advantage, and ſends ſome veſſels to the Weſt-Indies. It is ſituated on the north-weſt part of Narraganſet-bay. Both this town and Warwick are noted for making good cider; and formerly for raiſing tobacco for exportation.

EAST-HAD'DAM, a townſhip of the American States, in Middleſex county, Connecticut, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Connecticut river, oppoſite to Haddam, of which it was formerly a part. It was ſettled in 1704: fourteen miles ſouth of Middleton, and twenty-one north-weſt of New-London.

EAST-HAM, a townſhip of the American States, in Barnſtable county, Maſſachuſetts, about ten miles long, ſituated on the peninſula of Cape Cod, between Chatham and Wellfleet, 100 miles ſouth-eaſt of Boſton. It contains 1834 inhabitants.

EAST-HAMP'TON, a townſhip of the American States, in Hampſhire county, Maſſachuſetts, ſix miles ſouth of Northampton, and 105 weſt-by-ſouth of Boſton. It contains 457 inhabitants, and is divided from the weſt bank of Connecticut river by the celebrated mountain called *Mount Tom*.

EAST-HAMP'TON, a handſome town of the American States, in Suffolk county, New York, on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of Long-Iſland, twelve miles eaſt-north-eaſt of South-Hampton, and 105 eaſt of New-York city. The townſhip contains 1497 inhabitants, of whom 214 are electors. Gardner's Iſland is annexed to this town.

EAST-HART'FORD, a town of the American States, in Hartford county, Connecticut, ſituated on the eaſt bank of Connecticut river, oppoſite to Hartford. Here are a number of ſtreams which water the town; alſo iron and glaſs works.

EAST-HA'VEN, a townſhip of the American States, in New-Haven county, Connecticut, on the eaſt ſide of New-Haven harbour. The Scotch Captain, and other ſmall iſles, lie on the ſouth ſhore.

EAST-HA'VEN, a townſhip of the American States, in Eſſex county, Vermont, eleven miles ſouth eaſt of the ſouthern end of Willoughby's Lake, and eighteen north-by-weſt of the upper bar of the Fifteen-mile-falls on Connecticut river.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY. See COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 875.

EAST-IN'DIES, a name commonly applied to all thoſe countries on the continent of Aſia, with which Great-Britain, and the other nations of Europe, have from time to time been connected in commerce. Theſe extenſive regions are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Hindooſtan, or that part of the continent and peninſula of Aſia *within* the river Ganges; and of that part *without* or beyond the Ganges, conſiſting of what is now called the Birman Empire, or kingdoms of Aracan, Ava, and Pegu, the Malayan iſles, Siam, Cambodia, &c. See theſe reſpective titles, and the articles INDIA, and HINDOOSTAN.

EAST-ISLAND, a ſmall iſland in the Atlantic, near the coaſt of Main, in America. Lat. 32. N. lon. 67. 32. W. Greenwich.

EAST-LOOE, a borough town of Cornwall, ſituated on the mouth of the river Lowe, and governed by a mayor and eight burgeſſes, who form a common-council; but the recorder and other officers are choſen by the mayor only. It was firſt incorporated by queen Elizabeth, A D. 1587. The principal trade conſiſts in the herring-fiſhery, exporting of oats, and importing of coals. It has a well-founded charity-ſchool for thirteen poor boys.

EAST-MAIN, that part of New-Britain, or Labrador, in North-America, which lies on the eaſt ſide of James's-bay; as part of New South Wales on the weſt ſide of the ſame bay is called *Weſt-Main*. The Hudſon's-bay factory, called *Eaſt-Main*, is ſituated on the ſouth part of Eaſt-Main, between Rupert and Slade rivers, both of which run weſtward into James's-bay.

EAST-MEATH, a name ſometimes given to the county of Meath, in Ireland, to diſtinguiſh it from Weſt-Meath. See MEATH.

EAST-RIVER, a river of the United States of America, or rather a channel between Long-Iſland and New-York Iſland, and between Long-Iſland and the ſtate of Connecticut, where it is more generally called *Long-Iſland Sound*.

EAST-NESS, or EASTON-NESS, a cape in the German Ocean, on the eaſt coaſt of England, and county of Suffolk, between Southwold and Loweſtoff.

EAST-POINT, the extreme eaſt point of the iſland of St. John, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

EAST-POINT, the north-eaſt extremity of New Holland. Lat. 10. 42. S.

EAST-WINDSOR, a townſhip of the American States, in Hartford county, Connecticut; ſeparated from Windſor by Connecticut river, and about ſeven miles north-eaſt of Hartford. The compact part of the town lies on one broad ſtreet, of about two miles in length. In the townſhip are three congregational churches. The lands are fertile, and produce large quantities of good tobacco.

EASTANALLE'E, a town of the American States, ſituated on the north-eaſt head branch of Alabama river, in Georgia.

EAS'TER, a feaſt of the church, held in memory of our Saviour's reſurrection. This feaſt has been annually celebrated ever ſince the time of the apoſtles, and is one of the moſt conſiderable feſtivals in the Chriſtian calendar; being that which regulates and determines the times of all the other moveable feaſts. The rule for the celebration of Eaſter, fixed by the council of Nice, in the year 325, is, that it be held on the Sunday which falls upon or next after the full moon which happens next after the 21ſt of March; that is, the Sunday which falls upon or next after the firſt full moon after the vernal equinox. The reaſon of which decree was, that the Chriſtians might avoid celebrating their Eaſter at the ſame time with the Jewiſh Paſſover, which, according to the inſtitution of Moſes, was held the very day of the full moon.

To find EASTER *according to the New or Gregorian Style, till the year* 1900 *excluſive.*—Look for the golden number of the year in the firſt column of the table, againſt which ſtands the day of the paſchal full moon; then look in the third column for the Sunday letter, next after the day of the full moon, and the day of the month ſtanding againſt that Sunday letter is Eaſter-day. When the full moon happens on a Sunday, then the next Sunday after is Eaſter-day.

For example. For the year 1804, the golden number is 19; againſt which ſtands March the 26th, and the next Sunday letter, which is G, below that, ſtands oppoſite April 1, which is therefore the Eaſter-day for the year 1804.

Though the Gregorian calendar be much preferable to the Julian, it is yet not without its defects. It cannot, for inſtance, keep the equinox fixed on the 21ſt of March, but it will ſometimes fall on the 19th, and ſometimes on the 23d. So that the full moon happening on the 20th of March, might ſometimes be paſchal; yet it is not allowed as ſuch in the Gregorian computation;

Gold. Num.	Paſchal full moon.	Sund. letter
14	March 21	C
3	22	D
	23	E
11	24	F
	25	G
19	26	A
8	27	B
	28	C
16	29	D
5	30	E
	31	F
13	April 1	G
2	2	A
	3	B
10	4	C
	5	D
18	6	E
7	7	F
	8	G
15	9	A
4	10	B
	11	C
12	12	D
1	13	E
	14	F
9	15	G
	16	A
17	17	B
6	18	C

computation; and on the contrary, the full moon of the 22d of March may be allowed for paſchal, which it is not. Scaliger and Calviſius have alſo pointed out other inaccuracies in this calendar. An excellent paper on this ſubject by the earl of Macclesfield, may be ſeen in the Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. 40, p. 417.

EAS'TER-ISLAND, an iſland in the South Pacific Ocean, about thirty miles in circumference; without wood or freſh water as far as is yet known. It is noticed by captain Cook, who deſcribes it as extremely barren, and peopled with meagre ſavages in a ſtate of nature, and quite naked, except their chiefs. They appeared to worſhip the ſun, and proſtrated themſelves before two immenſe ſtones, one of which was flat, and the other erect, about ten feet high, and ſeven fathoms round; with a figure of a man's head carved at the top, and a garland, of moſaic or inlaid work, not ill performed. They called one ſtone Dago, and the other Taurico. Lat. 19. 20. S. lon. 114. 49. W. Greenwich.

EAS'TER-OFFERINGS, *ſ.* Money preſented to the pariſh-prieſt at Eaſter.

EAS'TERLING, *ſ.* A native of ſome country eaſtward to another: in the Engliſh hiſtory, ſpoken of people from the ſhores of the Baltic:

He oft in battle vanquiſhed
Thoſe ſpoilful, rich, and ſwarming, *Eaſterlings*. *Spenſer*.

EAS'TERLING, *adj.* Belonging to the money of the eaſterlings, ſterling.

EAS'TERLY, *adj.* Coming from the parts toward the eaſt.—When the *eaſterly* winds or breezes are kept off by ſome high mountains from the vallies, whereby the air, wanting motion, doth become exceeding unhealthful. *Raleigh*.—Lying towards the eaſt.—Theſe give us a view of the moſt *eaſterly*, ſoutherly, and weſterly, parts of England. *Graunt*.—Looking towards the eaſt.—Water he chuſes clear, light, without taſte or ſmell, drawn from ſprings with an *eaſterly* expoſition. *Arbuthnot*.

EAS'TERN, *adj.* Dwelling or found in the eaſt; oriental.—Like *eaſtern* kings a lazy ſtate they keep. *Pope*.

Eaſtern tyrants from the light of heaven
Seclude their boſom ſlaves. *Thomſon*.

Lying or being towards the eaſt.—The *eaſtern* end of the iſle riſes up in precipices. *Addiſon*.—Going towards the eaſt. Looking towards the eaſt:

The angel caught
Our ling'ring parents, and to th' *eaſtern* gate
Led them direct. *Milton*.

EAS'TON, a poſt town of the American States in Pennſylvania, and capital of Northampton county, pleaſantly ſituated at the mouth of the Lehigh; and on the weſt ſide of Delaware river. It is regularly laid out, and contains a court-houſe, regiſter's office, and an academy: twelve miles north-eaſt of Bethlehem, and ſeventy north of Philadelphia.

EAS'TON, the chief town of the American States, in Talbot county, Maryland, formerly called Talbot Court-houſe, on the eaſt ſide of Cheſapeak bay, near the forks of Treadhaven river, twelve miles from its junction with Choptank river. It has a handſome court-houſe, and market-houſe; and ſeveral ſtores for the ſupply of the adjacent country: five miles ſouth-weſterly of Williamſburg, thirty-ſeven ſouth of Cheſter Town, and 118 ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia.

EAS'TON, a townſhip of the American States, in Waſhington county, New York. In 1790 it contained 2539 inhabitants; and by the ſtate cenſus of 1796, it appears that 347 of its inhabitants are electors.

EAS'TON, a townſhip of the American States, important for its iron manufactures, ſituated in Briſtol county, Maſſachuſetts, near the head of Raynham river; ſix miles north-weſt of Raynham, and twelve weſt of Bridgewater. It contains 1466 inhabitants. The beſt mill-ſaws in the ſtate are made here. The art of making ſteel was introduced here by captain Eliphalet Leonard, in 1786. It is made in quantities; and is cheaper than imported ſteel, and equal in quality for large work, ſuch as plough-ſhares, horſe-ſhoes, &c. which require large quantities of hard ſteel. But for edge tools it is found to be of inferior quality to what is imported. The manufacture of linſeed oil began here in 1792, and from an annual ſtock of three thouſand buſhels of ſeed, there has been annually produced near five thouſand gallons of oil.

EASTONNE'SS, the moſt eaſterly cape on the coaſt of Suffolk, and the north point of Southwold Bay.

EAST'WARD, *adv.* Towards the eaſt.—The moon, which performs its motions ſwifter than the ſun, gets *eaſtward* out of his rays, and appears when the ſun is ſet. *Brown*.

EA'SY, *adj.* Not difficult.—The ſervice of God, in the ſolemn aſſembly of ſaints, is a work, though *eaſy*, yet withal very weighty, and of great reſpect. *Hooker*.—Not cauſing difficulty.—The whole iſland was cut into ſeveral *eaſy* aſcents, and planted with variety of palaces. *Addiſon*.—Quiet; at reſt; not haraſſed; unmoleſted; ſecure; not anxious.—A marriage of love is pleaſant, a marriage of intereſt *eaſy*, and a marriage where both meet happy. *Addiſon*.—A man ſhould direct all his ſtudies and endeavours at making himſelf *eaſy* now, and happy hereafter. *Spectator*.—We plainly feel whether at this inſtant we are *eaſy* or uneaſy, happy or miſerable. *Smalridge*.—Free from pain:

Pleaſure has been the buſ'neſs of my life,
And every change of fortune *eaſy* to me,
Becauſe I ſtill was *eaſy* to myſelf. *Dryden*.

Complying; unreſiſting; credulous:

The kindeſt father I have ever found him,
Eaſy and good, and bounteous to my wiſhes. *Addiſon*.

Ready; not unwilling:

Pity and he are one;
So merciful a king did never live,
Loth to revenge, and *eaſy* to forgive. *Dryden*.

Free from want of more.—They ſhould be allowed each of them ſuch a rent as would make them *eaſy*. *Swift*.—Not conſtrained; not ſtiff:

Praiſe the *eaſy* vigour of a line,
Where Denham's ſtrength and Waller's ſweetneſs join.
Pope.

To EAT, *v. a.* preterite *ate*, or *eat*; part. *eat*, or *eaten*. [etan, Saxon; *itan*, Gothic; *eich*, Erſe.] To devour with the mouth.—Locuſts ſhall *eat* the reſidue of that which is eſcaped from the hail, and ſhall *eat* every tree which groweth. *Exod.* x. 5.—To conſume; to corrode. They entail a ſecret curſe upon their eſtates, which does either inſenſibly waſte and conſume it, or *eat* out the heart and comfort of it. *Tillotſon*.—To ſwallow back; to retract. This is only uſed of a man's word.—They cannot hold, but burſt out thoſe words, which afterwards they are forced to *eat*. *Hakewill*.

Credit were not to be loſt
B' a brave knight errant of the poſt,
That *eats*, perfidiouſly, his word,
And ſwears his ears through a two-inch board. *Hudibras*.

To EAT, *v. n.* To go to meals; to take meals; to feed.—And when the ſcribes and phariſees ſaw him *eat* with publicans and ſinners, they ſaid unto his diſciples, How is it that he *eateth* with publicans and ſinners? *Matt.* ii. 16.—To take food.—He that will not *eat* till he has demonſtration that it will nouriſh him; he that will not ſtir till he infallibly knows the buſineſs he goes about will ſucceed, will have little elſe to do but ſit ſtill and periſh. *Locke*.—To be maintained in food.—The righteous *eateth* to the ſatisfying of his ſoul, but the belly of the wicked ſhall want. *Prov.* xiii. 25.

But, thanks to my indulgent ſtars, I *eat*,
Since I have found the ſecret to be great. *Prior*.

To

To make way by corroſion.—A prince's court *eats* too much into the income of a poor ſtate. *Addiſon on Italy.*

"EAT at pleaſure, drink by meaſure."—The French ſay: *Pain tant qu'il dure*, (bread as long as it laſts,) *vin à meſure*; and ſo likewiſe the Italians: *Pan mentre dura, ma vin à meſura.* The intent of this proverb is to ſhew that exceſs in eating is not ſo prejudicial as in drinking: it doth not deprive a man of his underſtanding, nor ſo nearly aſſimilate him with the beaſts of the field; yet the conſequences of an overloaded ſtomach are often as fatal in the end.

EA'TABLE, *adj.* That may be eaten.

EA'TABLE, *ſ.* Any thing that may be eaten:

If you all ſorts of perſons would engage,
Suit well your *eatables* to ev'ry age. *King's Cookery.*

EA'TER, *ſ.* One that eats any thing.—The Caribees and the Cannibals, almoſt all, are *eaters* of man's fleſh. *Abbot.*—If the taſte of this fruit maketh the *eaters* like gods, why remaineſt thou a beaſt? *Brown.*—A corroſive.

EATH, *adj.* [eaꝺ, Saxon.] Eaſy; not difficult. An old word.—Where eaſe abounds, it's *eath* to do amiſs. *Spenſer.*

What works not beauty, man's relenting mind
Is *eath* to move with plaints and ſhews of woe. *Fairfax.*

EATH, *adv.* Eaſily:

Who hath the world not try'd,
From the right way full *eath* may wander wide. *Hubb. Tale.*

EAT'INGHOUSE, *ſ.* A houſe where proviſions are ſold ready dreſſed.—An hungry traveller ſtept into an *eatinghouſe* for his dinner. *L'Eſtrange.*

EA'TON, a town of the American States, in the northern part of Stafford county, New Hampſhire; three miles north of the great Oſſipee lake, and about fifty-ſix north by weſt of Portſmouth. Incorporated in 1766.

EA'TONTOWN, improperly called *Edentown*, pleaſantly ſituated in New Jerſey, belonging to the American States, about a mile ſouth of Shrewſbury, in the ſame townſhip. It is a place of buſineſs, and thriving.

EAVES, *ſ.* [eȝeȝe, Saxon.] The edges of the roof which overhang the houſe.—The iſicles hang down from the *eaves* of houſes. *Woodward.*

Uſher'd with a ſhower ſtill,
When the guſt has blown his fill,
Ending on the ruſtling leaves,
With minute drops from off the *eaves.* *Milton.*

EAVES-CATCH, or EAVES-LATH, *ſ.* A thick board, with a featheredge to receive the lower courſe of tiles on the roof of a houſe.

To EAVES-DROP, *v. a.* To catch what comes from the eaves; in common phraſe, to liſten under windows.

EAVES-DROPPERS, *ſ.* perſons who liſten under walls or windows, or the eaves of a houſe, to hearken after diſcourſe, and thereupon to frame ſlanderous and miſchievous tales. In the eye of law ſuch perſons are a common nuiſance, and preſentable at the court-leet: or are indictable at the ſeſſions, and puniſhable by fine, and finding ſureties for good behaviour. 4 *Comm.* 169.

EAU DE LUCE. See PHARMACY.

EAUZE, a town of France, in the department of the Gers, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Condom: a celebrated city in the time of the Romans, after whom it came into the poſſeſſion of the Goths, with the whole province of Gaſcony, and from them it was taken by Clovis. It was deſtroyed by the Normans in their incurſions, in the reign of Louis the Debonnaire: four leagues and a half weſt-ſouth-weſt of Condom. Lat. 43. 52. N. lon. 17. 45. E. Ferro.

EBAL, [Heb. a heap.] A mountain of Paleſtine, ſituated in Samaria, near the plain of Moreh. *Deut.* xi. 29.

EBAU'LER, a town of Arabia Deſerta: 130 miles ſouth of Ana.

EBB, *ſ.* [ebba, eꝺꝺlob, Saxon; *ebbe*, Dutch.] The reflux of the tide towards the ſea: oppoſed to *flow:*

Hither the ſeas at ſtated times reſort,
And ſhove the loaden veſſels into port;
Then with a gentle *ebb* retire again,
And render back their cargo to the main. *Addiſon.*

Decline; decay; waſte.—This tide of man's life, after it once turneth and declineth, ever runneth with a perpetual *ebb* and falling ſtream, but never floweth again. *Raleigh.*

Thus all the treaſure of our flowing years,
Our *ebb* of life for ever takes away. *Roſcommon.*

EBB, in figurative language, is uſed to ſignify the loweſt pitch of fortune or condition in the world; decay; waſte.—You have brought all things to that low *ebb.* *Spenſer.*

"Every flow has its EBB." By this proverb the viciſſitudes of fortune are aptly compared to floods and ebbs (ups and downs), according to the Latin proverb; *Veriæ ſunt fortunæ vices.*

To EBB, *v. n.* To run back towards the ſea: oppoſed to *flow:*

From thence the tide of fortune left their ſhore,
And *ebb'd* much faſter than it *flow'd* before. *Dryden.*

To decline; to decay; to waſte:

But oh, he *ebbs!* the ſmiling waves decay;
For ever lovely ſtream, for ever ſtay! *Halifax.*

EBDO'MARY, *ſ.* [*ebdomadarius*, Lat.] An officer, anciently appointed weekly in cathedral churches, to ſupervise the regular performance of divine ſervice, and preſcribe the particular duties of each perſon attending in the choir, as to reading, ſinging, praying, &c. To which purpoſe the ebdomadary at the beginning of his week drew in form a bill or writing of the reſpective perſons and their ſeveral offices, called *tabula*; whereupon the perſons there entered were ſtiled *intabulati.* This is manifeſted in the Statutes of the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, digeſted by Dr. Ralph Baldock, dean of St. Paul's, *anno* 1295, MSS.

EB'DOME, a feſtival in honour of Apollo, at Athens, on the ſeventh day of every lunar month. It was uſual to ſing hymns in honour of the god, and to carry about boughs of laurel.—There was alſo another of the ſame name celebrated by private families the ſeventh day after the birth of every child.

E'BED, [Heb. a ſervant.] A man's name.

EBEDME'LECH, [Heb. the ſervant of the king.] A man's name.

EBEL'LEBEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and county of Schwartzburg: a fief of the elector of Saxony, ſituated on the Elbe: twenty miles north-weſt of Erfurt, and eleven north-eaſt of Muhlhauſen.

E'BELSTOT, or EBELTOFT, a town of Denmark, in Jutland, and dioceſe of Aarhuus: fifteen miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Aarhuus.

E'BENDORF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: nine miles weſt of Ziſterſdorf.

EBENE'ZER, [Heb. a ſtone of help.] A man's name.

EBENE'ZER, the name of a monument erected by the prophet Samuel, between Mizpeh and Shen, to commemorate a victory gained by the Iſraelites over the Philiſtines, near which alſo the Iſraelites encamped, previous to the battle fought between them and the Philiſtines, in which the Iſraelites were vanquiſhed, and the ark of God taken. 1 *Sam.* iv. 1. v. 1. and vii. 12.

EBENE'ZER, a poſt-town of the American States, and the capital of Effingham county, Georgia, ſeated on the ſouth-weſt bank of Savannah river; five miles from Abercorn, twenty-five north-north-weſt of Savannah, ſeventy-five ſouth-eaſt of Louiſville, and 860 ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia. It was ſettled in 1735, by a number of proteſtants driven out of Saltzburg, in the electorate of Bavaria, by perſecution.

E'BENFELD, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola: three miles ſouth of Stein.

E'BENFURTH, a town of Germany, in the archduchy

of Auſtria, on the Leyta, built by the knights-templars; eighteen miles ſouth of Vienna.

E'BENHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Wurzburg: five miles north-north-weſt of Schweinfurt.

E'BENHEIT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and margraviate of Meiſſen: two miles north-eaſt of Konigſtein.

E'BENSFELD, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: ſix miles weſt of Pettau.

E'BENTHAL, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carinthia: two miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Clagenfurt.

EB'ENUS, *ſ.* [ἔβενος or ἔβελος of the Greeks; *ebenus* or *ebenum* of the Romans; from the Hebrew *heben.*] EBONY; in botany, a genus of the claſs diadelphia, order decandria. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, bell-ſhaped, terminated by five filiform teeth, which are villoſe, and nearly equal. Corolla: papilionaceous, length of the calyx; ſtandard roundiſh, ſtraight, entire; rudiments of wings obſcure, creſcent-ſhaped; keel creſcent-ſhaped, gibbous, aſcending at the tip. Stamina: filaments diadelphous, all growing together into a ſheath, with tips diſtinct; antheræ roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, villoſe; ſtyle capillary; ſtigma terminal, acuminate. Pericarpium: legume ovate. Seed: ſingle, rough with hairs.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, with teeth, the length of the corolla; wings, ſcarcely any; ſeed, one, rough with hairs.

Species. 1. Ebenus Cretica, or Cretan ebony: leaves ternate, quinate, or pinnate, with two pairs of leaflets; ſpikes terminating. This riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk three or four feet high, with ſeveral ſide branches; leaves at each joint, hoary, compoſed of five narrow lanceolate leaflets, which join at their tails to the foot-ſtalk, and ſpread out like the fingers of a hand; the branches are terminated by thick ſpikes of large purple flowers: the ſpikes are from two to three inches long, and make a fine appearance; it flowers in June and July, and in very warm ſeaſons will ſometimes perfect ſeeds in England. It grows naturally in Crete, and ſome iſlands of the Archipelago. Lamarck and Juſſieu refer this plant to the genus Anthyllis.

2. Ebenus pinnata, or pinnated ebony: leaves pinnate, with four pairs of leaflets; ſpikes axillary, on very long peduncles. Biennial; native of Barbary and the Levant; flowers in July.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe are propagated by ſeeds, which ſhould be ſown in the autumn, for thoſe which are ſown in the ſpring often fail; they muſt be ſown in pots, and placed under a frame in the winter, where they may be protected from froſt. In the ſpring the plants will come up; they ſhould be kept clean from weeds, and refreſhed now and then with water. When theſe have acquired ſtrength enough to be removed, they ſhould be each planted in a ſeparate ſmall pot filled with light earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed juſt to promote their taking new root; then they ſhould be gradually inured to bear the open air, into which they ſhould be removed the latter end of May, placing them in a ſheltered ſituation, where they may remain till autumn, when they muſt be removed into ſhelter; for theſe plants will not live in the open air through the winter, nor ſhould they be too tenderly treated, leſt they draw up weak. During the winter ſeaſon, the plants muſt be ſparingly watered, but in the ſummer they will require to be often refreſhed. The other management is the ſame as for other of the hardier exotic plants, among which they will make a fine variety. See AMERIMNUM and DIOSPYROS.

E'BENZWEIER, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: four miles ſouth of Gmunden.

E'BER, or HEBER, [Heb. a paſſage.] A man's name.

E'BERACH, BURG, or BURG-EBRACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Bamberg: ſeven miles ſouth-weſt of Bamberg, and thirty-two eaſt of Wurzburg.

E'BERBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz: thirteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Mentz.

E'BERBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and palatinate of the Rhine, on the Neckar, celebrated for its wine: eleven miles eaſt of Heidelberg.

E'BERBERG, or EBERNBERG, a caſtle of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine, beſieged, in 1692, by the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, without ſucceſs; and taken by the margrave of Baden, in 1697: five miles ſouth-weſt of Creutznach.

EBERMAN'STADT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Bamberg, on the Wiſent: thirteen miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Bamberg.

E'BERN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Wurzburg: twenty-four miles eaſt of Schweinfurt, and forty north-eaſt of Wurzburg.

E'BERNDORF, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carinthia: fourteen miles eaſt of Clagenfurt.

E'BERNSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carinthia, on the river Gortſchitz: twelve miles north-north-eaſt of Clagenfurt.

E'BERSBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and principality of Naſſau Dillenburg: ſix miles north-north-eaſt of Dillenburg.

E'BERSBERG, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles ſouth-weſt of Ens.

E'BERSDORF, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: five miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Hardeberg.

E'BERSDORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and territory of Erzgebirg: three miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Frakenberg.

E'BERSDORF, or KOTTINS EBERSTORF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, on the Danube: ſix miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Vienna.

E'BERSHARD, a town and caſtle of Hungary: ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Preſburg.

E'BERSPERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria: nineteen miles eaſt of Munich.

E'BERSPEUNT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria: thirty-four miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Munich.

E'BERSTADT, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: four miles ſouth of Darmſtadt.

EBERSTALL'ZELL, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles ſouth of Wells.

E'BERSTEIN, a county and principality of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, ſituated between the margraviate of Baden and duchy of Wurtemberg. The family was extinct in the year 1660, and by virtue of a treaty made in 1505, paſſed to the houſe of Baden. The town and caſtle of Eberſtein are two miles weſt of Kuppenheim.

E'BERSTHAL, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz: two miles ſouth of Krantheim.

EBER'TUS (Theodore), a learned German in the ſeventeenth century, who filled the chair of Hebrew profeſſor at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and was rector of the univerſity in that place in 1618, and 1627. He acquired conſiderable reputation by the profound learning diſplayed in his writings, and in particular by the intimacy of his acquaintance with the oriental tongues. In 1628, he publiſhed a work intitled *Elogia Juriſconſultorum & Politorum centum illuſtrium, qui ſanctam Hebræam Linguam aliaſque ejus propagines orientales propagarunt, auxerunt, promoverunt,* 8vo. He afterwards publiſhed *Chronologia Sanct. Ling. Doctorum, &c.* preſenting us with a chronological view of the principal doctors and learned men who have cultivated the Hebrew language, from the earlieſt times to the preſent; The Life of Jeſus Chriſt, written in Hebrew; *Poetica Hebraica,* 8vo. 1620; a moral treatiſe intitled *Speculum Morale*; and A Century of Political Obſervations, written in Latin.

EB'HER. See ABHER.

E'BIN, or YBIN, one of the ſmaller Philippine Iſlands, in the Eaſtern Indian Sea.

EBIN'GEN, or EHINGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, and duchy of Wurtemburg: thirty-ſix miles ſouth of Stutgart, and twenty-two ſouth of Tubingen.

E'BION, and E'BIONITES. There is much diſagreement among eccleſiaſtical hiſtorians reſpecting the exiſtence of a perſon named Ebion, in the age that is by many aſſigned to him. According to Epiphanius, Tertullian, Optatus, St. Hilary, St. Jerome, and others, a perſon ſo called lived in the latter end of the firſt or the beginning of the ſecond century, who was a ſtoic philoſopher, and, embracing many of the opinions of Cerinthus, became the leader of a new ſect, who after him were called Ebionites. Irenæus, however, as well as Euſebius and Origen, by their making not the leaſt mention of ſuch a perſon as Ebion, and by the derivation which the two latter give of the name of the ſect, from a term ſignificative of poverty, meanneſs, or vileneſs, leave it at leaſt doubtful whether Ebion be not an imaginary character. But it is not a matter of much moment how the queſtion is decided. The Ebionites, according to the teſtimony of Origen and Epiphanius, held the ſame tenets with the Nazarenes. From all the information that has reached our day, it is not poſſible to aſcertain preciſely what thoſe tenets were. Many of the repreſentations given concerning the Ebionites by the ancient fathers are ſo confuſed and contradictory, that they do not merit ſerious attention. And ſome of the tales which they relate concerning them, are exact copies of the calumnies which were propagated by the Pagans, to diſcredit the characters of the early Chriſtians. One of their leading doctrines appears to have been a belief that Jeſus Chriſt was a mere man, like themſelves, though poſſeſſing ſupernatural powers, which were communicated for the purpoſe of qualifying him for his divine miſſion. They appear alſo to have conſidered the laws of Moſes to be binding on them; but to what extent cannot be affirmed with any certainty. According to ſome writers, they received only the Goſpel of St. Matthew as of divine authority, which they poſſeſſed in the Hebrew or Syro-chaldaic language, and rejected the reſt of the New Teſtament, particularly the Epiſtles of St. Paul. The learned Lardner, however, is of opinion, that there is room for fairly arguing that they received all the four Goſpels; and that ſome of the ſect at leaſt, by the quotations which they adduced from the Acts of the Apoſtles, and ſome of the Epiſtles, have given reaſon for concluding that they did not reject all the Epiſtles attributed to the great apoſtle of the Gentiles. But there is much obſcurity in the relations which remain reſpecting the tenets of this ſect; and little more can be advanced on that head, from the concurrent teſtimony of the moſt ancient and reſpectable eccleſiaſtical writers, than that, to uſe the words of Juſtin Martyr, "they acknowledged Jeſus to be the Chriſt, yet maintained that he was a man, born of man."

EB'MAT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of the Vogtland: five miles ſouth of Oelſnitz.

EB'ON, *adj.* Made of ebony:

And from the golden quiver at her ſide
Rattles the *ebon* arrow's feather'd pride. *Prior.*

EB'ONIST, *ſ.* A worker in ebony. *Scott.*

EB'ONY, *ſ.* [*ebenus*, Lat.] A hard, heavy, black, valuable, wood, which admits a fine poliſh. For the various ſpecies, &c. ſee EBENUS.

Oft by the winds extinct the ſignal lies,
Ere night has half roll'd round her *ebon* throne. *Gay.*

EBORA'CUM, anciently a city of the Brigantes in Britain, the reſidence of Septimius Severus, and Conſtantius Chlorus, and where they both died; a Roman colony, and the ſtation of the Legio Sexta Victrix. Now YORK. *Caer-frock*, or *Caer-effroc*, in Britiſh. *Camden.*

EBREICH'STORF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles north-north-eaſt of Ebenfurth.

EBREU'IL, or EBREUILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Allier, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Gannat, on the Soioule, containing about 3000 inhabitants: two leagues weſt of Gannat.

EBRI'ETY, *ſ.* [*ebrietas*, Lat.] Drunkenneſs; intoxication by ſtrong liquors.—Bitter almonds, as an antidote againſt *ebriety*, hath commonly failed. *Brown.*

EBRILLA'DE, *ſ.* [French.] A check of the bridle which a horſeman gives a horſe, by a jerk of one rein, when he refuſes to turn.

EBRIO'SITY, *ſ.* [*ebrioſitas*, Lat.] Habitual drunkenneſs.—That religion which excuſeth Noah in ſurpriſal, will neither acquit *ebrioſity* nor ebriety in their intended perverſion. *Brown.*

E'BRIOUS, *adj.* [from *ebrius*, Lat.] Drunken; given to drunkenneſs. *Not much uſed.*

E'BRO, anciently IBERUS, a river of Spain, which, taking its riſe in Old Caſtile, runs through Biſcay and Arragon, paſſes by Saragoſſa, and, continuing its courſe through Catalonia, diſcharges itſelf with great rapidity into the Mediterranean, about twenty miles below the city of Tortoſa.

EBRO'NAH, the thirtieth encampment of the Iſraelites, in their journey from Egypt to Canaan. *Numb.* xxxiii. 34.

EB'STORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Lunenburg, celebrated for its honey, of which the inhabitants ſell annually to the amount of ſeveral thouſand crowns: ſeven miles weſt-north-weſt of Ultzen.

EBU'DÆ, or HEBUDES, in ancient geography, iſlands on the weſt of Scotland. Now called the *Weſtern Iſles*, or *Hebrides*, a corruption of *Hebudes*. By Beda called *Mevaniæ*.

To EBUL'LIATE, *v. n.* [*ebullio*, Lat. to bubble.] To bubble out

EBULL'IENCY, *ſ.* A bubbling out; an ebullition. *Not much uſed.*

EBULLI'TION, *ſ.* [*ebullio*, Lat.] The act of boiling up with heat. Any inteſtine motion.—Iron, in aqua-fortis, will fall into *ebullition* with noiſe and emication. *Brown.*—That ſtruggling of effervescence which ariſes from the mingling together any alkalizate and acid liquor; any inteſtine violent motion of the parts of a fluid, occaſioned by the ſtruggling of particles of different properties. *Quincy.*—A violent cold, as well as heat, may be produced by this *ebullition*; for if ſal ammoniac, or any pure volatile alkali, diſſolved in water, be mixed with an acid, an *ebullition*, with a greater degree of cold, will enſue. *Arbuthnot.*

EB'ULUS, *ſ.* in botany. See SAMBUCUS.

E'BUR, *ſ.* [Lat.] Ivory.

EBUR'NEAN, *adj.* [from *ebur*, Lat.] Conſiſting of ivory; made of ivory.

EBU'SUS, in ancient geography, the greater of the two iſlands called *Pityuſæ*, in the Mediterranean, near the eaſt coaſt of Spain, to the ſouth-weſt of Majorca; famous for its paſtures for cattle, and for its figs. Now *Ivica*: 100 miles in compaſs, without any noxious animals.

ECALE'SIA, &c. See HECALESIA.

ECALGRA'IN, a bay or creek of the Engliſh Channel, on the weſt coaſt of France, between Cape Anderville and the Nez de Jobourg.

ECA'NUS, a man's name. 2 *Eſd.* xiv. 24.

ECASTAPHYL'LUM, *ſ.* in botany. See DALBERGIA.

ECATOMBÆ'ON, *ſ.* [εκατομβαιων, Gr.] The firſt month of the Athenian year. It conſiſted of thirty days, and began on the firſt new moon after the ſummer ſolſtice, and conſequently anſwered to the latter part of our June and beginning of July. The Bœotians called it *Hippodromus*, and the Macedonians *Lous*.

EC'BASIS, *ſ.* [Greek.] A figure in rhetoric; a digreſſion.

ECBATA'NA,

ECBATA'NA, anciently the capital of Media, and reſidence of its kings, built by Deioces, king of the Medes, according to Herodotus: Pliny ſays, by Seleucus; but that could not be, becauſe it is mentioned by Demoſthenes. It was ſituated on a gentle declivity, diſtant twelve ſtadia from Mount Orontes, and was in compaſs 150 ſtadia. Here ſtood the royal treaſury and tombs. It had a very ſtrong citadel, encompaſſed with ſeven walls, the outermoſt of which was the loweſt, and each of the reſt progreſſively higher, ſo that they all overtopped each other; and were each of a different colour. The outermoſt was white; the ſecond black; the third purple; the fourth blue; the fifth red, or rather of an orange colour; and the ſummit of the ſixth was covered with ſilver, and that of the ſeventh or innermoſt, with gold. Such is the account given by Herodotus, i. 98. It appears not improbable that theſe walls had a reference to the ſeven planets, though nothing is hinted on that ſubject by the hiſtorian.—From ſcripture hiſtory we learn, that this city was the royal ſeat of Arphaxad, who encompaſſed it with a ſtone wall, and erected its gates; both of which were remarkable for their extraordinary dimenſions. It was taken by Nabuchodonoſor, king of Aſſyria, after a battle in which Arphaxad was ſlain. *Judith*, i. It is ſaid that Alexander the Great found 26,000 talents of gold in the treaſury of this city.—Another *Ecbatana* of Perſia, a town of the Magi. *Pliny*.—A third of Syria.

ECBO'LICS, *ſ.* [from εκβαλλω, Gr. to caſt out.] Medicines which cauſe abortion.

ECBO'LIUM, *ſ.* in botany. See JUSTICIA.

ECBRYSO'MA, *ſ.* [from εκ, and βυεσα, Gr. the ſkin.] With ſurgeons, the protuberance of a bone at the joint, which appears through the ſkin.

EC'CARD, or ECKHARD (John-George), a learned antiquarian, born in 1674, at Duingen, in the diſtrict of Lauenſtein, where his father was chief foreſter. He was ſent to the ſchool of Pforta, where his favourite ſtudy was poetry. He then removed to Leipſic, where he became acquainted with the celebrated Leibnitz. In 1696 he left Leipſic, became a corrector of the preſs, and afterwards ſecretary to field-marſhal count Fleming, who intended to make him major of his regiment; but neither theology, to which he was deſtined by his mother, nor the military profeſſion, were agreeable to his taſte. By the recommendation of Leibnitz, he obtained the profeſſorſhip of hiſtory at Helmſtadt, in 1706; and in 1713 he was appointed a counſellor of the electorate of Hanover, and hiſtoriographer, in conſequence of which he aſſiſted Leibnitz in his *Origines Guelphicæ*, and in 1717 he became his ſucceſſor as librarian at Hanover. After this he travelled at the expence of George I. through great part of Germany, to ſearch the libraries and archives for manuſcripts and materials to enable him to proſecute the compilation of the above-mentioned genealogical work. His *Origines Sabaudicæ*, procured him the favour of the great prince Eugene of Savoy; and his *Origines Familiæ Habſburgo-Auſtriacæ*, that of count von Zinzendorf, through whoſe means the emperor Charles VI. raiſed him to the rank of nobility. He proceeded to Cologne, and on the 2d of February, 1724, he formally abjured the Lutheran religion in the college of the Jeſuits, in that city. The elector of Cologne treated him with great reſpect, and cardinals Paſſionei and Spinola aſſured him of the protection of pope Innocent XII. who promiſed benefices to both his ſons if he would come to reſide at Rome. The elector of Mentz, the elector Palatine, and the princes of Paſſau and Fulda, and the nobility of Milan, all made him moſt advantageous offers, to enable him to complete his *Scriptores rerum Italicarum*; but he entered into the ſervice of the biſhopric of Wurzburgh, where he was entruſted with the care of the library belonging to the court and the univerſity. The dean and chapter committed to his charge the valuable manuſcripts contained in the diplomatic archives of the cathedral, which he arranged and claſſed with great ability. Several propoſals for improving the form of the academic lectures, and eſtabliſhing a profeſſorſhip of the law of nature at Wurzburgh; calling the public attention to the much-neglected natural hiſtory of that diſtrict; the intereſting account of the old imperial palace of Salzburgh, near Neuſtadt, on the Saal; and his *Commentarii de rebus Franciæ Orientalis*, printed with great magnificence at Wurzburgh, in two folio volumes, were the fruits of his meditation and ſtudy, which he often continued throughout the day, and till a late hour at night. It is much to be regretted, however, that he did not live to put the laſt hand to his important work on the hiſtory of Wurzburg. While defining, in the preface, the boundaries of the biſhopric under St. Burckhard, he was ſuddenly ſeized with a mortal diſeaſe, which put a period to his exiſtence in the month of February, 1730. The principal of his works are, 1. *De uſu & præſtantia ſtudii etymologici in hiſtoria*; Helmſt. 1706, 4to. 2. *Hiſtoria ſtudii etymolog. linguæ Germanicæ*; Hanov. 1711, 8vo. 3. *Leges Francorum Salicæ & Ripuariorum*; Francf. & Lipſ. 1720, folio. 4. *Origines familiæ Habſburgico-Auſtriacæ*; Lipſ. 1721, folio. 5. *Hiſtoria genealog. Principum Saxon, &c. &c. Accedunt origines Sabaudicæ ſtemma Deſideratum genuinum; origo domus Br. Luneb. & Czàreæ connexio, &c.* Lipſ. 1722, folio. 6. *Corpus Hiſtoriarum medii ævi*; Lipſ. 1723, vol. ii. folio. 7. An Account of ancient Salzburg, and the Palace Salz, in Franconia; Wurzburg, 1725, 8vo. Leipſic, 1751, 8vo. 8. *Commentarii de rebus Franciæ orientalis & epiſcopatus Wirceburgenſis, &c.* Wirceb. 1729, tom. ii. folio; a work of great learning, and an honourable teſtimony of the author's extenſive knowledge of hiſtory. 9. *De origine Germanorum eorumque vetuſtiſſimis coloniis, migrationibus ac rebus geſtis, libri duo*; Goetting. 1750, 4to. cum fig. 10. *Origines Guelphicæ; Opus præcunte D. God. Guil. Leibnitio, D. Jo. Geo. Eccardi literis conſignatum, poſtea a D. Jo. Dan. Grubero novis probationibus inſtructum, variiſque perneceſſariis animadverſionibus caſtigatum; jam vero in lucem emiſſum a Chriſt. Lud. Scheidio*; Hanov. tom. i. 1750, tom. ii. 1751, tom. iii. 1752, tom. iv. & ult. 1753, folio.

ECCATHAR'TICS, *ſ.* [from καθαιρω, Gr. to purge.] According to Gorræus, *eccathartics* are remedies which, applied to the ſkin, open the pores; but in general they are underſtood to be deobſtruents: ſometimes expectorants are thus called, and ſo are purgatives.

ECCEN'TRIC, or ECCENTRICAL, *adj.* [*eccentricus*, Lat.] Deviating from the center. Not having the ſame center with another circle: ſuch circles were firſt ſuppoſed by the Ptolemaic philoſophy.—Whence is it that planets move all one and the ſame way in orbs concentric, while comets move all manner of ways in orbs very *eccentric? Newton*.

They build, unbuild, contrive,
To ſave appearances: they gird the ſphere
With centric, and *eccentric*, ſcribbl'd o'er,
Cycle and epicycle, orb in orb. *Milton.*

Not terminating in the ſame point; not directed by the ſame principle.—Whatſoever affairs paſs ſuch a man's hands, he crooketh them to his own ends; which muſt needs be often *eccentric* to the ends of his maſter. *Bacon.*—Irregular; anomalous; deviating from ſtated and conſtant methods.—This motion, like others of the times, ſeems *eccentric* and irregular. *King Charles*.

Then from whate'er we can to ſenſe produce,
Common and plain, or wond'rous and abſtruſe,
From nature's conſtant or *eccentric* laws,
The thoughtful ſoul this general inference draws,
That an effect muſt preſuppoſe a cauſe. *Prior.*

ECCENTRI'CITY, *ſ.* Deviation from a center. The ſtate of having a different center from another circle.—In regard of *eccentricity*, and the epicycle wherein it moveth, the motion of the moon is unequal. *Brown.*—By reaſon of the ſun's *eccentricity* to the earth, and obliquity to the equator, he appears to us to move unequally. *Holder.*—

Excurſion from the proper orb.—The duke at his return from his *eccentricity*, for ſo I account favourites abroad, met no good news. *Waller.—Eccentricity* of the earth is the diſtance between the focus and the center of the earth's elliptic orbit.

ECCHELLEN'SIS (Abraham), a learned Maronite, who flouriſhed in the ſeventeenth century, was induced by his countryman, Gabriel Sionita, to viſit Paris, to become his coadjutor in preparing for the preſs the magnificent Polyglot Bible, publiſhed by M. le Jai. It was he who furniſhed the Arabic and Syriac texts of the Book of Ruth, with the Latin verſion. He was afterwards appointed profeſſor of the Syriac and Arabic languages in college-royal at Paris. In 1636, the college *De Propaganda Fide* added him to the number of thoſe who were to be employed in tranſlating the ſcriptures into Arabic, and recalled him for that purpoſe out of France to Rome, where he was engaged on that work in 1652. He was alſo made profeſſor of the oriental languages at Rome; and was choſen by the archduke Ferdinand II. to tranſlate out of the Arabic into Latin the fifth, ſixth, and ſeventh, Books of Apollonius's Conics, in which work he was aſſiſted by John Alphonſo Borelli, a celebrated mathematician. The whole work was printed at Florence, with Archimedes's book *De Aſſumptis*, in 1661, in folio. He died at Rome in the year 1664. Beſides what have been already mentioned, Ecchellenſis was the author of, 1. *Inſtitutio Linguæ Syriacæ*, 12mo. 1628. 2. *Synopſis Philoſophiæ Orientalium*, 4to. 1641. 3. *Verſio Durrhamani de medicis Virtutibus animalium, plantarum, & gummarum*, 8vo. 1647. 4. *Chronicon Orientale Latine red. cum Supplemento Hiſtoriæ Orientalis*, folio, 1651. 5. *Eutychius vindicatus*, againſt Selden and Hottinger, 4to. 1661. 6. Remarks on the Catalogue of Chaldee Writers, compoſed by Hebed-Jeſu, 1653.

ECCHYMO'SIS, *ſ.* [from εκχυω, Gr. to pour out, or from εκ, out of, and χυμος, juice.] An effuſion of humours from their reſpective veſſels, under the integuments; or, as Paulus Ægineta ſays, "When the fleſh is bruiſed by the violent colliſion of any object, and its ſmall veins broken, the blood is gradually diſcharged from them." This blood, when collected under the ſkin, is called an *ecchymoſis*, the ſkin in the mean time remaining entire; ſometimes a tumor is formed by it, which is ſoft and livid, and generally without pain. If the quantity of blood is not conſiderable, it is uſually reſorbed; if much, it ſuppurates: it rarely happens that any further inconvenience follows; though, in caſe of a very bad habit of body, a mortification may be the reſult; and in ſuch a caſe regard muſt be had to the mode of cure.

EC'CLESBOURN, a river of England, which runs into the Derwent in Derbyſhire.

ECCLESFE'CHAN, a town of Scotland, in the county of Dumfries: fifteen miles eaſt from Dumfries.

EC'CLESHALL, a ſmall town in Staffordſhire, 142 meaſured miles from London. It ſtands near the river Sow, is a neat place, noted for pedlars wares, and has a good charity-ſchool. The market-day is Friday: fairs, Midlent-Thurſday, Holy-Thurſday, Auguſt 16, and the firſt Friday in November. Here is a palace of the lord biſhop of Litchfield and Coventry.

ECCLE'SIA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A church, the church, an aſſembly.

ECCLE'SIAN, *ſ.* One who adheres to the church, a churchman.

ECCLESIA'NI, *ſ.* in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, thoſe who adhered to the church in oppoſition to the civil magiſtrate.

ECCLE'SIARCH, *ſ.* [from εκκλησια, Gr. the church, and αρχος a chief.] The ruler of a church.

ECCLESIAS'TES, *ſ.* [*l'eccleſiaſte*, Fr. *eccleſiaſte*, Ital. *eccleſiaſtes*, Lat. εκκλησιαστης, Gr. *i. e.* the preacher.] A canonical book of the Old Teſtament, the deſign of which is to ſhew the vanity of all ſublunary things. It was compoſed by Solomon; who enumerates the ſeveral objects on which men place their temporal happineſs, and then ſhews the inſufficiency of all worldly enjoyments. The Talmudiſts made king Hezekiah to be the author of it; Grotius aſcribes it to Zorobabel, and others to Iſaiah; but the generality of commentators believe this book to be the produce of Solomon's repentance, after having experienced all the follies and pleaſures incident to human life.

ECCLESIAS'TIC, or ECCLESIASTICAL, *adj.* [*eccleſiaſticus*, Lat.] Relating to the church; not civil.—Is diſcipline an *eccleſiaſtical* matter or civil? If an *eccleſiaſtical*, it muſt belong to the duty of the miniſters. *Hooker.*—Clergymen, otherwiſe little fond of obſcure terms, yet in their ſermons are liberal of thoſe which they find in *eccleſiaſtical* writers. *Swift.*

ECCLESIAS'TIC, *ſ.* A perſon dedicated to the miniſtries of religion.—The ambition of the *eccleſiaſtics* deſtroyed the purity of the church. *Burnet.*

ECCLESIAS'TICAL COURTS. See COURTS OF LAW, vol. v. p. 300.

ECCLESIAS'TICAL CORPORATIONS, *ſ.* Thoſe where the members that compoſe them are ſpiritual perſons. They were erected for the furtherance of religion, and perpetuating the rights of the church. See CORPORATION, vol. v. p. 222.

ECCLESIAS'TICAL LAW. See CANON-LAW, vol. iii. p. 734.

ECCLESIAS'TICAL STATE. See CLERGY, vol. iv. p. 660.

ECCLESIAS'TICALLY, *adv.* In an eccleſiaſtical manner.

ECCLESIAS'TICUS, *ſ.* An apocryphal book, generally bound up with the ſcriptures; and ſo called, from its being read in the church, *eccleſia*, as a book of piety and inſtruction, but not of infallible authority. The author was a Jew, called *Jeſus the Son of Sirach*. The Greeks called it the *Wiſdom of the Son of Sirach*.

EC'CLESTONE, a town in Lancaſhire; it has a market on Saturday, and is 205 miles from London.

ECCOPE'US, *ſ.* [from εκκοπτω, Gr. to cut off.] An inſtrument for cutting off limbs, uſed by the ancient chirurgeons. It is ſimilar to the modern raſpatory.

ECCOPRO'TICS, *ſ.* [from εκ and κοπρος, Gr. dung.] Mild cathartics. Medicines which operate gently by ſtool.

ECCRINO'LOGY, *ſ.* [from εκκρινω, Gr. to ſecrete, and λογος, a diſcourſe.] The doctrine of the ſecretions of the body.

ECCRY'SIS, *ſ.* [from εκκρεω, Gr. to flow out.] An excretion, expulſion, or removal, of any excrementitious or morbific matter from the body, either by the bowels, or any other convenient paſſages. It is alſo taken for the excreted matter itſelf. It is ſimilar to apocriſis, which alſo, according to Hippocrates, is applied to the contagious effluvia of the air, or to a certain morbid quality, impreſſed upon the air by exhalation, called *miaſma*.

ECDI'CI, *ſ.* [εκδικοι, Gr.] Among the ancients, patrons of cities, who defended their rights, and took care of the public money. Their office reſembled that of the modern ſyndics.

EC'DICUS, *ſ.* [εκδικος, of εκ and δικη, Gr. juſtice; in civil law.] An attorney or proctor of a corporation; a recorder.

ECDO'RICS, *ſ.* [from εκδερω, Gr. to excoriate.] Medicines which excoriate and burn through the ſkin.

ECHALAR', a town of Spain, in Navarre: twenty miles north of Pamplona.

ECHALLE'NS, a town of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Bern, with a bailiwic of the ſame name, belonging to the cantons of Bern and Friburg, conquered by the Swiſs in 1475, and ceded to the two cantons in the year 1484: ſix miles from Lauſanne.

ECHAPE'R, *v. a.* in the manege, a galliciſm uſed in the academies, implying to give a horſe head, or to put on at full ſpeed.

ECH'ARD,

ECH'ARD (James), a French monk of the dominican order, born at Rouen in 1664, and died at Paris in 1724, aged eighty years. He was the author of a work highly eſteemed by his order, on many of whom it beſtows much praiſe, ſometimes, as may be expected, with too much partiality; but which will be found of uſe to biographers and eccleſiaſtical hiſtorians; it is intitled *Scriptores Ordinis Prædicatorum recenſiti, notiſque hiſtoricis & criticis illuſtrati*, 2 vols. folio, 1721.

ECH'ARD (Lawrence), a writer chiefly in hiſtory, the ſon of a clergyman at Barſham, near Beccles in Suffolk, where he was born in 1671. He was educated at Chriſt's college, Cambridge, where he took the degree of maſter of arts, and afterwards entered into holy orders. He was firſt ſettled in Lincolnſhire, where he began to make himſelf known by his writings. He publiſhed, in 1699, the Roman Hiſtory, from the Building of the City to the Settlement of the Empire by Auguſtus, 8vo. which was followed by its continuation from that period to that of Conſtantine. Theſe were afterwards printed together in 3 vols. 8vo. In 1702, he publiſhed a General Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, from the Birth of Chriſt to the Eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity under Conſtantine, folio. This was well received, and came to a ſixth edition, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1722. It was probably the cauſe of his profeſſional promotion to the offices of prebendary of Lincoln, and chaplain to the biſhop of that dioceſe. His next work was a Hiſtory of England, from the Invaſion of Julius Cæſar to the End of James the Firſt's Reign, folio, 1707. This he afterwards carried down to the revolution, in two more volumes, printed in 1718. He obtained conſiderable reputation by this performance, which is written in a clear method and perſpicuous ſtyle, though not without various party miſrepreſentations, for ſome of which he was reprehended in a printed letter from Dr. Edmund Calamy. One of his moſt uſeful works was the Gazeteer's or Newſman's Interpreter, being a geographical index or dictionary of all the principal places on the globe. Of this, many editions have been printed, and the Gazeteers of the preſent time may be regarded as its improved copies. He alſo publiſhed a tranſlation of three comedies of Plautus, and took a ſhare in a tranſlation of Terence; but he obtained little credit for either of theſe performances, which were cenſured for the coarſeneſs of their ſtyle. In his proper profeſſion he compiled a volume of Maxims and Diſcourſes, moral and divine, taken from the works of archbiſhop Tillotſon, 8vo. 1719. Mr. Echard was appointed to the archdeaconry of Stow in 1712. Towards the latter part of life he was preſented by the king to the livings of Rendleſham, Sudborn, and Alford, in Suffolk, to which county he removed. Falling into a bad ſtate of health, he was proceeding to Scarborough for the benefit of the waters, when he died in his carriage, in 1730.

ECHARDSAU', a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: twelve miles eaſt of Entzerſdorf.

ECHAR'RI, a town of Spain, in Navarre: ſeventeen miles weſt of Pamplona.

ECHAUBROI'GNES (Les), a town of France, in the department of the Two Sevres, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Chatillon; four miles north of Chatillon ſur Sevre.

ECHAUFFOU', a town of France, in the department of the Orne, containing about 2000 inhabitants: three leagues weſt of l'Aigle.

ECHBRU'NE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: twelve miles ſouth of Saintes.

ECHECRA'TES, a Theſſalian, who offered violence to Phœbus the prieſteſs of Apollo's temple of Delphi. From this circumſtance a decree was made by which no woman was admitted to the office of prieſteſs before the age of fifty. *Diodorus.*

ECHEL'LE (L'), a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Rocroy: eight miles ſouth of Rocroy.

ECHEL'LES (Les), a town of Savoy, ſituated in a narrow valley, on a ſmall river called the *Guier-vif*, in the road from Grenoble to Chambery: ten miles ſouth-weſt of Chambery.

E'CHELSBEKE, a town of Flanders: five miles north of Bergues.

ECHENAY', a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Joinville: ſeven miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Joinville.

ECHENE'IS, *ſ.* [from ἔχω, Gr. to take, and ναῦς, a veſſel; ſo called, becauſe it was fabuloufly ſaid to ſtick to the keels of veſſels and retard their progreſs.] The SUCKER; in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of thoracici; the generic character of which is, a buckler upon the head, formed of ſeveral tranſverſe lines, interſected by a longitudinal one. Theſe lines, ſeen under the magnifier, appear to conſiſt of little tufts of briſtles. When the fiſh rubs its head againſt any rough or porous body, the briſtles faſten, and the fiſh remains ſuſpended. Hence it is that the ſucker is often found ſticking to veſſels, and to the ſhark; but it is a vulgar error that they faſten on the ſhark for nouriſhment; ſtill more abſurd was the fable of the ancients, that this fiſh had power to hinder the ſailing of ſhips, and for which ſuppoſed faculty they gave it the name of *remora*, delay or hindrance. See alſo Pliny, lib. ix. and xxxii. for other abſurd notions concerning this fiſh. The number of tranſverſe lines is from eighteen to twenty-four. The head is broad at the top, and ends in a ſharp ſnout. The jaws are armed with ſmall teeth, and the under one is the longeſt. The mouth is wide; the tongue broad; the gills have a large aperture, and the membrane is ſupported by ſtrong rays. The body is long and thick; the fins ſmall, appearing hardly capable to move ſo large a body. They haunt the Mediterranean Sea and the Ocean; and are of the voracious kind, often meaſuring from two to ſeven feet in length. There are three ſpecies, viz.

1. Echeneis neucrates, the pilot ſucking-fiſh: ſpecific character, the tail rounded. It has nine rays in the membrane of the gills, twenty in the pectoral fin, four in the ventral, thirty-five in the anal, eighteen in the tail, and forty in the dorſal. The body is lengthened; head of a middling ſize; mouth large; the lower jaw tapers to a point, and protrudes conſiderably beyond the upper; both are furniſhed with teeth like a file. The tongue is rough, thin, narrow, and looſe; and there are teeth likewiſe in the palate. Not far from the upper lip, and near the buckler, are four ſmall holes. The eyes are ſmall, with a black pupil in a yellow iris. The cheeks are fleſhy, and of a ſilvery colour. The gills have a wide aperture, and a large membrane, which is viſible, and ſupported by ſtrong rays; the covert is ſmall and ſingle. The buckler contains from twenty-two to twenty-four raiſed lines. The body is without ſcales, but full of foramina; back and tail green, and ſides white below the lateral line. All the fins, except the tail, are yellow at their origin, and violet towards the extremities. The trivial name *naucrates*, ſignifies pilot, and has been given it in conſequence of its accompanying ſhips at ſea. This ſpecies inhabits equally, the hot, cold, and temperate, climates. Olaſen ſaw it at Iceland, Ruyſch near the Moluccas, Haſſelquiſt at Alexandria, Forſkael in Arabia, Marcgrave and Prince Maurice at Brazil, Plumier at the Antilles, and Brown at Jamaica. Commerſon, who obſerved it at the Mauritius, remarks, that on the coaſt of Mozambique it is uſed in catching the ſea-tortoiſe; the fiſhermen avail themſelves of its property of faſtening to any ſubſtance: they fix a ring on the body of a living ſucker, juſt above the tail-fin, and of a ſize not to ſlip off; to this they tie a cord; then, putting the fiſh into a tub of ſalt water, they ſail in their boats towards thoſe places where the tortoiſes lie ſleeping on the water: but their ſleep is ſo ſlight, that the approach of the boat generally awakens them, when they plunge to a

conſiderable depth. As ſoon as the fiſhermen ſee one in motion, they throw the ſucker into the water, retaining one end of the cord. The fiſh, being thus partly free, endeavours to ſwim away, but finding itſelf retained by the cord, it takes as large a circle as poſſible, feeling about for ſomething to faſten on; and thus, by the manœuvres of the boatmen, it generally meets with the tortoiſe they are purſuing, and ſticks itſelf ſo tight on the under ſhell, that the fiſhermen eaſily draw both out together.

2. Echeneis remora, the ſmaller ſucking-fiſh: ſpecific character, tail-fin creſcent-ſhaped. It has nine rays in the membrane of the gills, twenty-two in the pectoral fin, four in the ventral, twenty in the anal and tail, and twenty-one in the dorſal. The body is covered with a viſcous matter, and full of little perforations, whence this matter oozes out; Gronovius ſays there are ſmall ſcales, but Bloch could not diſcover any even with a magnifier. The buckler has a cartilaginous rim, and covers the top of the head, extending a little way down the back, and conſiſting of from ſixteen to nineteen furrows, and as many raiſed lines in two rows; but the number of lines appears not to be conſtant, though Linnæus forms the ſpecific character from them. The eyes are ſmall, pupil black, iris ſilvery. The membrane of the gills is looſe at the lower part. The back is round, and of a dark colour, which becomes inſenſibly white towards the belly. Cepede ſays the colour is uniform all over, and without any ſpots. The fins are of a grey colour edged with brown, with ſoft ramified rays, and covered with a thick membrane. This ſpecies is alſo found both in the Mediterranean and the Ocean. Oſbec obſerved it at the Canaries, Renard at the Moluccas, Cateſby in Carolina, Schæpf at New York, and Sloane at Jamaica. As they have but little fleſh, they are not uſed for food; ſuch as are caught being moſtly kept for the cabinets of the curious. They will follow veſſels, and may be eaſily caught with a hook baited with fleſh. Sometimes they ſtick to the keel of a ſhip, but more frequently to the ſhark, and ſeveral of them are ſometimes found upon one; Cateſby found four or five faſtened to a ſhark, and it was with difficulty he could diſengage them: the ſame author remarks, that this fiſh ſwims freely about the ſhark, which never offers to devour it. Its power of ſuction is ſo ſtrong, that Commerſon declares, that, having preſented his thumb to a living one, it communicated a numbneſs like a paralytic affection, which did not ſubſide for a long time. It does not faſten on fiſh for the purpoſe of feeding upon them, or ſucking their juices, as its name would ſeem to imply, for there is no communication between this part of the head and the throat; but only for reſt, or for a more eaſy conveyance; and, perhaps, for ſome remains of food or little worms which may ſtick about the ſhark, which is the fiſh it is moſt uſually attached to. They faſten themſelves to ſhips bottoms, and to rocks, &c. in ſtormy weather. When they ſwim alone, it is moſt commonly on their back, contrary to other fiſhes; the reaſon may be, that the weight of their helmet makes them incline to the poſition of carrying it downwards. This ſpecies is ſeldom more than a foot and a half or two feet long. As this and the preceding are often confounded together, and have been regarded as one ſpecies, we have given figures of both, on the annexed engraving.

3. Echeneis lineata, the lineated ſucker: ſpecific character, tail wedge-ſhaped, and head with ten ſtreaks. The dorſal fin has thirty-five rays, the pectoral eighteen, ventral five, anal thirty-three, tail fourteen. It inhabits the Pacific ocean: is about five inches long; body ſubulate, ſmooth, dark brown, dotted with minute darker ſpots, and ornamented with two whitiſh longitudinal lines on each ſide, which begin at the eyes and end in the tail. Lower jaw longer than the upper; teeth minute in both. This was firſt deſcribed by Archibald Menzies, in the firſt volume of the Tranſactions of the Linnæan Society.

E'CHEVIN, *ſ.* [Fr.] A magiſtrate elected by the inhabitants of ſome cities and towns, to take care of their common concerns, and regulate their police.

ECHILLEU'SE, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret: ſeven miles eaſt of Pithiviers.

E'CHINATE, or ECHINATED, *adj.* [from *echinus*, Lat.] Briſtled like an hedge-hog; ſet with prickles.—An *echinated* pyrites in ſhape approaches the *echinated* cryſtalline balls. *Woodward.*—In botany it is applied to all ſuch plants, or parts of plants, as are beſet with ſpines or prickles.

ECHINI'TES, *ſ.* [from εχινος, Gr. a hedge-hog.] A petrifaction of the echinus or ſea-urchin, called by Dr. Hill *centronia*.

ECHINOMELOCAC'TUS. See CACTUS.

ECHINO'PHORA, *ſ.* [from εχινος, Gr. a hedge-hog, and φερω, to bear; on account of the pricklineſs of its fruit.] Prickly parſnip: in botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order digynia, natural order umbellatæ, or umbelliferæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: umbel univerſal, with very many rays; the intermediate one ſhorter; partial, with very many ſeſſile flowers, the central one ſeſſile, receiving the germs between the pedicels; involucre univerſal, with ſome ſharp rays; partial turbinate, one-leafed, ſix-cleft, acute, unequal; perianthium proper, five-toothed, permanent, very ſmall. Corolla: univerſal difform, rayed, floſcules male, abortive; the central one of the umbel female; proper five-petalled; petals unequal, patulous. Stamina: filaments five, ſimple; antheræ roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ oblong, inferior, clothed with an involucel; ſtyles two, ſimple; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: none, in place of which is a hardened mucronate involucre. Seed: ſingle, ovate-oblong.—*Eſſential Character.* Lateral flowers male; central hermaphrodite; ſeed one, immerſed in an involucel.

Species. 1. Echinophora ſpinoſa, or prickly ſea-parſnip: leaflets ſubulate-ſpiny, quite entire. Root perennial, creeping; ſtalks branching, five or ſix inches high, with ſhort thick leaves, terminating in two or three ſharp thorns, and oppoſite, in pairs; flowers in an umbel, on a naked peduncle, which ariſes from the ſide of the ſtalk; corolla white. It flowers in June. Native of the ſea-coaſt of Europe, eſpecially in the Mediterranean Sea. It was found by Mr. Ray on the ſea-coaſt of Lancaſhire, and by Mr. Blackſtone between Feverſham and Sea Salter. In the former in theſe places it has lately been ſearched for without ſucceſs.

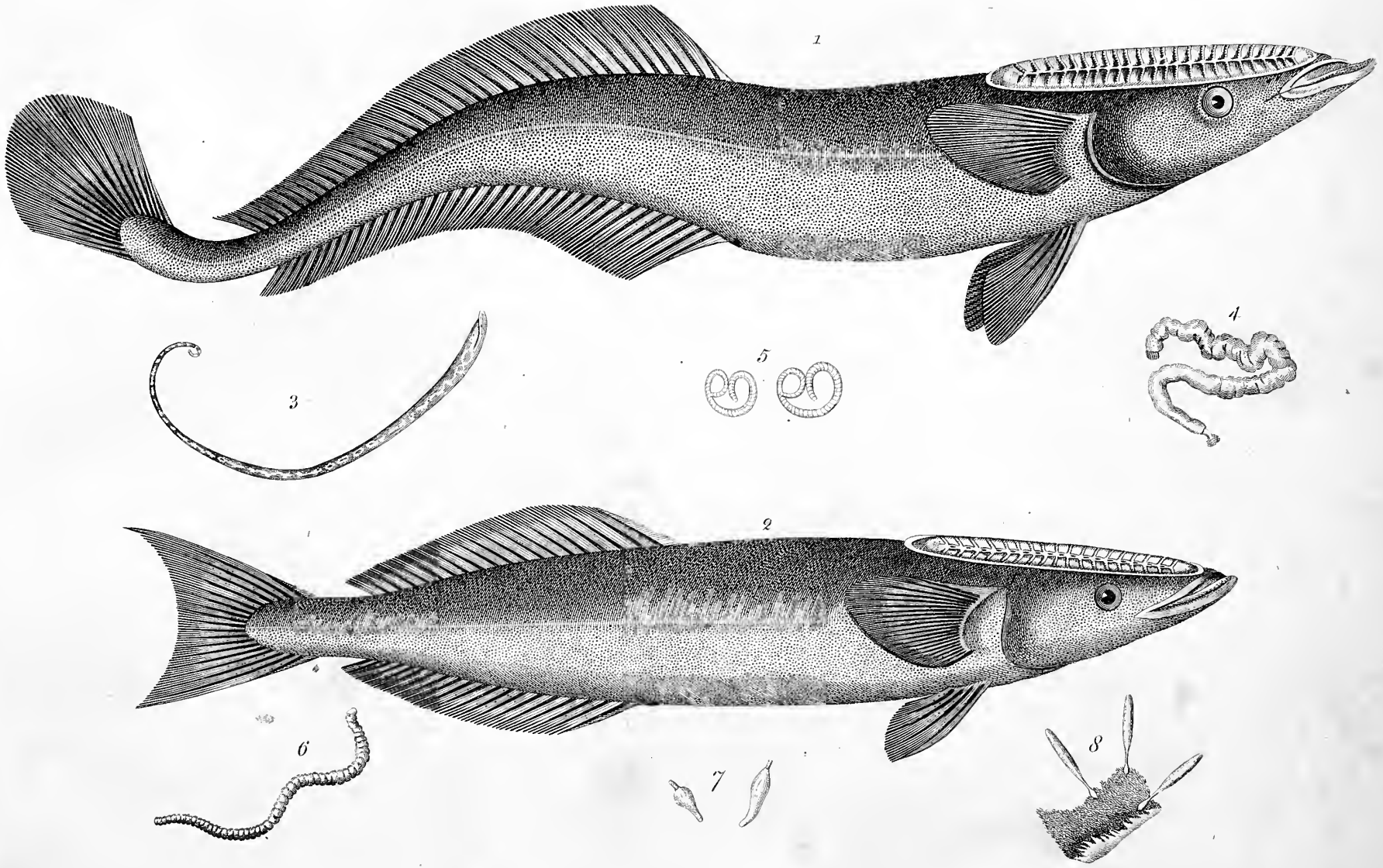
2. Echinophora tenuifolia, or fine-leaved ſea-parſnip; leaflets gaſhed, unarmed. Stalk near a foot and a half high; whence come out two oppoſite ſide-branches at every joint. At the lower part of it are leaves finely divided, like thoſe of the carrot. The flowers grow in ſmall umbels at the extremities of the branches, having a ſhort prickly involucre. It flowers in July. Native of the ſea-coaſt of Apulia. They were both cultivated by Mr. Miller before 1759.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants, not producing ſeeds here, are increaſed by their creeping roots. Tranſplant them the beginning of March, a little before they ſhoot. Place them in a warm ſituation, and a dry ſoil; or elſe cover them in winter to prevent the froſt from deſtroying them. See CAUCALIS, DAUCUS, OSBECKIA, and ELEPHANTOPUS.

ECHINOPHTHAL'MIA, *ſ.* [from εχινος, Gr. a hedge-hog, and οφθαλμια, an inflammation of the eye.] An inflammation of the eye-lids, where the hairs briſtle out like the ſpines of a hedge-hog.

E'CHINOPS, *ſ.* [from εχινος, Gr. a hedge-hog, and οψις, appearance; on account of the roughneſs of theſe plants.] The GLOBE-THISTLE; in botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia ſegregata, natural order compoſitæ capitatæ, (cinarocephalæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: common many-leaved; with ſcales ſubulate, totally reflected, containing many flowers; perianthium partial one-flowered, oblong, imbricate, cornered; leaflets

ECHENEIS AND ECHINORYNCHUS



M. E. Bloch dd.

1. The Sucking Fish. 2 The Remora. 3 Echinorynchus Phoca. 4 Alluconis. 5 Candidus. 6 Lineolatus. 7 Salmonis. 8 Attenuatus.

J. Pass sculp.

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leaflets ſubulate, looſe above, upright, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, length of the calyx, tubular; border five-cleft, reflex, ſpreading. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very ſhort; antheræ cylindric, tubular, five-toothed. Piſtillum: germ oblong; ſtyle filiform, length of the corolla; ſtigma double, ſomewhat depreſſed, rolled back. Pericarpium, none; calyx unchanged, larger. Seeds ſingle, ovate-oblong, narrower at the baſe, with obtuſe tip; down obſcure. Receptacle: common-globoſe, briſtly.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, one-flowered; corolla, tubular, hermaphrodite; receptacle, briſtly; down obſcure.

Species. 1. Echinops ſphærocephalus, or great globe-thiſtle: heads globular, leaves ſinuate, pubeſcent. Root perennial; ſtalks many, four or five feet high; leaves long and jagged, divided into many ſegments, the jags ending in ſpines. There are ſeveral globular heads of flowers on each ſtalk; florets commonly blue, ſometimes white. Theſe come out in July, and the ſeeds ripen in Auguſt. Native of France, Spain, Italy, Auſtria, Carniola, and Germany. Cultivated in 1596 by Gerarde.

2. Echinops ſpinoſus, or thorny-headed globe-thiſtle: heads interſperſed with long ſpines. Native of Egypt and Arabia. Perennial.

3. Echinops ritro, or ſmall globe-thiſtle; head globular; leaves pinnatifid, ſmooth above. This has a perennial creeping root, ſending up ſtalks two feet high, and branching. Each branch is terminated by a globular head of flowers, ſmaller than thoſe of the firſt, and of a deeper blue, but ſometimes white: they come out in July. The roots are bitter, diuretic, and nouriſhing: quadrupeds, eſpecially the horſe and goat, eat the heads. Native of France, Italy, and Siberia.

4. Echinops ſtrigoſus, or annual globe-thiſtle: heads in bundles; lateral calyxes barren; leaves ſtrigoſe above. It is an annual plant; native of Spain and Portugal. Cultivated in 1731 by Miller.

5. Echinops Græcus, or Grecian echinops: ſtem one-headed; leaves ſpiny; all pinnatifid and villoſe; root perennial, creeping; ſtalks a foot high; leaves ſhorter and much finer divided than the preceding ſorts; hoary, and armed on every ſide with ſharp thorns; ſtalks terminated by one globular head of flowers, blue or white, appearing in June. Native of Greece, whence Tournefort ſent the ſeeds to the royal garden at Paris.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are eaſily propagated by ſeeds, which, if permitted to ſcatter, the plants will come up in plenty, and a few of them may be tranſplanted to the places where they are deſigned to remain to flower; they require no other culture but to keep them clean from weeds; the ſecond year they will flower and produce ſeeds, and the roots will continue two or three years after. They will grow almoſt in any ſoil or ſituation. See CARTHAMUS and ROLANDRA.

ECHINORYN'CHUS, in helmintology, a genus of worms, belonging to the order of inteſtina; the characters of which are theſe: body round: proboſcis cylindrical retractile, and crowned with hooked prickles. Theſe are found fixed very firmly to the viſcera of various animals, generally the inteſtines; and often remain on the ſame ſpot during the whole life of the animal: they are moſtly gregarious, and are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the tænia by their round inarticulate body. They are divided into four claſſes, viz. I. Infeſting the Mammalia.—Of theſe there are four ſpecies: 1. The Phocæ: body pale: inteſtine milk-white and ſpiral, found in great numbers in the inteſtines of the harp and rough ſeal, and often nearly devours them: from three inches and a half to eight inches long. This is ſhewn in the engraving at fig. 3. 2. Tubifer: body glabrous and tapering behind into a fine hair: found in the ſtomach of the harp ſeal: about an inch long. 3. Gigas: clear white; proboſcis ſheathed, with numerous rows of hooked prickles: found in the inteſtines of ſwine, eſpecially thoſe which have been fattened in ſties: is gregarious, and from twelve to eighteen inches long. That which is found in the boar is of a blueiſh caſt. 4. Balænæ: found in the inteſtines of the whale.

II. Infeſting Birds.—Of theſe there are fourteen ſpecies now known, viz. the Buteonis: found in the inteſtines of the buzzard: two inches long. The Scopis, found in the larger inteſtines of the Strix ſcops. The Aluconis, found in the inteſtines of the Strix aluco: ſhewn at fig. 4. The Strigis, found in the larger inteſtines of the tawny owl. The Pici, found in the inteſtines of the picus erithrocephalus and viridis; is gregarious, and about half an inch long. The Borealis, found in the inteſtines of the eider duck. The Boſchadis, found in the inteſtines of the common duck. The Anatis, found in the inteſtines of the velvet duck. The Mergi, found in conſiderable numbers in the inteſtines of the mergus minutus. The Alcæ, found in the inteſtines of the auk: four inches long. The Ardeæ, found in the inteſtines of the heron: body conic behind, and ſinuate each ſide in the middle. The Gazæ, found in the great white heron. The Vanælli, found in the inteſtines of the lapwing. The Merulæ, found in the black-bird and tree-ſparrow.

III. Infeſting Reptiles.—Of theſe, two ſpecies only are known, viz. the Ranæ, found in the inteſtine of frogs: is gregarious, greeniſh, or pale grey. The Falcatus, found in the duodenum of the ſalamander, near the pylorus.

IV. Infeſting Fiſh.—Of theſe, twenty-eight ſpecies have been aſcertained, found in the inteſtines of the eel, the ſword-fiſh, torſk, whiting-pout, whiting, blennius, ruffe, perch, cod-fiſh, turbot, flounder, father-laſher, bream, loche, trout, ſalmon, pike, ſhad, barbel, roach, frog-fiſh, ſturgeon, and many other fiſhes. In the engraving are given correct figures of the *candidus*, at fig. 5, which is found in the whiting, perch, and carp. Fig. 6, the *lineolatus*, found in the cod-fiſh. Fig. 7, the *ſalmonis*, found in ſalmon. Fig. 8, the *attenuatus*, as found preying on the inteſtines of the flounder, with a piece of the inteſtine to ſhew their poſition.

ECHINOU', a town of European Turkey, in the province of Albania: eight miles north-eaſt of Zeiton.

ECHI'NUS, *ſ.* [Lat. a hedge-hog, from their being clothed with ſpines.] In helmintology, the SEA URCHIN, a genus belonging to the order of vermes molluſca. The body is roundiſh, covered with a cruſtaceous ſhell, beſet with moveable prickles; the mouth is below, and conſiſts of five valves. Many ſpecies have hitherto only been found in a foſſil ſtate, and conſtitute the *echinites* and *centronia* of different naturaliſts. The pores are each furniſhed with a retractile tentaculum or feeler, by which the animal affixes itſelf to any object, and ſtops its motion: the ſpines are connected to the outer ſkin by very ſtrong ligaments, and are the inſtruments of motion. The hiſtory of theſe curious and elegant cruſtaceous animals might be conſidered as a branch of CONCHOLOGY, (belonging to the claſs of multivalves,) ſince the characters are drawn from the ſhell, and not from the animal included in it. Why they were ſeparated, may be ſeen by conſulting that article, in vol. v. p. 14 and 35. The echini are all ſea-animals, moſtly of a round or oval form, included in a ſubſtance more or leſs hard, but always very brittle, not dividing into laminæ, but of a porous appearance like ſugar. Their round ſhape acquired them the trivial name of ſea-buttons; but, as their covering is almoſt always beſet with prickles, they are generically called *echini marini*, or ſea hedge-hogs. The ſubſtance of the animal is gelatinous, interſperſed with many fibres, almoſt like the ſpleen, lungs, and liver, of other animals. The covering is generally divided into five plots, or chambers, proceeding from the mouth, which in ſome ſpecies is furniſhed with five teeth, or long cutting bones. Theſe animals, when boiled, become hard like an egg: ſome ſpecies may be eaten, but moſt of them are rejected on account of their diſagreeable taſte. The ſhell has always two apertures, one of which is conſtantly in the centre at the bottom; this is the mouth. The other aperture is ſometimes underneath, and beſide the mouth; but it is often in the centre at top; this is the vent, whence the excrements are voided. In all the ſpecies the ſhell is flatted underneath and raiſed or vaulted above; and the raiſed ſummit is either round

and

and flat, or convex, or oval, or conical. Several of them have the compartments furnished within with five filaments running round the mouth, which unite, and strengthen the five lobes of which the body of the animal is constituted. The marks of this separation into five lobes is always visible externally; for in every one we may observe five striæ, or sutures, or furrows, either single or double, or some other figure consisting of five lines. The pieces of the shell or covering, which are some hundreds in number, are mostly hexagonal: and upon each there is a warty tubercle, (called by Knorr *mamellon*, nipple,) or else a round cavity, which holds the spine by means of a tendon which runs through the center of the tubercle or cavity. An union of all these pieces makes up the five lobes; and these by a very regular suture are themselves joined as the bones of the cranium are by their sutures. The spines are either thick or thin, smooth or rough, short or long, and of various shapes, sometimes as thin as a bristle or hair; their colour is also variable; being white, red, green, brown, black, violet, yellow, and variegated. The spines are used by the animal both for defence and for motion, and he can raise or depress them at pleasure. If we offer to drag one of these animals from a hole in a rock, he raises his spines all round, and fixes them so firmly against the sides of the hole, that it is impossible to draw him out. When they would remove from one place to another, they make use of the longest spines, which they move either all together, or one after the other, somewhat like a man walking with crutches. In this manner they proceed at a tolerable rate, especially on the firm banks. But they are never seen rolling like a ball, for they can stop themselves in a moment by pushing out some of their spines; and, if by any accident they are thrown topsy-turvy, they can turn by means of their spines, in the same manner as a beetle uses its legs when thrown on its back. These spines, as before observed, are attached by a thin tendon to the tubercles; but the slightest touch brushes them off when the animal is dead; and hence the sea-urchins preserved in cabinets are most frequently without prickles. To keep them entire, they should be immersed in spirits as soon as taken out of the sea, that the spines may stiffen, and coalesce more firmly. The hard surface of the shell is covered with a very thin epidermis, which seems fastened to the body by an infinite number of filaments, passing through as many minute holes, or pores, in the covering, and holding together the numerous pieces of which it consists. These pores, almost imperceptible to the naked eye, are commonly placed in ten regular rows, which form an arc reaching from the vent to the mouth of the animal. Most of the echini have five large escutcheons, covering the five divisions; and at the edge of each escutcheon is a regular row of large tubercles, behind which is a row containing many hundreds of minute pores; but in the middle of each escutcheon, instead of pores, are many small tubercles placed without order. Thus the escutcheons, being joined two and two by a regular suture, form two rows of tubercles, on each side of which are the rows of pores, thus forming ten rows. In other species, which have no tubercles, the spines arise from small points on the shell, or from little circular indentations. The echini were orginally divided by Linnæus into two classes only: 1. the sea-urchins with the mouth at the base, and the anus at the apex; 2. mouth and vent both at the bottom. But it has been since found necessary to form more divisions, and subdivisions likewise.

I. *Vent vertical; tentacula every where simple.*

Hemispherical or globular. 1. Echinus esculentus, the esculent sea-urchin. This is subglobular, with ten avenues of pores, the spaces between covered with small tubercles supporting the spines, which are sharp and strong, above half an inch long; commonly of a red or violet colour; moveable; the tubercles elegantly disposed in rows. These are found in the European and Indian seas. In old times they were a favourite dish, and thought grateful to the stomach; they were the first dish in the famous supper of Lentulus, when he was made *flamen Martialis*, or priest of Mars. This species is exhibited in the annexed engraving, without spines, at fig. 1. The entire animal is armed like the back of a hedge-hog, and appears of a reddish or yellowish colour, the spines faintly violet, purple, or reddish; they are smooth, solid, and so hard, that if they fall on boards or stone, they sound like metal. At the lower extremity, which is somewhat thicker, each spine is hollowed to embrace the top of the tubercle, as represented in the engraving at *a*. There is a variety, of which the prevailing colour is white, and the spines brown.

2. Echinus sphæra: subspherical, red, with blueish spines. This is plentifully found in the Northern Seas.

3. Echinus dræbachiensis: hemispherical, pale, with long pale spines; likewise an inhabitant of the North Seas.

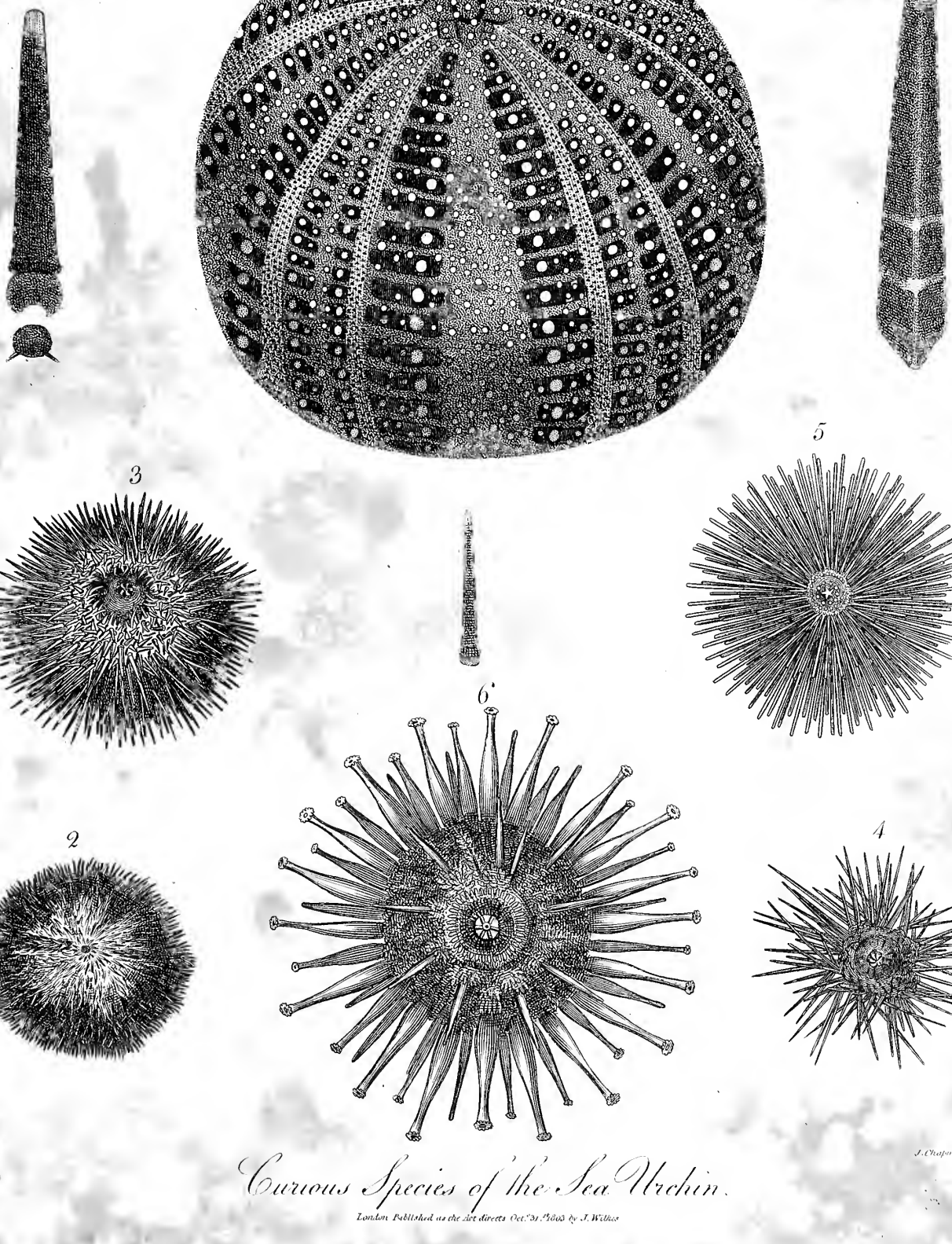
4. Echinus miliaris: hemispherical depressed, with ten avenues of pores, the spaces between with two rows of protuberances. The spines are dark green; and round the base of each is a round knob, or several knobs one under the other, at the bottom of which is the hollow which joins the tubercle. The tubercle is almost spherical, and stands on a rising of the shell, so as to represent a wart or nipple. There is a variety which is green and reddish white; the spines green, and reddish at the tips. Another variety with short but very beautiful spines is almost entirely purple. This is represented in the engraving at fig. 2, and one of the spines at *b*.

5. Echinus Basteri, or Baster's sea-urchin. Shell depressed, with fewer tubercles, and a serrate line down the middle of the spaces: pores of the avenues placed in alternate rows of two and three foramina. Inhabits the European Ocean, and is principally distinguished from the esculentus, in being less, in having the top more depressed, and the avenues of pores narrower.

6. Echinus hemisphæricus. This is strictly hemispherical, depressed, with ten avenues of pores; the spaces with a serrate suture down the middle, and transverse lines; mouth pentangular; the angles obtuse. Probably a variety only of the esculentus. Shell yellowish-red with paler avenues, the base ochraceous; rough with larger and smaller protuberances. The spines are smooth and short; of a reddish colour in the living animal, but after death soon turn yellow.

7. Echinus angulosus; hemispherical; the spaces granulate and bifariously warted, the larger ones biparted by a serrate suture down the middle; avenues trifariously porous. Shell grey, with a greenish violet tinge; spaces with rows of granulations and protuberances; avenues with double distant pores. There is a variety described by Knorr, smaller than the above, and of a light greenish colour. In the middle of each division is a line, not perforated with pores, but with a row of tubercles on each side of it. Behind these rows are two lines pierced with a vast number of pores, and bounded by a single row of tubercles, to which joins the dentated suture which connects the parts. The lobes themselves consist of an infinite number of little squares, each bearing at least one tubercle. The mouth is pentagonal; on each lobe within there is a raised hook like an arched door, and two furrows belonging to each lobe at the rim of the mouth. The vent is at the apex, and is covered with a cartilage which reaches over the pentagonal perforated rim described under the first species. The shell is thin, and very brittle. Another variety has been observed with the apex red, and red spots on the tubercles. But of this species of echinus there are more than thirty varieties: some either light or dark green; others green with white lines, white with green lines, transversely striped, or spotted white or green. The present variety is delineated in the engraving at fig. 3.

8. Echinus excavatus: hemispherical; spaces granulate,



J. Chapman sc.

Curious Species of the Sea Urchin.

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late, all of them bifariouſly tuberculate: avenues excavated and bifariouſly porous. Found at Verona in a petrified ſtate; grey-yellow.

9. Echinus globulus: hemiſpherical, ſubglobular, with ten avenues, the ſpaces muricate at the ſides and porous in the middle. Inhabits the Indian Ocean.

10. Echinus ſphæroides: hemiſpherical, gibbous: avenues ten, every where muricate and porous in the middle. Found in the Indian Ocean.

11. Echinus gratilla: hemiſpherical, gibbous; avenues ten, triplicate; the ſpaces muricate in a decuſſate form. Inhabits the Indian Ocean.

12. Echinus lixula: hemiſpherical, with ten avenues in approximate pairs; the ſpaces tranſverſely muricate and punctured. Inhabits the Indian Ocean.

13. Echinus ſaxatilis: hemiſpherical, depreſſed; pores of the avenues in a curved line, the curves oblique at the baſe. Inhabits the Mediterranean and Indian Seas. Shell ſub-elliptic, violet-grey or white; protuberances violet, reddiſh or yellowiſh, in two or three longitudinal rows; pores of the avenues double, five pair in a row; mouth large; vent ſurrounded with ovate acute ſcutes; ſpines rigid, reddiſh-brown, with violet tips. This ſomewhat reſembles the *mamillatus*, and is equally good food. The ſpines are long, ſmooth, ſolid, ſpear-ſhaped, of a browniſh colour, and give a metallic ſound when they fall. In the middle appears the mouth, armed with its teeth, which are five triangular bones, hollow, and bent; their points unite outſide the ſhell, and form a cone; their broad extremities are within, placed circularly. This is exhibited in the engraving at fig. 4.

14. Echinus feneſtratus: orbicular, with a flat feneſtrate baſe; ſpaces ten, with unequal ſmall and large tubercles; mouth with ten angles. Shell white, with granulations over all the ſpaces and avenues; in the larger ſpaces are ſix rows of warts reſembling papillæ; avenues broad, with three pair of pores and two towards the crown; ſpines violet-black; vent pentangular.

15. Echinus ſubangularis: hemiſpherical, orbicular, with ten ſpaces; the leſſer ones elevated, and ten rows of tubercles in each. Shell greeniſh-aſh, a little inclining to cheſnut, and pulvinate at the baſe; ſpaces with four tubercles placed in a rhombic form: pores of the avenues curved, in four or five pairs.

16. Echinus ovarius: ovate; the larger ſpaces bifariouſly tuberculate. Found in a petrified ſtate in England and Normandy.

17. Echinus diadema, or little turban. Hemiſpherical, depreſſed, with five avenues longitudinally tuberculate; the ſpaces lanceolate. It varies, 1. With tuberculate bands. 2. Greeniſh-yellow. 3. Blackiſh, variolous, with long ſpines. 4. Spines black, annulate with white. This ſpecies inhabits the ſands of the Indian Ocean. Shell orbicular, with a depreſſed top, rich blue or grey-blue; mouth large; vent circular and ſurrounded with a pentangular ſkin; ſpaces bifariouſly tuberculate, the tubercles perforated at the tip; avenues with three pair of pores at the baſe and one at the tip; ſpines violet and blue-grey. This deſerves notice in preference to ſeveral others, from the regularity of its ſtructure, and the circular arrangement of its ſpines, as ſhewn at fig. 5, in the engraving. It has been obſerved that the ſhell of the ſea-urchin, before it is cleaned, is covered with a tender ſkin; this probably enables the animal to unite and ſtrengthen its brittle ſhell, which conſiſts of ſo many diſtinct pieces. Yet this ſkin may be ſoftened in warm rain-water, ſo as to be removed by a bruſh; and the ſhell, being then expoſed to the ſun, becomes white, only the ten ſingle or five double lines remaining black.

18. Echinus calamarius: ſpheroid, depreſſed; avenues five, with black porous margins, granulate in the middle with a double row of larger prominent dots. Inhabits the Indian Sea: greeniſh-white. Smaller tubercles with green very brittle briſtles; ſpines reſembling the ſtem of the equiſetum, whitiſh annulate with green and grey at the tip.

19. Echinus araneiformis: orbicular, grey, with purple-grey ſpines thicker in the middle. Inhabits the American ſeas.

20. Echinus ſtellatus: with the lower ſpines capillary; likewiſe found in the American ſeas.

21. Echinus radiatus: with five radiate avenues, forked at the tip. Each of the avenues is terminated by two whitiſh rays, and perforated with pale red foramina.

22. Echinus circinatus: with ten granulate ſpaces, bifariouſly tuberculate; the larger ones excavated, the leſs ones elevated, and ſubpulvinate at the baſe. Found hitherto only among the foſſile echini.

23. Echinus cidaris, or great turban: hemiſpherical, depreſſed, with five flexuous linear avenues, the ſpaces alternately bifarious. Its varieties are, 1. Of a ſmaller ſize. 2. With the ſpines fuſiform. 3. With the ſpines claviculate. 4. With the ſpines obtuſe. This ſpecies inhabits the Indian Ocean, generally of a livid-grey colour and flat at the baſe; ſpaces granulate; with two rows of protuberances placed alternately, furniſhed with perforated papillæ, ſurrounded with a circle or two of granulations, and ſeparated by a groove running round them; in the place of ſmaller ones is an eminent band between the avenues; mouth rather large. The tubercles are pretty large, regularly placed in five double rows; between each double row runs a thick line ſomewhat waved, which diſtinctly ſhows the five compartments of the whole ſhell, each of which contains two rows of tubercles; and each tubercle ſtands upon a white nipple, incloſed in a raiſed granulated border. The two rows of tubercles on each diviſion go from the vent to the mouth, but not in ſtrait or parallel lines; they run rather oblique and alternate, i. e. the tubercle in one line ſtands oppoſite to the ſpace in the other. By the ſide of each double row of tubercles runs a waved broad ſtripe perforated with oblong holes; and theſe ſtripes divide the ſhell into five lobes. The tubercles look like buttons, and are of a yellowiſh colour; in the centre of each may be obſerved the orifice through which the tendon paſſes which faſtens the ſpine to the ſhell or body. The ſpines are very large, and club-ſhaped; but they are of different ſizes according to the ſize of the animal. A cidaris or turban with its ſpines complete is now conſidered as a great curioſity.

The variety of the cidaris with fuſiform ſpines is nevertheleſs the moſt rare and beautiful of this family. The ſpines are large and ſwelled at the baſe, but grow ſmall towards the top, which is terminated with a rim; and there are longitudinal ſtriæ upon each, made up of raiſed dots, ſo that they have the appearance of being notched. Sixty of theſe have been counted upon one ſea-urchin, without reckoning the young ones that might afterwards puſh forth. Each ſpine ſtands in the midſt of a circle conſiſting of about twenty little white leaves riſing up taper like a crown, concealing and ſtrengthening the baſe of the ſpine; and between the rows of ſpines there is a double row of theſe leaves, directed oppoſite ways to ſupport each row of ſpines. The anus is at the apex, and round it are five ſpines placed pentagonally; the mouth is at bottom, and included in a double row of ten ſhort ſpines. All the reſt of the ſpines are long. This ſpecies is often found petrified; but ſeldom in its natural ſtate, ſince it inhabits the inacceſſible depths of the ſea. One of theſe is repreſented in the preceding engraving at fig. 6; and one of the triangular ſpines of the claviculate ſpecies, at *c*. The ſhell alſo of the claviculate cidaris, without the ſpines, is exhibited in the Echinus Plate II. fig. 1, to ſhew its tubercles, ſtripes, and perforations.

Another variety of the cidaris, remarkable for the ſingularity and length of the ſpines, is referred by Knorr to this ſpecies. Its tubercles are placed upon nipples, like the *cidaris*, or great turban. This is ſometimes called the little turban, (though it be the ſize of two fiſts,) be-

cauſe the tubercles are ſmaller. It is covered with a black ſkin; but when cleaned with ſoft water and a bruſh, and expoſed to the air, it becomes white, and the ten black ſtriæ which divide it appear. The ſpines are from two to ſix inches long; and are very rarely ſeen in cabinets unleſs ſeparately. They are very thin and brittle; of a dark brown colour; the lower extremity not thicker than a large pin, and the point very fine: their ſtructure is made up of a number of little rings, ſo finely ſerrated as to be inviſible to the eye, but very perceptible to the touch; for they feel ſmooth when drawn between the fingers upwards, but rough when ſtroked downwards from the tip. It has as many ſpines as tubercles; the longer ſpines ariſing from the largeſt tubercles. Some ſpecimens have the ſpines ſpeckled, that is, the rings are alternately white and black. Theſe are very beautiful and rare. This curious ſpecies is correctly ſhewn in Plate II. fig. 2.

24. Echinus mamillatus: hemiſpherical-oval, with ten winding avenues; the ſpaces muricate and warty, the narrower ones abbreviated. Inhabits the Southern Seas; and are valued as a nouriſhing and ſavoury food. Spaces ten, the papillæ not perforated as in the laſt, but ſurrounded with elevated circles; in the larger ſpaces are from ſixteen to eighteen protuberances, the middle ones larger, in the leſſer ſpaces about fourteen; avenues with four or five pair of pores at the baſe; mouth large; vent rounded, and ſurrounded with ten ſcales, five of which are perforated; colour of the ſpines variable. The back is more raiſed and pointed than in the preceding; not reſembling a compreſſed ſphere, but rather oblong-hemiſpherical. The tubercles are large, but not ſo regular as thoſe of the preceding; neither are the diviſions ſo diſtinctly ſeparated. It is not therefore difficult to diſtinguiſh them, though they have often been confounded. Between the large tubercles are diſpoſed a great many ſmall ones, not larger than millet-ſeed. The ſhell is of a reddiſh colour, or like apple-tree bloſſom. The ſpines, from their rounded form, are called *fingers*. This ſpecies is repreſented in Plate II. fig. 3; and the ſhell, without the ſpines, at fig. 4.

25. Echinus lucunter: hemiſpherical-oval, with ten flexuous avenues; ſpaces muricate, the narrower ones longitudinal. Inhabits the Indian Ocean, and varies much in colour; ſometimes yellow-cinereous, ſometimes blueiſh and blackiſh; the baſe pulvinate. Mouth large; in each ſpace is two ſingle rows of larger warts, and a ſextuple row of ſmall ones in the larger ſpaces, which in the leſſer is quintuple; avenues with four or five pair of pores towards the ends, and ſix in the middle.

26. Echinus atratus: hemiſpherical-oval and ſlightly depreſſed; with very ſhort obtuſe truncate ſpines, the marginal ones clavate and depreſſed. Inhabits the Indian Seas. Circumference nearly orbicular, cinereous inclining to violet; ſpaces ten, very finely granulate, with ſometimes an octuple row of larger protuberances in the larger ones, diſpoſed in a quincunx, and a double row in the ſmaller ones; avenues brown, excavated, granulate, broad, with four rows of pores; ſpines violet, ſome of them clavate, ſome angular at the tip, and ſome cylindrical.

27. Echinus coronalis: hemiſpherical-orbicular, with ten ſpaces alternately narrower and covered with ſcattered papillæ; avenues flat, meeting in confluent pairs before the area of the crown. As yet has only been found in a foſſile ſtate, in a chalky and flinty foil.

28. Echinus aſterizans: orbicular depreſſed; tubercles furrowed with a groove up to the tip, and ſurrounded with a circle of granulations. Found among chalk in a foſſile ſtate.

29. Echinus aſſulatus: ſhell ſcutellate, the ſcutels united by tranſverſe ſutures. Probably not a diſtinct ſpecies.

30. Echinus ſardicus: orbicular depreſſed tuberculate, with ten impreſſed avennes; the ſpaces multifariouſly tubercled, with an impreſſed ſuture down the middle. Inhabits the Tuſcan and Adriatic ſeas; large, grey-yellowiſh-red, the baſe nearly flat and more yellow; larger ſpaces with tubercles diſpoſed in from eight to twelve rows, with leſſer ones and ſmall granulations in the interſtices; the leſſer ſpaces with from four to ſix rows of ſmaller tubercles; avenues with five pair of pores placed in an arched row; mouth ſmall, with ten ſinuoſities.

31. Echinus flammeus: hemiſpherical depreſſed; the ſpaces void of tubercles in the middle towards the upper parts, the leſſer ones more elevated; avenues narrow, and bounded on each ſide by a row of tubercles. Olive-green, the tubercles and baſe of the avenues whiter; larger ſpaces with twelve rows of tubercles at the broadeſt part, leſſer ſpaces with three, each tubercle ſurrounded with a circle of leſſer ones; avenues hardly two lines broad, with three pair of pores intermixed with granulations; mouth ſmall; vent ſurrounded with pentangular ſcales.

32. Echinus variegatus: orbicular ſubangular; middle ſpaces roſy, rich green on each ſide; avenues whitiſh-green; baſe whitiſh. The larger ſpaces have the appearance of three or four warts ſurrounded with granulations, leſſer ſpaces a little elevated with three rows of warts; avenues with three pair of pores; mouth roundiſh, and very faintly ſinuate.

33. Echinus puſtuloſus: the larger ſpaces are divided in the middle by a ſuture, with numerous tranſverſe rows of tubercles, increaſing in number towards the middle; leſſer ſpaces more elevated. Hardly an inch high, and about two in diameter, browniſh grey inclining to red, the leſſer ſpaces paler, the baſe whitiſh, and the protuberances reddiſh; ſpaces ten, the larger ones with a rough diſk, the ſuture bounded by minute granulations on each ſide, with rows of tubercles, conſiſting at firſt of one, then of two, ſo that in the middle they amount to about ten; leſſer ſpaces with two rows of tubercles with a ſerrate line and minute granulations between them; avenues with four or five pair of pores running into oblique lines; mouth with broad ſinuoſities.

34. Echinus granulatus: ſuborbicular ſubangular; middle of the ſpaces naked, and divided by a ſuture ſerrate on each ſide, the larger ones with ſeven rows of tubercles, the leſſer ones with four. About three quarters of an inch high, and one inch and a half in diameter; the baſe pulvinate, and with the margin of the larger ſpaces greeniſh-grey; middle of the larger ſpaces and the leſſer ones dull green; avenues with three pair of pores placed in a triangle; vent circular, with ten ſcales at the margin expanded like a roſe.

35. Echinus teſſellatus: with ten ſpaces divided in the middle by a ſuture, and teſſellate; avenues ten biporous; mouth circular. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

36. Echinus botryoides: ſpaces divided by a longitudinal ſuture in the middle, the larger ones bifariouſly tuberculate; avenues with a double curved row of pores. Found as yet only in a foſſile ſtate.

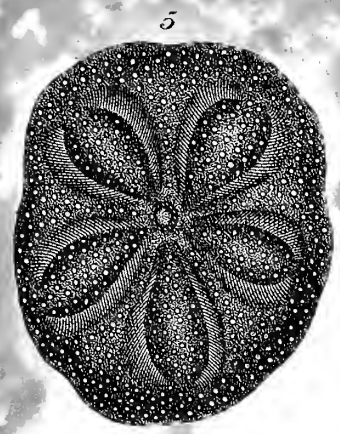
37. Echinus toreumaticus: hemiſpherical, with ten ſpaces bifariouſly tuberculate, the tubercles crenate and ſurrounded by a circle of granulations; the larger ſpaces with four longitudinal grooves, the leſſer ones with two. Cinereous blueiſh or greeniſh, the baſe and avenues yellowiſh; avenues biporous, the pores placed in a thickly ſerrate line; baſe pulvinate; mouth ſmall; vent ſurrounded with ten ſcales.

Something reſembling the figure of a ſhield. 38. Echinus ſinuatus, the polar ſtone: convex; avenues ten, ſtriate; ſpaces ten; tubercles ſurrounded with a circle of granulations. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate. One of the ſpaces divided by an excavated ſinus; avenues broad and punctured at each margin; baſe a little excavated and furrowed by five divergent grooves; mouth ſmall, pentagonal.

39. Echinus ſemiglobofus: hemiſpherical, grooved, with a flat baſe; the protuberances placed in rows. Found hitherto in a foſſile ſtate only.

40. Echinus quinquelabiatus: painted with innumerable annulations, with a hollow in the middle ſurrounding a five-rayed convex ſtar. Found hitherto among foſſils only.

41. Echinus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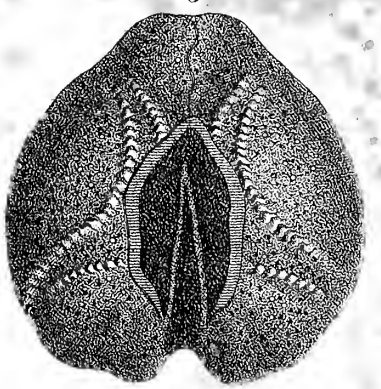
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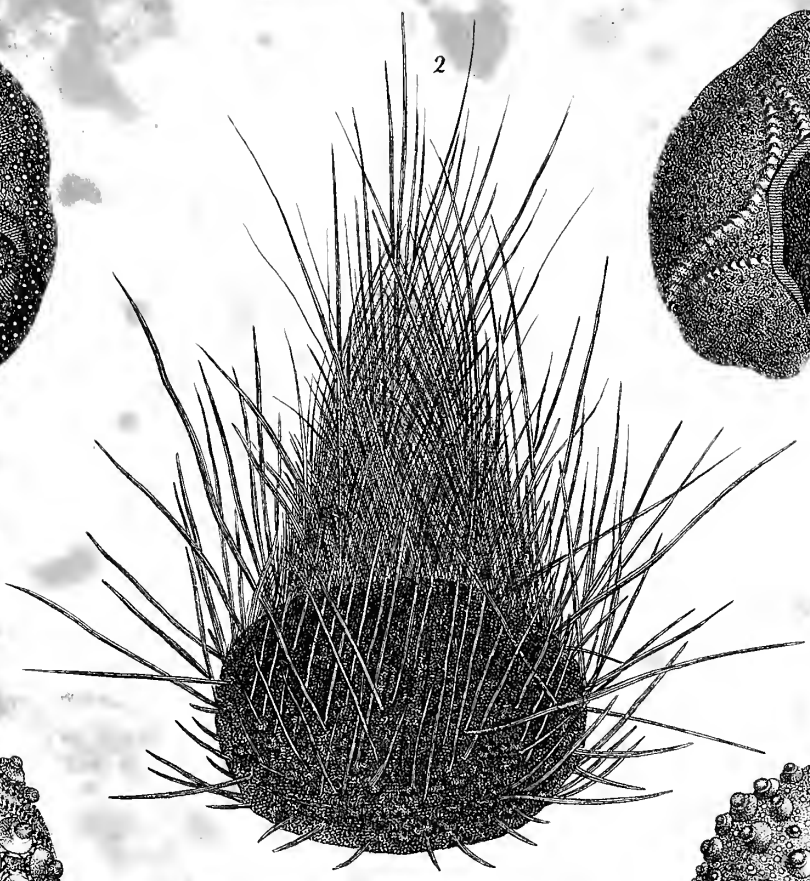
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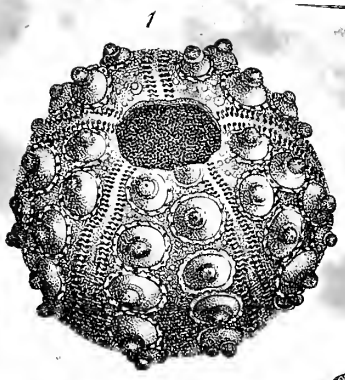
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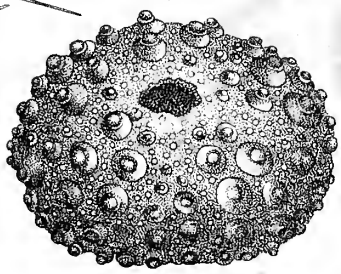
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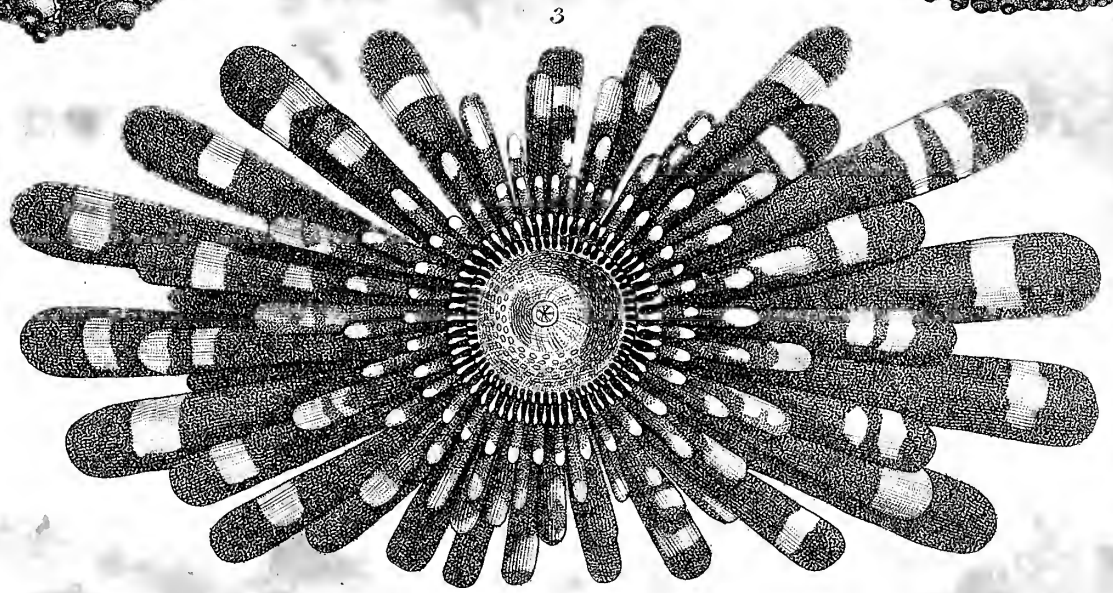
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Curious Species of the Sea Urchin.

J. Chapman, Sc.

London, Published as the Act directs Oct.r 15 1803 by J. Wilkes.

41. Echinus conoideus: ſubconic with an elliptic circumference; ſpaces and avenues ten, the latter tranſverſely grooved and porous at the margin, the former divided by a ſtraight excavated ſuture. Found as yet only in a foſſile ſtate. Protuberances of the ſpaces thickly placed and ſurrounded by a circle of granulations; baſe flat, grooved; vent circular.

II. *Vent placed beneath; mouth without tentacula.*

Baſe circular, in the periphery of which is the vent. 42. Echinus albo galerus: ſpaces ten, covered with numerous ſmall white tubercles, the larger ones united by a ſerrate ſuture and tranſverſely lineate, the leſſer ones terminated by a foramen at the crown; avenues ten, biporous. Suboval; mouth orbicular, ſmall; vent ovate. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

43. Echinus depreſſus: ſpaces ten, the larger ones divided in the middle by a ſuture; avenues ten, biporous; crown depreſſed; vent orbicular. Mouth moderate, with ten ſharp ſinuoſities; vent large, ovate. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

44. Echinus vulgaris: orbicular; with ten avenues, two of them always near each other. Found frequently in a foſſile ſtate, in numberleſs varieties of forms.

45. Echinus quadrifaſciatus: with four avenues of pores. Found in a foſſile ſtate; circumference ſometimes orbicular, ſometimes approaching to an oval.

46. Echinus ſexfaſciatus: with ſix avenues of pores. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

Baſe exactly circular. 47. Echinus ſubuculus: avenues ten, biporous; ſpaces ten, five larger and five leſs; mouth and vent ſmall, orbicular. Found only in a foſſile ſtate; the ſpaces beſet with very ſmall circles; pores of the avenues very minute, and crowded cloſe together.

Baſe oval. 48. Echinus cycloſtomus: oblong, ſubdepreſſed; crown with five pores; mouth placed in the middle, and round; vent oblong, and near the mouth. Cinereous or yellowiſh; the baſe pulvinate; ſpaces ten, divided by a ſerrate line down the middle, and beſet with minute tubercles incloſed in a circle; avenues ten, biporous, and extending to the mouth. This is perhaps a variety of the *roſaceus*. The five double lines, which repreſent the radii, are only rows of pores, appearing black on the whitiſh ground of the ſhell. The ſhell is very thin and brittle, which occaſions this and ſimilar ſpecies to be more rare in cabinets than thoſe which have ſtrong tubercles and a thicker ſhell.

49. Echinus ſemilunaris: vent longitudinally oblong; mouth tranſverſe and ſemilunar. Inhabits the Aſiatic Sea; pale yellowiſh-aſh.

50. Echinus ſcutiformis: mouth pentangular; avenues ten, ſtriate; larger ſpaces aſſulate or divided into plates, the pieces pentangular.

Baſe oval, acute; vent oppoſite the mouth. 51. Echinus ſcutatus: convex, beneath flat; ſpaces tuberculate and alternately larger, the larger ones divided by a ſerrate ſuture in the middle; mouth tranſverſe, kidney-ſhaped. Found only in a foſſile ſtate; tubercles of the ſpaces intermixed with very minute granulations; mouth ſurrounded with tubercles ſomewhat larger, and forming a triangle; vent ſubovate; baſe a little convex towards the margin, with a more eminent ſtripe in the middle, bounded on each ſide by two finely granulate bands.

52. Echinus ovatus: ovate, aſſulate, the pieces hexangular; crown naked; vent ſuboval. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate. Shell compoſed of twenty rows of pieces, ten larger and ten leſs, all of them united by a ſerrate ſuture; ſpaces ten larger and ten ſmaller, in the latter of which are two impreſſed dots; mouth rounded, ſmall; vent ſuboval.

53. Echinus puſtuloſus: ſpaces obſolete and not tuberculate; avenues with raiſed dots diſpoſed in pairs; crown impreſſed. Found in a foſſile ſtate; reſembles echinus ſcutatus in figure, circumference, mouth, and vent.

54. Echinus quadriradiatus: with four double rows of dots. Found hitherto in a foſſile ſtate only.

55. Echinus minor: ovate, with a flat or concave baſe; ſpaces and avenues ten, the latter biporous; mouth tranſverſe, roundiſh; vent ſuboval. Found only in a foſſile ſtate.

56. Echinus dubius: ovate, with ten ſimply porous avenues; half of the vent marginal. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate. The five larger ſpaces marked with impreſſed circles.

Baſe irregular, with five expanded petal-ſhaped marks on the ſurface. 57. Echinus roſaceus: flattiſh and roundiſh-oval; avenues five, oval, with a dotted ſurface. Inhabits the Aſiatic Ocean; yellowiſh-brown, ſometimes dirty cinereous; covered with ſmall tubercles like grains of ſand, and diſpoſed in a quincunx form. The ſhell is compact, and almoſt of a ſtony hardneſs, which however it acquires after it comes out of the water. There is a pentangular piece at the top with five angular holes, like thoſe ſpecies which have the vent at the apex; yet in this diviſion the vent is underneath, not in the center however, but in the circumference. From this pentagonal piece ariſes a five-leaved figure which ſpreads over the whole ſurface of the ſhell, ſo that each ſide of the pentagon is contiguous to the point of one leaf, which is formed by two curved lines repreſenting the edges of the leaf, and theſe, making an oblong arc, paſs over the ſhell, without joining at the round extremity of each leaf. The lines are broad, containing, firſt, two almoſt parallel rows of pores, the outer row large and oval, the inner ſmaller and round; from each oval hole of the outer row runs a furrow towards the round hole of the inner rank, which gives the edges of the leaves a ſingular appearance. The middle of each leaf, incloſed in this edging or border, is much raiſed above the ſurface of the ſhell, ſo that this five-leaved figure is very apparent. As the entire circumference of the ſhell repreſents a lengthened oval, broad at one end and pointed at the other, and in general a pentagon more or leſs obtuſe, there are always two leaves of the figure divided towards the broad end, one to the pointed end, and the two others ſtretch towards the ſides. The whole ſurface is full of little circular hollows, with a little convexity in the middle to hold the concave extremity of the ſpines, like the articulations of bones, as before deſcribed. Turning this to examine the baſe, two cavities appear. The largeſt, which is in the center, is the mouth; the other, near the rim in the middle of the broad ſide, is the anus. The mouth is ſunk in ſo far as to be within a very ſmall ſpace of the ſummit on the oppoſite ſide. From the rim to the mouth run five ſmooth deep furrows, which are preciſely underneath and in the middle of each of the leaves of the figure above, and which thus divide the baſe into five parts. The ſhell alſo includes a great number of little bones, which are the teeth of this ſingular animal, and which rattle when the ſhell is ſhaken. This very curious ſpecies is exhibited in Plate II. fig. 5.

58. Echinus altus: crown elevated, orbicular; avenues broad, with convergent granulate tips. Found in a foſſile ſtate; higher than the laſt; about two inches high and ſix broad at the wideſt part of the baſe.

59. Echinus oviformis: convex and flat beneath; avenues ten, biporous, and expanded in a ſtellate form; crown with four pores. Above browniſh-grey, beneath whitiſh-grey; granulate, with a circle round the granulations; mouth tranſverſe, and ſlightly kidney-ſhaped; vent marginal, near the mouth; baſe with a paler glabrous line in the middle, reaching from one end of the ſhell to the other.

60. Echinus orbiculatus: granulate; avenues biporous, the pores united by a tranſverſe impreſſed line, and the intermediate ſpaces divided by a ſerrate line in the middle, the reſt of the ſurface five-parted. Found in a petrified ſtate, and a very indiſtinct ſpecies.

Flat

Flat on both ſides; the avenues reſembling petals; mouth central, flat, toothed; crown with four pores.

61. Echinus biforis, the two-holed ſea-urchin: the baſe with five grooves and ten flexuous radiate lines; near the vent two oblong foramina. Above a little convex and pale yellowiſh-aſh, beneath ochraceous; ſometimes roundiſh, ſometimes obtuſely triangular; the margin ſometimes ſinuous, ſometimes flexuous; mouth obtuſely pentangular; vent ſometimes circular, ſometimes tranſverſely oval; the adjacent foramina ſometimes ſhorter and ſubovate, ſometimes longer, narrower, or linear; avenues reſembling ovate petals or leaves, conſiſting of a ſingle inner row of dots, and a row of oblique ſtriæ penetrating the ſhell, which is as thin as paper, and looks ſomething like the paſte or dough that wafers are made of. The ſhell appears made up of pentagonal pieces ſo nicely joined that ſcarcely any mark of a ſuture is perceptible; and theſe pieces are full of little grains or protuberances not viſible to the eye, from which ſpring minute ſpines like the hair of a man's beard. Yet the animal uſes them but little for motion; the lower ones do not ſerve for feet, but moſt commonly for oars in ſwimming. The oblong foramina mentioned above are very remarkable in this and the two following ſpecies; they are cut entirely through the animal, ſo that a ribbon may be put through; the inſide lining of theſe holes is firm, and armed with ſpines. Mouth and vent underneath.

62. Echinus pentaporus, the five-holed ſea-urchin: avenues emarginate at the tip; vent near the mouth, with five foramina. Obtuſely pentagonal; above whitiſh-aſh with a reddiſh tinge; beneath hollowed towards the middle, white with a little yellow and blue veins; ſhell with prominent diviſions; avenues oval; mouth obtuſely pentagonal, the lips a little prominent and perforated with a foramen; vent nearly ſquare, with adjacent linear and ſuboval foramina; crown marked with a pentagonal ſtar. Of the five foramina, four are near the rim, almoſt at right angles, the fifth is between two petals of the flower, conſequently between two lobes, ſo that one lobe is entirely ſolid. Theſe large foramina are probably uſeful to the animal in riſing and ſinking in the water; for the reſiſtance of the water, when part of it paſſes through the holes, is not ſo great as it would be againſt the entire ſhell. The mouth and vent are very near together.

63. Echinus hexaphorus, the ſix-holed ſea-urchin: this is orbicular, with narrow avenues, and ſix narrow foramina near the vent. Inhabits the Indian, American, and South ſeas, and very much reſembles the laſt: cinereous; crown umbilicate; baſe a little hollowed, darker, and marked with frondoſe lines. Theſe three laſt are found in the Eaſt Indies, and ſometimes in the North Sea; but they are rarely ſeen, and very ſcarce in cabinets on account of the thinneſs and brittleneſs of the ſhell.

64. Echinus emarginatus, or margined ſea-urchin: nearly pentagonal, with ovate avenues; vent oval, more remote from the mouth, with ſix foramina cloſe to the margin. Inhabits the iſland Bourbon; greeniſh-brown. Shell a ſlightly heart-ſhaped oval, a little pulvinate, ſinuous, four inches and ſix lines in tranſverſe diameter, crown patulous, baſe a little flatter, and marked with flexuous branched ſculptured lines.

65. Echinus auritus, or eared ſea-urchin: margin waved, the lower one rounded, the upper one nearly ſquare and twice divided, with an opening pore between every two of the avenues. Inhabits the Perſian ſeas; yellowiſh-grey, the upper margin tawny; the baſe flat, punctured, and marked with radiate ſtriæ; vent oblong, and placed near the mouth.

66. Echinus inauritus, or earleſs ſea-urchin: ſubcordate and aſſulate, the pieces hexagonal; avenues five, oval, emarginate at the tip, the fifth longer, and a pore between every two of them. Inhabits Amboyna, in the river Wagnitoe; five or ſix inches high, and as many broad; the broader end thrice divided; thin and thickly covered with granulations ſpinous at the baſe; above reddiſh-aſh, beneath violet-red.

67. Echinus tetraporus, or four-holed ſea-urchin: orbicular, lightly ſinuous, and perforated each ſide with four foramina; vent circular. Pale yellow-grey; crown with five foramina; avenues obtuſe at the tip; the baſe furrowed with ten flexuous grooves bifid at the tips; mouth rounded and five-toothed.

68. Echinus laganum: avenues oval, finely ſtriate and cleft at the tip; crown prominent; vent circular, and near the margin. Granulate, ochraceous, ovate, ſubpentagonal; the baſe with five excavated rays divided into ſo many equal ſpaces; mouth obtuſely pentagonal; vent hardly the breadth of a line diſtant from the margin; crown perforated with five foramina between the avenues.

69. Echinus ſubrotundus: orbicular, with radiate avenues. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

70. Echinus reticulatus: ovate, flattiſh, with five oval avenues; the ſurface reticulate. Inhabits the American and Indian Ocean.

71. Echinus orbicularis: circular, with oval acute avenues; the baſe with ten impreſſed porous rays; vent midway between the mouth and margin, both circular. Inhabits the Indian Sea.

72. Echinus corallatus: orbicular, with oval obtuſe ſhort avenues. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate.

73. Echinus decadactylos: ſhell perforated with four oblong foramina; the margin with ten teeth. Shell rough with granulations; above blueiſh-green, varied with cinereous; the avenues and ſutures pale fleſh-colour; the baſe yellowiſh fleſh-colour, with ten impreſſed flexuous grooves, bifid at the tip and greeniſh-aſh; avenues lanceolate-oval, entire, biporous, united by oblique ſtriæ; teeth of the margin alternately ſhorter; mouth rounded; vent ovate.

74. Echinus octodactylos: the fore-part orbicular, and perforated with two foramina, the hind-part eight-toothed; avenues lanceolate. Shell whitiſh-aſh; aſſulate, the pieces convex; crown umbilicate; avenues emarginate.

75. Echinus orbiculus: fore-part orbicular, entire; hind-part unequally toothed; avenues lanceolate, cleft, and bent. Inhabits the Indian Sea. Shell flat, ſuborbicular, not perforated, compoſed of hexangular pieces; the baſe flat with impreſſed grooves; avenues oval; mouth rounded; vent oval.

Ten avenues on the crown, the rays ſtraight, biporous, and ſtellate; mouth and vent approximate in the middle part of the baſe. 76. Echinus nucleus: ſurface globular, with an orbicular circumference; baſe narrow, and flat in the middle; ſides grooved; avenues pulvinate; crown eccentric. Shell yellowiſh-aſh; crown perforated with four pores; mouth circular; vent rather oblong, and ſmaller than the mouth.

77. Echinus centralis: ſurface globular, circumference ſuborbicular; baſe pulvinate; ſides very lightly grooved; avenues ſlightly pulvinate; crown central. Perhaps a variety of the laſt. Mouth very minute and orbicular.

78. Echinus ervum: ſurface globular, circumference ſuboval; baſe a little narrowed; ſides grooved; avenues ſubpulvinate; crown central. Larger than echinus nucleus; mouth and vent equal.

79. Echinus craniolaris: ſurface globular on the fore-part, the hind-part nearly five-angled, pulvinate, and ſloping; circumference elliptic; baſe a little narrowed; ſides grooved; avenues pulvinate; crown eccentric. Inhabits the Indian ſeas: white, and covered with granulations ſurrounded with an engraved circle; crown with four pores.

80. Echinus turcicus: ſurface and baſe pulvinate, circumference elliptic; ſides hardly grooved; avenues ſubpulvinate; crown ſlightly depreſſed and central. Probably a variety of the preceding.

81. Echinus vicia: ſurface globular, circumference obtuſely oval; baſe a little narrowed; ſides grooved; avenues

avenues flattiſh; crown central. Inhabits the Adriatic: reſembles echinus craniolaris.

82. Echinus ovulum: ſurface pulvinate; circumference obtuſely oval; baſe globular; ſides ſlightly grooved; crown central. Perhaps a variety of echinus craniolaris.

83. Echinus lathyrus: ſurface and baſe pulvinate, circumference oval; ſides ſlightly grooved; avenues pulvinate; crown nearly central. Shell dull yelloviſh-grey, and of a middle ſize between echinus nucleus and craniolaris.

84. Echinus equinus: ſurface and baſe pulvinate, circumference elliptic; ſides ſmooth; avenues ſubpulvinate; crown central.

85. Echinus minutus: ſurface pulvinate and nearly flat, circumference ovate and ſubpentangular; baſe narrowed; ſides grooved; avenues pulvinate; crown central. Found frequently on the ſandy coaſts of the Netherlands: mouth orbicular.

86. Echinus faba: ſurface and baſe pulvinate; circumference obtuſely oval; ſides hardly grooved; avenues flat; crown a little prominent and central. The ſhell is very thin, and white; without tubercles, but merely granulated; the grains containing the roots of ſmall briſtles which are inſtead of ſpines. The vent and mouth are both underneath, and near together. On the upper ſurface is a five-rayed figure, full of little holes. One of the ſmalleſt kind; not larger in general than a pea; very ſeldom ſo large as the egg of a ſmall bird or a pigeon, which in ſome reſpects it reſembles, being always of an oval ſhape, one end larger than the other.

87. Echinus inequalis, the uneven ſea-urchin: ſurface gibbous on the fore-part, the hind-part flat and ſloping; circumference oblong-oval and nearly pentangular; baſe globular, and a little narrowed; ſides grooved; avenues ſubpulvinate; crown central; back unequal.

88. Echinus raninus: ſurface globular and more ſloping behind, circumference acutely oval; baſe globular; ſides grooved; avenues ſubpulvinate; crown central. Probably a variety of echinus minutus.

89. Echinus bufonius: ſurface globular, circumference ovate, heart-ſhaped, and ſubtrigonal; baſe pulvinate; ſides ſlightly grooved; avenues pulvinate; crown nearly central. Probably a variety of echinus minutus.

III. *Vent lateral; mouth with pencilled tentacula.*

Circular; mouth central; vent ſquare. 90. Echinus placenta: ſubconic, with ten ſpaces alternately narrower; avenues five, lax, flat, and gaping at the tip. Inhabits the Southern Ocean: a little convex and conoid; the circumference ſomewhat angular; the baſe flat; ſpaces divided by an obtuſely toothed vertical line; vent placed on the ſurface, and nearly marginal.

Heart-ſhaped; the crown grooved. 91. Echinus cor anguinum: above convex, with five impreſſed quadrifariouſly porous avenues, and five ſpaces. Found hitherto in a foſſile ſtate only; and is probably the ſame as echinus purpureus, in a petrified ſtate.

92. Echinus lacunoſus: ovate, gibbous, with five depreſſed avenues. Inhabits the Indian, Atlantic, and European ſeas. Shell with a purpliſh top; ſpaces tuberculate, in waved rows; the lower ſide ſtudded and divided by two ſmooth ſpaces; ſpines ſhort, thick, mixed with long ones. The compartments are divided by deep furrows, four of which are narrow, but one is extremely broad, and almoſt as deep as half the convexity of the apex; it has a double row of pores at the bottom, and wrinkles on the ſides; it reaches round the ſhell to the mouth; oppoſite this furrow, on the top, there is a long deep ſuture, which goes to the vent in the circumference of the circle. The ſhell is very thin; furniſhed with rough dots or grains, to which the ſpines adhere.

The following varieties are included by Gmelin under this ſpecies. The firſt inhabits the Adriatic ſea. It has a raiſed lobe in the middle; on each ſide of which are four double lines, each conſiſting of two rows of pores; the longeſt lines are directed towards the broadeſt extremity, and form a curve towards the ſhorter ones at the pointed end. The whole is ſomewhat in the ſhape of a heart, the large end being divided, the ſmaller end contains the vent, and the mouth is underneath. The ſhell is very thin and brittle. This is repreſented in the Echinus Plate II. fig. 6. The ſpines are not thicker than horſehair, and about a quarter of an inch long; when they are on the ſhell is entirely covered with them, ſo that neither furrow, ſuture, nor aperture, can be ſeen. The ſecond variety reſembles the preceding; but the ſpines are long, and curved at the ends like a ſabre. Some have a ſmaller ſet of ſpines, of a whitiſh colour, intermixed with the brown ones, probably young ones to replace thoſe which fall off.

Heart-ſhaped; the crown not grooved. 93. Echinus radiatus: avenues four, with impreſſed ſtriæ porous on each ſide; crown with four pores; ſpaces ten, divided by a ſerrate ſuture in the middle, and arched tranſverſe ſutures. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate. Baſe flat; mouth a little kidney-ſhaped, and ſurrounded with a ſubpentagonal ſtar of pores; vent roundiſh, with three angles on the margin; avenues conſiſting of a row of pores placed cloſe together in pairs, each convergent on the crown.

94. Echinus purpureus: avenues four, petal-ſhaped, lanceolate; larger tubercles placed in a zigzag manner; ſpines acicular, incurved, white. Inhabits the North Seas: above convex; the ſides ſloping; fore-part with two projections, hind-part truncate; beneath flat; from the mouth to the vent a little convex and purple; very finely granulate, and beſet with ſmall ſubclavate briſtles, and ſpatulate ſpines ſeated on white tubercles; near the vent a kidney-ſhaped ſtripe of minute white granulations, and ſurrounded with numerous white tubercles.

95. Echinus puſillus: oval, with five avenues; vent remote. Inhabits the North Seas: very minute, and diſtinct from echinus lacunoſus; probably not of this diviſion.

96. Echinus complanatus: a little flattened each ſide; ſpaces and avenues ten, two of them placed in the furrows of the back. Found in a foſſile ſtate; roundiſh.

97. Echinus ſubglobulus: both ends convex, ſubglobular, affulate; avenues ten, with biporous ſtriæ; vent ovate. Found in a foſſile ſtate: granulate, with four pores on the crown; ſpaces divided by a longitudinal ſerrate ſuture, and grooved with tranſverſe curved lines, the pieces ſeven-ſided; mouth ſomewhat kidney-ſhaped, and ſurrounded with tubercles diſpoſed in a ſtellate form.

98. Echinus ananchytis: oblong, heart-ſhaped, and ſubconic; the baſe flatter; avenues and ſpaces ten; mouth rounded and ſurrounded with an elevated margin; vent oval, and emarginate below. Found in a foſſile ſtate; the larger ſpaces with ſeven angular pieces, leſſer ones ſix and five angled; vent ſurrounded with an elevated band.

99. Echinus bicordatus: with a double crown. Found hitherto in a petrified ſtate only.

100. Echinus carinatus: middle of the back carinate. Found in a foſſile ſtate; reſembles the laſt, but is narrower behind: mouth kidney-ſhaped; vent obſolete.

Ovate; the avenues grooved. 101. Echinus ſpatagus: ovate, gibbous, with four depreſſed avenues; conſiſting of the following varieties: 1. Spotted. 2. Larger. 3. Knotty. 4. Of one colour. 5. Ovate. 6. Carinate. 7. Very large. Theſe inhabit moſt ſeas: pale ſulphur when freſh. Shell a little heart-ſhaped, gibbous at one end, and marked with a deep groove at the other; ſpines ſlender, reſembling briſtles; moſt remarkably fragile. The fifth or ovate variety has the ſhell thin and brittle. The mouth is not in the middle of the baſe, but rather towards the broad end; the vent at the narrow end. The depreſſed avenues or rays on the ſurface are each compoſed of four rows of pores. In the middle, where the four rays unite, there are four holes forming a ſquare, each big enough to admit the point of a pin. The tubercles and ſpines are larger about the mouth and on the baſe. The ſhell is made up of rhomboidal plates.

Ovate; the avenues not grooved. 102. Echinus briſſoides: oblong; with four biporous, ovate-lanceolate, avenues, united by tranſverſe grooves, with larger tubercles placed archwiſe between them. Found frequently in a foſſile ſtate: aſſulate, rough with granulations; mouth kidney-ſhaped, and ſurrounded with a pentagonal ſtar of pores.

103. Echinus teres: convex, with four biporous petal-ſhaded avenues not united. Reſembles the laſt, but the mouth is broader, and there is a carinate line perforated with pores each ſide deſcending from the crown.

104. Echinus oliva: above convex, punctured, olive, with a double naked band reaching from the mouth to the vent. Shell with four ſtellate rays above.

105. Echinus amygdala: reſembling an almond in figure.

106. Echinus ovalis: aſſulate, oval, with ten avenues and ſpaces, the latter divided by a ſerrate ſuture in the middle. Found hitherto only in a foſſile ſtate, and is probably not of this diviſion.

107. Echinus pyriformis: ovate, and gibbous at one end; the baſe flat; avenues five, ſomewhat petal-ſhaped, and obſoletely porous. Found hitherto in a foſſile ſtate only. Mouth and vent round, the former ſomething heart-ſhaped, angular, and five-lipped.

108. Echinus lapiſcancri: obtuſely oval, convex; crown eccentric, and perforated with four pores; avenues five, biporous, ovate-lanceolate, and cleft at the tip. Found as yet only in a foſſile ſtate. Mouth as in the laſt; vent placed above the broader margin of the ſhell, mouth at the narrower end and nearer the baſe; baſe flat, ſlightly excavated, naked in the middle, elſewhere covered with a circle of tubercles diſpoſed in rows.

109. Echinus patillaris: very much depreſſed; with avenues reſembling a ſtar. Found only in a foſſile ſtate; circumference ovate; back a little convex, the baſe ſlightly excavated; ſides granulate; mouth orbicular.

ECHI'NUS *ſ.* in botany. See ALLAMANDA, HYDNUM, and STATICE.

ECHIOI'DES. See LYCOPSIS and MYOSOTIS.

ECHIRE', a town of France, in the department of the Two Sevres, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Niort, on the Sevre Niortoiſe: four miles north of Niort.

ECHI'TES, *ſ.* [ſo named by Browne, probably from ἔχις, Gr. a viper; perhaps on account of its deleterious quality. Ἐχίτης is the ſerpent-ſtone.] SAVANNA FLOWER: in botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order contortæ, (apocineæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, ſharp, ſmall. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form; border five-cleft, flat, ſpreading very much; nectary of five glands ſtanding round the germ. Stamina: filaments five, ſlender, erect; antheræ ſtiff, oblong, acuminate, converging. Piſtillum: germs two; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma oblong-headed, two-lobed, attached by a gluten to the antheræ. Pericarpium: follicles two, extremely long, one-celled, one-valved. Seeds: very many, imbricate, crowned with long down.—*Eſſential Character.* Contorted; follicles two, long, ſtraight; ſeeds, downy; corolla, funnel-form, with the throat naked.

Species. 1. Echites biflora, or two-flowered echites: peduncles two-flowered. A branched ſhrub, full of a milky juice, ſupporting itſelf by ſtems partly erect, partly twining upon trees, and mounting them to the height of twenty feet; hence frequently acquiring the air of a tree. Leaves oblong, growing narrower to the baſe, obtuſe at the end, with a ſmall point three inches long; flowers handſome, very white, with a yellow throat; but void of ſcent in all the ſpecies. Native of moſt of the Caribbee Iſlands, in ſalt marſhes.

2. Echites quinquangularis, or five-ſided echites: peduncles racemed; leaves ovate, acute. Stems twining, ſhrubby, ſomewhat ſcabrous; leaves three inches long; flowers about ſixteen, green, with a yelloviſh border, the edge of the tube white, and in form of a pentagon. This is not milky. Native of Carthagena in South America; flowers in October.

3. Echites ſuberecta, or oval-leaved echites, or ſavanna-flower: peduncles racemed; leaves ſubovate, obtuſe, mucronate. A ſhrub, differing much from its congeners, abounding in milky juice, among other ſhrubs growing to the height of ten feet, but in ſavannas only three feet, and ſometimes ſcarcely a foot high; ſtems ſcarcely twining, climbing; leaves approaching more or leſs to an ovate form, either ſmooth on both ſides, or ſcabrous at the back. The peduncles ſupport a few large, handſome, yellow, flowers, hirſute on the outſide, and in the tube. It grows naturally in Jamaica in the ſavannas, whence it is chiefly known in that iſland by the name of *ſavanna-flower*. It is alſo very common in the iſland of St. Domingo; flowering from September to March. Dr. Browne ſays, that all the parts of this plant are extremely poiſonous.

4. Echites agglutinata, or glutinous echites: peduncles racemed; leaves ovate, emarginate, with an acumen. Stems twining, ſhrubby; leaves four inches long; flowers ſmall, white. When the follicles are ſeparated, which is eaſily done, a drop of watery glutinous liquor, ſuch as the whole plant abounds with, flows out at the two points by which they had cohered. Found on mountains near Cape François, in Domingo; flowering in December.

5. Echites toruloſa, or climbing echites: peduncles ſubracemed; leaves lanceolate, acuminate. This is a weakly plant, which commonly ſuſtains itſelf by the help of the neighbouring buſhes, and frequently riſes to a conſiderable height among them. The whole plant abounds in a milky gluten. Frequent about the foot of the mountains in Liguanea, in the iſland of Jamaica; flowering in March.

6. Echites umbellata, or umbelled echites: peduncles umbelled; leaves ovate, obtuſe, mucronate, ſtem twining. This climbs to the height of fifteen feet by means of its ſhrubby, twining, pliant, ſtems, which are woody and ſuberous at the bottom, but round, green, and gloſſy, above. The whole abounds in a clear glutinous juice. Leaves roundiſh-ovate, ſubcordate at the baſe, three or four inches long; flowers large, handſome, the border white, the tube green on the outſide; Browne deſcribes them to be pale yellow, with a pretty long ſlender tube. He remarks, that like the reſt of this natural claſs, it is ſomewhat of a deleterious nature; and that there is a ſmall variation of it in the drier parts of the ſavannas, with pointed leaves, and very ſlender ſtalks. Native not only of Jamaica, but of Domingo and Cuba; flowering from October to February. Browne, rightly perceiving that this plant did not properly conform itſelf to any known genus, conſtituted this new one of echites, which is now univerſally adopted.

7. Echites trifida, or trifid echites: peduncles trifid, many-flowered; leaves ovate-oblong, acuminate. Stems twining, ſhrubby; leaves three inches in length; flowers large, pretty, the tube purple, and the border green. It climbs trees to the height of twelve feet, and the whole plant is milky. Native of South America, near Carthagena; flowering in October.

8. Echites repens, or creeping echites: peduncles many-flowered, divided; leaves lanceolate-oblong. This is an elegant ſhrubby plant, not milky, with round ſmooth ſtems; the older ones procumbent, and putting out roots; the younger ſuberect, and thickened at the joints into diſcoid knots. Native of St. Domingo; flowering from October to December.

9. Echites corymboſa, or corymbed echites: racemes corymbed; ſtamens ſtanding out; leaves lanceolate-ovate. This climbs up trees with its twining ſhrubby ſtems twenty feet in height, and the whole of it abounds with a white glutinous milk; flowers numerous, ſmall, red, or purple. Native of the iſland of St. Domingo, flowering in November; in the mountainous woods of Hiſpaniola,

niola, flowering in the ſpring. The French inhabitants call it *gràs de galle*.

10. Echites ſpicata, or ſpiked echites: ſpikes axillary, ſhort; ſtamens ſtanding out; leaves ſubovate. This plant abounds in a white milk, and climbs the trees to the height of ſixty feet; ſtems round, woody, pliant, twining, an inch in diameter, with alternate branches a foot and a half long, at different diſtances, leafy their whole length; leaves oblong, veined, ſmoothiſh, acuminate, diſtich, half a foot long; flowers numerous, white, ſmall, ſubſeſſile. Native of Carthagena in New Spain, in thick lofty woods, flowering in July and Auguſt.

11. Echites caudata, or tailed echites: Corollas funnel-form, with very long linear tips. This is a tree; leaves lanceolate-elliptic, naked; flowers axillary, peduncled, erect, the ſize of thoſe of Nerium or Oleander, funnel-form: border erect, terminating in linear tips longer than the whole corolla, a circumſtance in which it differs from all other known plants. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

12. Echites ſcholaris, or Indian echites: leaves ſubverticilled, oblong; follicles filiform, very long; umbels compound. This alſo is a tree, the branches of which are leafy only at the joints, where there are five or ſeven oval-lanceolate leaves, which are coriaceous, and tranſverſely ſtreaked. The flowers are very ſmall; follicles in pairs, a foot and a half long, and therefore longer than any others that are known. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

13. Echites annularis, or annular echites: ſtem twining; corollas ſalver-form, with an elevated ring on the tube. 14. Echites ſiphilitica, or venereal echites: leaves ovate, ſubpetioled, very ſmooth, ribbed; panicles dichotomous; flowers in ſpikes. Native of Surinam. A decoction of the latter herb is a well-known remedy at Surinam in the venereal diſeaſe.

15. Echites ſucculenta, or ſucculent echites: prickles in pairs, extrafoliaceous; leaves linear, tomentoſe underneath: corollas funnel-form. 16. Echites biſpinoſa, or ſpiny echites: prickles in pairs, extrafoliaceous; leaves lanceolate, ſmooth; corollas ſalver-form. This and the preceding are very ſingular ſhrubs, much reſembling each other. They are ſucculent, milky, and two-ſpined. Without ſeeing the fructification they might be taken for euphorbias. They are natives of the Cape of Good Hope, and were obſerved there by Thunberg.

17. Echites coſtata, or ribbed echites: peduncles in cymes; leaves elliptic-lanceolate, acuminate. Native of the Society Iſles.

18. Echites tomentoſa, or rough echites: leaves cordate-oblong, acuminate; both they and the ſtem rough-haired; flowers in racemes, hairy. Found in Cayenne by von Rhor.

19. Echites Domingenſis, or Domingo echites: peduncles racemed; leaves cordate-ovate, ſomewhat rigid, of a different colour underneath; ſtem twining. 20. Echites aſperuginis, or prickly echites: peduncles racemed; follicles filiform; leaves oblong, acute, rough above; ſtem twining. 21. Echites circinalis, or waved echites: peduncles axillary, many-flowered, jointed; ſegments of the corolla waved; leaves elliptic; ſtem twining. 22. Echites floribunda, or flowering echites: racemes corymbed; leaves ovate, acuminate; nerves parallel; branches almoſt erect. Natives of the Weſt-India iſlands.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants have not yet been introduced into cultivation in Europe; being moſtly inhabitants of the Weſt Indies, they will require the protection of the bark-ſtove, and muſt be increaſed and managed in the ſame manner with the tender ſorts of Apocynum, which ſee. Alſo Carissa.

E'CHIUM, *ſ.* [*echium* of Pliny: παρα τους εχεις, Gr. being ſuppoſed to cure the bite of the viper, or to have ſeeds reſembling a viper's head.] Viper's Bugloss; in botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order aſperifoliæ, (borragineæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, upright, permanent; diviſions ſubulate, upright. Corolla: one-petalled, bell-ſhaped; tube very ſhort; border upright, gradually widened, five-cleft, obtuſe; diviſions generally unequal; the two ſuperior ones longer; the inferior ſmaller, ſharp, reflex; throat pervious. Stamina: filaments five, ſubulate, length of the corolla, declined, unequal; antheræ oblong, incumbent. Piſtillum: germs four; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma obtuſe, two-cleft. Pericarpium: none; calyx grown ſtiffer, guarding the ſeeds in its cavity. Seeds: four, roundiſh, obliquely acuminate.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, irregular, with the throat naked.

Species. 1. Echium fruticoſum, or ſhrubby viper's bugloſs: ſtem ſhrubby; leaves lanceolate, attenuated at the baſe, villoſe-ſtrigoſe, without veins; calycine leaflets lanceolate, acute. This riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk two or three feet high, dividing at the top into ſeveral branches; leaves ſeſſile, hairy, light green; the flowers are produced ſingly between the leaves at the ends of the branches; they are of a purple colour; they appear in May and June, but the ſeeds do not ripen in England. Stamens not longer than the corolla. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. Echium candicans, or hoary tree viper's bugloſs: ſtem ſhrubby; leaves lanceolate, nerved, they and the branches hirſute; calycine leaflets oblong and lanceolate acute; ſtyles rough with hairs. This is a handſome ſhrub; the ſtems and branches are woody and ſomewhat tomentoſe, marked with linear tranſverſe ſcars from fallen leaves. The whole plant is white, and, as it were, ſilvery, with a ſoft cloſe ſhagginess covering the whole, hardly excepting the corolla. Native of the high rocks of Madeira; where it was found by Mr. Francis Maſſon.

3. Echium giganteum, or gigantic viper's bugloſs: ſtem ſhrubby; leaves lanceolate, attenuated at the baſe, hairy; hairs very ſhort; bractes and calyxes ſtrigoſe; ſtamens longer than the corolla. A very lofty ſhrub, with woody, round, hoary, ſmooth, branches; leaves a ſpan long; flowers pointing one way, and forming a very large, pyramidal, terminating, thyrſe, conſiſting of long ſpiked peduncles; corollas obtuſe, nearly equal, white. Found on the rocks of Teneriffe by Francis Maſſon.

4. Echium ſtrictum, or upright viper's bugloſs: ſtem ſhrubby, ſtiff, branching; leaves oblong-lanceolate, hairy; corollas ſomewhat bell-ſhaped; ſtamens longer than the corolla. This is diſtinguiſhed by the ſtiffneſs and uprightneſs of the ſtem, by its petioled oblong leaves, and by the hairs of the ſtem being turned downwards. Found by Maſſon on the rocks of Teneriffe. It is biennial; flowering moſt part of the year.

5. Echium ſpicatum, or ſpiked viper's bugloſs: ſtems aſcending, very ſimple; flowers in ſpikes. 6. Echium argenteum, or ſilvery viper's bugloſs: leaves linear, hirſute, and whitiſh, patulous at the tip. 7. Echium capitatum, or headed viper's bugloſs: ſtem hairy; flowers head corymbed, equal; ſtamens longer than the corolla; leaves hiſpid. Native of the Cape.

8. Echium plantagineum, or plantain-leaved viper's bugloſs: root-leaves ovate, marked with lines, petioled. Leaves above hairy, ſoft, hiſpid; root-leaves like thoſe of plantain, very entire, large; ſtem-leaves lanceolate, ſeſſile; ſtems hairy, with ſoft, not ſtrigoſe, hairs; brown dots under the hairs, as in the reſt, but minute; corollas violet-coloured, not blue, as in echium vulgare; nor ſhorter than the calyx, as in echium creticum. Annual. Native of Italy; flowers from July to October.

9. Echium laevigatum, or ſmooth-ſtalked viper's bugloſs: ſtem even; leaves lanceolate, naked, ſcabrous about the edge and at the tip; corollas equal. Stems underſhrubby, a foot in height. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

10. Echium Italicum, or wall viper's bugloſs: ſtem herbaceous, hairy; leaves linear-lanceolate, ſtrigoſe-hirſute, the lower ones nerved; corollas nearly equal; ſtamens longer than the corolla. This riſes with an upright

hairy ſtalk; the flowers are produced in ſhort ſpikes on the ſide of the branches; they are ſmall, and ſcarcely appear above the calyxes. Some plants have white flowers, others purpliſh.

11. Echium rubrum, or red viper's bugloſs: flowers in a long ſpike made up of ſhort little racemes; corollas nearly equal; leaves hiſpid. Stem erect, about a foot high; radical leaves long and lanceolate, hairy, deepiſh green above, paler below, and with a ſtrong back nerve; ſtem-leaves ſmaller and narrower; flowers rather ſmall than large, of a paliſh red, and with nearly equal and ſomewhat triangular ſegments; antheræ pale blue. Native of Hungary, where it grows in plenty.

12. Echium vulgare, or common viper's bugloſs: ſtem tubercled and hiſpid; ſtem-leaves lanceolate hiſpid; flowers in lateral ſpikes. Stem erect, eighteen inches or more in height, when young ſimple, but becoming branched. The whole plant is hiſpid. The ſtem frequently, and ſometimes the leaves, are beautifully ſpotted with red. The hairs on the ſtem riſe from gloſſy purpliſh black tubercles. It is a ſhowy plant; and, if it were not common, would have a place in our gardens. It is biennial, and once in three years appears abundantly in the corn fields of Cambridgeſhire, &c. where it is known by the name of *cat's-tail*. Bees are fond of the flowers, but their wings are apt to be torn by the ſtrong hairs. That the echium Anglicum of Hudſon is the echium vulgare of Linnæus, cannot be doubted.

13. Echium violaceum, or violet-flowered viper's bugloſs: corollas equal to the ſtamens; tube ſhorter than the calyx. Reſembles the foregoing very much, but the corolla is of a violet-colour; the colour of the herb is a more pleaſant green, and it is not ſo hairy. The whole plant is ſmaller and weaker than the foregoing, which frequently grows very ſtrong and large on walls, whereas this grows in corn-fields and on banks. Gouan ſuppoſes this plant to be no more than a variety of echium vulgare; and Monſ. Villars can ſcarcely think that his echium violaceum is the ſame with that of Linnæus, and thinks it poſſible that it may be an intermediate ſpecies between the echium violaceum and Italicum of Linnæus. He ſays that, in his plant, the leaves are wider, the ſtem branching, the flowers red and more regular, and the ſtamens not appearing out of the corolla. The plant is very rough with white hairs, which give it a whitiſh colour, and it is much branched. Native of Auſtria and Germany. In England, near Norwich; introduced in 1780 by Caſimir Gomez Ortega, M. D. flowers in July.

14. Echium Creticum, or Cretan viper's bugloſs: ſtem procumbent; fruiting calyxes diſtant. This has trailing hairy ſtalks about a foot long, putting out ſeveral ſide branches; leaves lanceolate, hairy, about three inches long, and three quarters of an inch broad, ſeſſile; the flowers come out on ſlender ſpikes, upon long peduncles, from the axils; they are large, of a reddiſh purple, which turns to a fine blue when they are dried; ſeeds ſolitary, ovate, long-beaked, ſomewhat compreſſed, of a bay colour. Native of the Levant; biennial, and flowers from July to September.

There is a variety with branching ſtalks, a foot and a half long, declining towards the ground, and covered with ſtinging hairs; leaves four inches long, and not more than half an inch broad, pretty much warted, and hairy. The flowers grow in looſe ſpikes from the ſides of the ſtalks, and alſo at the ends of the branches; they are of a reddiſh purple colour, but not ſo large as thoſe of the preceding; and the ſtamens are longer than the corolla. This alſo, if different, is a native of the Levant.

15. Echium orientale, or oriental viper's bugloſs; ſtem branched; ſtem-leaves ovate; flowers ſolitary, lateral. Root above a foot long, and two inches thick, mucilaginous and ſweetiſh; ſtem about three feet high, an inch thick, pale green, hard, ſolid; lower leaves fifteen or ſixteen inches long, and four or five inches wide, pointed, whitiſh green, ſattiny above, cottony underneath, with a ſtrong midrib; they diminiſh conſiderably along the ſtem, not being above half a foot in length; they are alſo leſs cottony than the former, and much more pointed; branches about half a foot long; both they and the top of the ſtem rough with ſtrong hairs, accompanied by leaves about an inch and a half in length. All theſe branches are ſubdivided into ſmaller ones bending like a ſcorpion's tail, and loaded with flowers an inch and a half in length, of a pale blue colour, with two red bands on three of the ſegments, on a bright purple ground. The flower has no ſmell. Found in the Levant by Tournefort.

16. Echium Luſitanicum, or Portugal viper's bugloſs: corollas longer than the ſtamens. The lower leaves of this are more than a foot long, and two inches broad in the middle, gradually leſſening to both ends, and covered with ſoft hairs. The ſtalks grow two feet high; the flowers are in ſhort ſpikes from the ſides of them. Native of Spain and Portugal.

17. Echium ſericeum, or ſilky viper's bugloſs: leaves linear wedge-ſhaped; ſtem ſuffruticoſe; both hoary. Stems ſeveral, diffuſed, woody at the baſe, ſimple, a palm or more in height, ſoft at the bottom, ſomewhat rugged at the top, hoary, with white hairs, preſſed cloſe, and placed on minute tubercles, the lower ones longer, the upper ones more diſperſed. The lower leaves from two to three inches long; the upper ones an inch long, and recurved. Native of Egypt.

18. Echium ſetoſum, or hoary viper's bugloſs: leaves linear-lanceolate; ſtem ſuffruticoſe, procumbent; both hiſpid and hoary. Stems a palm in height, branched at the bottom, covered with little whitiſh tubercles, crowded cloſe together, and having white rigid hairs on the top; leaves ſeſſile, half an inch long, gradually ſmaller.

19. Echium glabrum, or ſmooth viper's bugloſs: leaves linear-lanceolate, ſmooth above, callous-dotted beneath on the outſide; ſpikes alternate. Branches ſcattered, a little compreſſed at the top, purpliſh aſh-coloured, with very ſlender appreſſed villoſe hairs; leaves ſeſſile, firm, an inch long, even.

20. Echium roſmarinifolium, or roſemary-leaved viper's bugloſs: leaves petioled, linear-lanceolate, reflex at the edge, hairy underneath, and hoary. Branches round, ſcarred, hoary, with hairs; leaves ſcattered, an inch long, reſembling thoſe of roſemary, on the upper ſurface hairy and green, with a groove along the middle, and ſomewhat rugged. The place of the four laſt is between the ſixth and ſeventh ſpecies.

21. Echium ſphærocephalum, or round-headed viper's bugloſs: leaves linear-lanceolate, ſtrigoſe; heads ſolitary, terminating; branches ſmooth. Branches ſcattered, round below, angular above, towards the end villoſe and toothletted from the fallen leaves; leaves ſcarcely half an inch long. This and the two preceding ſorts are natives of the Cape of Good Hope. The place of the laſt is between the ſeventh and eighth ſpecies.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt ſort is propagated by ſeeds, when they can be obtained, which ſhould be ſown in pots filled with light ſandy earth ſoon after they are received. Theſe may be expoſed to the open air till the beginning of October, when the pots ſhould be placed under a frame, to guard them from froſt; but in mild weather, they ſhould have the free air, to prevent the ſeeds from vegetating till the winter is paſt; for, if the plants come up at that ſeaſon, their ſtems will be weak and full of juice, and very liable to rot with damps; therefore it is much better if the plants do not come up till towards March, which is the uſual time of their appearing, when the ſeeds are not forced by warmth. When the plants are fit to remove, they ſhould be each planted into a ſmall pot filled with light earth, and placed under a frame to forward their putting out new roots; then they ſhould be gradually inured to bear the open air, and the latter end of May be placed abroad in a ſheltered ſituation, where they may remain till the beginning of October; at which time they muſt be removed into an airy

glaſs-

glaſs caſe, where they may enjoy the ſun and have free air in mild weather. During the winter ſeaſon theſe plants muſt be ſparingly watered; for as their ſtems are ſucculent, too much moiſture will cauſe them to rot. In the ſummer they ſhould be ſet abroad in a ſheltered ſituation, and treated in the ſame manner as other plants from the ſame country. The fourteenth ſpecies is annual, and the moſt beautiful of all the ſorts. The ſeeds muſt be ſown every year where they are deſigned to remain; and the plants require no other culture but to keep them clean from weeds, and to thin them where they grow too cloſe. In July they flower, and their ſeeds ripen in five or ſix weeks after. The ſeeds of the other ſorts being ſown in the ſpring, will, the ſecond ſummer after, produce flowers and ſeeds, after which they ſeldom continue. They all delight in a rubbiſhy gravelly ſoil, and will grow upon the tops of old walls or buildings; where, when once they have eſtabliſhed themſelves, they will drop their ſeeds, and thereby maintain a ſucceſſion of plants without any care, and on theſe places they appear very beautiful. See LYCOPSIS, MYOSOTIS, ONOSMA, and PULMONARIA.

E'CHIUS, or ECKIUS (John), a celebrated German catholic divine and controverſialiſt, was born at a village in Suabia, in the year 1486. Having embraced the eccleſiaſtical life, he became doctor and profeſſor of theology in the univerſity of Ingolſtadt. He made himſelf famous by his controverſial writings againſt the reformation, and the leading part which he took in the public diſputes with Luther, Carloſtadt, and Melancthon. He was conſidered as one of the moſt learned and able defenders of the church of Rome, and has had exalted encomiums paſſed on his ſervices by the writers of that communion. He died at Ingolſtadt, in 1543, when he was fifty-ſeven years of age. He was the author of two treatiſes, 1. On the Sacrifice of the Maſs. 2. A Commentary on the Prophet Haggai, 8vo. 1638. 3. Homilies, 4 vols. 8vo. and numerous controverſial pieces againſt the proteſtants.

E'CHO, *ſ.* [ἠχω, Gr. *echo*, Lat.] Sound reflected or reverberated from ſome oppoſing body, and thereby returned or repeated to the ear:

Babbling *echo* mocks the hounds,
Replying ſhrilly to the well-tun'd horns,
As if a double hunt were heard at once. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ECHO, *v. n.* To reſound; to give the repercuſſion of a voice:

Through rocks and caves the name of Delia ſounds;
Delia each cave and *echoing* rock rebounds. *Pope.*

To be founded back:

Hark, how the ſound diſturbs imperious Rome!
Shakes her proud hills, and rolls from dome to dome!
Her mitr'd princes hear the *echoing* noiſe,
And, Albion, dread thy wrath and awful voice. *Blackm.*

To E'CHO, *v. a.* To ſend back a voice; to return what has been uttered.—Our ſeparatiſts do but *echo* the ſame note. *Decay of Piety.*

One great death deforms the dreary ground,
The *echo'd* woes from diſtant rocks reſound. *Prior.*

The following theory of ECHOES is given by Dr. Hutton: For an echo to be heard, the ear muſt be in the line of reflection; that the perſon who made the ſound may hear the echo, it is neceſſary he ſhould be in a perpendicular to the place which reflects it; and, for a multiple echo, it is neceſſary there be a number of walls and vaults, rocks and cavities, either placed behind each other, or fronting each other. Thoſe murmurs in the air, that are occaſioned by the diſcharge of great guns, &c. are a kind of indefinite echoes, and are produced from the vaporous particles ſuſpended in the atmoſphere, which reſiſt the undulations of ſound, and reverberate them to the ear. There can be no echo, unleſs the direct and reflex ſounds follow one another at a ſufficient diſtance of time; for, if the reflex ſound arrive at the ear before the impreſſion of the direct ſound ceaſes, the ſound will not be doubled, but only rendered more intenſe. Now, if we allow that nine or ten ſyllables can be pronounced in a ſecond, in order to preſerve the ſounds articulate and diſtinct, there ſhould be about the ninth part of a ſecond between the times of their appulſe to the ear; or, as ſound flies about 1142 feet in a ſecond, the ſaid difference ſhould be one-ninth of 1142, or 127 feet; and therefore every ſyllable will be reflected to the ear at the diſtance of about ſeventy feet from the reflecting body; but as, in the ordinary way of ſpeaking, three or four ſyllables only are uttered in a ſecond, the ſpeaker, that he may have the echo returned as ſoon as they are expreſſed, ſhould ſtand about 500 feet from the reflecting body; and ſo in proportion for any other number of ſyllables. Merſenne allows for a monoſyllable the diſtance of ſixty-nine feet; Morton, ninety feet; for a diſſyllable 105 feet, a triſyllable 160 feet, a tetraſyllable 182 feet, and a pentaſyllable 204 feet.

From what has been ſaid, it follows that echoes may be applied for meaſuring inacceſſible diſtances. Thus, Mr. Derham, ſtanding upon the banks of the Thames, oppoſite to Woolwich, obſerved that the echo of a ſingle ſound was reflected back from the houſes in three ſeconds; conſequently the ſum of the direct and reflex rays muſt have been $1142 \times 3 = 3426$ feet, and the half of it, 1713 feet, the breadth of the river in that place. It alſo follows that the echoing body being removed farther off, it reflects more of the ſound than when nearer; which is the reaſon why ſome echoes repeat but one ſyllable, or one word, and ſome many. Of theſe, ſome are tonical, which only return a voice when modulated into ſome particular muſical tone; and others polyſyllabical. That fine echo in Woodſtock park, Dr. Plot aſſures us, in the day-time will return very diſtinctly ſeventeen ſyllables, and in the night twenty. See *Nat. Hiſt. Oxf.* p. 7.

Echoing bodies may be ſo contrived, and placed, as that reflecting the ſound from one to the other, a multiple echo, or many echoes, ſhall ariſe. At Roſneath, near Glaſgow, in Scotland, there is an echo that repeats a tune played with a trumpet three times completely and diſtinctly. At the ſepulchre of Metella, wife of Craſſus, there was an echo, which repeated what a man ſaid, five times. Authors mention a tower at Cyzicus, where the echo repeated ſeven times. There is an echo at Bruſſels, that anſwers fifteen times. One of the fineſt echoes we read of, is that mentioned by Barthius, in his notes on Statius's Thebais, lib. vi. ver. 30. which repeated the words a man uttered ſeventeen times. This was on the banks of the Naha, between Coblentz and Bingen. In common echoes, the repetition is not heard till ſome time after hearing the words ſpoken, or the notes ſung; but, in this caſe, the perſon who ſpeaks, or ſings, is ſcarcely heard at all; but the repetition very clearly, and always in ſurpriſing varieties; the echo ſeeming ſometimes to approach nearer, and ſometimes farther off; ſometimes the voice is heard very diſtinctly, and ſometimes hardly at all: one perſon hears only one voice, and another ſeveral; one hears the echo on the right; the other on the left, &c.

Addiſon, and other travellers in Italy, mention an echo at Simonetta palace, near Milan, ſtill more extraordinary, returning the ſound of a piſtol fifty-ſix times. The echo is heard behind the houſe, which has two wings; the piſtol is diſcharged from a window in one of theſe wings, the ſound is returned from a dead wall in the other wing, and heard from a window in the back-front. *Addiſon's Travels*, p. 32. *Miſſon. Voyag. d'Ital.* tom. ii. p. 196. *Philoſ. Tranſ.* N° 480. p. 220.—Farther, a multiple echo may be made, by ſo placing the echoing bodies, at unequal diſtances, as that they may reflect all one way, and not one on the other; by which means, a manifold ſucceſſive ſound will be heard; one clap of the hands like many; one *ha* like a laughter; one ſingle word like many of the ſame tone and accent; and ſo one muſical inſtrument like

like many of the ſame kind, imitating each other. Laſtly, echoing bodies may be ſo ordered, that from any one ſound given, they ſhall produce many echoes, different both as to tone and intenſion. By which means a muſical room may be ſo contrived, that not only one inſtrument playing in it ſhall ſeem many of the ſame ſort and ſize, but even a concert of different ones; this may be contrived by placing certain echoing bodies ſo as that any note played ſhall be returned by them in thirds, fifths, and eighths. There are, however, certain letters which no echo will return or expreſs, particularly an S, of which lord Bacon gives a pleaſant inſtance in a celebrated echo formed by the walls of a ruined church, at Pont Charenton, near Paris, where there was an old Pariſian who took it to be the work of ſpirits, and of good ſpirits; "for, (ſaid he,) if you call Satan, the echo will not deliver back the devil's name, but will ſay *va-t'en*, which ſignifies avoid;" by which circumſtance his lordſhip diſcovered that an echo would not return an S.

E'CHO, *ſ.* The place where the repetition of a ſound is produced. This is either natural, or artificial. In echoes, the place where the ſpeaker ſtands, is called the *centrum phonicum*; and the place that returns the voice, the *centrum phonocampticum*.

E'CHO, *ſ.* in architecture, is applied to certain vaults and arches, moſtly of elliptical or parabolical figures; uſed to redouble ſounds, and produce artificial echoes. The method of making them is taught by F. Blancani, in his Echometria, at the end of his book on the Sphere. Vitruvius tells us, that, in divers parts of Greece and Italy, there were brazen veſſels, artfully ranged under the ſeats of the theatres, to render the ſound of the actors' voices more clear, and make a kind of echo; by which means every one of the prodigious multitude of perſons, preſent at thoſe ſpectacles, might hear with eaſe and pleaſure.

E'CHO, *ſ.* in poetry, a compoſition wherein the laſt words or ſyllables of each verſe contains ſome meaning, which, being repeated apart, anſwers to ſome queſtion or other matter contained in the verſe; as in this beautiful one from Virgil:

Crudelis mater magis, an puer improbus ille?
Improbus ille puer, crudelis tu quoque mater.

The elegance of an echo conſiſts in giving a new ſenſe to the laſt words; which reverberate, as it were, the motions of the mind, and by that means affect it with ſurpriſe and admiration.

E'CHO, in fabulous hiſtory, a daughter of the Air and Tellus, who chiefly reſided in the vicinity of the Cephiſus. She was one of Juno's attendants, and became the confidant of Jupiter's amours. Her loquacity, however, diſpleaſed Jupiter; and ſhe was deprived of the power of ſpeech by Juno, and only permitted to repeat the queſtions put to her. Pan had been one of her admirers, but he never enjoyed her favours. Echo, after ſhe had been puniſhed by Juno, fell in love with Narciſſus; but being deſpiſed by him, ſhe pined away, until nothing was left but the melancholy reverberation of her voice, which ſtill remains as her only immortal part. *Ovid.*

E'CHO, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Aragon: thirteen miles north-north-weſt of Jaca.

E'CHO, a town of the American States, in the Tennaſee government: fifty miles ſouth of Knoxville.

ECHO'METER, *ſ.* among muſicians, a kind of ſcale or rule, with ſeveral lines thereon, ſerving to meaſure the duration and length of ſounds, and to find their intervals and ratios.

E'CHOS, *ſ.* [from ηχος, Gr. ſound.] A medical name for the *tinnitus aurium*, or noiſe in the ears.

ECH'ZELL, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and upper principality of Heſſe: fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Wetzlar.

ECI'JA, or EXIJA, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Seville, on the Xenil, containing ſix pariſhes, twenty convents, ſix hoſpitals, and about 9000 ſouls, ſituated in a valley ſurrounded with ſmall hills, which makes it the warmeſt place of Andaluſia. Wool and hemp are the chief riches of the place: fifty-five miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Seville. Lat. 37. 33. N. lon. 11. 43. E. Peak of Teneriffe.

ECKARDSBER'GA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Thuringia: ten miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Naumburg, and ten ſouth of Nebra.

ECKELNFOHRE'DE, or ECKERFORD, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleſwick: ten miles ſouth of Sleſwick.

ECK'EREN, a village of Brabant, where a battle was fought in 1703, between the army of France and the allies: five miles north of Antwerp.

ECK'ERO, a ſmall iſland of Sweden, between the Baltic and the gulf of Finland, a little to the weſt of the iſland of Aland.

ECK'MUL, a town of Germany, in Lower Bavaria: ſixteen miles weſt of Straubing.

ECK'OLSHEIM, or EGGOLSHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Bamberg: three miles north of Forcheim.

ECK'WERDSHEYDE, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Neyſze: ſeven miles north of Neyſze.

ECLAIR'CISSEMENT, *ſ.* [Fr.] Explanation; the act of clearing up an affair by a verbal expoſtulation.—The *eclairciſſement* ended in the diſcovery of the informer. *Clarendon.*

ECLAIRO'N, or ECLARON, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of St. Dezier, on the river Blaiſe: five miles ſouth-weſt of St. Dezier.

ECLAMP'SIS, *ſ.* [from εκλαμπω, Gr. to ſhine.] The ſparkling and flaſhing lights which ſtrike the eyes of epileptic perſons.

ECLA'T, *ſ.* [Fr.] Splendour; ſhow; luſtre.—Nothing more contributes to the variety, ſurprize, and *eclat*, of Homer's battles, than that artificial manner of gaging his heroes by each other. *Pope.*

ECLEC'TIC, *adj.* [from εκλεκτικος, Gr.] Selecting; chooſing at will.—Cicero was of the *eclectic* ſect, and choſe out of each ſuch poſitions as came neareſt truth. *Watts.*

ECLEC'TICS, *ſ.* [*eclectici*, Lat.] A name given to ſome ancient philoſophers, who, without attaching themſelves to any particular ſect, took what they judged good, and ſolid, from each. Hence their denomination; which, in the original Greek, ſignifies, "that may be choſen," or "that chooſes;" of the verb εκλεγω, I chooſe. Laertius notes, that they were alſo, for the ſame reaſon, denominated *analogetici*; but that they call themſelves *Philalethes*, *i. e.* lovers of truth. The chief or founder of the eclectici was Potamon, of Alexandria, who lived under Auguſtus and Tiberius; and who, weary of doubting of all things with the Sceptics and Pyrrhonians, formed the eclectic ſect, which Voſſius calls the *eclective*.

Towards the cloſe of the ſecond century, a ſect aroſe in the Chriſtian church under the denomination of *eclectics*, or modern *Platonics*. They profeſſed to make truth the only object of their enquiry, and to be ready to adopt from all the different ſyſtems and ſects, ſuch tenets as they thought agreeable to it. However, they preferred Plato to the other philoſophers, and looked upon his opinions concerning God, the human ſoul, and things inviſible, as conformable to the ſpirit and genius of the Chriſtian doctrine. One of the principal patrons of this ſyſtem was Ammonius Saccas, who at this time laid the foundation of that ſect, afterwards diſtinguiſhed by the name of the new *Platonics*, in the Alexandrian ſchool.

ECLEC'TICS, *ſ.* Were alſo a certain ſet of phyſicians among the ancients, of whom Archigenes, under Trajan, was the chief, who ſelected from the opinions of all the other ſects, that which appeared to them beſt and moſt rational; hence they were called *eclectics*, and their preſcriptions *medicina eclectica*.

ECLEG'MA, or ECLIGMA, *ſ.* [εκλειγμα, Gr. of εκ, out, and λειχω, to lick.] A form of medicine made by the incorporation of oils with ſyrups, and which is to be taken upon a liquorice ſtick. *Quincy.*

ECLIPSA'REON, *ſ.* An inſtrument invented by Mr. Ferguſon, for ſhewing the phenomena of eclipſes; as their time, quantity, duration, progreſs, &c.

ECLIP'SE, *ſ.* Fr. Span. and Port. [*eclipſi*, Ital. of *eclipſis*, Lat. εκλειψις, Gr. of εκλειπω, to fail.] An obſcuration of the luminaries of heaven; the ſun is eclipſed by the intervention of the moon; the moon by the interpoſition of the earth. See the article ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 395. The word originally ſignifies departure from the place, to which *Milton* alludes:

Planets, planet-ſtruck, real *eclipſe*
Then ſuffer'd. *Paradiſe Loſt.*

Darkneſs; obſcuration.—All the poſterity of our firſt parents ſuffered a perpetual *eclipſe* of ſpiritual life. *Raleigh.*—Experience we have of the vanity of human glory, in our ſcatterings and *eclipſes*. *King Charles.*

To ECLIP'SE, *v. a.* To darken a luminary.—Let the *eclipſed* moon her throne reſign. *Sandys.*

Now if the earth were flat, the dark'ned moon
Would ſeem to all *eclips'd* as well as one. *Creech.*

To extinguiſh: to put out:

Then here I take my leave of thee, fair ſon,
Born to *eclipſe* thy life this afternoon. *Shakeſpeare.*

To cloud; to obſcure.—He deſcended from his Father, and *eclipſed* the glory of his divine majeſty with a veil of fleſh. *Calamy.*

Let other muſes write his proſp'rous fate,
Of conquer'd nations tell, and kings reſtor'd;
But mine ſhall ſing of his *eclips'd* eſtate,
Which, like the ſun's, more wonders does afford. *Dryden.*

To diſgrace.—She told the king, that her huſband was *eclipſed* in Ireland by the no-countenance his majeſty had ſhewed towards him. *Clarendon.*

Another now hath to himſelf engroſs'd
All pow'r, and us *eclips'd*. *Milton*

ECLIP'TA, *ſ.* [from εκλειπης, imperfect, or εκλειψις, a deficiency.] In botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia ſuperflua, natural order compound flowers, (corymbiferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: common many-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, nearly equal, in a double ſeries. Corolla: compound rayed; of the ray moſt plentiful, female; of the diſk hermaphrodite: proper of the hermaphrodite tubular, four-cleft, upright, outwardly mealy: in the females very narrow, ligulate. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites; filaments four, very ſhort; anther cylindric. Piſtillum: in the hermaphrodites; germ oblong; ſtyle middling; ſtigma two-cleft, ſpreading. Pericarpium: calyx unchanged. Seed: in the hermaphrodites oblong, compreſſed, notched, obtuſe, unarmed. In the females three-ſided, oblong, notched, obtuſe, unarmed. Receptaculum: flattiſh, chaffy; chaffs very narrow. This genus is diſtinct from Verbeſina in having four-cleft corollets, and unarmed ſeeds; and from Cotula in having a chaffy receptacle.—*Eſſential Character.* Receptacle, chaffy; down, none; corollets of the diſk four-cleft.

Species. 1. Eclipta erecta, or upright eclipta: ſtem erect; leaves deflected at the baſe, and ſeſſile. The herb is like that of Coreopſis bidens. The leaves are marked with three nerves, and are in pairs remote from each other. The flowers come out two together alternately from the axils. It is thus deſcribed by Swartz: Stem erect, round, a foot high, leafy, almoſt ſimple, hiſpid with hoary hairs; leaves oppoſite, tooth-ſerrate, wedge-ſhaped, broad-lanceolate, obtuſe, triple-nerved, hiſpid; flowers white; ſeeds angular, thickiſh, naked without any pappus. Native of the Weſt Indies; and of the Eaſt Indies, Cochin-china, &c. if eclipta erecta of different authors be the ſame plant, which may be doubted. Loureiro ſays that in the Cochin-china plant the leaves are not nerved, nor properly ſerrate, nor ſeſſile; and that the flowers are not in pairs. He adds, that the juice is uſed for dying hair both of men and quadrupeds, whence the natives call it *ink-plant*. Cultivated 1690, in the royal garden at Hampton-court. It flowers from July to September, and is annual; Linnæus marks it as biennial.

2. Eclipta punctata, or dotted-ſtalked eclipta: ſtem erect, dotted; leaves flat. Stem round, branching, leafy, rugged, a foot and a half high, reddiſh with white dots; leaves lanceolate-oblong, acute, ſerrate, rugged, oppoſite, ſeſſile, from two to three inches long; flowers whitiſh, having no ſmell. The whole has a green watery ſap, which turns black in the air, and may be uſed as ink. If it could be fixed, it would make a very fine dye. The negroes are ſaid to increaſe the blackneſs of their ſkin by this juice. This reſembles the firſt ſpecies, but the ſtem has white dots ſcattered over it. Annual, and a native of Domingo and Martinico.

3. Eclipta latifolia, or ovate-leaved eclipta: ſtem erect; leaves ovate, petioled. Root annual; ſtem two feet high, round, hiſpid, brachiate, and finally compound. Native of the Eaſt Indies; it flowers in September and October; and was introduced in 1777, by ſir Joſeph Banks.

4. Eclipta proſtrata, or trailing eclipta: ſtem proſtrate; leaves ſomewhat waved and petioled. Native of the Eaſt Indies, Japan, Cochin-china, and the iſle of Tanna in the South Seas. It flowers in Auguſt, and was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759; alſo prior to that in the Eltham garden. It is an annual plant.

5. Eclipta ſeſſilis, or ſeſſile-leaved eclipta; ſtem erect; leaves ſlightly embracing, ovate, toothed; flowers axillary, ſeſſile, diſcoid. This is an annual plant, native of Jamaica.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are propagated by ſeeds, ſown upon a hot-bed in the ſpring; when the plants are fit to remove, they ſhould be tranſplanted into a freſh hot-bed to bring them forward: they muſt be ſhaded till they have taken new root, and then treated as other tender annuals, being careful not to draw them up too weak. In June they may be taken up with balls of earth, and being planted in pots are to be ſet in a ſtove, where they muſt be ſhaded and watered, and where they muſt remain to flower well.

ECLIP'TIC, *ſ.* [*ecliptique*, Fr. *eclittica*, It. *ecliptica*, Sp. *eclipticus*, Lat. εκλειπτικος, of εκλειπω, Gr. to leave.] A great circle of the ſphere, conceived to paſs through the middle of the zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 374 and 453.

ECLIP'TIC, *adj.* Deſcribed by the ecliptic line:

The earth's rotation makes the night and day;
The ſun revolving through th' *ecliptic* way,
Effects the various ſeaſons of the year. *Blackmore.*

EC'LOGUE, *ſ.* [*egloga*, It. *ecloga*, Sp. and Lat. εκλογη, Gr. *i. e.* a choice piece.] A paſtoral poem, ſo called becauſe Virgil called his paſtorals eclogues. *Johnſon.*—It is not ſufficient that the ſentences be brief, the whole *eclogue* ſhould be ſo too. *Pope.*

ECLO'PES, *ſ.* in botany. See RELHANIA.

ECLU'SE (L'), a town of France, in the department of the North: two leagues ſouth of Douay.

ECLU'SE (Charles de l', in Latin *Cluſius*), a celebrated phyſician and botaniſt, born at Arras in 1526. He ſtudied at Ghent and Louvain, and afterwards viſited ſeveral univerſities in Germany, and ſpent three years in that of Montpellier, where he took the degree of doctor. He reſided in the Low-countries from 1550 to 1563, and then entered upon a courſe of travel through various parts of Europe, in which he acquired a very extenſive knowledge of plants. After his return he was made ſuperintendant of the imperial botanic garden by Maximilian II. and afterwards by Rodolph II. At length, being wearied of a court life, he retired for ſome years to Frankfort-on-the-Mein, which, in 1593, he quitted to take the botanical

chair

chair at Leyden. He died there in 1609, in his eighty-fourth year. His principal works are, 1. *Rariorum aliquot Stirpium per Hiſpanias Obſervat. Hiſtoria*, l. ii. 1576, 8vo. moſt of the ſpecies here deſcribed are new, and beautifully delineated with his own hand. 2. *Rariorum aliquot Stirpium per Pannoniam, Auſtriam, &c. Obſerv. Hiſt.* l. iv. 1583, 8vo. a very valuable work, containing many Alpine and other curious plants, with figures. 3. *Exoticorum, libri* x. 1605, contain the plants of Garcias ab Orta, C. a Coſta, Monardus, and Bellonius, with the notes and figures of Cluſius: he has added ſix new books of exotics: with this was publiſhed, 4. another *Appendix plantarum variorum*. After his death were publiſhed, 5, his *Curæ poſteriores*, 1611, folio, containing principally garden plants. He edited ſeveral pieces on botanical ſubjects, written by his friends. Cluſius was a great linguiſt, and alſo a ſkilful coſmographer, and drew ſeveral maps with his own hand.

E'CLYSIS, *ſ.* [from εκλυω, to diſſolve.] With phyſicians, an univerſal faintneſs; a proſtration of ſtrength.

ECOMOY', a town of France, in the department of the Sarte, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Le Mans: four leagues ſouth of Le Mans.

ECONO'MIC, or ECONOMICAL, *adj.* Pertaining to the regulation of an houſehold. Frugal.—In *economical* affairs, having propoſed the government of a family, we conſider the proper means to effect it. *Watts.*

Her quick'ning power in every living part,
Doth as a nurſe, or as a mother ſerve;
And doth employ her *economic* art,
And buſy care, her houſehold to preſerve. *Davies.*

ECO'NOMY, *ſ.* [οικονομια. This word is often written, from its derivation, *œconomy*; but *œ* being no diphthong in Engliſh, it is placed here with the authorities for different orthography.] The management of a family; the government of a houſehold.—By St. Paul's *economy*, the heir differs nothing from a ſervant, while he is in his minority; ſo a ſervant ſhould differ nothing from a child in the ſubſtantial part. *Taylor.*—Diſtribution of expence. —Particular ſums are not laid out to the greateſt advantage in his *economy*; but are ſometimes ſuffered to run waſte, while he is only careful of the main. *Dryden.*—Frugality; diſcretion of expenee; laudable parſimony.—I have no other notion of *economy*, than that it is the parent of liberty and eaſe. *Swift.*—Diſpoſition of things; regulation.—All the divine and infinitely-wiſe ways of *economy* that God could uſe towards a rational creature, obliges mankind to that courſe of living which is moſt agreeable to our nature. *Hammond.*—The diſpoſition or arrangement of any work.—In the Greek poets, as in Plautus, we ſee the *economy* and diſpoſition of poems better obſerved than in Terence. *Ben Jonſon.*—Syſtem of matter; diſtribution of every thing active or paſſive to its proper place:

Theſe the ſtrainers aid,
That by a conſtant ſeparation made,
They may a due *economy* maintain,
Exclude the noxious parts, the good retain. *Blackmore.*

E'COTS, or ECOS, a town of France, in the department of the Eure, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Grand Andelys: ſeven miles north-north-eaſt of Vernon.

ECOU'CHE, a town of France, in the department of the Orne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Argentan. The principal trade of the inhabitants is making clocks, with manufactures of cloth and ſtuffs: one league and a half weſt of Argentan.

ECOUEN', a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oiſe, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Gonneſſe: five miles north of St. Denys.

ECOU'Y, a town of France, in the department of the Eure, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Grand Andelys: four miles north of Grand Andelys.

ECPEPIES'MENUS, *ſ.* [Gr. from εκπιεζω, to preſs out.] With ſurgeons, an epithet applied to ulcers with protuberant lips.

EC'PHASIS, *ſ.* [from the Greek εκ, out, and φαω, to give.] A plain declaration; an explicit propoſition.

ECPHONE'MA, or ECPHONESIS, *ſ.* [from the Greek εκ, out, and φωνη, a voice.] An exclamation; a figure in rhetoric by which the ſpeaker expreſſes the paſſion of his own mind, and endeavours to excite that of the hearers.

EC'PHORA, *ſ.* in architecture, [from the Greek εκ, out, and φερω, to bear.] The moulding, or diſtance between the extremity of a member and the part from which it projects.

ECPHRAC'TIC, *adj.* [from the Greek εκ, from, and φρασσω, to break.] Attenuating; diſſolving tough humours.

EPHRAC'TICS, *ſ.* [from εκφρασσω, to remove.] Deobſtruents. Medicines which attenuate and remove obſtructions.

ECPHRAX'IS, *ſ.* [from εκφρατω, Gr. to remove obſtructions.] A diaphoreſis; an opening of the pores.

ECPIES'MA, *ſ.* [from εκπιεζω, to preſs out.] A kneaded maſs. The juice which is preſſed from plants. Alſo a fracture of the ſkull, in which the bones preſs inwardly.

ECPIES'MUS, *ſ.* [from εκπιεζω, to preſs out.] A diſorder of the eye, in which the globe is almoſt preſſed out of the ſocket by an afflux of humours.

ECPLEX'IS, *ſ.* [from εκπλησσω, to aſtoniſh.] A ſudden ſtupor of the ſenſes from ſome external accident.

ECPTO'MA, *ſ.* [from εκπιπτω, to fall out.] An excluſion or diſplacing of any part. The falling down of any part, as the womb.

ECPYC'TICS, *ſ.* [from εκπυκαζω, to condenſe.] Incraſſants; medicines that render the fluids more ſolid.

ECPYE'MA, *ſ.* [from εκ, and πυον, pus.] A ſuppuration. A collection of matter.

E'CRYSIS, *ſ.* [from εκρυω, to flow out.] An efflux of the ſemen before it has produced a fœtus.

EC'STASY, *ſ.* [*extaſe*, Fr. *eſtaſi*, It. *ecſtaſis*, Lat. εκσταση, Gr. properly ſignifies the removal of a thing from the ſtate in which it was, to another.] Any paſſion by which the thoughts are abſorbed, and in which the mind is for a time loſt.—Whether what we call *ecſtaſy* be not dreaming with our eyes open, I leave to be examined. *Locke.*—Exceſſive joy; rapture.—The religious pleaſure of a well-diſpoſed mind moves gently, and therefore conſtantly: it does not affect by rapture and *ecſtaſy*; but is like the pleaſure of health, ſtill and ſober. *South.*

Each delighted, and delighting, gives
The pleaſing *ecſtaſy* which each receives. *Prior.*

Enthuſiaſm; exceſſive elevation and abſorption of the mind:

He lov'd me well, and oft would beg me ſing;
Which when I did, he on the tender graſs
Would ſit, and harken even to *ecſtaſy*. *Milton.*

Exceſſive grief or anxiety. *This is not now uſed:*

Sighs and groans, and ſhrieks that rend the air,
Are made, not mark'd; where violent ſorrow ſeems
A modern *ecſtaſy*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Madneſs; diſtraction. *This ſenſe is not now in uſe:*

Now ſee that noble and moſt ſovereign reaſon,
Like ſweet bells jangled out of tune, and harſh,
That unmatch'd form, and feature of blown youth,
Blaſted with *ecſtaſy*. *Shakeſpeare.*

EC'STASIED, *adj.* Raviſhed; filled with enthuſiaſm. —Theſe are as common to the inanimate things as to the moſt *ecſtaſied* ſoul upon earth. *Norris.*

ECSTA'TIC, or ECSTATICAL, *adj.* [εκστατικος, Gr.] Raviſhed; rapturous; elevated beyond the uſual bounds of nature:

There doth my ſoul in holy viſion ſit,
In penſive trance, and anguiſh, and *ecſtatic* fit. *Milton.*

In trance *ecſtatic* may thy pangs be drown'd;
Bright clouds deſcend, and angels watch thee round.
Pope.

Raiſed

Raiſed to the higheſt degree of joy:

To gain Peſcennius one employs his ſchemes;
One graſps a Cecrops in *ecſtatic* dreams. *Pope.*

Tending to external objects.—I find in me a great deal of *ecſtatical* love, which continually carries me out to good without myſelf. *Norris.*

ECSTA'TICI, [εκστατικοι, from εξιστημι, I am entranced.] In antiquity, a ſect of diviners who were caſt into trances or ecſtaſies, in which they lay like men aſleep, deprived of all ſenſe and motion; but, after ſome time, returning to themſelves, gave ſtrange relations of what they had ſeen and heard.

ECT'ERNACH, or EPTERNACH, a town of the duchy of Luxemburg, on the Sour: ſixteen miles north-north-eaſt of Luxemburg.

ECTHELYN'SIS, *ſ.* [from εκθηλαινω, to effeminate.] A ſoftneſs of the fleſh or bones. Effeminacy.

ECTHE'SIS, in church-hiſtory, a confeſſion of faith, in the form of an edict, publiſhed in 639, by the emperor Heraclius, with a view to pacify the troubles occaſioned by the Eutychian hereſy in the eaſtern church.

ECTHLIP'SIS, *ſ.* [from εκθλιβω, to preſs againſt.] An ulceration cauſed by preſſure on the ſkin. Alſo an eliſion or flaſh of light before the eyes.

ECTHLIP'SIS, *ſ.* [Lat.] With grammarians, the cutting off a vowel or conſonant, eſpecially the letter *m*, in Latin or Greek verſe, at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel or *h*, as, *div' incido*, for *divum incido*, βελομ' εγω, for βελομαι εγω.

EC'THYMA, *ſ.* [from εκθυω, to break out.] A puſtule, or cutaneous eruption.

ECTILLO'TICS, *ſ.* [from εκτιλλω, to pull out.] Medicines which eradicate tubercles or corns, or deſtroy ſuperfluous hairs.

ECTOPOCYS'TICUS, *ſ.* [from εκτοπος, miſplaced, and κυστις, the bladder.] A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ruptured or miſplaced bladder is called *iſchuria ectopocyſtica*.

ECTRAPELOGAS'TER, *ſ.* [from εκτρεπομαι, to degenerate, and γαστηρ.] One who has a monſtrous belly, or whoſe appetite is voraciouſly large.

ECTRO'PIUM, *ſ.* [from εκτρεπω, to divert.] An inverſion of the eye-lids, ſo that the red ſkin becomes viſible.

ECTRO'TICS, *ſ.* [from εκτιτρωσκω, to miſcarry.] Medicines which cauſe abortion.

EC'TYPE, *ſ.* [εκτυπος, Gr.] An image or picture made according to the pattern; a copy taken from the original.—The complex ideas of ſubſtances are *ectypes*, copies, but not perfect ones, not adequate. *Locke.*

ECU', or ESCU, *ſ.* A French crown.

ECURI'E, *ſ.* [French; *equus*, Lat.] A place covered for the lodging or houſing of horſes.

ED, [ed, Sax. *ede*, Dut. *ere*, Ger.] The termination of the preterite tenſes and participles paſſive, in the Engliſh regular verbs active.

ED, [Heb. a witneſs.] The name of an altar erected by the two tribes and a half that inhabited Paleſtine, eaſt of Jordan, upon the borders of their territory, after their return from the conqueſt of Canaan; in witneſs that they were of the ſame nation with thoſe on the other ſide of the river Jordan. In conſequence of which a very ſerious miſunderſtanding had nearly taken place. *Joſh.* xxii. 34.

ED, a town of Sweden, in the province of Weſt Gothland: thirty-three miles north of Uddevalla.

ED, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland: eighty miles north of Calmar.

E'DA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland: forty miles north of Carleſtadt.

E'DA, one of the Orkney iſlands, about ſeven miles long, and half a mile to two miles broad, and ſituated about eight miles north-north-eaſt from Pamona. It contains ſeveral villages. Lat. 59. 2. N. lon. 0. 33. E. Edinburgh.

EDA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*edax*, Lat.] Eating; voracious; devouring; predatory; ravenous; rapacious; greedy.

EDA'CITY, *ſ.* [*edacitas*, Lat.] Voracity; ravenouſneſs; greedineſs; rapacity.—The wolf is a beaſt of great *edacity* and digeſtion; it may be the parts of him comfort the bowels. *Bacon.*

E'DAM, an iſland near Batavia, where the Dutch placed criminals, and employed them in divers ſorts of work.

E'DAM, a town of Holland, or Batavian Republic, ſituated near the Zuyder Sea. It is built in a triangular form, and has a good port, formed by the river Ey, on which it ſtands, and which, with the dam thrown up againſt the inundations of that river, gives its name to the town. It holds the ninth rank among the ſmall cities of the ſtates, and ſends a deputy to the ſtates-general: twelve miles north of Amſterdam. Lat. 52. 32. N. lon. 22. 27. E. Ferro.

E'DAR, the name of a tower in Canaan, near which the patriarch Jacob pitched his tent, in his journey to viſit his father. *Gen.* xxxv. 21.

ED'BO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Upland: thirty miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Upſal.

ED'DA, *ſ.* in antiquities, is a ſyſtem of the ancient Icelandic or Runic mythology, containing many curious particulars of the theology, philoſophy, and manners, of the northern nations of Europe; or of the Scandinavians, who had migrated from Aſia, and from whom our Saxon anceſtors were deſcended. M. Mallet apprehends that it was originally compiled, ſoon after the Pagan religion was aboliſhed, as a courſe of poetical lectures, for the uſe of ſuch young Icelanders as devoted themſelves to the profeſſion of a *ſcald*, or poet. It conſiſts of two principal parts; the *firſt*, containing a brief ſyſtem of mythology, properly called the *Edda*; the *ſecond*, a kind of art of poetry, called *ſcalda*, or *poetics*. The moſt ancient Edda was compiled by Soemund Sigfuſſon, ſurnamed *the Learned*, who was born in Iceland about the year 1057. This was abridged, and rendered more intelligible about 120 years afterwards, by Snorro Sturleſon, who was ſupreme judge of Iceland. He added alſo the ſecond part, in the form of a dialogue, being a detail of different events tranſacted among the divinities. The only three pieces that are known to remain of the more ancient Edda of Soemund, are the Voluſpa, the Havamaal, and the Runic chapter. The Voluſpa, or prophecy of Vola or Fola, appears to be the text on which the Edda is the comment. It contains in two or three hundred lines the whole ſyſtem of mythology diſcloſed in the Edda, and may be compared to the Sibylline verſes, on account of its laconic yet bold ſtyle, and its imagery and obſcurity. It is profeſſedly a revelation of the decrees of the Father of Nature, and the actions and operations of the gods. It deſcribes the chaos, the formation of the world, with its various inhabitants, the function of the gods, their moſt ſignal adventures, their quarrels with Loke their great adverſary, and the vengeance that enſued; and concludes with a long deſcription of the final ſtate of the univerſe, its diſſolution and conflagration, the battle of the inferior deities, and the evil beings, the renovation of the world, the happy lot of the good, and the puniſhment of the wicked.

To ED'DER, *v. a.* [probably from *edge*.] To bind or interweave a fence.—To add ſtrength to the hedge, *edder* it; which is, bind the top of the ſtakes with ſome ſmall long poles on each ſide. *Mortimer.*

ED'DER, *ſ.* Such wood as is commonly put upon the top of fences, to keep the ſtakes tight:

In lopping and felling, ſave *edder* and ſtake,
Thine hedges, as needeth, to mend or to make. *Tuſſer.*

ED'DERBRECHE, *ſ.* [from the Saxon, now *obſolete*.] The offence of hedge-breaking.

ED'DISH, *ſ.* [eðiſc, Sax.] The ſtubble after the corn is cut; the latter graſs.

ED'DRED-SI, a ſmall iſland in the Red Sea, two leagues from the coaſt of Arabia. Lat. 17. 10. N. lon. 41. 33. E. Greenwich.

ED'DY, *f.* [ed, backward, again, and ea, water, Sax.] The water that by ſome repercuſſion, or oppoſite wind, runs contrary to the main ſtream.—My praiſes are as a bulruſh upon a ſtream: if they ſink not, 'tis becauſe they are borne up by the ſtrength of the current, which ſupports their lightneſs; but they are carried round again, and return on the *eddy* where they firſt began. *Dryden.*—Whirlpool; circular motion:

So, where our wide Numidian waſtes extend,
Sudden th' impetuous hurricanes deſcend,
Wheel through the air, in circling *eddies* play,
Tear up the ſands, and ſweep whole plains away. *Addiſon.*

ED'DY, *adj.* Whirling; moving circularly:

And chaff with *eddy* winds is whirl'd around,
And dancing leaves are lifted from the ground. *Dryden.*

ED'DYSTONE, an inſulated rock, being the elevated part of a chain of rocks, about five leagues to the ſouth from the port of Plymouth, and about three leagues or ſomewhat more from the Ram Head, well known to ſeamen who navigate the Engliſh Channel. They lie nearly in the fairway from the Start to the Lizard, and are therefore of the utmoſt danger to mariners. Hence it is that on the Eddyſtone rock a light-houſe has been erected, to ſerve as a beacon or ſignal to avoid the danger, as theſe rocks are covered with the flood tide, but come dry at the ebb. The firſt light-houſe was erected of wood, in 1696, and reſiſted many violent ſtorms, but was blown down on the 27th of November, 1703; in which the projector, Mr. Winſtanley, who then happened to be repairing it, and all his attendants, periſhed. The corporation of the Trinity-houſe afterwards erected another in 1709, and to ſupport the expence laid a duty on all veſſels paſſing it. This alſo was conſtructed of wood, and was burnt down in 1755. The very able and ingenious engineer, Mr. John Smeaton, was then employed, to erect the light-houſe of ſolid ſtone, granite if poſſible; and after four years inceſſant labour and application, at ſuch times as the ſeaſons and weather would permit, the preſent celebrated ſtructure was completed, and again lighted up on the 16th of October, 1759; ever ſince which time it has withſtood the violent attacks of the moſt tempeſtuous hurricanes, equal to any part of the ſolid rock itſelf.

The building, as it is now conſtructed, conſiſts of four rooms, one over the other, and at the top a gallery and lantern. The ſtone floors are flat above, but concave beneath; and are kept from preſſing againſt the ſides of the building by a chain let into the walls. Portland ſtone and granite are united together by a ſtrong cement, and let into horizontal ſteps by dovetails on the ſouth-weſt. The ingenious architect diſcovered that Portland ſtone was likely to be injured by a marine animal; and as the working of granite was very expenſive and laborious, the external part only was conſtructed with this, and the internal part with the other. To form a ſtrong and broad baſe, and a ſtrong bulk of matter to reſiſt the waves, the foundation is one entire ſolid maſs of ſtones, to the height of thirty-five feet, engrafted into each other, and united by every means of additional ſtrength. It is nearly eighty feet in height.

About a quarter of a mile from the light-houſe to the north-eaſt, there is a continuation of this rock under water, which only ſhews itſelf at the low ebbs of a high ſpring tide, and then only of the ſize of a butt. There are ten fathoms all round it, within a ſhip's length. Theſe rocks received their name from the great variety of contrary currents or ſets of the tide which are found to prevail near them. From their ſituation in reſpect to the Atlantic Ocean and the Bay of Biſcay, they are expoſed to the ſwells of both, from all the ſouth-weſtern points of the compaſs; and all the heavy ſeas which roll in from thence, come immediately and uninterruptedly upon theſe rocks, and there break with inconceivable fury. It is alſo remarkable, that a ground ſwell will ſometimes meet the ſlope of the rocks, and break upon them frightfully, even when the ſurface of the ſea is perfectly ſmooth, and without a ſingle breeze; and this obſtruction, at thoſe times, is ſo great as to impede and put a ſtop to every thing which may be carrying on upon the rock, and to prevent landing upon it from a boat, though perſons might from thence go to ſea in a walnut-ſhell, if it had capacity enough to keep them afloat.

The weſt ſide of the main rock, where it appears ſix or ſeven feet above water at the ebb of a high ſpring tide, is bold and ſteep; but it is foul for half a mile off, to the ſouth-ſouth-eaſt, and there are ſeveral other rocks which ſhew themſelves above water at the ebb. It lies from the Ram Head ſouth-by-weſt, a little weſterly; from the Start weſt, a little ſoutherly, about ſix leagues; and from the Lizard about eaſt-by-north half north, eleven or twelve leagues. In the fairway of this rock is forty fathoms, and between it and the Ram Head thirty-five or thirty-ſix fathoms; ſo that a ſhip in coming up Channel in the night, if ſhe cannot ſee the light, muſt keep without the depth of forty fathoms, as thirty-five fathoms is a ſure mark for being within it. But, after paſſing the Lizard up Channel, ſhips ſhould be careful to keep off from the French ſhore, otherwiſe they may fall in with the Caſkets and the iſlands. The latitude of the Eddyſtone is 50. 8. N. and longitude 4. 24. W. and it has high water at ſpring tides at half paſt five o'clock. Generally ſpeaking, the flood tide ſets within the Eddyſtone, from the Ram Head to the Start, in the direction of eaſt-ſouth-eaſt, and ebbs to the weſt-north-weſt.

ED'DYSTONE, a rock on the coaſt of Patagonia, in South America, not far from land, in latitude about 48. 30. S. and longitude 64. 56. W.

ED'DYSTONE, a rock on the north coaſt off the entrance to Port Egmont in Falkland's Iſlands, and to Falkland Sound from the north, which divides the two principal iſlands ſo called. This rock is about five miles to the north-by-weſt from Cape Dolphin.

ED'DYSTONE, a rock ſituated about a league to the eaſt of another, called the Swilly Rock, near the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of New Holland. Lat. 43. 53. S. lon. 147. 9. E.

EDE'CHIA, *f.* in botany. See LAUGERIA.

E'DELBACH, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Bavarian Waidhoven.

E'DELSTEIN, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Neiſſe: five miles ſouth of Ziegenthals.

ED'ELINCK (Gerard), a celebrated engraver, born at Antwerp, in 1641. He acquired the principles of his art in that city, and went to exerciſe it at Paris, whither the munificence of Louis XIV. attracted men of talents in every walk. He was choſen to engrave the Holy Family of Raphael, and Alexander viſiting the Family of Darius by Le Brun, in both which pieces he acquired the admiration of connoiſſeurs, by the clearneſs, brilliancy, and harmony, of his ſtrokes. His print of Le Brun's famous Magdalen was alſo a maſter-piece; and his heads of a number of the moſt illuſtrious perſons of the age, are in the higheſt eſteem. He had apartments in the Gobelins, with the title of engraver to the king, and counſellor of the academy of painting. He died in 1707.

EDEMATO'SE, *adj.* [οιδημα, Gr.] Swelling; full of humours; commonly written *oedematous.*—A ſeroſity obſtructing the glands may be watery, *edematoſe*, and ſchirrous, according to the viſcoſity of the humour. *Arbuthnot.*

E'DEN, the name of a city, ſituated, as is ſuppoſed, in Meſopotamia; near which was the garden where our firſt parents dwelt previous to their tranſgreſſion. Compare *Gen.* ii. 8. 2 *Kings*, xix. 12. and *Ezek.* xxvii. 23. Some have ſuppoſed *Eden* to be the name of the garden itſelf, but it ſeems without foundation; for, notwithſtanding

Eden,

Eden, on account of the beauty of its ſituation, is frequently recurred to by the prophets, yet, "the Garden of the Lord," is almoſt as frequently coupled with it, in order as much as poſſible to diſtinguiſh them. *Iſaiah*, li. 3. *Ezek.* xxxi. 8, 16, 18.

E'DEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Rietberg: one mile eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Rietberg.

E'DEN, a river of England, which riſes in Weſtmoreland, on the borders of Yorkſhire, croſſes the county of Cumberland, and runs into the arm of the ſea called *Solway Frith*, about ſeven miles below Carliſle.

E'DEN, a river of Scotland, which runs into the Tweed, not far from Coldſtream.

E'DEN, a townſhip of the American States, in Hancock county, diſtrict of Maine, incorporated in 1796, taken from the northerly part of Mount Deſert.

E'DEN, a townſhip of the American States, in Orleans county, Vermont, north-weſt of Craftſbury.

E'DENBURG, a town of Hungary: twenty-nine miles ſouth-weſt of Preſburg, and thirty-ſix ſouth of Vienna.

EDENDER'RY, a town of Ireland, in King's County: twenty-nine miles weſt of Dublin

EDEN'TATED, *adj.* [*edentatus*, Lat.] Deprived of teeth.

E'DENTON, a diſtrict of the American States, on the ſea-coaſt of North Carolina, bounded north by the ſtate of Virginia; eaſt by the ocean; weſt by Halifax diſtrict; and ſouth by Newbern. It is ſubdivided into ſeven counties, viz. Chowan, Paſquotank, Perquinins, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, and Tyrrel. It contained, by the cenſus of 1796, 53,770 inhabitants. Its chief town is Edenton. The wood is chiefly pine, oak, cypreſs, and juniper; of all which there is abundance.

E'DENTON, the capital of the above diſtrict, is a poſt town and port of entry, at the head of a bay on the north ſide of Albemarle ſound, and at the north-eaſt ſide of the opening of Chowan river. The public buildings are an ancient brick epiſcopal church, a court-houſe, and gaol. In or near the town lived the proprietary, and the firſt of the royal governors. Its ſituation is advantageous for trade, but unhealthy, which doubtleſs has tended to retard its proſperity. Its exports in the year ending September 30, 1794, amounted to the value of 50,646 dollars. It is ninety-ſeven miles north of Newbern, 257 north-north-eaſt of Wilmington, 139 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburgh, and 440 ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia. Lat. 36. 6. N. lon. 77. 11. W.

E'DER, a city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, ſituated in the ſouthern part of that province, near the borders of Edom. *Joſh.* xv. 21.

E'DER, a town of Africa, in Morocco, on the coaſt of the Atlantic: ten miles north-eaſt of Cape Cantin.

E'DER, a river of Bohemia, which runs into the Elbe at Leitmeritz.

E'DER, a river of Germany, which runs into the Fulda: ſeven miles ſouth of Caſſel.

ED'ERA, *ſ.* in botany. See HEDERA and RHUS.

ED'ERIC, a town of Aſia, in the country of Thibet: forty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Toſun Hotun.

ED'ERITZ, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Anhalt Cothen: four miles ſouth of Cothen.

E'DESHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and biſhopric of Spire: fourteen miles weſt of Spire.

EDES'SA, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Macedonia, near the Viſtricza, called by the Turks *Moglena*: it was at one time the reſidence of the Macedonian kings, before Philip embelliſhed Pella: forty-four miles weſt-north-weſt of Saloniki, and 316 weſt of Conſtantinople. Lat. 40. 50. N. lon. 39. 49. E. Ferro.

ED'FU, a town in Upper Egypt, where the people have a ſuperſtition concerning crocodiles ſimilar to that entertained in the Weſt Indies. They ſay there is a king of them, who reſides near Iſna, who has ears, but no tail; and he poſſeſſes an uncommon regal quality, that of doing no harm, analogous to "the king can do no harm." Some of theſe people are bold enough to aſſert that they have ſeen him. *Browne's Travels*, 1799, p. 140.

EDFUE'RIM, a town of Norway: thirty-ſix miles north of Berga.

ED'GAR, [of eadiz, happy, and aje, honour, Sax.] The name of a king of England. A proper name of men.

ED'GARTON, a port of the American States, and poſt town of Maſſachuſetts, and the chief town of Duke's county, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the iſland of Martha's Vineyard. The fertile iſland of Chabaquidick is within the juriſdiction of Edgarton, which has a ſmall trade to the Weſt Indies. The exports in 1794 for one year ending September 30, amounted to 2,257 dollars value. It lies about fourteen miles ſouth of Barnſtable county, on the main, and ninety-four miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Boſton. It was incorporated in 1671, and contains 1352 inhabitants.

EDG'COMB, [of edge, and comb, Sax. a valley environed with hills.] A ſurname.

EDG'COMB, a townſhip of the American States, in Lincoln county, diſtrict of Maine, containing 855 inhabitants. It was incorporated in 1774, and lies 180 miles north-by-eaſt of Boſton.

EDG'COMB, a county of the American States, in Halifax diſtrict, North Carolina, bounded ſouth by Pitt county, ſouth-weſt by Wayne county, and Tar river, which affords it communication with ſeveral counties in the ſtate; weſt by Naſh county, and eaſt by Martin and Halifax counties. It contains 10,255 inhabitants.

EDG'COMB BAY, a bay on the north-eaſt coaſt of New Holland. Lat. 20. S.

EDG'COTT, a village of England, in the county of Northampton, on the borders of Oxfordſhire, near which, at a place called *Daneſmore*, a battle was fought between the Saxons and the Danes: and another on the 26th of July, 1469, by a party of Lancaſtrians, under the command of ſir John Coniers, ſir Henry Nevil, and Robin of Ridſdale, againſt the earl of Pembroke at the head of twelve thouſand Welchmen, and the earl of Devon at the head of five thouſand archers. The earl of Pembroke was ſlain, the earl of Derby taken and beheaded, with five thouſand men killed: four miles north of Banbury.

EDGE, *ſ.* [edge, Sax.] The thin or cutting part of a blade:

'Tis ſlander,
Whoſe *edge* is ſharper than the ſword. *Shakeſpeare.*

A narrow part riſing from a broader.—Some harrow their ground over, and then plough it upon an *edge*. *Mortimer.*—Brink; margin; extremity:—We have, for many years, walked upon the *edge* of a precipice, while nothing but the ſlender thread of human life has held us from ſinking into endleſs miſery. *Rogers.*

Yes, the laſt pen for freedom, let me draw,
When truth ſtands trembling on the *edge* of law. *Pope.*

Sharpneſs of mind; proper diſpoſition for action or operation; intenſeneſs of deſire.—Silence and ſolitude ſet an *edge* upon the genius, and cauſe a greater application. *Dryden.*

But when long time the wretches thoughts refin'd,
When want had ſet an *edge* upon their mind,
Then various cares their working thoughts employ'd,
And that which each invented, all enjoy'd. *Creech.*

Keenneſs; acrimony of temper:

Abate the *edge* of traitors, gracious Lord!
That would reduce theſe bloody days again. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſet teeth on EDGE. To cauſe a tingling uneaſy ſenſation in the teeth.—A harſh grating tune *ſetteth the teeth on edge*. *Bacon.*

To EDGE, *v. a.* To ſharpen; to enable to cut:

There ſat ſhe rolling her alluring eyes,
To *edge* her champion's ſword, and urge my ruin. *Dryden.*

To furniſh with an edge:

I fell'd along a man of bearded face,
His limbs all cover'd with a ſhining caſe;
So wond'rous hard, and ſo ſecure of wound,
It made my ſword, tho' *edg'd* with flint, rebound. *Dryd.*

To border with any thing; to fringe.—I rid over hanging hills, whoſe tops were *edged* with groves, and whoſe feet were watered with winding rivers. *Pope.*—To exaſperate; to embitter.—By ſuch reaſonings the ſimple were blinded, and the malicious *edged*. *Hayward.*—To put forward beyond a line.—*Edging* by degrees their chairs forwards, they were in a little time got up cloſe to one another. *Locke.*

To EDGE, *v. n.* [perhaps from eb, Sax. backward.] To move forward againſt any power; going cloſe upon a wind, as if upon its ſkirts or border, and ſo failing ſlow:

I muſt *edge* upon a point of wind,
And make ſlow way. *Dryden.*

EDGE-TOO'L, *ſ.* A tool made ſharp to cut.—There muſt be no playing with things ſacred, nor jeſting with *edge-tools*. *L'Eſtrange.*

The manufacture of edge-tools has of late received very conſiderable improvement in moſt parts of England; but particularly in the manufactory of Mr. Arnold Wilde, at Sheffield in Yorkſhire, from an union or preparation of caſt-ſteel and iron. The method is as follows: Take a mould of caſt-iron, or other fit material, of a dimenſion that will beſt ſuit the ſize of the article intended to be manufactured; then take a piece of wrought-iron, and prepare it, by heating in a fire and hammering it, or in any other manner you may think proper, to the ſize you want it; then fix the iron in the mould, (leaving a ſufficient vacancy to receive the caſt-ſteel in a fluid ſtate,) in ſuch a direction as that, when the caſt-ſteel is poured into the mould, the iron may be either in the middle or the center of the caſt-ſteel; or on one or both ſides of the caſt-ſteel; or in ſuch other direction as may beſt ſuit the purpoſe for which the iron and caſt-ſteel, when incorporated, ſhall be wanted. Then put the crucible or pot into the furnace; when the crucible or pot is hot put ſteel into it; then fix on the lid to the crucible or pot, and continue it in the furnace or fire till the ſteel becomes fluid. When you ſuppoſe the ſteel to be nearly in a fluid ſtate, take your piece of iron, which you intend to incorporate with the caſt-ſteel, put it into a fire, and heat it to what is uſually called a welding heat; then take the iron out of the fire, clean it from any ſcale or dirt, and fix it in the mould, in the like direction you had before fitted it; take care that your ſteel be now in a fluid ſtate, and, immediately on your taking the iron out of the fire, take the crucible or pot containing the melted ſteel from the furnace or fire, and, immediately after the iron thus heated ſhall be fitted in the mould, pour or turn the fluid ſteel into the ſpace or vacancy left in the mould to receive the ſame, which will incorporate with the iron, and become one ſolid maſs or body of caſt-ſteel and iron united. To make all ſorts of plane-irons, ſcythes, ſickles, drawing-knives, hay-knives, and all other kinds of edge-tools, of caſt-ſteel and iron, united as hereinbefore-mentioned, take a piece of the caſt-ſteel and iron, united; then forge, roll, ſlit, or tilt it, in ſuch way as is proper, for any, or either, of the articles intended to be manufactured; then the article may be made in the above manner, or by ſuch other mode as a workman may judge moſt convenient. This invention is ſanctioned by letters patent, dated January 19, 1795.

ED'GED, *part. adj.* Sharp; not blunt.—We find that ſubtile or *edged* quantities do prevail over blunt ones. *Digby.*

EDGEFIELD COUNTY, in South Carolina, is the ſouthernmoſt in the diſtrict of Ninety Six; bounded north by Saluda river, which divides it from Newbury county; ſouth-weſt by Savannah river, which ſeparates it from the ſtate of Georgia; eaſt by Orangeburg diſtrict; and weſt by Abbeville county. The ridge of elevated land which divides the waters of Saluda from thoſe of Savannah river, paſſes nearly through the middle of the county. Edgefield county is about thirty-four miles long and twenty-four broad, and contains 13,289 inhabitants. In this county is Edgefield court-houſe, where is a poſt-office: twenty miles from Abbeville court-houſe, twenty-five from Auguſta, and ſixty from Columbia.

ED'GELESS, *adj.* Blunt; obtuſe; unable to cut.—They are *edgeleſs* weapons virtue hath to encounter. *Decay of Piety.*

To-morrow in the battle think on me,
And fall thy *edgeleſs* ſword; deſpair and die. *Shakeſpeare.*

ED'GEMONT, a townſhip of the American States, in Delaware county, Pennſylvania.

ED'GEWISE, *adv.* With the edge put into any particular direction.—Should the flat ſide be objected to the ſtream, it would be ſoon turned *edgewiſe* by the force of it. *Ray.*

EDG'HILL, a place of England, in the county of Warwick, memorable for the firſt battle fought between the unfortunate Charles I. and the army of the parliament, on the 22d of October 1642, in which 5000 men were killed. On the king's ſide the earl of Lindſey, ſir Edward Verney, and lord Aubigny, brother to the duke of Richmond, were ſlain; lord Willoughby, ſir Thomas Lunſford, and ſir Edward Stradling, were taken priſoners. On the parliament ſide, lord St. John of Bletſo, and Charles Eſſex, were the only two perſons of conſequence who were ſlain. Neither party could claim the victory. Eſſex, who commanded for the republicans, retired to Warwick, and the king to Banbury: two miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Kineton.

EDG'HIR, a town of Hindooſtan, in the country of Golconda: ten miles weſt of Rachore, and ſeventy-five ſouth-weſt of Hydrabad.

EDG'ING, *ſ.* What is added to any thing by way of ornament.—A woman branches out into a long diſſertation upon the *edging* of a petticoat. *Addiſon.*—A narrow lace.

EDG'ING, *part. adj.* Furniſhing with an edge, fringing; putting forward, exaſperating.

EDG'WARE, a market town in the county of Middleſex, eight miles from London, on the road to Ayleſbury. Here are two churches, Edgware and Little Stanmore. The latter, built by the duke of Chandos, is a neat and elegant ſtructure; the inſide beautifully ornamented with paintings, and to it his grace gave the name of Whitchurch; the weſt ſide of the ſtreet of Edgware being in the pariſh of Whitchurch, or Little Stanmore. Edgware is on the very edge of the county; whence its name. The market is on Thurſdays, and a fair on the 4th of May. The old Roman cauſey, called Watling-ſtreet, paſſes by here from London.

Adjoining to Edgware is Canons, where, in the eighteenth century, roſe and vaniſhed a moſt magnificent palace, erected by the firſt duke of Chandos, whoſe princely ſpirit was ſuch, that the people in this neighbourhood ſtill emphatically ſtile him, "The Grand Duke." The ſhort time that intervened between the erection and demolition of this ſtructure, affords ſuch a remarkable inſtance of the inſtability of human grandeur, that the hiſtory of it merits particular regard. The duke, having accumulated a vaſt fortune, as paymaſter to the army, in queen Anne's reign, formed a plan of living in a ſtate of regal ſplendour, and, accordingly, erected this magnificent ſtructure, which, with its decorations and furniture, coſt 250,000l. The pillars of the great hall were of marble, as were the ſteps of the principal ſtaircaſe, each ſtep conſiſting of one piece, twenty-two feet long:

long: the locks and hinges of the doors were of silver or gold; and all the decorations and furniture were in a stile of correspondent magnificence. The establishment of the household was not inferior to the splendour of the habitation, and extended even to the ceremonies of religion. "The chapel (says a writer who visited this mansion in its glory) hath a choir of vocal and instrumental music, as in the royal chapel; and, when his grace goes to church, he is attended by his Swiss guards, ranged as the yeomen of the guards: his music also plays when he is at table; he is served by gentlemen in the best order; and I must say, that few sovereign princes live with that magnificence, grandeur, and good order." What was meant by Swiss guards, is explained by another passage in the same work: "At the end of each of his chief avenues, the duke hath neat lodgings for eight old serjeants of the army, whom he took out of Chelsea college, who guard the whole, and go their rounds at night, to prevent disorders; and they wait upon the duke to chapel on Sundays." The duke, indeed, had divine service performed with all the aids that could be derived from vocal and instrumental music. To this end he retained some of the most celebrated performers of both kinds, and engaged the greatest masters to compose anthems, and services, with instrumental accompaniments, after the manner of those performed in the churches of Italy. Near twenty of Handel's anthems were composed for this chapel; and the morning and evening services were principally composed by Dr. Pepusch. It has been questioned, however, whether true taste was predominant in this profusion of expence. Pope, in his Description of Timon's Villa, has severely satirized the whole: we even find the prophet and the bard united, and the fate of all this magnificence foretold:

Another age shall see the golden ear
Imbrown the slope and nod on the parterre;
Deep harvest bury all his pride had plann'd,
And laughing Ceres re-assume the land.

Moral Essays, epist. 4.

It is to be lamented that Pope, by his satire on the profuse and ostentatious, but kind and benefic, Chandos, subjected himself to the imputation of ingratitude; it having been said, that he was under great personal obligations to this munificent nobleman. "From the reproach which the attack upon a character so amiable brought upon him, (says Dr. Johnson,) Pope tried all means of escaping. He attempted an apology by which no man was satisfied; and he was at last reduced to shelter his temerity behind dissimulation, and to endeavour to make that disbelieved which he never had confidence openly to deny. He wrote an exculpatory letter to the duke, which was answered with great magnanimity, as by a man who accepted his excuse, without believing his professions." The house was built in 1712; and, notwithstanding three successive shocks, which his fortune received, by his concerns in the African company, and in the Mississippi and South Sea speculations, in the years 1718, 1719, and 1720, the duke continued to live in splendour at Canons till his death, in 1744. The estate was unquestionably incumbered; on which account the earl of Aylesbury, father-in-law to Henry the second duke, and one of the trustees in whom it was vested, determined to part with a princely palace, which required an establishment too expensive for the duke's income. As no purchaser could be found for the house, that intended to reside in it, the materials of the building were sold by auction, in 1747, in separate lots, and produced, after deducting the expences of sale, eleven thousand pounds. The marble stair-case, in particular, was purchased by the late earl of Chesterfield, for his house in May-fair; the fine columns were bought for the portico of Wansted-house, near Epping, (*where now, September* 1803, *reside the dethroned and unfortunate royal family of France*;) and the equestrian statue of George I. one of the numerous sculptures that adorned the grounds, is now the central ornament of Leicester-square.

It is curious to remark, that when the plan of living at Canons was originally projected, the utmost abilities of human prudence were exerted to guard against improvident profusion. One of the ablest accomptants in England, Mr. Watts, the master of an academy in Little Tower-street, was employed by the duke to draw a plan, which ascertained the total of a year's, a month's, a week's, and even a day's, expenditure. The scheme was engraved on a very large copper-plate; and those who have seen it pronounce it a very extraordinary effort of economical wisdom. To this we may add, that the duke, though magnificent, was not wasteful. All the fruit in the garden, not wanted for his table, was sold on his own account: "It is as much my property (he would say) as the corn and hay, and other produce of my fields." An aged man, who had been the duke's servant, and now appeared "the sad historian of the pensive scene," informed the writer of this account, that, in his occasional bounties to his labourers, the duke would never exceed sixpence each: "This (he would observe) may do you good; more may make you idle and drunk."

Two miles from Edgware we enter Bushy-heath, where every traveller stops with rapture to partake of its delightful prospects. On the right is a charming view of the town of St. Alban's; and all the spaces between, and farther beyond it, present the riches of a luxuriant garden. The inclosed corn-fields make one grand parterre; the thick-planted hedge-rows appear like a wilderness or labyrinth; and the villages interspersed look like so many noble seats of gentlemen at a distance. In a word, it is all nature, yet with the semblance of all the decorations of art. On the left we are presented with a noble view of the west end of London, Westminster-abbey, and the parliament-house; but the body of the city is cut off by the hill, at which Hampstead intercepts the sight on that side. More to the south we have the magnificent appearance of Hampton-court, and south-west Windsor; and, between both, those beautiful parts of Middlesex and Surrey, on the banks of the Thames, which are the delight of the world.

ED'IBLE, *adj.* [from *edo*, Lat.] Fit to be eaten; fit for food.—Some flesh is not *edible*, as horses and dogs. *Bacon.*—Wheat and barley, and the like, are made either *edible* or potable by man's art and industry. *More.*

ED'IBLE NESTS. See the article BIRDS-NESTS, vol. iii. p. 56.

E'DICT, *s.* [*edictum*, Lat.] A proclamation, or command, or prohibition; a law promulgated.—When an absolute monarch commandeth his subjects that which seemeth good in his own discretion, hath not his *edict* the force of a law? *Hooker.*

Severe decrees may keep our tongues in awe,
But to our thoughts what *edict* can give law? *Dryden.*

EDIFICA'TION, *s.* [*edificatio*, Lat.] The act of building up man in the faith; improvement in holiness.—Our blessed Saviour told us, that we must account for every idle word, not meaning that every word not designed for *edification*, or less prudent, shall be reckoned for a sin. *Taylor.*—Improvement; instruction.—Out of these magazines I shall supply the town with what may tend to their *edification*. *Addison.*

ED'IFICE, *s.* [*ædificium*, Lat.] A fabric; a building; a structure.—My love was like a fair house built on another man's ground; so that I have lost my *edifice* by mistaking the place where I erected it. *Shakespeare.*

God built
So spacious, and his line stretch'd out so far,
That man may know he dwells not in his own;
An *edifice* too large for him to fill. *Milton.*

ED'IFIER, *s.* One that improves or instructs another.

To ED'IFY, *v. a.* [*edifico*, Lat.] To build:

There was a holy chapel *edify'd*,
Wherein the hermit wont to fay
His holy things each morn and eventide. *Spenfer.*

To inftruct; to improve.—Life is no life, without the bleffing of a friendly and an *edifying* converfation. *L'Eftrange.*

He gave, he taught; and *edify'd* the more,
Becaufe he fhew'd, by proof, 'twas eafy to be poor.
Dryden.

To teach; to perfuade. This is now either obfolete or ludicrous.—You fhall hardly *edify* me that thofe nations might not, by the law of nature, have been fubdued by any nation that had only policy and moral virtue. *Bacon.*

EDIKO'FEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and palatinate of the Rhine, where a battle was fought between the Pruffians and the French republican army, on the 12th of July 1794; the conteft was long and bloody, but the victory doubtful: the French general, Laboiffiere, by venturing too far, was taken prifoner: the battle was renewed the next day, and ended in favour of the republicans: four miles north of Landau.

E'DILE, *f.* [*ædilis*, Lat.] The title of a magiftrate in old Rome. See ÆDILE, vol. i. p. 133.—The *edile*, ho! let him be apprehended. *Shakefpeare.*

E'DILESHIP, *f.* The office of edile in ancient Rome:

Haply eyed at diftance
Some *edilefhip*, ambitious of the power
To judge of weights and meafures. *Gay.*

EDIN'BURGH, the metropolis of Scotland, and capital of the county to which it gives name, delightfully fituated on three lofty eminences, about two miles from the Frith of Forth. This city is comparatively of modern name and note. Maitland, and other antiquaries, have fallen into miferable miftakes and mifquotations concerning its origin. A paffage from an old writer, (fays Mr. Pinkerton,) has been adduced for its exiftence in 854, while the original itfelf is completely filent! Whatever may be the epoch of its exiftence, the earlieft hint that can be applied to it as a town, occurs in the Chronicon Pictorum, about the year 955, where mention is made of *Eden*, as refigned by the Engliih to the Scots, then ruled by Indulph. In the next century, Malcolm III. and Margaret of England, his celebrated queen, are faid to have refided in the caftle; but her life, by Turgot, omits this circumftance; and Holyroodhoufe was the foundation of the firft king David, in the year 1128. If we confide in the Chronicon Pictorum, its derivation will naturally arife from *Eden*, a beautiful place, and *burg*, a fortified tower or caftle. Other derivations, however, are contended for; as from *Eth*, a fuppofed king of the Picts; or from *Edwin*, a Saxon prince of Northumberland; or from the Gallic words *Dun Edin*, implying its fituation on a hill. Thofe who attribute its derivation to Edwin, contracted into *Edin*, are the more fanctioned in fuch conclufion, becaufe under that prince, the Anglo-Saxons of Northumberland, as early as the fixth century, eftablifhed a permanent military ftation on the rock on which the caftle of Edinburgh ftill ftands. For fome centuries following, here was no town but what ftood within the immediate precincts of the caftle. It was not till long after the Scots and Picts from the north and north-weft of the Forth had fubdued the fouthern country, nearly to the prefent border of England, that the Scottifh kings began to refide, for a part of the year, at Edinburgh, as well as at Dunfermline, Stirling, and Linlithgow. David I. by founding the monaftery of the Holyrood, at about a mile's diftance, on the fouth-eaft fite of the caftle, added the vicinity of a religious community to a military ftrong-hold, which thus gave rife to the exiftence of a town between them, that was to become at length fo conficderable. The firft buildings of the town, which extended beyond the precincts of the caftle, were framed chiefly of wood; were covered on the roof with turf, ftraw, heath, and fern; and lay in an irregular line along the ridge which runs from the Caftle-hill to that which is ftill called the Abbey. As the inhabitants became more numerous, the ftreets and lanes were extended on the fouth, on the weft, and on the fouth-eaft, of the High-ftreet; and the Grafs-market, the Canon-gate, the Cow-gate, were gradually filled with buildings. The acclivity which rifes fouthward from the Cow-gate, was more loofely occupied by religious houfes, and the refidence of fome of the nobility, and other attendants on the court. The walls encompaffed the High-ftreet, the Cow-gate, and the fouthern elevation to a fmall diftance beyond where the buildings of the college and the infirmary at prefent ftand. From the era of the inftitution of the court of feffion, and its permanent local eftablifhment in Edinburgh, this town may be confidered as having properly become, and not before, the capital of the kingdom. It was greatly enlarged and improved during the reign of James the Sixth, (the Firft of England.) The acceffion of the line of the Scottifh kings to the Engliih throne, inftead of interrupting the profperity of Edinburgh as a metropolis, feems rather to have advanced it. Edinburgh became, thenceforth, the permanent feat of government for Scotland, and the centre of correfpondence for all the reft of the kingdom with the court in England. Befides, the inftitution of the college by king James, and that of the high fchool, were fuch events as could not but advantageoufly influence the growth of the city. Even during the civil wars and the ufurpation of Cromwell, Edinburgh, though, perhaps, not another town in Scotland, ftill continued to thrive. After the reftoration, many new and lofty edifices were built in it; and it began to experience a livelinefs of trade to which it had been before a ftranger. That trade was greatly enlivened in confequence of the revolution. From the era of the revolution to that of the union, the buildings and the wealth of Edinburgh appear to have been very much enlarged. By the immediate confequences of the union, the profperity of the Scottifh capital was, for a while, interrupted. It was not effectually renewed till after the rebellion of 1745 was fuppreffed. From that period till the acceffion of George the Third, many bold projects were conceived for the improvement and extenfion of this city, and fome progrefs was even made in their execution. But, it was not till after the peace of 1763, that the old edifices began to be generally renovated, and the city to be extended to the north and the fouth over more than twice that compafs of ground which it had fo long irregularly covered. Till the commencement of the American war, the fpirit of building continued to prevail. During the continuance of that war, it languifhed; but it revived again upon the return of peace. From that era till the renewal of war, the public and private buildings of Edinburgh, and the ftreets, roads, and bridges belonging to it, were extended and improved ftill more rapidly than at any former time. Even within the laft ten years, the afflictions which the French republican war impofed on the whole country had no power to interrupt the extenfion of this town, efpecially towards the north.

Edinburgh, thus enlarged and improved, is fituate in lon. 2. 55. W. from the meridian of Greenwich, and in lat. 55. 52. N. and fends one member to the imperial parliament. It may be about fix miles in circumference, and fpreads over three oblong hills or elevated ridges; covering, likewife, more or lefs clofely, the intermediate declivities, and rifing irregularly up the fides of two or three inſulated heights, in which the lower elevations, more or lefs, abruptly terminate. Confidered in regard merely to its ftreets and buildings, this metropolis may vie with moft great towns in Europe. It conſifts of three parts: the new town, its moft northern diviſion; the old town, comprehending the High-ftreet, Canon-gate, Cow-gate, and other parts within the circuit

of

of the walls; and the ſouthern ſuburbs, including George's-ſquare, Nicolſon's park, &c. &c. The caſtle at the one end, and the palace of Holyrood-houſe at the other, may be conſidered as belonging to the old town. The new town, for the uniform beauty of the buildings, the ſpaciouſneſs of the ſtreets and ſquares, the unity of its plan, its advantages of cleanlineſs, air, and water, and, above all, that charming *rus in urbe* which it enjoys in Queen's-ſtreet, York-place, St. Andrew's-ſquare, and Charlotte's-ſquare, is certainly the fineſt aſſemblage of ſtreets and buildings in the world. James's-ſquare, however, protects it but partially from the eaſt winds; and, by its expoſure, and by the width, the ſtraightneſs, and the regularity, of its ſtreets, it is ſubject to the violence of the winds blowing from the north-eaſt, and the north, even to ſuch a degree as to be, in all ſeaſons, an uncomfortable and even dangerous reſidence to the valetudinarian. The greater part of its buildings, too, like the inns of court in London, contain a number of houſes or ſtories, one over another, and occupied by ſeparate families, under one roof; an arrangement much leſs convenient in ſeveral reſpects, and eſpecially leſs favourable to cleanlineſs, and to the eaſy ſupply of water, than where each building is, from top to bottom, deſtined to ſerve only as one houſe, and for a ſingle family.

The High-ſtreet, about a mile in length, from the Caſtle-hill to the Abbey, forms the principal part of the old town. Its width, and the loftineſs of its edifices on both ſides, give it, to the mind eſpecially of an unprejudiced ſtranger from England, an aſpect of dignity and ancient grandeur ſcarcely to be equalled by the effect of any other ſtreet in Great Britain. The houſes are built of ſtone, and covered on the roofs with ſlate. The walls are uncommonly ſtrong. Each houſe reſembles the keep of an ancient caſtle. In front, theſe dwellings riſe almoſt every where to the height of five or ſix ſtories. But, as the foreground is the ſummit of the ridge; the back-ground, but the ſteep deſcent of its ſides; ſome of the ſame buildings which appear in front only five or ſix ſtories high, are, on the oppoſite ſide, not leſs in height than nine, ten, or eleven ſtories. Lateral *wynds* or lanes, at right angles with the High-ſtreet, deſcend, on the north ſide, to the brink of that which was, forty years ſince, the *north loch*, or lake; on the ſouth ſide, to the Cow-gate. Theſe wynds are exceedingly narrow and inconvenient. Their houſes are loſty, in many inſtances ruinous, tenanted chiefly by the poor, and on the ground and in the upper ſtories by the moſt wretched part of this deſcription of people. The Croſs, in the midſt of the High-ſtreet, was once a curious Gothic monumental ſtructure, but exiſts now only in a coarſe Moſaic work in the pavement. Contiguous to it, on the north ſide, is the Royal Exchange, a ſmall ſquare of convenient buildings, with a piazza, which was, about the middle of the eighteenth century, erected to favour the buſineſs of the merchants. The buildings of the Parliament-ſquare, almoſt a century and a half older than thoſe of the Royal Exchange, ſtand nearly oppoſite, on the ſouth ſide of the Croſs. The Canon-gate, properly a ſuburb, and in old times the court end of the town, contains a number of good old houſes and gardens, which were once occupied by the chief nobility and gentry of the kingdom. The palace of Holyrood-houſe is a venerable and ſpacious quadrangular edifice, not unworthy of the kings for whoſe reſidence it was deſtined. James the Seventh, when duke of York, was the laſt ſovereign of theſe kingdoms who reſided in this palace. His grandſon, the pretender Charles, held here, for a few days, his mimic-court, in the year 1745. It was lately, for ſome time, the aſylum of the head of the exiled royal family of France. Several of the Scottiſh nobility have, by the king's favour, apartments in Holyrood-houſe; and in it are contained pictures of the kings of Scotland, from Fergus, 320 years before Chriſt, to the revolution. The caſtle is ſtrong by its natural ſituation, and by the fortifications which it comprehends. Conſiderable quantities of military ſtores of all ſorts are depoſited in it. Even in time of peace, a battalion or two of troops uſually lie in its garriſon; and the lieutenant-governor is almoſt conſtantly reſident. The declivity between the ſtreet named the Cow-gate, and the ancient ſouthern limits of the town, is occupied by lateral ſtreets, by ſome new ſquares, by one or two inſulated manſions, by the high ſchool, the infirmary, the college, and one or two other public buildings. Weſtward is the Graſs-market, in which hay, ſtraw, grain, ſheep, horſes, cows, and oxen, have long been plentifully expoſed to public ſale; Heriot's hoſpital, from a deſign of Inigo Jones, for the orphan ſons of the freemen of Edinburgh, a noble charitable foundation, of which the revenues have not been perverted from the juſt, original purpoſes; and, in the midſt of an extenſive burying-ground, that venerable religious ſtructure, the Grey-friars' church. Many of the old buildings in this part of Edinburgh are continually in a ſtate of dilapidation and renewal. The old caſtellated ſtructure gives place ſtill more and more to a lighter, cleanlier, and more commodious, plan of building. But, perhaps, another century may elapſe, ere the old town of Edinburgh ſhall be, in all its parts, completely accommodated to the modern methods of living and of trading induſtry. It was when every town was, as it were, but the enlarged *bas-cour* of a caſtle, when people crowded within the walls for protection againſt hoſtility, that, in order to afford dwellings to as numerous a population as poſſible, the faſhion of raiſing houſes like thoſe at Edinburgh began. It was continued here, from uſe, and on account of the advantage which was found in ſharing the privileges of burgeſſes.

The ſouthern ſuburbs are much leſs regular in arrangement than the oppoſite new town. The acceſs to them is principally by Bridge-ſtreet, compoſed of the north bridge that paſſes acroſs the evacuated baſon of the north loch, and the ſouth bridge, which, in the ſame line of direction, covers the lake which formerly exiſted towards Cow-gate. At its northern extremity, this ſtreet has directly in front the regiſter-office, the depot of the public records, and one of the moſt beautiful and uſeful edifices in Scotland. On the ſides of the ſouth bridge, and at one end of the north bridge, are a number of very rich and elegant ſhops. The college and the infirmary ſtand oppoſite to one another, at the ſouthern end of Bridge-ſtreet. The ſtreet terminates at this end, in that which is named Nicolſon's-ſtreet; and the two together, viewed in their common line of direction, have an admirably fine effect to the eye. Weſtward, by the Parliament-ſquare and the Lawn-market, a ſimilar line of communication by bridges begins to be opened. The ſouthern ſuburbs, thus communicating with the old and new town, conſiſt of Lauriſton, Watſon's-hoſpital for the education of ſixty boys, children of decayed members of the merchants' company; George's-ſquare, Park-place, Buccleugh-place, Briſtol-ſtreet, Potter-row, Nicholſon's-ſtreet, Richmond, Pleaſance, and Croſs-cauſeway, &c. George's-ſquare is one of the moſt elegant and agreeable places of reſidence in this city. Park-place is likewiſe occupied, as is alſo a part of Nicolſon's-ſtreet, by genteel families. The reſt of theſe ſuburbs are, in great part, inhabited by labourers, inferior tradeſmen, and ſtudents. The houſes of the poorer people in general, even in the modern-built parts of Edinburgh, have not at all the lightneſs and cheerful cleanlineſs of the ſnug brick houſes which are reared for dwellings to perſons of the ſame claſs in London and its vicinity. Indeed brick buildings are almoſt unknown in Scotland; and would be apt to impreſs the mind of a Scotchman with the idea of flightneſs, and want of duration.

Beſides the ſuburbs above-mentioned, we have to notice Leith, which adjoins Edinburgh on the eaſt, as Wapping does the city of London. Leith forms the *piræus*, or port, of Edinburgh. It was once a royal burgh; but the rights of the ſovereign over it, were, more than two hundred years ago, transferred for a ſum of money to the

city of Edinburgh. It lies on the banks of a moderate ſtream, which has alſo the name of Leith, at a ſmall ſpace from the ſouthern bank of the Forth, and on the very eaſtern extremity of that bank, and on the very beach of the ſouthern ſide of the frith. It conſiſts, as yet, chiefly of buildings of which a great part may be not leſs than two hundred years old, and which are placed in an awkward inconvenient arrangement. The two principal of the old ſtreets are the Kirk-gate, in which the ſuburb from Edinburgh ends, and Shore-ſtreet, which lies along the ſouth ſide of the harbour. The other ſtreets run in various directions between theſe, and contiguous to them, in that part which is named *South Leith*. There is on the north ſide of the river, a good deal of irregular building, old and new, which has the name of *North Leith*, as forming the northern diviſion of the town. Beſide the old parts of the town it is now diffuſed ſouthward around the ſkirts of a pleaſant and extenſive plain, called *Leith-links*, in elegant and commodious houſes with gardens, ware-houſes, &c. in which the principal merchants not living in Edinburgh have their reſidence. The harbour has been lately improved and enlarged, and is formed by a noble ſtone pier, erected at the beginning of the eighteenth century; and is defended by a battery. The road alſo affords good anchorage for ſhips of the largeſt ſize, in perfect ſafety. In 1781, a fleet of above five hundred ſail of merchant ſhips, with ſeveral men of war of the line, ramained here for ſome weeks. A draw-bridge over the river Leith affords a convenient paſſage between the north and the ſouth parts of the town, without ſtraitening the limits of the dock and harbour. On all ſides, the buildings continue to be rapidly extended. On the bank of the Forth, North Leith is in a progreſs of being continued to join the fiſhing-village of Newhaven, another dependency of the city of Edinburgh. On the two ſides of the walk and carriage-road between Edinburgh and South Leith, is gradually formed a ſtreet of villas with gardens, eſtabliſhments of manufacture, and other handſome and commodious dwelling-houſes, which is likely to be very ſoon complete; and when complete will, probably, be one of the buſieſt and moſt intereſting of all the ſtreets which belong to theſe towns. On all ſides, for the ſpace of three or four miles round, the vicinity of Edinburgh is covered with villas, gardens, ornamented farms and hamlets, which, though they do not, in ſummer, equal the environs of London, in an aſpect of ſweet, rich, ſimple, and graceful, beauty, have however a leſs naked and deſolate appearance in winter.

Edinburgh was erected into a biſhopric by Charles I. in 1633, under the archbiſhopric of St. Andrew. The city was firſt fortified and walled, in 1450, in the reign of James II. and ſome of the walls are yet remaining. In the centre of the city ſtands the cathedral, dedicated to St. Giles, which was made collegiate by James III. the four quarters of whoſe croſs were converted into four diſtinct pariſh churches; of which the choir, or New church, makes the principal church in the city; the centre is called the Old church; the ſouth-weſt quarter the Tolbooth church; and the north-weſt Haddo's Hole church, from ſir John Gordon, of Haddo, having been confined in it till his execution, in 1642, for holding out his caſtle of Haddo for Charles I. In other parts of this church the general aſſembly and the convention of royal burghs meet; ſeveral clerks have their offices, and one room is uſed as the city cartulary. The city was originally comprehended in one pariſh, and the miniſters had manſes in the Parliament Cloſe, till James VI. divided it into eight pariſhes, with a miniſter to each. The ancient royalty, independent of the ſuburbs, was afterwards, in 1625, divided into four, and the town into ſix in 1641; but the whole ancient royalty is now conſidered as one diſtrict, called the pariſh of St. Giles; and, upon the enlargement of the city, the extended royalty was annexed to the ſame pariſh. Thus there is but one pariſh in Edinburgh to this day. The eaſt ſide of the ſquare, now the governor's houſe, was anciently royal apartments, built in 1556 and 1616; and in one of them James VI. was born, June 19, 1566. State priſoners are confined here; and here are, or were, kept the regalia of Scotland, never ſeen ſince the year 1707. Near the cathedral is the parliament-houſe, finiſhed in 1640, with courts adjoining, and over it for the ſheriff and commiſſary, the town council, and criminal cauſes, the exchequer, and the room for the aſſembly of the royal boroughs. The Tolbooth, originally built by the citizens, in 1561, for the accommodation of the parliament and courts of juſtice, has been uſed ever ſince 1640 only for a gaol.

The population of Edinburgh and Leith has been variouſly eſtimated. The lateſt enumerations do not raiſe it to the ſum of one hundred thouſand ſouls. But certainly thoſe enumerations were made in circumſtances which hindered them from ſwelling the eſtimate to its juſt amount. A part of the inhabitants of Edinburgh are migratory, and live but half the year in the town: theſe ſhould have been taken into the number, but were not at all reckoned. We do not heſitate to ſtate one hundred and five thouſand as the probable preſent number of the inhabitants of Edinburgh and Leith, with the ſuburbs belonging to them, and the hamlets and villas which lie between and in their environs, to the diſtance of a mile from the exterior ſtreets on all ſides. The proportion of thoſe who exceed the age of ſixty years, is leſs numerous here than in many other places in the interior parts of the iſle, and on its weſtern coaſt. The proportion of perſons dying between the ages of five and threeſcore is very conſiderable. As this is a capital inviting many young people for education and employment, the proportion of perſons in it between the ages of fifteen and forty is unuſually great. Young perſons between eight, and twenty years of age generally enjoy good health here. For children between birth and ſeven or eight years of age, it appears from many inſtances to be a very inſalutary ſituation. Neither ſmall-pox nor meaſles is indeed, here, exceedingly fatal, but chincough, colds, putrid fevers, conſumptions, &c. make extraordinary havock among children in infancy, and the latter even upwards to the ages of ſeventeen and five-and-twenty years. Rheumatiſm, much exaſperated by the frequent prevalence of eaſt winds, is extremely afflictive to perſons of all ranks, after the decline of life begins.

It may be aſked how this large population of one hundred and five thouſand ſouls is ſuſtained? A part of them poſſeſs lands in the country, money in the public funds, or property in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, out of which capitals, or the annual produce from them, the expences of their living are defrayed. It is probably between two and three hundred thouſand of the annual revenues of the inhabitants that comes thus in. Many of the gentry of Scotland, whoſe fortunes will not bear the expence of yearly journies to and from London, and who yet like the ſociety and amuſements of a great town, chuſe, of courſe, to ſpend here one half or two-thirds of the year. Many gentlemen's families come to Edinburgh for the purpoſe of uniting, in regard to the children, the benefits of a domeſtic with thoſe of a public education. Many gentlemen advanced in years, after ſerving in the army, or making fortunes abroad in trade, come to paſs the autumn of life in this city, rather than either in London or in remote rural retirement, on account of its advantages of ſociety, quiet and agreeable accommodation, with all the luxuries of life, and all the elegant amuſements, at a comparatively cheap and eaſy rate. A number alſo of the gentlemen's families in this town enjoy places under government, the duties of which are to be here executed, and on the emoluments of which they live. The commander in chief of the forces for Scotland, the lieutenant-governor of the caſtle, the ſoldiers of the caſtle, and of the barracks, expend a deal of money in Edinburgh for their ſubſiſtence. The judges and inferior officers of the courts of ſeſſion and exchequer; the commiſſioners

commiſſioners of the boards of exciſe and cuſtoms, with the inferior perſons ſerving in Edinburgh and Leith on theſe eſtabliſhments; the officers belonging to the departments of the lord clerk regiſter, to the ſtamp-office, the tax-office, poſt-office, and the herald's-office; with a few who belong to the eſtabliſhment of the royal houſehold, and a few enjoying honorary or eleemoſynary penſions from the crown; may all be reckoned to defray the expences of their living here, out of the revenues they receive from government, chiefly for the diſcharge of official duties. The whole ſum thus contributed, out of the common revenue of the ſtate, towards the ſupport of perſons reſident in Edinburgh, cannot be leſs than one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. Another part of the inhabitants of this place ſubſiſt upon their incomes as practitioners in the law. Theſe claſſes may draw from the whole country, profeſſionally, for their ſubſiſtence, a groſs annual ſum of perhaps 130,000l. ſterling. The perſons belonging to the univerſity, the high-ſchool, and the other eſtabliſhments for education, profeſſors, maſters, and ſtudents, may have, in all, an income of about one hundred thouſand pounds a-year. Of this, about ſixty thouſand pounds may conſiſt of allowances by parents and others to the ſtudents from the country and from foreign parts. Many ſtudents paſs the whole year here; attending both the ſummer and the winter courſes of lectures. Bankers, merchants, ſhip-maſters, and ſhop-keepers, compoſe a large proportion of the inhabitants of Edinburgh and Leith; and probably above two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling of the total yearly income of theſe places may be the produce of their buſineſs and induſtry. Here are two incorporated banking-companies, the Old Bank, and the Royal Bank of Scotland, and many private banking-houſes. The merchants reſide rather at Leith than in Edinburgh. The ſhipping and the ſea-faring trade belonging to theſe places is conſiderable; and they have been much augmented ſince the completion of the canal which joins the Forth and the Clyde. The artiſans and manufacturers are here a very conſiderable body of people; and a large ſhare of the income of the place ariſes from their induſtry and extenſive connections.

The merchants of Edinburgh, Leith, and the environs, are aſſociated, with the approbation of government, in a chamber of commerce, which watches over their common intereſts, and occaſionally correſponds with his majeſty's miniſters reſpecting matters in which theſe intereſts are deeply concerned. The Ruſſia, &c. merchants, trading to the dominions of Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, in the Baltic and North Seas, are conſiderably numerous and opulent. Tar, timber, iron, hemp, flax, coarſe linens, Ruſſia leather, &c. are the imports from thoſe parts. Cottons, glaſs and bottles, articles of houſehold furniture and dreſs, utenſils of the arts, &c. are the goods ſent out in return. Many of the imports are for immediate conſumption, not for manufacture in order to re-exportation. For the articles of timber, tar, hemp, and flax, even alone, the nations of the Baltic draw vaſt ſums from the merchants on the Frith of Forth. Corn to a great value is imported, for the uſe of the diſtillers, from Dantzic, Gothenburgh, &c. The ſame merchants trade likewiſe to the ports at the mouths of the Elbe, the Ems, and the Weſer. The exports are cottons, glaſs, lead, caſt-iron in various uſeful forms, with other ſorts of goods of the manufacture of this country. From the port of Leith, as from Hull and Newcaſtle, there is an exportation of pit-coal to the Baltic. Since the Clyde and Forth were connected by a navigable canal, the merchants of Glaſgow prefer the navigation of that canal, and of the Forth, to the circuitous and hazardous navigation by the Hebudæ and the Orkneys, for their trade to England, and for the exportation of their ſugars, rums, and other Weſt-India goods, as well as of the cottons, to the markets of Germany and the Baltic; a preference which tends greatly to enliven and enlarge the trade of Edinburgh and Leith. The trade with London and the other ports on the eaſt coaſt of England employs much of the mercantile capital of theſe places, and affords large profits to its merchants. The products of the herring-fiſhery, and of the other fiſheries on theſe coaſts, begin to render the exports from Leith to the ports of England much more valuable than they have heretofore been. Edinburgh ale is exported in conſiderable quantity to London: vaſt quantities of London porter are conſumed in Edinburgh. The diſtillers of Edinburgh and its neighbourhood ſend vaſt quantities of malt ſpirits to the Engliſh market. Woollen-cloth, to a prodigious amount, and almoſt every article of more elegant manufacture, except cottons, linens, and glaſs, are received from England for conſumption in Edinburgh and its neighbourhood. The trade from Leith to Portugal and to the ports of the Mediterranean is conſiderable. The wine-cellars of the merchants here are famous for ſupplying the beſt port that is drunk in Britain. Salted fiſh of different ſorts are the chief exports from Leith to thoſe ſouthern parts. A trade is alſo carried on from this port to the Weſt Indies and North America. It has been ſucceſsful, and will probably become more conſiderable.

The great trade of Edinburgh is, in retail, for the conſumption of its own inhabitants, and for the uſe of perſons in all parts of Scotland to whom its other advantages of intercourſe, correſpondence, and opulence, as a capital, make it convenient to ſupply their wants rather directly from this than from any other market. Its ſtaple manufactures for wholeſale are glaſs works, ſoap-works, a manufacture of table-linen, caſt-iron works, tanneries, button manufactures, cotton-works, pit-coal works in the vicinity, ſhip-building, houſe-building, and the herring-fiſhery, if we may name the cure of immenſe quantities as a manufacture. The merchants doing buſineſs in wholeſale, and exporting and importing by ſea, employ capitals of from 2000l. to 20,000l. or 30,000l. ſterling. Fortunes of from 5000l. to 20,000l. are frequently acquired in the courſe of a ſingle life, by ſhop-keepers trading with prudence and ſucceſs. Merchants in buſineſs on a greater ſcale, not ſeldom realize from 10,000l. to 50,000l. There are who have acquired by trade in this metropolis to the clear amount of 200,000l. or even 300,000l.

Edinburgh, as already obſerved, owes much of its wealth and importance to the advantages it enjoys as the ſeat of the courts of juſtice and the offices of government. The court of ſeſſion, compoſed of fifteen ordinary judges, is the ſupreme court in Scotland for the deciſion of civil cauſes between parties who are ſubjects. The court of juſticiary is the ſupreme court for criminal affairs. The court of exchequer tries cauſes relating to the revenue. The ſheriff's courts, the juſtice of peace's courts, and the town courts, are for the ſubordinate diſtribution of juſtice for the diſtrict. About ſeven hundred perſons in all may be here employed in tranſacting juridical buſineſs, as judges, advocates, writers to the ſignet, agents, procurators, notaries, meſſengers, and clerks. The trial of cauſes goes on with leſs diſpatch than in the Engliſh courts. The world has not ſeen judges more upright, more learned, of greater abilities, or more aſſiduous in their functions, than thoſe who have for many ſucceſſions filled the benches of the courts of ſeſſion, juſticiary, and exchequer, at Edinburgh. The advocates or counſellors are men of family; often eminently ſkilled in all the branches of erudition, ſcience, and ornamental literature; always, in conſiderable number, conſummate maſters of the juriſprudence of their own and other countries. Their order never wants orators, whoſe pleadings are not exceeded in eloquence by thoſe at any other bar. The officers of the cuſtoms, the exciſe, the ſtamp-duties, the general poſt-office, the court of admiralty, the poſt-office, the herald's-office, the ſtaff of the army for Scotland, &c. form a numerous, and, eſpecially for the higher orders, an eminently reſpectable body of men. Their duties are faithfully diſcharged; their incomes are honourably expended. Edinburgh and Leith owe to them much

much of the reſpectability of their ſociety and the activity of their buſineſs.

In regard to the ſyſtem of education for the youth of this place, and the knowledge here cultivated, all that is favourable may be, with juſtice, affirmed. For the firſt inſtruction of children in letters, there are a ſufficient number of Engliſh ſchools open under the authority and inſpection of the magiſtrates, which never fail to be ſupplied with excellent teachers. The high ſchool for inſtruction in the Latin language, and in Engliſh ſo far as connected with the elements of the Latin, is filled by five maſters, the moſt eminent for ſkill in claſſical literature, and of the higheſt reputation for that gravity, mildneſs, prudence, piety, and unoſtentatious virtue, which are the requiſite qualities in a good teacher. There are alſo ſchools of public inſtitution for inſtruction in writing, arithmetic, and the immediately practical branches of mathematics. And beſides the ſchools of public inſtitution within the city of Edinburgh, there are many private ſchools for the modern languages, and for every different part of education, neceſſary or liberal. It is uſual here for all parents, without exception, to ſend their children to ſchool.

The univerſity conſiſts but of a ſingle college, founded by James the Sixth, in 1582. It has profeſſors for Greek and Roman literature; for the different branches of philoſophy, phyſical and moral; for mathematics; for the ſeveral parts of medical ſcience; for theology; for natural, eccleſiaſtical, and civil, hiſtory; and for the different branches of the ſtudy of juriſprudence. The profeſſors are, almoſt without exception, men of excellent character, of great learning and ſcience, of the happieſt talents and addreſs for communicating knowledge, and of diligence admirably exemplary in the diſcharge of their profeſſional functions. The ſeſſion is for ſeven months, from October to May. The uſual number of attending ſtudents is ſeldom under twelve hundred. The courſe for the languages, philoſophy, and, after theſe, either law, medicine, or theology, as a profeſſional ſtudy, is about ſeven or eight ſeſſions. Degrees are conferred in juriſprudence, medicine, and theology. The profeſſors enjoy ſmall ſalaries; receive fees from the ſtudents; deliver lectures. Of late, for the convenience of the ſtudents, ſeveral of them have been accuſtomed to read a ſecond courſe of lectures in ſummer, after cloſing that for the winter. The expence of reſidence and education for a young man living here, genteelly, but *frugally*, and with uniform prudence, may be done for ſo little as 100l. a year. There are ſeveral ſocieties, medical, juridical, theological, philoſophical, and literary, in which the ſtudents voluntarily meet, to debate and read eſſays which they, in turn, compoſe and preſent. There is an extenſive and valuable library. The profeſſor of anatomy has a very large and excellent collection of preparations for illuſtrating the ſubject of his lectures; and there is a good muſeum for the illuſtration of the lectures on natural hiſtory. The principal, with the whole body of profeſſors, form the *Senatus Academicus*, which regulates the police of the univerſity, under the direction and authority of the city-magiſtrates. A proviſion is made for a ſmall and limited number of burſars; but here are no fellows. A new edifice for the accommodation of the profeſſors and ſtudents in all the immediate buſineſs of the univerſity is begun to be built, on the plan of Mr. Adam; but it remains hitherto (September 1803) unfiniſhed.

Here is a royal ſociety for the advancement of phyſical and moral ſcience. It was inſtituted under the auſpices of the late Dr. Robertſon, the hiſtorian, and late principal. Its liſt of members is highly reſpectable. Several volumes of its memoirs have been publiſhed, and well received by the world.

The phyſicians and ſurgeons of Edinburgh are reſpectively incorporated. Both theſe bodies conſiſt of men, the pride of the ſociety of the place, and the beſt ornaments of their profeſſions. They are, almoſt without exception, men of eminent ſkill in the ſciences allied to thoſe noble arts which they practiſe. Hence the medical ſchool of Edinburgh has been ſeen to riſe rapidly into conſequence, from a very humble origin, and continue to advance daily, by energetic means, wiſely adapted to render its inſtitution a benefit to the whole world.

Here has been lately inſtituted a profeſſorſhip of agriculture, through the munificent and active means of Mr. Pulteney; and a profeſſorſhip of commerce has been alſo ſtrongly recommended. With this view, the following remarks are offered by its ſtrenuous advocate Mr. Heron. "It appears ſurpriſing, that in a commercial age, and among a nation, the foundations of whoſe ſtrength and happineſs are eſtabliſhed upon their manufactures and commerce, no leſs than upon their agriculture, there ſhould be no particular inſtitution for the inſtruction of youth in the elements of commerce. Forming but a ſlender part among the numberleſs modifications of human exertion; its riſe and progreſs cannot be very particularly detailed in a courſe of general hiſtory. For the ſame reaſon, its relations can never be fully explained in a ſeries of lectures on the principles of political economy. The arithmetician and the accountant teach but a very ſmall part of the actual practice of trade, and that but very imperfectly. But if, when detached from each other, the ſeveral parts of commercial knowledge may make but an inconſiderable figure; if they cannot be ſeparately taught, in their full extent, among the other branches of knowledge; taken all together, however, they appear to be of great magnitude and importance; and might be very beautifully connected into a diſtinct ſyſtem of ſtudy. In ſuch a ſyſtem, the hiſtory, the philoſophy, and the economy, of commerce, might be ſucceſſively explained. By the philoſophy of commerce I mean the inveſtigation of its relations to climate, laws, manners, internal induſtry, religion, national virtue, power of defence, national revenue, local ſituation, &c. By its economy, I underſtand all its tranſactions, from gifts in the expectation of gifts, and the barter of commodities among ſavage tribes, to the moſt complex negociations of the moſt ingenious trading nations in Europe. Surely ſuch an inſtitution for thus improving and extending commercial knowledge were worthy of the legiſlature and government of a great trading nation; of the patronage of merchants and manufacturers, in a country where they form ſo very opulent and ſo very reſpectable an order in the community, and are ſo much diſtinguiſhed by liberality of ſentiment and of manners; and of an univerſity, the moſt deſervedly celebrated in Europe, and which ſeems to want only this additional inſtitution to render its proviſions, for literary and ſcientific inſtruction, moſt admirably complete!"

The clergy of the eſtabliſhed church in Edinburgh are in general illuſtrious for knowledge, eloquence, ſanctity of manners, and diligence in the paſtoral functions. They are univerſally and very highly reſpected. Several of them are profeſſors in the univerſity; and have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings.

Of the faculty of advocates, as men of great taſte and learning, we have already made honourable mention. Their library is one of the beſt in Europe; and is opened, in a manner ſufficiently convenient and obliging, to the ſtudious uſe of all men of learning and ſcientific enquiry. It were eaſily poſſible to enumerate many gentlemen of Edinburgh, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves as philoſophers and eloquent writers by a great variety of publications. But they are ſo well known by their writings, that it were needleſs to recount their names.

The municipal government of this town is, by its charter, in the magiſtrates and town-council, which conſiſt of a lord provoſt, a dean of guild, a guild council, and twenty-five common council, compoſed of merchants and tradeſmen: and a conſtant guard of ſeventy-five men, in an uniform, are kept in the guard-houſe to patrole the ſtreets every night. Leith, Canongate, and one or two other ſuburbs, are governed by ſubordinate magiſtrates,

of

of the appointment of thoſe of Edinburgh. There are a number of incorporations of artiſans who have alſo a ſhare in the municipal government. The adminiſtration of the police is extremely vigilant, prudent, and enlightened. Street-robberies and murders are, in conſideration of the numbers of the people, very rare. The morals are more commendable than in almoſt any other metropolis. Every virtue of prudent diſcretion, every virtue of generous magnanimity, every good quality, the reſult of enlarged intelligence, prevails among that part of the community who are eſteemed. No atrocious depravity of diſpoſition and feeling is prominent even among the worſt. Charity and loyalty are two public virtues univerſal among theſe people. The many charitable inſtitutions, the liberality with which the wants of the poor are conſtantly ſupplied, the great ſums at different times ſubſcribed for the orphan families of ſoldiers and ſailors, the benevolent inſtitution and admirable regulation of its infirmary, and the late munificent eſtabliſhment of its houſe of induſtry, may be mentioned, out of innumerable inſtances, to ſhew how open the hearts of theſe people are to the ſympathetic ſenſe of human woe.

In dreſs, the inhabitants of Edinburgh follow the ſame faſhions as thoſe of London. In their victuals, they are perhaps leſs cleanly; in their houſes, more ſo. They are very convivial; and perhaps more frankly and warmly ſo than the people of England. The royal theatre, a concert, a circus for pantomimes and feats of horſemanſhip, aſſembly-rooms, and frequent aſſemblies for cards and dancing, are their chief public amuſements. Tradeſmen do not ſquander much of their money in following theſe. The public amuſements are conducted with great decorum, and under the cenſure of a nicely diſcriminating taſte. Upon the whole, the inhabitants of Edinburgh are eminently diſtinguiſhed for information and propriety of behaviour; which may be attributed to a variety of cauſes. Learned and literary men, particularly thoſe connected with the college, are held in great eſtimation, and are received with cordiality into the higheſt circles. By far the moſt numerous claſs of the reſpectable inhabitants are in the profeſſions; and commerce, which ſometimes ſuddenly raiſes ill-educated men to affluence, has ſcarcely any place in the Scottiſh capital, where education is ſo much encouraged. Theſe circumſtances cannot be without ſome effect upon the minds of young men who go thither for the purpoſe of improvement. Indeed, all orders of people here are in general virtuous and induſtrious, ſober, diligent, and of courteous manners, moſtly bred up in ſevere abſtemiouſneſs, and hence addicted to the ſtricteſt rules of economy. Here too we are furniſhed with a ſtriking proof of the converſe of that arbitrary, not to ſay inhuman, doctrine, which has of late been propagated, "that univerſal education would render the lower claſs unfit for labour and ſervitude:" for it may with truth be affirmed, that the lower orders of ſociety in Edinburgh and other parts of Scotland, are the *beſt* educated, and at the ſame time the moſt *diligent* ſervants in the world.

The ſituation of Edinburgh, with reſpect to the ſurrounding country, is highly deſerving of our notice. Its proſpect toward the north-eaſt and the ſouth-eaſt is into the frith of Forth, and to the German Ocean. To the north and north-weſt, a wide view opens acroſs the Forth, at its greateſt expanſion, and over the ſection of a vaſt amphitheatre, to where the horizon is bounded by the Grampian mountains. Immediately to the weſt and the ſouth-weſt, the adjacent country riſes into hills of conſiderable, though not aſtoniſhing, elevation, which confine the range of the eye within narrow bounds. Southward extends a beautiful territory, of an irregular but rich and cultivated ſurface, alternately riſing and ſubſiding towards the banks of the Eſk, the ruins of Roſlin, the town of Dalkeith, and the fine maritime village of Inverеſk, Arthur-Seat, Saliſbury-Craggs, and Caltonhill, protect the town, to the eaſt, from thoſe chilling winds from the ſea, to which it is, by its ſituation, exceedingly expoſed; and preſent, in their columnar ſtratification, their volcanic aſpect, their inſulated height, and their air of deſolate barrenneſs; a ſtriking contraſt to the refinement, art, and cultivation, which are eminently conſpicuous all around them. The Caſtle-hill, and ſeveral other contiguous heights are of a ſimilar aſpect and ſtratification. The ſurface of the whole territory is varied and unequal to a degree, ſuch as is rarely to be ſeen even in other parts of this iſle. The climate would be mild and genial in proportion to the latitude, were it not for the winds from the eaſt and north-eaſt, which, in ſpring and ſummer, perpetually blaſt vegetation, and to an almoſt inconceivable degree afflict the human health. The ſame eaſtern expoſure renders Edinburgh and its neighbourhood alſo ſubject to ſudden and moſt ſevere ſtorms in winter. It is too much excluded by the interior hills, at all times of the year, from the ſoft and cheering breezes of the weſt. Its vicinity to the ſea, the ſhelving inequalities of the ſurface, the lightneſs of the ſoil, on a bottom of limeſtone, granite, and trapp or baſalt, render the town and the ſurrounding territory ſubject, in ſummer, often to an intenſity of heat that is ſufficient to ripen, in the open air, the fruits of much more ſouthern latitudes; and that would be ſcarcely tolerable in the thin brick buildings of London, or, indeed, in any others than the cool and ſomewhat gloomy ſtone edifices which we here inhabit. It is confeſſed by all travellers who have ſkill in the beauty and grandeur of landſcapes, that ſcarce another ſpot in Europe affords, within not more than an equal range of horizon, ſo great a diverſity of views, and thoſe ſo admirable in the three different claſſes of the ſublime, the picturеſque, and the beautiful.

ED'INBURGHSHIRE, or MID-LOTHIAN, a county of Scotland, which takes its name from the above metropolis; bounded on the north by the Frith of Forth, on the eaſt by Haddingtonſhire, Berwickſhire, and Roxburgſhire; on the ſouth by Selkirkſhire, Peebleſhire, and Lanerkſhire; and on the weſt by Linlithgowſhire. Its form is nearly the ſegment of a circle, about twenty-ſeven miles from eaſt to weſt, and ſixteen from north to ſouth; but in ſome places not above ſix. The ſoil is fertile, and produces corn of all ſorts with plenty of graſs for cattle; it contains mines of coal, copper, lime-ſtone, and black marble. The principal towns, beſides Edinburgh, are Dalkeith, Leith, and Muſſelburg; the principal rivers are the Eſk, the Leith, the Almond, and the Galla. It ſends one member to the imperial parliament.

E'DINGDON, or EDINGTON, [of eaƀ, Sax. eaſy, and dun, a hill.] A town in Wales, memorable for king Alfred's ſignal victory over the Danes.

EDIS'TO, an iſland of North America, about twenty miles in circumference, near the coaſt of South Carolina. Lat. 32. 35. N. lon. 80. 20. W. Greenwich.

EDIS'TO, or PONPON, a navigable river of North America, in South Carolina, which riſes in two branches from a remarkable ridge in the interior part of the ſtate. Theſe branches unite below Orangeburgh, which ſtands on the north fork, and form Ediſto river, which, having paſſed Jackſonburg, leaving it on the ſouth, branches and embraces Ediſto, and ſeveral ſmaller iſles.

E'DIT, a town of Sweden, in the province of Weſt Gothland: twenty-five miles north of Gothenburg.

E'DITH, [of eaƀ, Sax. proſperous, and ƿ̈ian, to redound, *q. d.* one who overflowed with proſperity.] The wife of Edward the Confeſſor. A proper name of women.

EDI'TION, *ſ.* [*editio*, Lat.] Publication of any thing, particularly of a book.—This Engliſh *edition* is not ſo properly a tranſlation, as a new compoſition on the ſame ground. *Burnet.*—Republication; generally with ſome reviſal or correcting.—Theſe are of the ſecond *edition*. *Shakeſpeare.*—The buſineſs of our redemption is to rub over the

the defaced copy of the creation, to reprint God's image upon the ſoul, and to ſet forth nature in a ſecond and a fairer *edition*. *South*.

ED'ITOR, *ſ.* [Lat.] Publiſher; he that reviſes or prepares any work for publication.—When a different reading gives us a different ſenſe, or a new elegance in an author, the *editor* does very well in taking notice of it. *Addiſon*.

ED'MER, or EADMER, a learned Engliſh Benedictine monk, of the congregation of Cluni, belonging to the order at Canterbury, flouriſhed in the latter end of the eleventh, and the beginning of the twelfth, century. He was made abbot of the monaſtery of St. Alban's, and afterwards raiſed to the ſee of St. Andrew in Scotland. He was the author of a Treatiſe on the Liberty of the Church, intended to vindicate Anſelm, archbiſhop of Canterbury, in his conteſts with king William Rufus. He alſo wrote ſeveral other works, which the learned of modern times have thought worthy to be reſcued from oblivion. Among theſe is his *Hiſtoria Novorum*, or hiſtory of his own times, from the year 1066 to the year 1122, which the celebrated Selden publiſhed with notes, in folio, 1623, and which lord Lyttleton, in his Life of Henry II. pronounces to be not inelegantly written. In the ſecond volume of Wharton's *Anglia Sacra* are alſo preſerved, by the ſame author, 1. The Life of St. Anſelm, Archbiſhop of Canterbury. 2. The Life of St. Oſwald, Archbiſhop of York. 3. The Life of St. Dunſtan, Archbiſhop of Canterbury, with a Letter to the Monks of Glaſtonbury. 4. The Life of the bleſſed Bregwin, Archbiſhop of Canterbury. 5. An Epiſtle to the Monks of Worceſter, concerning the Election of a Biſhop. 6. The Life of St. Odo, Archbiſhop of Canterbury.

ED'MONTON, [q. d. *Edmund's Town*, probably of king Edmund.] A village ſeven miles north from London.

ED'MUND, [ꝥaꝛ, Sax. bleſſedneſs, and munꝺ, peace; *q. d.* bleſſed peace.] A king of the Eaſt Engliſh, martyred by the Danes. A man's name.

ED'MUNDSBURY, [of *St. Edmund*, and buꝛʒ, Sax.] A pleaſant town in Suffolk, ſixty miles north-north-eaſt from London; ſo called from St. Edmund, who there ſuffered martyrdom under the Danes.

ED'NA, the name of a woman. *Tob.* vii. 2.

EDO'AR, a town of United America, in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, ſituated on the iſland of Martha's Vineyard.

EDO'LO, a town of Italy, in the Breſſan: fifteen miles north-north-weſt of Breno.

E'DOM, or IDUME'A, the territory of the Edomites, the deſcendants of Eſau, eldeſt ſon of the patriarch Iſaac. It was ſituated in Arabia Petræa, and was ſurrounded by Paleſtine, the land of Moab, the Sandy Deſert, the Red Sea, and the land of the Philiſtines. Previous to the eſtabliſhment of the offspring of Eſau, it was denominated Mount Seir, and was inhabited by a people called Horims or Horites, who were diſpoſſeſſed by them. *Deut.* ii. There were kings of Edom as early as the days of Moſes; and, from this period, to the lateſt account we have of the Edomites as a nation, it appears they were uniformly the avowed enemies of the Iſraelites; and, in this inſtance, moſt certainly affords a very ſingular diſplay of the influence of hereditary prejudice; witneſs their ungenerous treatment to them in their journey through the wilderneſs, in refuſing them a paſſage through their territory; and the readineſs evinced upon all occaſions to conjoin with their common enemy. King David, it ſeems, conquered this country and added it to his kingdom, eſtabliſhed garriſons throughout the country, and left the Iſraelitiſh army, with Joab at their head, to ravage the country for ſix months, with the intent to deſtroy every male they could find; but one of the king's ſons, named Hadad, eſcaped to Egypt, and remained there until the reign of Solomon, when he appeared as his enemy, in conſequence of Solomon's defection from the worſhip of God. 1 *Kings*, xi. Nevertheleſs Edom remained ſubject to the kingdom of Judah until the reign of king Joram, when they threw off their yoke, choſe a new king, and remained independent until the time of Hircanus the high prieſt, who, having taken moſt of their cities, compelled them to be circumciſed; and, from this period, it is ſuppoſed they mingled with the Jews, and were ever after conſidered as ſuch.

E'DOM, or ESAU, the ſon of Iſaac and brother of Jacob. The name of Edom, which ſignifies *red*, was given him, either becauſe he ſold his birth-right to Jacob, or by reaſon of the colour of his hair and complexion. Idumea derives its name from Edom, and is often called in ſcripture *the land of Edom*.

ED'OMITE, *ſ.* A deſcendant of Edom, an inhabitant of Edom.

EDRE'I, [Heb. a huge maſs.] A city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the half tribe of Manaſſeh, in Baſhan, eaſt of Jordan. This city was the capital of Baſhan previous to its conqueſt by the Iſraelites. *Joſh.* xiii. 31. Alſo the name of another city of Paleſtine ſituated in the tribe of Napthali. *Joſh.* xix. 37.

ED'SAN, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Lena: twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Ziganſk.

EDS'WOL, a town of Norway: eighteen miles ſouth-weſt of Berga.

To E'DUCATE, *v. a.* [*duco*, Lat.] To breed; to bring up; to inſtruct youth:

Their young ſucceſſion all their cares employ;
They breed, they brood, inſtruct and *educate*,
And make proviſion for the future ſtate. *Dryden*.

EDUCA'TION, *ſ.* Formation of manners in youth; the manner of breeding youth; nurture; inſtruction.—All nations have agreed in the neceſſity of a ſtrict *education*. *Swift*.

"Train up a child in the way he ſhould go, and when he is old he will not depart from it,"—is a ſentiment which fell from the pen of Solomon, full of wiſdom and of truth. From this ſcriptural precept it is obvious, that the firſt buſineſs of education ſhould be to ſtimulate and direct the deſire of knowledge, which ſeems to be naturally created by the affinity of external objects, and the ſenſes affected by them. The general occupation of infancy ſhould therefore be to *enquire*; the buſineſs of inſtructors to *direct* curioſity to proper ſubjects, and to provide for its full and various gratification. This is the apprenticeſhip of wiſdom: for by it youth may acquire the art of referring appearances to cauſes; of ſorting ideas; and of diſtinguiſhing truth: it early awakens the mind to an expanſion of its faculties, and directs the powers of thought to every judicious inveſtigation.

The multitude of writers on the ſubject of education, not only evinces its importance, but ſhews the neceſſity likewiſe of regulating its mode, from real obſervation and experience. The names of Milton, Locke, Rouſſeau, and many others, ſtand high as *theoriſts* in this important duty of human life. Their ſyſtems are plauſible, and their obſervations truly ingenious. But they have fallen into the common error of thoſe who attend to ſpeculation more than to practice; and have thence proved, that viſionary writers on education are often admired, though their directions can ſeldom be purſued. It will be the object of this treatiſe therefore, to recommend thoſe genuine principles of *claſſical* education, on which not only the taſte, but the religion, the virtue, and the liberties, of every free country will in a great meaſure conſtantly depend. True patriotiſm and true valour originate from that enlargement of mind, which the well-regulated ſtudy of philoſophy, poetry, and hiſtory, tends to produce. He who is converſant with the beſt Greek and Roman writers, muſt imbibe, if he is not deficient in the powers of intellect, ſentiments and opinions no leſs liberal and enlarged, than elegant and ingenious.

The poſſeſſion of an enlarged and philoſophical mind, is greatly ſuperior to the poſſeſſion of a great fortune;

for he who enjoys a ſmall income, and has received the benefits of a liberal and philoſophical education, is generally found the moſt happy, and moſt reſpectable character. Even the country curate, though his pittance is ſmall, yet if he adheres to his ſituation in life, and affects not the ſportſman, or the man of expenſive and vicious pleaſure, but has formed a taſte for the claſſics, for compoſition, and for the contemplation of the works of nature; who ſpends his time in letters, and who ſtudies virtue and innocence, fails not to receive the reſpect and love of all men.

We may notice *two* kinds of education; one of them confined, the other enlarged; one, which only tends to qualify for a particular ſphere of action, for a profeſſion, or an official employment; the other, which endeavours to improve the powers of the underſtanding, for the ſake of exalting the endowments of human nature, and rendering it capable of ſublime and refined contemplation. This conſtitutes a broad and a firm baſis, on which any kind of ſuperſtructure may afterwards be raiſed. It furniſhes a power of finding ſatisfactory amuſement for thoſe hours of ſolitude, which every man muſt ſometimes know even in the buſieſt walks of life; and it conſtitutes one of the beſt ſupports of old age, as well as the moſt graceful ornaments of manhood. Even in the commercial department it is greatly deſirable; for beſides that it gives a grace to the man in the active ſtage of life, and in the midſt of his negociations, it enables him to enjoy his retreat with elegance, when his induſtry has been crowned with ample ſucceſs.

The modes of education purſued by the ancient Greeks, Romans, Cretans, &c. being foreign to the purpoſe of the preſent article, will be found more appropriately arranged under their reſpective heads, among the ſubjects which to each of thoſe celebrated governments reſpectively belong. With us it is of more importance to aſcertain the era at which education ſhould commence. To determine the queſtion with accuracy, diſcernment muſt be exerciſed in diſcovering the different degrees of expanſion which different minds diſplay, even at an infantine age. Upon the principle, that the earlieſt impreſſions are the moſt durable, and with a view to ſave time for future improvements, it becomes evident that a child ſhould be taught all that it can comprehend, as early as poſſible. But ſome few years muſt neceſſarily elapſe, before the fragility of childhood is capable of being launched upon the turbulent ocean of a ſchool. That this period ſhould not be ſo entirely neglected as it uſually is, moſt thinking people will allow. Tender as is the age of the pupil, ſome inſtruction may be conveyed through the medium of precept, and much through maternal care. In this department of education, Locke's Treatiſe may be conſulted to conſiderable advantage; and Rouſſeau's work is replete with excellent maxims, as far as the phyſical treatment of *infancy* is concerned. With regard to the latter writer, viſionary as his general ſyſtem may be, in this branch of it he may be followed with the happieſt conſequences; nor does he yield to any of his competitors in an accurate knowledge of human nature in its earlieſt ſtages. His prevailing foible is an attempt at brilliancy and novelty of thought, to the prejudice of ſober and uſeful diſcuſſion: but through the greater part of his introductory books, he abounds in real information, and ſacrifices the love of ſingularity to the purſuit of valuable truths. His deſcription of the various melancholy conſequences which ariſe from the neglect of the maternal duties, ſhould be peruſed betimes and unceaſingly, till it obtains a permanent hold on the imagination. Let the glare of faſhionable pleaſure be contraſted with the chaſter colours in which Rouſſeau delineates domeſtic felicity, and the illuſion muſt vaniſh from before the eye of taſte and liberal ſentiment. But, when he recommends it to his readers to direct all their attention to the culture of the corporeal powers, and even to repreſs the expanſion of the mental faculties, we ſee him tottering on the precipice of paradox, while the utmoſt caution ſhould be given his unwary followers, how they commit themſelves to the perils of an untried path. The grounds on which he argues againſt the expediency of infantine inſtruction are, that the mind, not as yet ſufficiently diſcriminative, is incapable of diſtinguiſhing the true tendency of precept; that it is therefore the beſt policy to preſerve the tablet of the mind free from any impreſſion, till it can receive its appropriate character, rather than hazard the contraction of prejudice, by bewildering the ſenſes with too remote propoſitions. But we cannot conceive it poſſible, at any age, that the mind can continue a blank; if then we would prevent the intruſion of falſe opinions, we muſt furniſh thoſe which are juſt; and though childhood may not be competent to fathom the depths of recondite philoſophy, it may be taught to diſcern the obligations of morality, and the force of obvious truths. In the progreſs of education, difficulties multiply; but in its firſt periods, the rules to be obſerved are ſimple and eaſy, if ſteadily purſued. To dedicate a cloſe attention to ſuch a regimen as may promote the health, ſtrength, and unembarraſſed growth of the body; to operate by gentle progreſſion upon the tender intellect; to exhibit the equability of an amiable temper, and preclude the approach of dangerous example; above all, to perſevere in a calm and uniform method through the courſe of didactic and moral diſcipline; are the requiſites for diſcharging the parental office with fidelity and ſucceſs:

Principiis obſta: ſerò medicina paratur,
Cum mala per longas invaluere moras.

The firſt effort towards literary inſtruction, is certainly that of communicating a knowledge of the alphabet to the child. The art of reading at firſt appears difficult to a very young boy; but we daily ſee the difficulty overcome at the age of five or ſix. If it is not acquired about that time, we often obſerve that the difficulty increaſes with increaſing years. For this reaſon education ſhould begin even in the nurſery; and the mother and nurſe are certainly in the firſt ſtage the beſt inſtructors. A ſenſible and good-tempered mother is, in every reſpect, beſt qualified to inſtruct a child, till he can read well enough to enter on the Latin grammar; and it has been found that thoſe boys are the beſt readers, on their entrance on Latin, who had been prepared by maternal care. Neither let this office be conſidered as degrading. Boys, thus inſtructed, have ſeldom had vulgar tones, but have read with unuſual caſe and elegance. But even they who have been taught to read by the nurſes, and by aged matrons, though they might have acquired diſagreeable accents, have ſoon loſt them again on receiving better inſtruction, and on hearing better examples. And theſe early proficients in reading have always made a more rapid progreſs in their grammar, and in all claſſical learning, than boys who were kept back by fanciful parents, leſt they ſhould be injured by too early application, or catch the inelegant enunciation of an illiterate woman. Let then the child be taught to read, as ſoon as the human faculties begin to exhibit ſymptoms of improvable expanſion; his attention, active in the extreme, will fix on a variety of objects. Let his book be one of thoſe objects, though by no means the only one. Let no long confinement, and no ſeverity of reprimand or correction, attend the leſſon. A little will be learned at the earlieſt age, and with the eaſieſt diſcipline. That little will ſoon multiply, and lead to farther improvement; and thus the boy, with little pain to himſelf or others, will quickly learn to read; an acquiſition, thus early in life, and in its conſequences, truly great. He, on the other hand, who is retarded, by the theoretical wiſdom of his friends, till he is ſeven or eight years old, has this burdenſome taſk to begin, when habits of idleneſs have been contracted, and when he ought to be acquiring the elements of grammar.

To facilitate the acquiſition of the art of reading, various contrivances have been invented. The letters have been made toys, and the whole buſineſs of learning to read has been converted into a game at play. The idea is plauſible; but the ſucceſs very uncertain. It may not perhaps be right to give him a notion that he has nothing to do but to play. Rather let him know, that he has buſineſs of a ſerious kind; and, by attending to it periodically, let him contract a habit of application. A temporary attention to ſomething by no means tedious or laborious, but which at the ſame time he is not to conſider as play, will make his diverſion more agreeable. Indeed viciſſitude is neceſſary to render diverſions pleaſing. They become painful buſineſs, when continued without variety. We all come into the world to perform many duties, and to undergo many difficulties; and the earlier the mind learns to bear its portion of them, the leſs likely will it be to ſink under thoſe burdens which will one day be impoſed upon it. To lead a child to ſuppoſe that he is to do nothing which is not conducive to pleaſure, is to give him a degree of levity, and a turn for diſſipation, which will certainly prevent his improvement, and may eventually occaſion his ruin. It is therefore far from rigid to explode thoſe fanciful modes of inſtruction which injure, while they indulge, the inexperienced pupil. But it would be rigid not to unite the agreeable with the uſeful, whenever the union can be effected. Books therefore, written for the uſe of children, ſhould be rendered pleaſing to the eye and to the imagination. They ſhould abound in cuts, and be adorned with every attractive colour. The matter ſhould be not only intelligible to the weakeſt mind, but intereſting. Fables are univerſally uſed, and with great propriety. No one wants to be informed how many, and how various, are the books in our language adapted to the early uſe of children. All corporeal puniſhment, and all immoderate reſtraint, muſt be prohibited. Praiſe, careſſes, and rewards, are the beſt incitements to application. If theſe will not operate, the point muſt for a while be given up. A more favourable ſeaſon will arrive, under proper management. Theſe motives, however, will ſeldom fail, when applied by the parents, or by thoſe who, with the real intereſt of the child at heart, have alſo integrity and diligence to promote it. Such qualities are certainly more deſirable in the firſt inſtructors, than learning and great abilities.

Much has been ſaid on the neceſſity of ſtudying the natural propenſity of the pupil, and of directing him to thoſe peculiar ſtudies to which he appears particularly adapted by nature. But this is a very difficult and uncertain ſpeculation, both in the parent and preceptor. The appearances from which they have to judge, are often deceitful. A boy, during three or four years continuance at ſchool, will appear ſtupid, and will make little proficiency. Keep him there another year, and perhaps his parts burſt forth on a ſudden; his emulation becomes ſtrongly excited: he feels a pleaſure in his progreſs, and ſoon outſtrips thoſe who went before him. This revolution we often ſee take place. On the other hand, he who is cried up as a prodigy of infant genius, ſometimes becomes dull, contracts an averſion to books, and finally arrives at no valuable attainment. The mental faculties, in different conſtitutions, diſplay themſelves earlier or later, according to ſome internal organization, as difficult to be detected as explained by human ſagacity. The parent, therefore, ſhould follow the dictates of common ſenſe and prudence in the diſpoſal of his child, and leave the reſult to Providence.

From the time of Quintilian to the preſent day, it has been a queſtion of conſiderable debate, whether public or private education is the moſt conducive to valuable improvement. Thoſe who prefer the education of public ſchools, have to dread the licentiouſneſs which is too often found in them. The prevailing manners of the age, and of the world at large, are apt to inſinuate themſelves into thoſe ſeminaries of learning, which, by their ſecluſion from the world, might be ſuppoſed to be exempted from its corruptions. Still, however, the boy who is kept at home, cannot be at all hours under the immediate eye of his parent or his inſtructor. It muſt therefore happen, by chance, neceſſity, or neglect, that he will often aſſociate with menial ſervants, from whoſe example he will be liable to catch not only meanneſs of ſpirit, but vice and vulgarity. Yet ſuppoſing him to be fortunately reſtrained from ſuch communication, the examples he will ſee in the world, and the temptations he will meet with in an intercourſe with various company at too early an age, will affect his heart, and cauſe it to beat with impatience for emancipation from that reſtraint, which muſt be removed at the approach of manhood. Then will his paſſions break forth with additional violence, as the waters of a ſtream which have been long confined. The ſweets of liberty never before taſted, and the allurements of vice never before withſtood, become too powerful for reſiſtance, at an age when the paſſions are ſtrong, reaſon immature, and experience entirely deficient.

After all the confinement and trouble of a domeſtic education, the pupil is yet to be ſent to the univerſity. There he will aſſociate with young men who have been educated at ſchools; and if they have any vices, he will be in much greater danger of moral infection, and will ſuffer worſe conſequences from it, than if he had not been ſecluded from boys at a boyiſh age. He will appear awkward, and unacquainted with their manners; and hence neglected, if not deſpiſed. His ſpirit, if he poſſeſſes any, will not ſubmit to contempt; and perhaps he will imitate, and at length ſurpaſs, their irregularities, in order to gain a welcome reception among them. That conduct which can acquire dignity and eſteem at the univerſity, muſt ariſe from a degree of wiſdom and experience, as well as of moral rectitude, rarely poſſeſſed by him who has been educated in a cloſet. And with reſpect to literary improvement, a boy of parts will generally be found a better ſcholar, if educated at a ſchool, than at home. In a ſchool many circumſtances co-operate to force his own perſonal exertion, on which depends the increaſe of mental ſtrength, and conſequently of improvement, more than on the inſtruction of the beſt private preceptor. The arguments in ſupport of this opinion muſt be common, for their truth is obvious. Emulation cannot be excited without rivals; and without emulation, inſtruction will be always a tedious, and often a fruitleſs, labour. It is this which warms the paſſions on the ſide of all that is excellent, and often counterbalances the weight of temptations to vice and idleneſs. The boy of an ingenuous mind, who ſtands at the head of his claſs, ranks, in the *microcoſm* of a ſchool, as a hero, and his feelings are ſcarcely leſs elevated. He will ſpare no pains to maintain his honourable poſt; and his competitors, if they have ſpirit, will be no leſs aſſiduous to ſupplant him. No ſeverity, no painful confinement, no harſh menaces, will be neceſſary. Emulation alone will effect in the beſt manner the moſt valuable purpoſes; and at the ſame time will cauſe, in the boſom of the ſcholar, a pleaſure truly enviable. The ſchool-boy too has the beſt chance of acquiring that confidence and ſpirit which are neceſſary to diſplay valuable attainments. Exceſſive diffidence, baſhfulneſs, and indolence, retard the acquiſition of knowledge, and deſtroy its due effect when acquired. They are the cauſe of pain to their poſſeſſors, and commonly do injuſtice to their real abilities. It is one circumſtance in public ſchools, which tends to give the ſcholars a due degree of confidence, that public examination or election days are uſually eſtabliſhed in them; when, beſides the examination, which, if undergone with credit, inſpires courage, orations are ſpoken before numerous auditors. This greatly contributes to remove that timidity, which has ſilenced many able perſons brought up for the bar and the pulpit, not to mention a ſimilar defect in the important

portant qualifications of the ſenator. In ſhort, it is a ſelf-evident fact, that the ſociety of a ſchool is of great uſe in awakening the dormant faculties, in producing a vigorous and active mind, and in preparing the young citizen for the world, by enuring him to preparatory ſcenes, ſimilar to thoſe which lie before him in life.

The formation of connexions which may contribute to future advancement, and of friendſhips which cannot eaſily be diſſolved, has always been a powerful argument in ſupport of the preference of public ſchools. Such connexions and ſuch friendſhips have been, and may be, formed. The opportunity which public ſchools afford, is certainly an additional circumſtance in recommendation of them. Thoſe diſintereſted friendſhips which are thus formed, ariſing from a real congeniality of ſentiments and taſte, certainly contribute much to comfort, and often to advancement. Experience proves, that they are more durable than the intimacies which are contracted at any ſubſequent period.

A great degree of bodily exerciſe is neceſſary for boys. Nature has taken care to provide for this neceſſity, by giving them a propenſity to play. But they never enter into the puerile diverſions with proper ſpirit, but with boys. He then who is ſent to ſchool, has the beſt opportunity of anſwering the intentions of nature, in taking that conſtant exerciſe which at once contributes to ſtrength of body and vivacity of mind. Placed in a little ſociety of members like himſelf, he finds ample ſcope for the exertion of his various powers and propenſities. He has friends and playfellows conſtantly at hand; and the buſy ſcene paſſing before him, is a never-failing ſource of amuſement. The private pupil all this while languiſhes in ſolitude, deprived of many of theſe advantages, or enjoying them imperfectly. He feels but little emulation; he contracts diffidence; he makes few friendſhips, for want of opportunity; he is ſecluded from the moſt healthy exerciſes; and his early youth, the pleaſant ſpring of life, is ſpent in a painful confinement. Yet there are circumſtances which will render private education the moſt proper. Theſe are, uncommon meekneſs of diſpoſition, bodily infirmity, defect of the ſenſes, and great deformity. Boys labouring under theſe misfortunes ſhould be treated like thoſe tender plants, which, unable to bear the weather, can only thrive in the green-houſe: but be it always remembered, that the oak flouriſhes beſt in an open expoſure.

In private tuition, the great object ſhould be, to ſecure as many of the advantages of a public education, with as few of its inconveniencies, as poſſible. It is therefore adviſable, that the plan of public education be followed, as cloſely as the difference of circumſtances will admit. It ſhould be recollected, that a thouſand whimſical modes are purſued by private tutors. They are generally ſuch as the inventors and adopters warmly recommend. Both are ſincere in their recommendation; for we naturally love our own inventions, and the objects of our adoption. Novelty has alſo that irreſiſtible charm, which induces parents to enter their ſons, with eagerneſs, on a plan which has the appearance of improvement and innovation. But as education is an affair of high importance, no ſcheme ought to be generally purſued which has not received the ſanction of experience. The welfare of the community is at ſtake, when a general change is introduced in the forms of education.

A private tutor certainly poſſeſſes peculiar opportunities for the infuſion of moral and religious principles, and peculiar advantages for the reſtriction of his pupil from the contagion of vicious example. We ſincerely wiſh that theſe opportunities and advantages may never be neglected, and that private tuition may prove, what it has claimed, the power of producing better men, if not better ſcholars, than are uſually formed in a public ſchool. We are the more induced to expreſs this wiſh at preſent, becauſe private tuition ſeems lately to have prevailed in this country, more than ever; and yet, it is confeſſed, that profligacy of manners was never more conſpicuous. It has indeed been the cuſtom among the richer orders, to endeavour to combine the advantages of a public and private education, by placing their ſons at a celebrated ſchool, and at the ſame time under the care of a private tutor, reſident in the ſchool, or in its neighbourhood. The buſineſs of the private tutor is often, in this caſe, little more than to make the boy's exerciſes for him. If the diſcipline of the ſchool is duly maintained, the aſſiſtance is unneceſſary. We do not find that the great ſcholars, produced a century ago, had any other aid than that afforded in a good ſchool, ſeconded by their own aſſiduity. Very weak boys will indeed want leading-ſtrings, or crutches; but the boy of parts derives new ſtrength from being accuſtomed to confide in his own efforts. A private tutor, whoſe whole employment conſiſts in removing the difficulties attending the diſcipline of a great ſchool, is unintentionally a promoter of idleneſs, and of ſuperficial knowledge. The opulent and luxurious often wiſh for ſuperior learning, and would moſt readily buy it, if it were to be purchaſed without labour or confinement. But this is not to be bought; it is to be earned by long and perſevering induſtry. Aſſiſtance may indeed be procured in abundance by means of riches; but it happens in this caſe, that they who proceed with the leaſt extraneous aid, proceed with the greateſt ſucceſs.

Whether the mode of education be under a private tutor, or at a public ſchool, a thorough knowledge of the elements of grammar is the firſt thing to be acquired. If a grammatical foundation be not laid deep, at an early age, it will not often be laid in ſuch a manner as to bear a large ſuperſtructure. Parents, indeed, who have not had a claſſical education themſelves, and who are unacquainted with the true means of obtaining its advantages, and perhaps with the nature of them, are apt to be impatient in the expectation of great and early proficiency in their children. There are not wanting thoſe who are ready to take advantage of credulity in this, as well as in other very important matters. They generally produce wonderful ſtories of premature improvement. But "thoſe who tell or receive theſe ſtories," ſays the ſolid Johnſon, "ſhould conſider, that nobody can be taught faſter than he can learn. The ſpeed of the beſt horſeman muſt be limited by the power of his horſe." Yet when a boy begins to learn Latin, the parents immediately expect him to ſhew ſome evident ſuperiority over others in all the puerile purſuits. Perhaps he appears inferior to them. His attention to his grammar may cauſe a temporary neglect of leſs important, but more ſhining, attainments. What he is learning has nothing of ſhow in it. It makes no appearance in the eyes of the ſuperficial. It is, as Quintilian obſerves, like the foundation of a building, which, though the moſt important part, lies concealed under the earth. Parents muſt not therefore expect the crop in the ſeaſon of planting. They muſt form an analogical argument, from conſidering the nature of vegetables. Thoſe are ſeldom the moſt valuable, durable, or beautiful, which emerge from the ground, or expand their bloſſom, at a very early ſeaſon. But others, which are ſcarcely ſeen at the firſt approach of ſpring, are often, during their apparent inaction, ſpreading their roots deeply and widely, in order to diſplay, at a maturer period, a profuſe luxuriance.

In order to inſure this firm and durable culture, it is not enough to be alone attentive to grammar inſtruction. Opportunities muſt be given to the ſtudent to diſplay his attainments. He muſt learn to reduce theory to practice. He muſt exemplify his rules. He muſt be exerciſed in *thinking*. He muſt be accuſtomed to ſolitary ſtudy, and a habit muſt be formed of literary labour. For all theſe reaſons, it has been the cuſtom of our beſt ſchools to exact from the ſcholars a written exerciſe, to be brought every morning on entrance into the ſchool. Under proper regulations, and duly attended to both by the inſtructor and the pupil, this practice has been productive of effects

greatly beneficial. And let it be remembered that half the uſual labour, and half the uſual time, will produce more than double the improvement, if ſuch methods are practiſed from the firſt, as tend to give the ſcholar clear ideas. It is alſo material that the books ſelected both for private reading and ſcholaſtic ſtudy, in the courſe of his progreſs, ſhould be ſuch as have an immediate relation to the exerciſes to be performed. The beſt models of compoſition muſt be placed before the eyes of the ſtudent at all times, but more particularly while he is engaged in the work of imitation. And to imitate well a Virgil, a Cicero, a Pope, and an Addiſon, indicates a mind which has imbibed a portion of their mental excellence. No method is ſo likely to cauſe this moſt deſirable participation of their ſpirit, as repeated and continued efforts to exhibit, in juvenile exerciſes, ſome reſemblance of their ſentiments and their ſtyle. This aſſiduous and unremitted attention to exerciſes may, perhaps, be conſidered by the ſuperficial as too great a taſk, and as too ſevere an exaction. But if parents or preceptors will not ſuffer their ſons or ſcholars to ſubmit to it, they muſt not expect any great and laſting effects from that which is commonly called a good education. How few, indeed, do we ſee bring a knowledge of the ancient languages from their ſchools, ſufficiently extenſive or profound to be uſeful in any great degree, or even to be retained by them throughout their lives! What is the cauſe? Undoubtedly, an indolence in themſelves, and a too great indulgence in their ſuperintendents or parents, who will not let them ſubmit to any degree of application which is painful. But ſuch is the appointed condition of human affairs, that no object, really and durably valuable, can be gained without labour and difficulty. This is the price at which Providence has decreed that the ſatisfaction and advantages ariſing from the poſſeſſion of any extraordinary degree of excellence ſhall be purchaſed. Yet the labour of compoſition is not always painful, eſpecially when boys take delight in compoſing themes and verſes. The natural pleaſure of invention, and the conſciouſneſs of increaſing ſtrength of mind, alleviates greatly the labour of the work; and the praiſes and encouragement they receive, will generally give their ingenuous minds a glow of delight, which none of their uſual diverſions can confer. When once a boy feels an emulation to excel in his compoſitions, his improvement is ſecure.

Much has been ſaid with regard to the utility of teaching boys to compoſe *Latin verſe*. When a boy is deſigned to fill a ſubordinate ſphere in commercial or active life, to trouble him with Latin verſification, is perhaps to waſte his valuable time. Yet it is confeſſedly the beſt method of giving a ſtudent a refined taſte for claſſical expreſſion. The neceſſity of compoſing Latin verſe, renders a ſcholar more careful in remarking and ſelecting elegancies, than he would be, if he were only to read, without imitating, a Horace or a Virgil. In ſome very popular ſchools, Latin verſe is perhaps attended to as an exerciſe too conſtantly, and too indiſcriminately. For the ſake of gaining prizes, and for other leſs defenſible reaſons, it is made, by ſome, the firſt object; which it certainly ought not to be. Boys who happen to have no taſte for it, however excellent their capacities in other reſpects, have, at thoſe ſchools, no encouragement. A common method is, to ſuffer boys at firſt to write verſes formed of words combined, without regard to meaning or grammatical conſtruction, but, at the ſame time, with a cloſe attention to the rules of proſody. This method contributes to facilitate the purſuit, though it is not univerſally approved. It ſhould not indeed be continued very long; but it is an excellent mode of introduction to an art which is obviouſly attended with ſome difficulty. Inſtructors differ much in opinion reſpecting the propriety of allowing a *Gradus ad Parnaſſum*, from an idea that it retards advancement by indulging indolence. But this is certain; if we forbid the uſe of the *Gradus* in a place of education, the prohibition will be fruſtrated by the clandeſtine introduction of it. It is a book eaſily procured, and boys in the ſenior claſſes will not be without it; and there are inſtances of many who have received great improvement from it. When the pupil poſſeſſes an uncommon ſhare of parts, he will aſcend Parnaſſus without this *ſtep* to help him; and it is reaſonable to conclude that the improvement made without it, will be more permanent and ſolid. But the misfortune is, that the art appears ſo difficult at firſt, that the greater part of boys are likely to be deterred and diſguſted, if they are denied this aſſiſtance.

When the quantity of words is pretty well known, it is a good method to place the words of one of Martial's Epigrams, or of any beautiful paſſage in the Latin poets, out of their metrical order, and to require the ſcholar to form them into verſes. In theſe exerciſes it is alſo beſt to call forth the early powers of the boy's invention. As ſoon, therefore, as he can write hexameters and pentameters, let him have a ſubject given him. Let him be made acquainted with the nature of an epigram. Let him be told, it is to conſiſt of one thought. The ſearch after this thought is attended with many collateral advantages. The mind in purſuit of it often ranges, as well as it can, through the moral and phyſical world. Men, manners, and things, whatever he has read, heard, or ſeen, come under the ſtudent's conſideration. A great improvement is derived to the mental powers from this practice, and, at the ſame time, a habit of reflection gained, and knowledge of various kinds extended and confirmed. Let any one impartially examine the *Luſus Weſtmonaſterienſes*, *Muſæ Etonenſes*, and ſeveral other publications, as well as manuſcripts of this ſort, and he will ſee the juſtneſs of the obſervation. Epigrams, odes, and various poematia, ſhould alternately conſtitute exerciſes in the higher claſſes. Accuracy, copiouſneſs of invention, a depth of thought, an elegance of ſtyle, and many other advantages, may be derived from this method to every kind of writing in which the ſcholar afterwards employs himſelf. The moſt unpromiſing talents often ſucceed, when called forth by the example of others, whether invited by opportunity, or urged by neceſſity. Parents ſhould not, therefore, give up their ſons upon very early unfavourable appearances. Many a child has been ſent to ſea, or put to ſome mechanical employ, who might have ſhone eminently in letters, if his parents had not been inclined to deſpair too ſoon, from their ignorance of the nature and the operations of the human mind, and from their inattention to the biographical accounts of eminent literati.

The next acquiſition ſhould be that of writing *Latin proſe*, which, conſidered merely as an exerciſe, naturally contributes to increaſe, and to confirm, an intimate knowledge of the language. He who can write a language, will not often be at a loſs in reading the authors written in it. He will underſtand the delicacies and the beauties of the language, both when he conſiders it in its ſingle and ſeparate words, and when he views it in conſtruction. When words and ideas paſs immediately under the pen, in the act of compoſition, they are conſidered more diſtinctly and maturely than when they are only peruſed in a volume. Beſides this advantage, to be able to write Latin, qualifies the ſtudent to correſpond with the learned in all countries. Latin letters ſhould therefore form one of the evening exerciſes in the higheſt claſſes at ſchool; for which Cicero affords admirable models. Latin has long been the univerſal language of learning. The books which, from their extenſive ſubject, ſeem to intereſt mankind at large, have uſually been written in Latin; and ſcientific ſubjects of all kinds are ſtill often diſcuſſed in Latin: it would therefore appear unbecoming a ſcholar to be unable to expreſs his ideas in a language, in which learned foreigners not only write, but frequently converſe. And if the ſtudent proceeds to either of our Engliſh univerſities, and really wiſhes to be a ſcholar, he muſt acquire the habit of compoſing Latin themes, Latin declamations,

declamations, Latin lectures, &c. which are conſtantly required of academical ſtudents. It is true that the idler and man of faſhion generally procure theſe exerciſes from friends, from books, or from collections of old compoſitions; but, though they may paſs through the forms of an univerſity by ſuch means, they never acquire credit, or acquit themſelves to their own ſatisfaction. And, if they take the degree of maſter of arts in one of our univerſities, they are bound by their oaths to recite publicly in the ſchools Latin declamations of their own compoſition. It is another argument in favour of the Latin exerciſes in our ſeminaries, that it has a natural tendency to improve the ſtudent in Engliſh compoſition. He who has been accuſtomed to make Cicero his model, will inſenſibly exhibit ſomething of his beauty, in whatever language he can compoſe with facility. That habit of accuracy, and that care in the collocation of words, which is required in Latin works, will inſenſibly extend its good effects to every production. To write Latin in youth, is an excellent preparation for that vernacular compoſition, which ſome of the profeſſions indiſpenſably require. It ought therefore to be continued in our ſchools; but it will not often be attended with ſucceſs, unleſs the pupil remains there long, and applies cloſely under the inſpection of an experienced inſtructor. Much practice and long habit are neceſſary, to give excellence and facility. Therefore, where boys are intended to acquire only a ſuperficial knowledge, and to be removed early from their ſeminary to the warehouſe and accompting-houſe, or to be introduced into any mode of active life incompatible with contemplation, they will not then be able to acquire an eaſe in Latin compoſition, nor will it be neceſſary.

With reſpect to the ſtyle which is chiefly to be imitated, we ſhall not heſitate to recommend that of Cicero. His more diffuſe and Aſiatic manner is not to be imitated. But the ſtyle of his Letters, his Offices, his Philoſophical Converſations, his book on the Orator, his treatiſe on Friendſhip and on Old Age, with a few of his Orations, abounds with ſweets, from which the induſtrious bee may load himſelf with honey. Some, indeed, recommend as models, the ſtyles of Quintilian and Tacitus. Theſe are excellent in their kind; but they have not the grace and dignity of Cicero. They pleaſe and ſtrike a mature taſte, but they are not well adapted to allure a young ſtudent to the labour of imitation.

Under a miſtaken notion of facilitating the progreſs of the young pupil, *tranſlations* of the claſſic authors are now permitted to be uſed in many reſpectable modern ſchools; but we think, with manifeſt diſadvantage to the future reputation and acquirements of a ſcholar; and we might with great truth add, that few cauſes have contributed more to impede the ſcholar's progreſs, than the general adoption of this accommodating mode. The human mind is naturally remiſs, but particularly ſo at the early ſeaſon in which education is commenced. At all times it is averſe from unneceſſary labour, and rejoices to facilitate the means of arriving at its end. When, therefore, a tranſlation is preſented to the eye on the ſame page with the original, it is not likely, that for the ſake of a remote advantage, it ſhould neglect preſent eaſe; that it ſhould turn from the meaning which is offered to its notice, and willingly purſue an original tranſlation to be formed from the mazes of a lexicon. Yet there are ſome reſpectable authors who contend, that "if the claſſic authors were publiſhed with interlineary tranſlations, it would be a great ſervice done to the public." Perhaps after a ſtudent has learned one language very accurately, he may acquaint himſelf ſuperficially, in a ſhort time, with others, by means of tranſlations. But to boys, who always uſe them without judgment, they are certainly pernicious. The boy learns to conſtrue his leſſon by the Engliſh printed at its ſide, and takes care to remember it during the half hour he repeats it to his inſtructor; after which he will let it ſlip away without reluctance, conſcious that his collateral tranſlation will enable him to go through the ſame buſineſs on the morrow, without puniſhment, and alſo without the valuable acquiſition of learning to ſtrengthen and impreſs the memory.

The exertion of mind requiſite in learning to conſtrue a leſſon *without* a tranſlation, is one of the moſt deſirable conſequences derivable from the leſſon itſelf. A habit of attention is acquired by it; conjectural ingenuity called forth; a degree of penetration, and patience of literary labour, a moſt deſirable acquiſition, inſenſibly produced. Whatever difficulty it may be attended with, will be overcome by the boy who poſſeſſes parts; and he who poſſeſſes none, will never make any valuable proficiency with or without theſe indulgent aſſiſtances. He may indeed be allured by them to throw away his time, and reap nothing in return but diſgrace. It will not be controverted, that good Greek ſcholars have ſeldom been ſo numerous as good Latiniſts. What ſhall we aſſign as the cauſe? Greek is not more difficult in its elements than Latin. Its authors are equally, perhaps more, inviting. It is uſually entered on at a leſs puerile age than Latin, at an age when the underſtanding has acquired ſtrength enough to overcome grammatical difficulty. Nothing has impeded the equal advancement of Greek ſtudies, of late at leaſt, but the univerſal practice of publiſhing all Greek books with a Latin tranſlation. Upon this occaſion Bruyere has remarked, that "the ſtudy of the original text can never be ſufficiently recommended. It is the ſhorteſt, ſureſt, and moſt agreeable, way to all ſorts of learning. Draw from the ſpring head, and take not things at ſecond-hand. Let the writings of the great maſters be never laid aſide: dwell upon them, ſettle them in your mind, and cite them upon occaſion: make it your buſineſs thoroughly to underſtand them in their full extent, and in all their circumſtances: acquaint yourſelves fully with the principles of original authors: bring them to a conſiſtency, and then do you yourſelf make your deductions. In this ſtate were the firſt commentators; and do not you reſt until you bring yourſelf to the ſame. Content not yourſelf with thoſe borrowed lights; nor guide yourſelf by their views, but where your own fails you, and leaves you in the dark. Their explications are not yours, and will give you the ſlip. On the contrary, your own obſervations are the product of your own mind; where they will abide, and be ready at hand upon all occaſions, in converſe, conſultation, and diſpute. Loſe not the pleaſure it is to ſee that you were not ſtopped in your reading, but by difficulties that are invincible, where the commentators and ſcholiaſts themſelves are at a ſtand, and have nothing to ſay; thoſe copious expoſitors of other places, who, with a vain and pompous overflow of learning, poured out on paſſages plain and eaſy in themſelves, are very free of their words and pains where there is no need. Convince yourſelf fully, by thus ordering your ſtudies, that it is nothing but men's indolence, which hath encouraged pedantry to cram, rather than enrich, libraries, and to bury good authors under heaps of notes and commentaries; and you will perceive that ſloth hath acted, in this inſtance, againſt itſelf and its own intereſt, by multiplying reading and enquiries, and increaſing the pains it endeavoured to avoid." Some candid editors have been ſenſible of this truth, and have added tranſlations with apparent regret. Their conviction has been overruled by a ſpecies of argument very forcible on theſe occaſions, "that without concomitant tranſlations, Greek books have ceaſed to be a ſaleable commodity." When Greek ſcholars were ſcarce in Europe, a few tranſlations contributed to facilitate the introduction of the language: this expediency introduced the cuſtom, which is not likely to be aboliſhed, though it is moſt inimical to Grecian literature, and, for that reaſon, to the prevalence of a good taſte. The Greek poets, as well as the philoſophers and hiſtorians, have been read and criticiſed by thoſe who could only read them in the lame ſtyle of a literal tranſlation, who acquieſced in ſo wretched a ſubſtitute for the original, but who probably would have

ſtudied the Greek, and underſtood it, had they not been led aſtray in their youth by that powerful incitement to indolence, *a collateral tranſlation.*

To the uſe of tranſlations, and to the various modes of facilitating puerile ſtudies, we may venture to attribute the decline of ſolid learning, and of that juſt taſte which the ancient models tended to eſtabliſh. Together with tranſlations, it would be wiſe to baniſh theſe editions in which the order of conſtruction is given on the ſame page with the text. It tends vaſtly to enervate the mind, by rendering exertion unneceſſary. The moſt unexceptionable method of rendering the claſſics eaſy to the younger ſcholars, is to ſubjoin, as is ſometimes practiſed, a vocabulary at the end of the volume. Even the interpretation in the editions *in uſum Delphini*, which are univerſally uſed, tends rather to corrupt the ſtyle, and to vitiate the taſte, by drawing off the attention from the elegant language of a Virgil, to the bad Latin of a modern commentator. The young ſtudent cannot therefore too early be taught to exert his own powers, and to place a modeſt confidence in their operation. This will increaſe their native vigour, and give him ſpirit to extend them as far as they will go on every proper emergency. Accuſtomed to depend upon himſelf, he will acquire a degree of courage neceſſary to call forth that merit which is often diminiſhed in value to its diffident poſſeſſor, and totally loſt to mankind. The little ſuperficial learning of him who has been uſed to the facilitating inventions, may be compared to a temporary edifice, built for a day; while the hard-earned knowledge of the other may be ſaid to reſemble a building, whoſe foundations are deep and ſtrong, and equally to be admired for dignity and duration.

It is agreed on all hands, that no faculty of the mind is capable of more improvement than the memory, and none more in danger of decay by diſuſe. Every practice which tends to ſtrengthen it, ſhould be encouraged and continued; and it is therefore a very judicious inſtitution in our grammar ſchools, obſerved from the earlieſt times, which obliges the ſcholars to commit large portions of the beſt claſſics to memory. That the taſk is laborious, is no valid objection. Labour ſtrengthens both the mind and body; and what is acquired by labour, will not eaſily be loſt. The impreſſion it makes is deep and laſting. But, in truth, it is not ſo laborious a taſk to a boy as it may appear to a parent, or to any other adult, who has had neither experience nor obſervation in this department. The memory of boys in general is abundantly capacious. If it is not filled with valuable furniture, it will be crowded with lumber. It will be the repoſitory of trifles, of vanities, and perhaps of vices. How much more deſirable, that it ſhould be ſtored with fine ſentiments and beautiful diction, ſelected from the nobleſt writers whom the world ever produced! Honour, ſpirit, liberality, will be acquired, by committing to memory the thoughts and words of heroes and of worthies, who eminently ſhone in every ſpecies of excellence. Its effects in poliſhing and refining the taſte, are too obvious to be called in queſtion. There are abundant inſtances of its peculiar influence in embelliſhing the mind, and giving it a gracefulneſs which no other ornaments can ſupply. As ſoon, therefore, as the grammar is perfectly learned by heart, the paſſages of the beſt claſſics, conſtrued as a leſſon on the day, ſhould be given as a taſk to be learned *memoriter* at night. Habit will render it no leſs eaſy than it is beneficial.

It cannot be denied, that nature has made a difference in diſpenſing the power of retaining ideas. If we may believe ſome accounts, ſhe has ſometimes formed prodigies in this ſpecies of excellence. Muret relates, that he recited words to the number of thirty-ſix thouſand, ſome of them without meaning, to a young man, who repeated them all immediately, from the beginning to the end, and from the end to the beginning, in the ſame order, without a moment's heſitation or a ſingle miſtake. Miraculous, and even incredible, as this may appear, Muret tells us, there were innumerable witneſſes to the truth of the fact, and mentions many names of reſpectable perſons who were preſent at the repetition. Many other inſtances might be ſelected from authors of allowed veracity; but they are ſo different from that which falls within the experience of mankind in general, as ſcarcely to gain credit. If they are true, they afford encouraging motives for the cultivation of a faculty, which has ſometimes been advanced to ſo high a degree of perfection. In giving great attention to the cultivation of the memory, there is danger leſt it ſhould be overladen with minute objects; a circumſtance highly injurious, eſpecially in the courſe of education. Let it therefore be conſidered, that a good memory, according to a ſimilitude of Eraſmus, reſembles a net ſo made as to confine all the great fiſh, but to let the little ones eſcape.

With reſpect to learning Greek, it is often thought totally ſuperfluous: yet it is a language that contributes greatly to adorn the gentleman, while it is eſſential in a ſcholar. It will infallibly lead him to the fountain-head of claſſical information. It will enable him to judge of compoſition with taſte. It will point out to him, with preciſion, the meaning of many words in the Engliſh language, which are daily uſed, and of far the greater number of technical terms in every art and ſcience. The Greek authors are indeed ſo celebrated, and have been ſo univerſally read, that one would think no man of letters, who poſſeſſes ſenſe and ſpirit, would voluntarily forego the opportunity of learning Greek, in order to peruſe them in their native language. Homer has always kept his place as the nobleſt writer whom the world ever produced. They who think they ſhall diſcover his tranſcendent excellence in any tranſlation, are greatly deceived. The preſent age is too much diſpoſed to purſue compendious methods of education, which terminate in external and ſhallow attainments. And, unleſs a timely check is given, the next age will be led to neglect ſolid improvements ſtill more than the preſent; for, as ſolid improvements become leſs generally underſtood, they will be leſs generally eſteemed.

When a proper knowledge of the grammar has been acquired, and the declenſions of the nouns and pronouns, and the formation of the verbs, are once learned, the ſcholar ſhould begin to read one of the chapters in St. John's Goſpel in the Greek Teſtament. The Greek of this evangeliſt is remarkably *eaſy*; and, when ten or twelve chapters ſhall have been carefully read, let the ſtudent begin St. Luke, whoſe Greek is allowed to be *better* than St. John's. When the greater part of St. Luke ſhall have been read, and its grammatical conſtruction and its particular words analyſed, let the ſcholar begin ſome work of Xenophon, ſtill repeating a portion of his grammar every morning. This will ſoon pave the way to Demoſthenes and Homer; and when theſe are once underſtood, which with diligence and good abilities, may be very ſoon accompliſhed, the ſcholar will be able of himſelf to purſue his ſtudies in the Greek language, as far as he may chooſe to proceed. The pleaſure he will feel when once he enters deeply into the fine authors of ancient Greece, will lead him to prefer them to all others. He will then find, that the preference given to them by all preceding ages, is not the effect of mere partiality; but is derived from their native excellence, and from the opportunity thereby afforded of enlarging and ennobling the human mind.

There are many who acknowledge the excellence of the Greek language, that are deterred from the purſuit of it by ideas of its difficulty. This ariſes from its being a very copious language; and becauſe it requires much and various reading, to gain a competent knowledge of the primitive or radical words. Yet the Greek roots have been computed not much to exceed three thouſand. It is alſo a language which abounds in compounds and derivatives, the meaning of which may be eaſily known by knowing the ſimple and original words. He who has acquainted himſelf with a ſmall number of the moſt uſeful

radicals,

radicals, will be able, with a little ſagacity, to diſcover the meaning of many words in a book written on a familiar and obvious ſubject. By reading ſuch a book, he will probably find his knowledge of original words in ſome degree increaſed. He goes on to one leſs eaſy. His knowledge of the language is enlarged by inſenſible gradations, and he at laſt acquires a deep and a maſterly ſkill, by perſeverance indeed, but without much painful labour. Eraſmus, in the earlier part of his life, carefully ſtudied the Greek and Latin grammar, read lectures upon them, and tranſlated Greek books into Latin. This was laying a right foundation for criticiſm and philoſophy; and it were to be wiſhed that our young ſtudents would follow his example. "Be you ever ſo ingenious or induſtrious, (ſays Dr. Jortin,) yet if you neglect to cultivate and to preſerve this humble part of knowledge, you will be perpetually ſtumbling when you tread on claſſic ground; when you attempt to explain, to tranſlate, or to correct ancient authors, or to diſcuſs any learned ſubject, or to compoſe a few pages in proſe or in verſe."

Many parents are apt to imagine, that, while their ſons are learning Latin and Greek, they are making no improvement in Engliſh. They are, however, greatly deceived. It is impoſſible to learn the Latin grammar, without acquiring a valuable knowledge of grammar in general, and conſequently of the Engliſh grammar. But it muſt be confeſſed, that many particulars of the Engliſh grammar cannot be learned, but by a particular application to it; and, it is certain, that this has been long neglected in the moſt approved ſchools. Engliſh, undoubtedly, ought to form a great part of an Engliſh gentleman's education; and if a boy has made a good proficiency in claſſical learning, he will be able of himſelf to compenſate the want of particular inſtruction in this point, if he chuſes to apply to it. Good ſenſe, good company, and the reading of good authors, with a knowledge of grammar in general, will commonly make a ſcholar completely maſter of his own language. To comprehend it, however, among the other objects of ſcholaſtic purſuit, contributes to render a plan of education more complete. It is alſo the more deſirable; ſince it has been found that many boys, who, though they could write Latin grammatically, were unable, for want of this part of inſtruction, to compoſe an Engliſh letter on a familiar ſubject without incorrectneſs, much leſs with elegance; and even ſome celebrated writers in Engliſh have made egregious miſtakes in Engliſh grammar. It has been the opinion of ſome, that Engliſh ſhould be learned before Latin; and biſhop Lowth ſeems to recommend it ſtrongly; but he recommends it in a Preface to his Engliſh Grammar; and it is natural to go great lengths in recommending the importance of any book, art, or ſcience, which we have been particularly employed in improving or promoting. Quintilian, whoſe judgment may in general be fully depended upon, ſays, *A Græco ſermone puerum incipere malo: quia Latinus, qui pluribus in uſu eſt, vel nobis nolentibus ſe præbet.* One's own language will come ſpontaneouſly. Not ſo the Latin, or any foreign language. And it would be imprudent to employ an age when the memory is moſt tenacious, and when the mind is confeſſedly beſt diſpoſed to acquire foreign languages, in learning what will come of itſelf, to the neglect of that which is highly valuable, and which, if neglected entirely in youth, is uſually neglected for life. They may indeed be ſtudied at the ſame time, and will be mutually aſſiſtant. In the mean time let all violations of grammar, and all vulgariſms, ſoleciſms, and barbariſms, in the converſation of boys, and alſo in their moſt familiar letters, be rigidly noticed and corrected.

To confirm their improvements in Engliſh, boys ſhould compoſe in it, as ſoon as they are capable of invention. Indeed, this is uſually done in public ſchools, and the advantages of it are univerſally felt, not only in the walks of learning, but in the mercantile and civil departments. Many boys go to public ſchools, who are deſigned for commercial life. The little Latin they learn by the age of thirteen or fourteen, when they ſometimes leave the ſchool for the accompting-houſe, may not be of great ſervice to them; but the habit of compoſing in Engliſh, will enable them to write letters with eaſe and with accuracy; an acquiſition for which they will be obliged to their ſchool as long as they live; an acquiſition, which will ſerve, diſtinguiſh, and adorn, them more than any of the accompliſhments which are merely ornamental. It is certainly proper to comprehend, in the plan of inſtruction in Engliſh, the doctrine of Engliſh verſification, as well as of proſaic compoſition. The various metres ſhould be explained; and ſuch a manner of reading them pointed out, as tends to diſplay their beauty and their melody. It may indeed be extremely advantageous to advance a ſtep higher, and endeavour to infuſe into the higher claſſes not only a grammatical, but a *critical* knowledge of the language, and its authors. To the ſenior boys the beauties and defects of ſtyle ſhould be ſhewn. The opinions of judicious critics on our poets, hiſtorians, orators, and moraliſts, ſhould be laid before them and diſcuſſed. They ſhould be taught, not to read every thing that falls into their hands, but to ſelect their books with judgment, and to aſſign the reaſons for their preference. They will thus acquire not only grammatical accuracy, but taſte; a quality, which will furniſh them, during life, with pleaſure pure and refined; to be able to reliſh which, beſides the exalted ſatisfaction of it, will characteriſe the true gentleman independently of fortune.

Young men who are deſigned for a commercial life, ſhould, with their Engliſh, be well inſtructed in the higher departments of arithmetic. This, we fear, is too much neglected in England, as being unconnected with the common views of a claſſical education, which is to inculcate the refined taſte and elevated ideas of the moſt renowned perſonages of the ancient ſchools. Arms and arts were the chief objects of attention in the ſchools of Rome; but Great-Britain, from her ſituation and connections, is naturally commercial. Commerce, with us, has acquired a dignity unknown in ancient times, and in other countries of Europe. They who have been engaged in it have added a grace to it by the liberality of their education and the generoſity of their minds. This has introduced them to the company of thoſe to whom their fortunes made them equal; and they have appeared in the ſenate, and in ſociety, with peculiar grace and importance.

The value of a legible and expeditious hand, and the utility of arithmetic as a ſcience, have never been fairly appreciated by claſſical teachers. Arithmetic, when ſtudied as a ſcience, and expanded by the rules of algebra, aſſumes new grace, and furniſhes a fine exerciſe for the mind in its favourite employment, the purſuit of truth. Herein we ſee the riſe of all the mathematical ſciences, ſo eſſential to a liberal education. Nor can we believe there is any one now, but muſt acknowledge that a mind, properly furniſhed with ſuch enlightened ſpeculations, is qualified to excel in every ſuperior ſcene of life. Far more honourable they ſurely are, than the arts of leaping a horſe, or of wielding a ſword; accompliſhments uſually aſſigned our youth of diſtinction, and for the ſake of which alone they are often ſent into diſtant countries, as if there were nothing to be taught them at home, nor any thing in a gentleman worth cultivating, but his body. We would not undervalue theſe bodily acquirements; for perfection of every ſort is certainly worth aiming at; but we would wiſh them to be rated as much below the mental, as the body itſelf is inferior to the ſoul. Facility in writing, and expertneſs in calculation, are abſolutely neceſſary to the merchant; and are highly uſeful to all. But theſe are not to form the whole education of a merchant, nor even the chief part of it. The propoſed end of a mercantile life is the accumulation of money. And what is the uſe of money but to contribute to the enjoyment of life? Yet a rich man, without liberal

ral ideas, and without ſome ſhare of learning, would be an unfit companion for thoſe in the rank to which he is advanced; a melancholy conſideration, that after all the toils and cares of buſineſs, when he has acquired a princely fortune, he muſt be excluded from the ſociety of men of equal condition, but ſuperior education, or appear ridiculous in it; that he muſt be unfit for parliamentary or civil employments, though the influence of money may procure him admiſſion to them all! Thoſe, therefore, who are intended for a genteel line of commercial purſuits, ſhould beſtow at leaſt as much attention on the cultivation of their minds, as on the mechanical attainments above-mentioned: and there is time enough for the accompliſhment of both purpoſes, in the courſe of an education properly conducted, and long enough continued.

We need not uſe argument in recommending the ſtudy of French and geography to the intended merchant. Their obvious utility is univerſally underſtood. It is well known, and much to be lamented, that the ſhafts of wit and ridicule have often been ſucceſsfully thrown at city magiſtrates, and other public characters, whoſe offices ought to ſecure reſpect. This unfortunate circumſtance has been entirely owing to that defect in their education, which their wealth could never compenſate. Parents, therefore, who educate their ſons for the accompting-houſe, ſhould recollect, that they are not to remain there always: but ſhould let their minds be early imbued with ſuch a portion of genuine and elegant learning, as will remain with them, and conſtitute them gentlemen, *whatever may be their employment*.

The French language, now ſo eſſential to the acquirements of every man of the world, as well as to the merchant, abounds with authors elegant, lively, learned, and claſſical. To be ignorant of it, is therefore to cut off a copious ſource of amuſement and information. Perhaps the greater number of parents wiſh their ſons to learn French, chiefly that they may be enabled to ſpeak the language. This is certainly a valuable attainment; but an ability to read and taſte the beauties of the celebrated French writers, is alſo highly valuable. To learn to ſpeak French with real elegance and with fluency, it will be neceſſary to give it great attention, or to reſide ſome time among the natives of France. To read it with eaſe and critical accuracy, may be ſoon acquired with moderate application; and it is, in every reſpect, a very eligible and valuable acquiſition. Italian is alſo very deſirable to a ſcholar; but it is not uſually taught in ſchools. He that underſtands French and Latin will ſoon be able to teach it himſelf, for it is very eaſy to read and underſtand it, if not to ſpeak it. Let the ſtudent read a chapter or two every other day, for two or three months, in an Italian Teſtament, and he will ſoon be able to read Guicciardini, and other introductory Italian authors.

The ornamental accompliſhments, ſo far as there is room for them without breaking in upon others, are not to be neglected in the regular courſe of a polite education. They furniſh engagement for the time; filling up the ſpaces which would be otherwiſe worſe employed, they find matter for the judgment to work upon, exerciſe the faculties, and keep them ſteady to one regular purſuit; they procure credit to the poſſeſſor, *make men ſociable by being able to give mutual entertainment*, and thereby introduce opportunities of doing one another more important ſervices, by bringing them into better confidence and knowledge of their reciprocal wants. Though they terminate only in pleaſure, yet the amuſements of life, when to be had without an after-reckoning, are an object well worth the ſtriving for. Boys therefore ſhould be taught to value external graces only in a ſubordinate degree; and great care ſhould be taken, that they may not be viewed in ſo favourable a light as to appear capable of becoming the ſubſtitutes of moral and intellectual excellence. When the boy is once taught to eſteem religion, learning, truth, benevolence, and a power of becoming uſeful to himſelf and others, as they ought to be eſteemed as qualities which do honour to human nature, and exceed all the little arts of pleaſing by external deportment, as much as a reaſonable nature exceeds the beſtial; then let him be introduced to the ſtudy of thoſe arts, whoſe true uſe and end are to make virtue appear ſtill more amiable. When we take a view of the ſeparate parts that conſtitute perſonal elegance, we immediately know the ſeeds that are proper to be cheriſhed in the infant mind, to bring forth the beauteous production. The virtues ſhould be cultivated early with ſacred care. Good-nature, modeſty, affability, and a kind concern for others, ſhould be carefully inculcated; and an eaſy unconſtrained dominion acquired by habit over the paſſions. A mind thus finely prepared, is capable of the higheſt luſtre of elegance; which is afterwards attained with as little labour as our firſt language, by only aſſociating with graceful people of different characters, from whom an habitual gracefulneſs will be acquired, that will bear the natural unaffected ſtamp of our own minds: in ſhort, it will be our own character and genius ſtripped of its native rudeneſs, and enriched with beauty and attraction. With theſe ideas in his mind, let the boy learn to dance. It will contribute to his health and to his growth. It will give the human form, in the embelliſhment of which nature has beſtowed peculiar care, the power of diſplaying its natural beauty and ſymmetry. It will ſtrengthen the limbs, and render them fit for their proper exertion. A ſkill in the art, independent of other advantages, is deſirable, as it enables young people to join in a diverſion, which, in decent company, is no leſs innocent than pleaſing.

Fencing, as a gymnaſtic art, is highly uſeful in ſtrengthening the body. In ſeveral walks of life, cuſtom hath rendered it eſſentially requiſite. If the ſcholar chooſes to purſue it, and has a convenient opportunity, he ſhould not neglect it; ſince it furniſhes an excellent mode of bodily exerciſe, after the labour of the mind in a ſedentary employment. The learning of the military exerciſe, which is now very common, is alſo, in ſeveral points of view, beneficial. It gives a manlineſs of mien, it renders the body erect, and the limbs robuſt; and it qualifies youth to defend their country in an effectual manner, when called out by an emergency. It may likewiſe have an indirect influence, in inſpiring manly ſentiments, and inſinuating a love of order.

Muſic furniſhes a ſweet amuſement to the man of letters. Boys are not often initiated in it at ſchools. With great propriety, they are uſually left to follow, in this particular, the impulſe of their genius or their inclination. Without the co-operation of theſe, no valuable proficiency is ever made in performing on a muſical inſtrument. Scarcely any art is purſued, *invitâ Minervâ*, or without a natural turn for it, ſo unſucceſsfully as muſic. And indeed to arrive at any great excellence in it, requires more time and attention, than can well be beſtowed by him who follows any other purſuit with ardour. The lover of muſic, who has full employment of another kind, and who has not any very remarkable degree of genius for muſic, ſhould content himſelf with hearing ſkilful performers; opportunities for which abound in this cultivated age and nation.

Drawing is frequently taught at ſchools; not often with any ſingular ſucceſs. It is, however, a very convenient as well as agreeable accompliſhment; and, where a genius for it evidently appears, no care ſhould be ſpared in its cultivation. In general, whatever ornamental accompliſhments the ſtudent may wiſh to purſue, he ſhould call to mind what has often been repeated with a ſigh, that life is ſhort, and art long. A paſſion which parents of the preſent age are apt to run into is, to make children learn all things; the languages, the ſciences; muſic, the exerciſes, and painting. Thus the child ſoon becomes a talker in all, but a maſter in none. He thus acquires a ſuperficial fondneſs for every thing, and only ſhews his

ignorance, when he attempts to exhibit his ſkill. Much time and much attention muſt not therefore be beſtowed, in the contracted ſpace of human life, on objects which afford no permanent pleaſure, and no real advantage of any kind to the individual, or to ſociety. It is indeed far better to conſume time in employments merely innocent, than in vice or in malignant actions: but true, permanent, and heart-felt, happineſs is to be derived from a benevolent conduct, and from uſeful exertions. Ornamental qualifications, and amuſing attainments, may pleaſe, indeed, during a ſhort period of youth; but, alas! the old age, which has no more than theſe to ſupport and recommend it, would be ridiculouſly contemptible, if it were not truly pitiable. Men are too little inclined to look ſo far before them, and to provide for that period, which, if it is deſtitute of rational amuſement, and of ſolid improvements, muſt be ſpent either in a ſtate of ſtupid inſenſibility, or in wretchedneſs. If the antediluvian duration of life ſtill continued, what accompliſhment is there at which an ingenuous mind would not aſpire? But to ſpend the greateſt portion of threeſcore years and ten, in trifling or uſeleſs purſuits, is pitiable folly.

Introducing boys into company, and inſiſting too much on the ſhining and external accompliſhments, is a faſhionable error with many parents. When leſs attention was paid to thoſe exterior accompliſhments which qualify young men to bear a part in the converſation of their ſeniors, when they were kept cloſe at ſchool, and were ſeldom brought into company, or at leaſt allowed to ſay but little in company, ſo that they had but little ſociety except with their parents and ſchool-fellows, they contracted a baſhfulneſs, which, by diſqualifying them from appearing to advantage in what is called polite company, made them rather ſhun it. By this means a great deal of very valuable time was ſaved; and having no road of ambition open to them, but that of excelling in their ſtudies, they of courſe applied their time, and bent their application, that way; ſo that they were poſſeſſed of the underſtanding, and had acquired the knowledge, of men, when they exhibited nothing but the appearance of boys. Of theſe two extremes, bringing them too early and too much into mixed company, or keeping them entirely out of it, we rather prefer the latter than the former; becauſe external accompliſhments are certainly of leſs value than internal ones, and becauſe the former can be acquired when the latter cannot. The elements of knowledge can only be acquired to any good purpoſe in early life, becauſe they depend chiefly on memory, which is peculiarly quick and retentive in youth, and the exerciſe of it is peculiarly irkſome in riper years.

At a very early age, the pupil ſhould be introduced to a knowledge of geography. The uſe of maps ſhould be familiarly explained; and then the pupil will be well able to inform himſelf of the ſituation of principal places, and of ſuch as occur moſt frequently in reading the claſſics and the Roman hiſtorians. Ancient geography ſhould at firſt engroſs his attention. The ſame method ſhould ſoon after be uſed, to introduce him to a general idea of the modern. The facility and the uſe of this ſcience, will induce the judicious ſtudent to make a great progreſs in it. He will therefore ſtudy modern geography, even with more accuracy than the ancient. Frequent and attentive inſpection of maps will avail him moſt in this purſuit, throughout all its parts. There is a great abundance of treatiſes on this eaſy ſcience. Cellarius ſhould be given to the ſchool-boy as a guide to ancient geography; and Pinkerton as a guide to modern. In that new and accurate compilation he will find a great number of particulars, not merely geographical, which ought to be known to every individual. Though d'Anville's Geography is ſeldom uſed in ſchools, yet the ſcholar ought to be informed, that his maps are held in the higheſt eſteem. Their price alone prevents them from being univerſally received. Mathematical geography, or that part of it which is connected with aſtronomy, may be deferred till the pupil arrives at a maturer age, unleſs he diſplays a very early genius and inclination for mathematics. The drawing of maps, and other minute labours in the purſuit of geography, may be deſirable to a perſon who is deſigned for ſome employment connected with ſurveying or navigation, but are an unneceſſary toil to the liberal ſcholar.

With reſpect to mathematical ſcience, and thoſe which depend upon it, they cannot often be purſued at claſſical ſchools, conſiſtently with other ſtudies more immediately neceſſary in early youth. Perhaps they ought to be attended to at the univerſity, rather than at ſchool. Aſtronomy, and natural and experimental philoſophy in all its branches, will alſo be more properly comprehended in the courſe of academical ſtudies. The laws of England muſt alſo be comprehended among the academical purſuits. The excellent inſtitution of the Vinerian profeſſorſhip is a noble acquiſition to the glories of Oxford. But Blackſtone's Commentaries, the firſt fruits of that eſtabliſhment, have almoſt rendered ſubſequent lectures unneceſſary. Theſe well read will be quite ſufficient for the liberal ſcholar, who ſtudies not the ſubject with a view to qualify himſelf for a practical profeſſion. The lectures read in the univerſities on mathematical ſubjects, are admirably well fitted to accompliſh the ingenious pupil in theſe delightful and improving ſciences. In thoſe places, a large and coſtly apparatus is always at hand, and the profeſſors who read lectures, are, for the moſt part, men of great and ſolid merit, with little oſtentation. Yet if a boy has a peculiar turn for mathematics, it ſhould be early cultivated; as, indeed, ſhould all very predominant tendencies to peculiar excellence. Intervals may be found, in a courſe of claſſical ſtudy, for improvement in mathematical knowledge; and Euclid's Elements will very ſucceſsfully prepare the way for a future progreſs in the univerſity. Theſe elements, it has been well obſerved, conſtitute the beſt introduction to rational logic, or the art of reaſoning juſtly and accurately in life and in learning. As matters of taſte, they alſo form moſt delightful ſubjects; for intellectual truth is the moſt beautiful object which the mind can contemplate.

But it muſt be remembered, that the moſt important views in education are to open the mind for the reception of general knowledge, and to prepare it, in particular, for the reception of that ſpecies and degree of knowledge which is required in the ſphere deſtined for the exertion of its activity. It is not the buſineſs of the ſchool to complete, but to prepare. Thoſe inſtructors therefore do well, who point out the various avenues of learning, and, by leading their pupils into each, enable them to proceed alone in the years of maturity. As many avenues as can well be comprehended, without impeding the progreſs of the ſcholar, muſt be opened for his view, and for his admiſſion. Among theſe, hiſtory is with great propriety included. But it is a moſt extenſive field; and great care muſt be taken leſt the boy ſhould be diſcouraged and confuſed by the immenſity of the proſpect. His attention ſhould be confined to the more ſtriking parts of ancient hiſtory, and to that of his own country. But particular regard ſhould be paid to the Greek and Roman hiſtories, not only for the neceſſary and ornamental knowledge which they furniſh, but alſo for the noble, manly, and generous, ſentiments which they tend to inſpire. He who, in his early age, has been taught to ſtudy and revere the characters of the ſages, heroes, ſtateſmen, and philoſophers, who adorn the annals of Greece and Rome, will neceſſarily imbibe the moſt liberal notions. He will catch a portion of that generous enthuſiaſm, which has warmed the hearts, and directed the conduct, of the benefactors and ornaments of the human race.

There has long been a juſt complaint that men, whoſe attainments in learning have rendered them highly reſpectable, have not been able to diſplay their knowledge with any great credit to themſelves, or advantage to others,

from a defect or a fault in their mode of elocution. It is therefore become a very desirable object in education to enable boys to speak well. If the boy is designed for the church, or the law, it is absolutely necessary. If he is designed for no particular profession, yet a clear and correct utterance is a valuable acquisition. A part of the time spent at school should always be devoted to the pursuit of this useful, elegant, and manly, accomplishment. The proper mode, then, of pursuing it, is all that claims our present examination. At the age of thirteen, provided the boy is sufficiently advanced in the classics, he should enter on the art of speaking. There are many books written on it, and many rules are usually given to the student, previously to his entrance on the practice. Natural sense and natural taste, a good ear, and well-formed organs of speech, under the guidance of a skilful instructor, will effectually accomplish this purpose, without any painful attention to dry and unentertaining rules of art, which often give an appearance of difficulty to pursuits in themselves easy and pleasant.

Once in every week, scholars of the age and qualifications already specified, should rehearse, in the hearing of all the boys in a school, seated in form as auditors, some celebrated passage from Demosthenes, Plato, Homer, Cicero, Livy, Virgil, Milton, Shakespeare, Pope, or Addison. We totally disapprove the practice of school-boys' speaking their own declamations; unless it be occasionally, and as an honorary reward for a good composition. A fine piece of writing contributes greatly to facilitate a fine utterance. Few boys can write such a Latin or English declamation as is proper to display, to advantage, the graces of elocution. It may also be noted, that learning by heart the most beautiful passages of the finest authors, is a very great collateral advantage attending the study of the art of speaking. The first object is, to habituate the scholar to speak slowly and distinctly. Let some months be employed in obtaining these primary and important points; for a flow and distinct utterance is a valuable attainment. One of the best methods of introducing it, is, to insist, during the exercise, that every syllable, but especially the last, shall clearly, and almost separately, strike the ear. Boys are apt to drop the last syllable. They must not however dwell upon it too long. Caution is necessary, to prevent the slow and distinct manner from degenerating to the heavy and the sluggish. But this seldom happens. Boys of parts are generally too voluble: they oftener want the bridle than the spur. During this process, all monotony, and, indeed, all disagreeable tones whatever, must be carefully corrected. For if they are suffered to grow into a habit, the difficulty of removing them becomes great indeed. When a slow and distinct utterance is thus obtained, the graces of elocution will claim the pupil's attention. And here let the instructor carefully avoid teaching a bold, an affected, and a theatrical, manner. Modesty, whatever some injudicious parents may think, is one of the most becoming graces of a boy. When he speaks in public, it is one of the finest rhetorical ornaments that can be used. The best writers on the subject of rhetoric have prescribed the appearance of modesty, even in men. It is not therefore wonderful, that the want of it in boys (and it must always be wanting where a theatrical manner is adopted) should give disgust. A loud rant, and a violent tone of voice, can never please in a boy, unless, indeed, he is acting a play. But as few boys are sent to school to be prepared for a theatrical life, the theatrical manner ought to be exploded from the schools. The classical manner should alone prevail in every seminary devoted to ancient learning; for there, if ancient learning is properly understood and cultivated, taste and grace in speaking must prevail.

It is usual in many schools to act English plays. The exercise may possibly improve the boys in utterance, but there are many inconveniences attending it. The various preparations, and the rehearsals, break in greatly upon the time which ought to be spent in classical and grammatical study. Nor is the loss of time the only evil. The boy's attention becomes engrossed by his part, which he is to perform before a large and mixed audience. The hope of applause, the dread of disgrace, all conspire to captivate his imagination, and to make him lay aside his lexicon and grammar. Some moral corruption may also arise from several circumstances unavoidable in the representation. The theatrical mode of speaking, too, which has been acquired by it, has seldom pleased good judges. Perhaps some improvement may arise from acting a play of Terence or Sophocles; but it cannot be desirable, that a boy should acquire that love and habit of declaiming, which may introduce him to spouting-clubs or disputing societies. Nor can it be supposed, that elegance of style, of sentiment, or of utterance, is often found in such unselected associations.

Having rejected the forward, the pompous, and the declamatory, style, the pupil should aim at the classical: we mean a clear, distinct, emphatic, and elegant, utterance, without affectation. To a vulgar and an illiterate audience, however, vehemence of action, and loudness of voice, often appear more truly eloquent than the graceful oratory of an Athenian. To speak well, depends more on the corporal endowments, than many other accomplishments. Whatever learning and judgment the mind may have acquired, yet unless nature has formed the organs of speech in perfection, and unless she has given a considerable degree of bodily strength to the student, he will seldom become a distinguished speaker. Art and care may, however, assist him; and, if they enable him to speak slowly and distinctly, they will have done him great service. To constitute a distinguished orator, Nature must have done much more than have furnished perfect organs of speech. She must have given exquisite sensibility. This, with cultivation under an instructor, who likewise possesses both sensibility and perfect organs, will infallibly produce that noble accomplishment which has charmed mankind, and occasioned some of the greatest events in their history. This invaluable acquisition should therefore be sedulously pursued by all who are designed to fill that office, which is instituted to instruct their fellow-creatures in moral and religious truth. The neglect of this important part of education has brought the regular professors of religion into contempt among the lower orders of the people; among those who, for want of other opportunities, stand most in need of instruction from the pulpit. It has given a great advantage to the sectaries, and persons irregularly educated, who spare no endeavours to acquire that forcible and serious kind of delivery, which powerfully affects the devout mind. The consequence is natural, though lamentable. Tabernacles are crowded, and churches deserted. This is the first and most to be regretted *evil* of a partial or inadequate progress in the powers of elocution. The next is the depravation in the present state of the eloquence of the bar. With sorrow be it spoken, that this profession has greatly degenerated from that liberal oratory which immortalized a Cicero, and which was designed to defend the cause of the fatherless and the widow, and to protect the injured, by lending truth the assistance of abilities. Instead of this noble exertion of the oratorical powers, we now too commonly see indelicacy and want of candour mark the modern pleader. The unmanly advantage too which he takes of his situation, to make free with respectable characters, often degrades him below the rank of a scholar, a man of humanity, a Christian, and a gentleman.

A good education commonly inspires a good *taste*; or that delicate faculty which is sensibly delighted with all that is beautiful and sublime, and disgusted with all that is coarse or inelegant. To read without taste, is like travelling through a delightful country, without remarking the richness and variety of the prospects. From such an excursion, more fatigue must arise than pleasure. Indeed, the classics are entirely the objects of taste; and he who

who reads them without it, miſpends his time. Hence the neceſſity of cultivating this amiable quality; and we believe that all men, not remarkably deficient in intellect, are by nature furniſhed with ſo much of this diſcerning power as eaſily to admit of valuable improvement. Even they who poſſeſs the fineſt natural ſenſibility of literary beauty and deformity, will find their taſte greatly improved by proper cultivation. It is certain, that, if from ſome unfortunate circumſtance, it happens that a mind endowed with this natural power in a remarkable degree, is confined in a youthful age to bad models or injudicious inſtructors, it will ſcarcely ever arrive at that perfection, of which nature gave it a capacity. Rules, therefore, and precautions, are often found uſeful. In this place, however, it will be only neceſſary to give one general rule. It is, that from the age of nine to nineteen, the pupil be not permitted to read any book whatever, which is not univerſally known and allowed to be written according to the moſt approved and claſſical taſte. At an early age, the mental like the animal taſte delights in that improper food, from which it is more likely to derive an atrophy, than to acquire nouriſhment. But when, during ten of the moſt ſuſceptible years, none but the beſt models are preſented to the mental eye, it muſt perceive, and learn to admire, the form of beauty. The buſineſs will alſo be greatly facilitated, if the inſtructor feels the excellencies which he reads with his pupil, and poſſeſſes the talent of impreſſing them upon him in a lively and forcible manner. If he is not remarkably happy in ſenſibility, yet if the pupil is ſo, the end will often be accompliſhed; for the beauties of the truly claſſical writer are ſuch, as to make their own way to the feelings of the ſenſible. Let them but be well underſtood, and kept conſtantly before him, and the taſte muſt be improved.

Boys ſometimes, from a redundancy of imagination, as well as a deficiency of judgment, are apt to admire too much the florid ſtyle of compoſition. In their imitation of it, they commonly fall into the turgid and bombaſt. Whenever this appears in a theme, or copy of verſes, let ſome paſſage be read on a ſimilar ſubject, if it can be found, from the works of a Pope, an Addiſon, or any other juſtly admired writer. They will ſoon ſee the deformity of their own ſtyle, when contraſted with theſe. But care ſhould be taken, that a boy be not diſcouraged; for his fault is the ebullition of genius. A dull boy cannot riſe to ſo elevated an error. Let the pupils, if poſſible, be led to an elegant ſimplicity in manner, dreſs, and ſentiment, as well as criticiſm and compoſition. Let them be taught, that though falſe and glaring ornaments, in all theſe, may attract momentary and ſuperficial admiration, yet that valuable and permanent gracefulneſs is the reſult of an adherence to truth and nature. Falſe and affected taſte involves its poſſeſſor in ridicule. But true taſte, the reſult of fine feelings and a cultivated underſtanding, opens the ſource of a thouſand pleaſures unknown to the vulgar, and adds the laſt poliſh and moſt brilliant luſtre to the human intellect. Study without taſte, is often irkſome labour; with taſte, it confers a happineſs beyond the reach of fortune, and ſuperior to the ordinary condition of humanity.

To the boy whoſe lot may be to poſſeſs a fortune, which his friends wiſh him to adorn, and to him who is deſigned for a profeſſion, we ſtrongly recommend the cultivation of a poetical talent, if he really poſſeſſes it from nature. Though he ſhould never arrive at any very diſtinguiſhed eminence in poetical compoſition, yet the attempt, while he is at ſchool, will add an elegance to his mind, and naturally lead him to give a cloſer attention to the beauties of the claſſical poets. It will not be a painful taſk. It will be his moſt delightful amuſement. It will give him ſpirits in his purſuits: for poetry, like muſic, is one of the ſweeteſt relaxations of a learned life. The moſt ſucceſsful method we imagine to be the following: Let a living inſtructor, of taſte and judgment, ſelect proper paſſages from the moſt approved poets, and at firſt read them with the pupil. After this preparatory diſcipline, which needs not to be continued long, let the works of Milton, Shakeſpeare, and Pope, be given to him. He will improve himſelf by reading them, more than by any inſtructor with the moſt learned precepts. No other reſtraint is neceſſary, than to confine his attention for a conſiderable time to theſe great poets. Many a fine genius is lowered and ſpoiled, by attending to the little trifling compoſitions which are to be found in abundance in many of our modern miſcellanies. The *mediocres poetæ*, or the poetaſters, muſt by no means be read while the judgment is immature. The young mind is prone to imitate bad models in literature, as well as in life. The faireſt forms of things muſt be preſented to the eye of imitative genius, and a veil drawn over deformity.

One of the prime objects of a parent and an inſtructor, ſhould likewiſe be, to cauſe in a child ſuch an aſſociation of ideas as ſhall connect pleaſures, honours, and rewards, with the idea of that purſuit which is to be the purſuit of life. This end may be eaſily obtained, if the ſuperintendant of the child repreſents the object in its faireſt form, and at the ſame time vigilantly takes care, leſt the impreſſion, once recived, be effaced by the company of ignorant aſſociates. The child is deſigned to ſupport the character of the ſcholar and the gentleman, whatever may be his engagements in ſocial life. Never let his book be ſpoken of ſo as to convey the leaſt idea of diſagreeable labour. Let it be repreſented as the ſource of amuſement, fame, profit, and of every thing deſirable. It muſt be owned, great judgment and attention, much knowledge of the emotions of the human heart, conſtant vigilance, unwearied patience, and a natural talent for the buſineſs, are required to regulate the mind of a child at that very early period when ideas firſt ruſh into the ſenſorium. All theſe qualities are required in a greater degree than they are often found. Wrong aſſociations are therefore formed; and it becomes a great part of the buſineſs of a preceptor to remedy in future what it could not prevent.

At the age of ten or twelve, the taſk may be more eaſy. The mind is then not merely paſſive. It can cooperate voluntarily with its inſtructor, in rejecting, according to the dictates of judgment, all improper aſſociations of ideas, and in ſelecting all ſuch as are deſirable. At that time, then, if it cannot be accompliſhed before, the pupil ſhould be impreſſed with every idea which can render an eminence in literature amiable and honourable. In the firſt place, let him feel his chief pleaſures ariſing from his little performances in letters, whatever they may be. When he does well, let him be careſſed and rewarded; not only by his tutor or maſter, but by all who have any intercourſe with him. If he is ingenuous enough to be ſenſibly touched with praiſe, the buſineſs is half completed. The parent may congratulate himſelf. He has nothing to do but to beſtow it with judgment. The pupil's little heart will exult to receive it, and all his faculties will expand themſelves to deſerve it. The boy ſhould be taught by common converſation, not by formal precept only, to conſider greatneſs of mind as the only true grandeur, and the poſſeſſion of knowledge as the moſt ornamental accompliſhment. Not only the father, but the females of a family, if they have judgment enough for the purpoſe, muſt concur in impreſſing on the young mind ideas of literary excellence. It too often unfortunately happens, that without intending the injury, they undo all the labour of an aſſiduous inſtructor. An attention to cards, to dreſs, to faſhion, to thoſe ſcenes which perſons engaged with the world cannot eaſily avoid, will not only obliterate from the puerile mind all virtuous and deſirable ideas, but will often render it incapable of their future reception. If the idea of excellence, applauſe, and happineſs, is aſſociated with vanity in the infantine age, vanity will be purſued in manhood.

Another excellent method of inſpiring the pupil with an emulation to excel in letters, is to accuſtom him to read biography. The lives of our great poets, divines, hiſtorians, and eminent writers of every denomination, ſhould be ſelected for this purpoſe. The eulogia which are uſually paſſed on them, and which they deſerve, will fire a young mind with an ardent deſire to tread in their footſteps. If the boy can be introduced at a proper age to the company of ſome celebrated literary character, it will greatly contribute to raiſe and ſuſtain this deſirable emulation. He ſhould be taught to wiſh for the honour of ſuch an interview, and to look upon any notice taken of him by ſuch a perſon, as a noble diſtinction. At the revival of learning, it is amazing with what eagerneſs even the ſight of a man of eminent learning was ſought for by the ſtudious. They ran in crowds to meet him; and any attention paid by him to an individual, conferred an enviable happineſs. The conſequence was, that the youth who were devoted to learning, purſued it with a vigour and perſeverance which aſtoniſhes the preſent age of indolence. It was the honour and the reſpect, in which the perſons of eminent ſcholars were held, which diffuſed a generous ardour in the purſuit of letters, and produced ſtupendous effects. If that honour and reſpect is excluſively paid to rank and opulence, however ignorant and undeſerving, it is no wonder that the liberal purſuits are found to languiſh. After the important point is gained, of making the pupil feel the love of letters, and an ambition for literary fame, improvement is ſecured. He will make his own way, even under diſadvantages; but with encouragements, aſſiſtances, and opportunities, he can ſcarcely fail of arriving at, what few reach, diſtinguiſhed excellence.

On no account let a teacher excuſe the want of cloſe application. If the pupil has genius, this will improve and adorn it; if he has not, it is confeſſedly requiſite to ſupply the defect. Thoſe prodigies of genius which require not inſtruction, are rare phenomena: we read, and we hear of ſuch; but few of us have ſeen and known them. What is genius worth without knowledge? But is a man ever born with knowledge? It is true, that one man is born with a better capacity than another, for the reception and retention of ideas; but ſtill the mind muſt operate in collecting, diſcriminating, and arranging, thoſe ideas, which cannot be done effectually, without great and exemplary diligence. All that is excellent in learning depends upon it. And how can the time of a young man be better employed? It cannot be more pleaſantly; for induſtry, by preſenting a conſtant ſucceſſion of various objects, and by precluding the liſtleſſneſs of inaction, renders life at all ſtages of it agreeable, and particularly ſo in the reſtleſs ſeaſon of youth. It cannot be more innocently; for learning has a connection with virtue; and he whoſe time is fully engaged, will eſcape many vices and much miſery. It cannot be more uſefully; for he who furniſhes his mind with ideas, and ſtrengthens his faculties, is preparing himſelf to become a valuable member of ſociety, whatever place in it he may obtain; and he may be likely to obtain an exalted place: the high road to which is early riſing, and an uninterrupted application in the morning.

Improvement will alſo be greatly accelerated, if the ſtudent can be induced to devote the leiſure hours which his private tutor, or his maſter at ſchool, allows him, to private reading. At the age, then, of twelve or thirteen, let a few Engliſh books of repute be put into his hands. They ſhould be entertaining, or they will not at firſt excite his attention. They ſhould at the ſame time be claſſical, or have ſome connection with real and valuable knowledge, or they will only diſſipate his ideas, and impede his progreſs in the more eſſential purſuits. There is, however, hardly any innocent book which affords him entertainment, which will not, at the ſame time, in ſome reſpect improve him. No book can be more properly recommended at firſt, than Addiſon's Spectator. It abounds with entertainment. It furniſhes a great variety of ideas on men, manners, and learning; and the moral and religious principles it unfolds, are well adapted to tincture the young mind with the love of all that is amiable, uſeful, and innocent. Other books ſhould be allowed, at the diſcretion of a judicious ſuperintendant. New books, and the works of contemporary writers, are found to attach the mind with peculiar energy.. Hiſtorical books are highly proper; and poetry ſhould likewiſe be read at that early age, when the feelings and the imagination are all alive. No young man can ſupport with honour his character as a claſſical ſcholar, without an acquaintance with the fineſt writers of his own country, who have rivalled the moſt admired of the ancients. But theſe cannot be read, conſiſtently with purſuits more immediately neceſſary, in the ſchool, and under the eye of the inſtructor. They ſhould therefore form the amuſement of leiſure hours, and muſt be read from choice. All that the maſter and the private tutor can do in this buſineſs, if he attends to the more eſſential points, is to recommend private application, and point out the moſt expedient authors.

When the boy ſhall have arrived at the age of fifteen, and at the improvements adequate to the age, it will be highly advantageous to prevail with him to read in private, not only Engliſh, but alſo ſome eaſy Latin book. Time and habit will render it no more difficult than to read Engliſh; and the improvement in Latin will be ſoon found much greater than that which would be derived from reading it only in a ſchool, or with a private tutor. Three things are requiſite, whatever Latin book ſhall be at firſt ſelected, viz. a pure diction, an entertaining ſubject, and a perſpicuous ſtyle. When facility is gained in reading Latin, the ſtudent will of himſelf aſcend to Cicero, Terence, Livy, and all thoſe excellent writers, whom the world has long agreed to admire. When a great degree of claſſical improvement is ſecured, one or two of the beſt romances and novels may be read, for the ſake of acquainting the ſtudent with the nature of this kind of writing. *Omnes deguſtandi*, all authors are to be taſted in the courſe of a literary life; but during education, only the beſt. To form a ſound and good judgment is of the higheſt conſequence. Judgment contributes more to public and private good than genius. Let the boy's judgment then be exerciſed and ſtrengthened by being early habituated to the work of ſelection. Let him be taught to chooſe the beſt authors, and always to give reaſons for his choice. This will improve his judgment in the conduct of life; without which, parts and learning often ſerve only to precipitate ruin.

Amidſt the number of facilitating contrivances, and the various aids afforded by opulence, the mind is not ſufficiently allowed to exert its native powers. The toil of thinking is too frequently thrown upon the preceptor and the formal lecturer. Thus it happens, that many who attend lectures wherever they are to be heard, and purchaſe the aſſiſtance of thoſe who profeſs to afford it, are often, after all, leſs learned than others, who, without ſuch apparent advantages, have forced their way up to the moſt arduous heights, by native vigour and perſevering aſſiduity. Indeed, nothing is more abſurd than the common notion of inſtruction, as if ſcience were to be poured into the mind like water into a ciſtern, that paſſively waits to receive all that comes. The growth of knowledge reſembles the growth of fruit: however external cauſes may in ſome degree co-operate, it is the internal vigour and virtue of the tree that muſt ripen the juices to their full maturity.

Yet many perſons have paſſed through a ſchool, without exhibiting either inclination or ability for literary purſuits, who have afterwards ſhone in the republic of letters with diſtinguiſhed luſtre. The faculties of their minds have expanded at a later period than common, or peculiar occaſions have occurred to excite their induſtry and emulation. Others there are, who never were placed

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at a claſſical ſchool, and have either not had, or have not availed themſelves, of other opportunities of improvement; but who, when their judgment is matured by obſervation and experience, earneſtly wiſh and endeavour to furniſh themſelves with the learning of a gentleman. They often miſcarry in their attempt, not from want of aſſiduity or of perſeverance, but from ignorance of the proper method. The firſt great error of ſtudents of this deſcription is, that they read in a deſultory manner, every thing which falls in their way. They begin with complete and extenſive treatiſes, when they ſhould proceed gradually from elementary introductions. They are uſually unacquainted with proper editions of books, and often ſpend much time and attention on publications, which, when compared with original compoſitions, are contemptible both in ſtile and in matter. They often confine their attention to Engliſh books; from an idea, that the languages are not to be learned by an adult. The conſequence of their miſtakes is, that their conceptions, though multiplied by reading, are confuſed and imperfect, and though they find amuſement from it, they derive but little ſolid advantage.

If ſuch men ſeriouſly wiſh not merely to divert themſelves with books, but to make a progreſs in learning, they muſt reſolve to read methodically; nor let any temptation interrupt their plan. They will do right to diveſt themſelves of that vulgar prejudice, which repreſents it as an inſurmountable difficulty to begin a language, or an art or ſcience, at the age of manhood. To be under the influence of this opinion, will be an effectual bar to their advancement. Let them rather call to mind the many inſtances of great improvements made in the ſciences, by thoſe who did not begin to cultivate them till they were arrived at a middle age. Hiſtory and biography furniſh numerous examples of men who have begun to ſtudy in old age, and have yet made a great proficiency. The injury which the health, the eyes, and the ſpirits, unavoidably ſuſtain from a long continuance of nocturnal ſtudies, ſhould induce every perſon to avoid the lucubrations of midnight. Early riſing contributes to health and cheerfulneſs, while it furniſhes the fineſt opportunities for ſtudy.

It is not uncommon to find perſons, who, though they have been good ſcholars at their ſchool, and have made a great proficiency in learning in the juvenile age, have forgotten it amidſt the pleaſure and the buſineſs of an active manhood. When the buſy ſcene is paſſed, they call to mind thoſe ſweets of literary purſuits which they formerly enjoyed, and wiſh to taſte them once more. They are at a loſs for ſomething to fill agreeably thoſe vacuities of time, which were lately occupied in active employments. They therefore endeavour to recal what they acquired in their youth. Perhaps the beſt advice which can be given to perſons under theſe circumſtances, is, that they purſue the eaſieſt, the moſt entertaining, and the moſt compendious methods. Difficulty will diſguſt and impede them. Amuſement is the end propoſed by them; and the means which lead to it muſt, if poſſible, be rendered amuſing. As they have once been acquainted with the elementary parts, they will recollect what is eſſential in them without much labour. If they wiſh, for inſtance, to recal their knowledge of Latin, they ſhould begin at once with reading an eaſy author, and gradually aſcend to the higheſt claſſics. If they poſſeſs natural abilities, they will find themſelves improve by this method with great rapidity.

But in general, though not without many exceptions, it would perhaps be better for perſons advanced beyond the meridian of life, not to attempt learning, or recovering what they have forgotten, in the Latin or the Greek languages. Amuſement is their principal object, and they may derive it in ſufficient variety in Engliſh. But in Engliſh they ſhould read with ſome method, and not, as is uſually the caſe, whatever offers itſelf, without taſte and ſelection. The pleaſure which ariſes from reading, and feeling the beauties of elegant works, is much greater than is received by an indiſcriminate and vague peruſal of every publication. Improvement ought alſo to be regarded; and ſurely more improvement, whether it be moral or intellectual, is to be derived from books of character, than from trifling, obſcure, and injudicious, compilations. Upon the whole, we cannot but earneſtly recommend to all claſſes above poverty, and the lower employments of trade and mechanics, the cultivation of a taſte for letters. Merchants and traders, even if, from unavoidable circumſtances, they have been neglected in their youth, ſhould endeavour, at a ſubſequent period, to acquire a love of reading. Retirement is their object. But how are they to enjoy this retirement? They promiſe themſelves much happineſs, but, alas! they ſeldom find it. They know not how to paſs that time, which was before ſcarcely ſufficient for their occupations. They have recourſe to the bottle and to cards. Theſe, indeed, prevent reflection for a time; but they often afford no ſolid ſatisfaction. How happy would they paſs their days of eaſe and affluence, if the tranquil purſuits of literature formed a part of their amuſement. The conſideration, that a taſte for letters is able to furniſh one of the beſt pleaſures of old age, ſhould induce parents of all ranks above the loweſt, to give children a tincture of polite learning, whatever may be their deſtination. If they are fixed in trade, and are ſucceſsful, this will enable them to enjoy a fortune. It will fill up their leiſure with ſatisfactory employment, and will better enable them to ſupport the character of gentlemen, than the opulence which gives them the name.

With reſpect to external behaviour, a ſubject on which ſo much has been lately written, the ſtudent who values the approbation of his own heart, will ever let SINCERITY be the principal of his converſation. Notwithſtanding what many urge on the art of pleaſing, a behaviour void of *artifice* will ultimately beſt pleaſe the poſſeſſor of it, and thoſe with whom he converſes throughout life. Let the ſtudent chooſe good company, with good nature, good ſenſe, and ſpirit to retort the malignant ſhafts of the ignorant, the forward, the vain, and the envious, and he will ſoon make a reſpectable figure in ſociety. Let him learn to appreciate his own value, and modeſtly aſſume his natural rank, and he will become both agreeable and eſtimable, though he ſhould never practiſe either ſimulation or diſſimulation. Deceit of any kind argues a mean and cowardly heart. It will ſoon or late be certainly detected, and when detected it muſt be deſpiſed. But the liberal ſtudent, in his intercourſe with the world, ſhould think, ſpeak, and act, nothing which is not laudable; nothing which will not bear the broadeſt daylight, and acquire a luſtre from being rendered conſpicuous. And on this ground he ought to be cautioned againſt the itch of ſcribbling, or the love of writing without the pain of thinking. Let him never take the pen in hand, nor place the paper before him, till he has beſtowed much time, and deep thought, on the ſubject which he is about to write and publiſh. To the want of this previous attention we owe the numerous productions which diſgrace letters, and die almoſt as ſoon as they are brought forth; which, like the weeds in a garden, ſpring up luxuriantly without cultivation, and only ſerve to impede the growth of ſalutary plants and pleaſant flowers. Pretenders ariſe in every department, and diſgrace it: but let the liberal and ſolid ſcholar attend to the circumſtances of time and place, in the modeſt diſplay of his attainments. It is unmanly to conceal them on proper occaſions; it is arrogance to obtrude them upon unwilling and injudicious obſervers. Modeſty is the characteriſtic of real merit, and firmneſs of conſcious dignity. The man of ſenſe will be diffident, but at the ſame time will have ſpirit to repel the inſolent attacks of ignorance and envy.

Public examinations, in our great ſchools, are highly expedient in facilitating the progreſs of education. They have of late been eſtabliſhed in many colleges; and the

ſame ſalutary conſequences will flow from the practice, if it ſhould be imitated in all the nurſeries to the univerſity. A maſter cannot beſtow an hourly attention on the younger ſcholars of a large ſeminary. It is certain, that the firſt elements may be even better taught by diligent aſſiſtants of inferior learning and abilities. Patience, attention, and temper, are the principal qualities required in teaching the accidence; for the method will be preſcribed by the book itſelf, or by the ſuperintendant. But it is indiſpenſably requiſite, that the maſter ſhould examine every claſs at leaſt once in a fortnight. The conſciouſneſs that an account is to be given of the degree of improvement made within a limited time, will cauſe a greater degree of diligence both in the ſcholars and in the aſſiſtants. Periodical examinations at ſhort intervals, will cauſe the mind to retain what it receives. The mind is prone to indolence, and will ſuffer that to eſcape, which no immediate hopes or fears induce it to preſerve. But when it foreſees the certainty of a ſtrict enquiry into its acquiſitions, it will not only retain much which it would otherwiſe loſe, but will retain it with accuracy. Periodical examinations alſo furniſh occaſion for the diſplay of excellence, and will conſequently excite a deſire to make a good appearance. Praiſes, rewards, diſgrace, and puniſhment, beſtowed as they are reſpectively merited, in the ſight of the whole ſchool, will have a better effect than when given ſeparately, and in private.

By being accuſtomed to give unpremeditated reſponſes to unexpected interrogations, the mind will acquire thoſe valuable habits, a quickneſs of recollection, and a readineſs of reply. So many, and ſo important, are the beneficial effects of this practice, that we might confidently recommend it to all, as ſecuring and increaſing valuable improvement in every ſtage of the ſcholar's progreſs, and in every part of his purſuits, while under ſcholaſtic or academical authority.

Much has been ſaid and written on the exerciſes and diverſions of a ſchool during the allotted hours of relaxation. Boys are under great reſtraint and confinement in the time of ſtudy. In the intervals of application, therefore, they ſhould have every indulgence conſiſtent with moral and perſonal ſafety. They ſhould contrive their own amuſements, and vary and diſcontinue them at their own pleaſure. They will often take violent exerciſe; but violent exerciſe is neceſſary at their age to promote growth, and is rendered more deſirable on account of the many hours which they ſpend in a ſedentary employment. They will run riſques; but by theſe they will gain experience, and a neceſſary degree of courage. Parents therefore often err, from an amiable cauſe indeed, when their ſolicitude for the ſafety of their children would debar them the enjoyment of diverſions common to their age, though attended with ſome degree of danger. In ſpite of every precaution, boys of ſpirit will engage in the uſual amuſements of their equals; and, if they have been confined, will naturally run into greater extremes than their companions. It cannot be denied, that the exerciſes and employments of the body, whatever they may be, produce a powerful effect on the diſpoſition. Some idea of the turn of mind is uſually and juſtly formed from common occupations. Thoſe of the effeminate kind ſuperinduce effeminacy; weakneſs of mind, no leſs than imbecility of body. Something ſimilar happens in puerile diverſions. The boy who has been kept in leading-ſtrings too long, and reſtrained from hardy ſports by the fondneſs of his mother, will ſcarcely ever become a man; or poſſeſs that becoming ſpirit which can enable him to act his part with propriety. Health, vigour, cheerfulneſs, and a great degree of mental ſtrength, depend on a liberal uſe of thoſe active exerciſes which conſtitute, in modern ages, the gymnaſtic part of education. We ought only to wiſh for ſo much reſtraint as may keep boys from vicious actions, from vulgar company, from a habit of quarrelling, and from feats of imminent and real danger.

The ſenior boys ought to be encouraged in athletic exerciſes, for other and more important reaſons. At the age of ſeventeen or eighteen, they ſhould be indulged, even for a moral purpoſe, in every manly ſport and exerciſe, conſiſtent with ſafety, good company, health, and economy. The propenſities to vicious pleaſures are often at that age impetuous. Nothing tends more to divert their courſe, and leſſen their influence, than a keen love of innocent amuſements, and an ardent purſuit of them continued even to fatigue.

The above reaſoning ſtrongly ſhews the neceſſity of holidays, or of the uſe of relaxation in a ſtudious life. The world is ſufficiently convinced of its utility and neceſſity. It ſends back the ſtudent with freſh ſpirits to his purſuits; and it is no leſs deſirable to the inſtructor than to the ſcholar. The employment of a ſuperintendant of a ſchool is full of care and labour; and he requires holidays for the ſake of his health, and for the regulation of his domeſtic affairs. Yet, in the greater part of ſchools, there appear by far too many holidays. There are two ſorts of holidays, which ſhould be conſidered diſtinctly; the breakings up or vacations, and the ſaints days and public feſtivals. Vacations are of indiſpenſable neceſſity: they give the parent an opportunity of becoming acquainted with his child's improvements, by placing him, during ſeveral weeks, under his immediate inſpection. They enable the boy to ſee ſomething of the world, by introducing him to his own family, and their viſitors. They contribute alike to the pleaſure of the boy, the maſter, and the indulgent parent. For this reaſon they are, and have been, univerſally adopted, in all great and eſtabliſhed ſchools. But the queſtion ariſes, how long ſhould the holidays continue, and how often be repeated? In ſome of our moſt ancient ſchools, the breakings up happened not leſs than four times a-year; and they now continue twice in the year, generally for ſix weeks. Beſides this, every red-letter day, as it is called, is religiouſly obſerved as a play-day. Upon the whole, it appears, that not above half the year is really devoted to inſtruction; yet there is not the leaſt ſhadow of a reaſon for allowing ſo large a number of holidays. Theſe abundant holidays are certainly productive of a great loſs of time, which might be more uſefully employed; beſides the forgetting of thoſe things which were already acquired, the contracting of idle and vicious habits, a diſreliſh of the employments, and an impatience of the confinement, of a well-regulated ſchool.

With reſpect to the conſtant obſervation of ſaints days in ſchools, what other reaſon can be honeſtly given for it, than the eaſe and accommodation of the maſters and uſhers? Can a boy pay a proper reſpect to a ſaint's day better, than by improving his mind, and endeavouring to acquire knowledge upon it? Are half the precious days of childhood and youth to be thrown away without improvement, becauſe they are marked with a red letter in the almanac? The practice of keeping them at ſchools indiſcriminately, as at preſent, is manifeſtly abſurd, and a relic of popery. A few ſingle holidays ſhould, however, be allowed, in the intervals between the half-yearly returns of vacation. But theſe ſhould be granted in the following manner: if any boy has performed an exerciſe of remarkable merit, or made an extraordinary proficiency, or behaved, in any reſpect, ſo as to deſerve diſtinction, let a holiday be conceded in honour of him, and let it be called his holiday. This fails not of exciting a ſpirit of emulation; and while it effectually contributes to the purpoſe of neceſſary recreation, it will alſo promote a general improvement.

Many evils are apt to reſult from negligent and improper behaviour to children at home during the holidays. There are few houſes where ſomething does not inadvertently paſs, which, though in itſelf innocent, corrupts a young and inexperienced mind. In the converſation even of perſons of judgment and virtue, ſomething will frequently drop, which may give a wrong and pernicious bias to the mind of a boy. Yet under the management of virtuous and judicious parents, the holidays may be rendered

rendered ſubſervient to valuable purpoſes. Parental authority may then interpoſe to confirm the inſtructions of the preceptor. It may inſtil religious and moral principles, which can ſcarcely fail to be well received from an affectionate father and mother. Something of graceful behaviour, and a knowledge of the world, may be acquired by ſeeing the company which viſits in the family. But let it always be remembered, that no acquiſition of this kind can compenſate the loſs of the ſober habits and ſentiments acquired in a judicious courſe of ſcholaſtic diſcipline.

As to dreſs, an unity and ſimplicity of materials ſhould be preferred; if not grave, certainly not gay; as it is more genteel, more manly, more ſuited to the ſtudious life, more expreſſive of a mind intent upon learning and inquiſitive after knowledge, and of a contempt of what the effeminate and illiterate are wont to admire. There are, it may be, times and places, wherein, if one be not too much pleaſed with fine clothes, one may be allowed to be fine without cenſure. But finery amongſt ſcholars, in a ſcholar, and whilſt he is profeſſedly in purſuit of thoſe improvements which adorn the mind, is, even in a perſon of fortune, an impropriety, if not an abſurdity. Neither is it to be conſidered as an ornament to ſpend a great deal of money. For frugality, which is ſober and temperate, which avoids as well careleſs and unneceſſary as vicious and vain expences, that there may be always wherewith to be juſt, and good, and beneficent; that there may be no want, nor temptation to do mean or wicked things through neceſſity; is one great part of a liberal education. All our academical inſtitutions have this view; they all tend this way. A plainneſs of diet, made acceptable by evening ſobriety and early riſing, and this in a moderate portion at ſtated times, is the univerſal rule of ſchools, and is of ſingular uſe, whether it be conſidered as a help to the contemplation of the ſtudious, or as a preſervative of health to the ſedentary, or as a guard to the innocence of young men whoſe paſſions are preſſing with force upon them. For any young gentleman, therefore, to diſſipate a great deal of money in ſo needleſs, ſo improper, ſo culpable, an expence, becauſe he is rich enough to afford it, or vain enough to affect it; and thereby to introduce into places of education a reluctance to comply with the frugal methods of life propoſed and required; a nicety and elegance in eating and drinking, diſpoſitions to luxury and idleneſs, and the natural conſequences thereof; is not to adorn a ſociety or perſon, but to debauch both.

With regard to the lenity and ſeverity of ſchools, reaſon informs us, that extreme rigour is not only to be reprobated for its cruelty, but likewiſe for its inutility in promoting the purpoſes of education. The heart is injured by it in a degree not to be compenſated by any improvement of the underſtanding, even if it were found to contribute to improvement. In all defects of intellect, ſuch as natural ſtupidity, or habitual depravity, it were happy if teachers would be diſintereſted, or parents impartial enough, to lay aſide all thoughts of farther inſtruction, and to deſtine their charge to ſome occupation which requires little or no preparatory diſcipline. The difficulty conſiſts in determining the exact time at which the trial ſhall be concluded. And this is a difficulty not eaſily overcome; for parental fondneſs will not eaſily be led to deſpair of a ſon's abilities; and it is, it muſt be owned, a painful taſk to convince a parent of ſo diſagreeable a truth. In ſuch a circumſtance the teacher will at leaſt act a merciful part, to let the boy proceed unmoleſted as well as he can, and not correct him for involuntary omiſſions and natural defects. He will then comply with the rule preſcribed by common ſenſe and juſtice, to do no harm where he can do no good. Parents have ſometimes ſo far overcome their feelings, by their deſire of promoting what they judged the welfare of their children, as to require ſeverity in the extreme. It is an unreaſonable demand upon a man of liberal education, whoſe diſpoſition has been ſoftened by the ſtudies of humanity. No emolument can recompenſe him for that degradation which he muſt endure by accuſtoming himſelf to inflict ſufferings on a fellow-creature at that tender age, which cannot poſſibly deſerve exceſſive rigour. The ſcriptural remark, indeed, that "he that ſpareth the rod ſpoileth the child," comes from too high an authority to be controverted. He that ſpareth a moderate uſe of the rod on proper occaſions, indiſputably does an injury to the offender, becauſe he encourages, by impunity, the repetition of his crime. But this paſſage, like moſt others, has been miſapplied; and more evil, if undeſerved ſuffering be included, has reſulted from the too liberal than from the too ſparing uſe of the rod.

Human nature is, at every ſtage of life, prone to evil; particularly prone at a time, when to inherent corruption are added imbecility of underſtanding and want of experience. Idleneſs is alſo difficult to be avoided at an age, when the effects of exertion are unknown, or too remote to affect the mind. A very young boy is commanded to commit a certain portion of his grammar to memory. The taſk he finds painful. Enticements to neglect ſurround him; and the benefit to be received by performing the taſk is diſtant, and of a nature which he cannot comprehend. Diſpoſitions the moſt amiable, and the moſt likely to ſucceed in literature, are perhaps, at the boyiſh period of life, under the ſtrongeſt temptations to idleneſs, and improper behaviour. To ſuffer a fertile ſoil to be over-run with weeds, or to lie uncultivated, is lamentable. What then can be done? Some method muſt be deviſed of influencing the hopes and fears; and this muſt be accommodated to the diſpoſition. On a meek and tender mind, very ſlight marks of diſpleaſure or approbation will produce a powerful effect; an angry look or word will ſucceed better as a corrective on ſuch an one, than ſtripes on the back of the unfeeling. On a truly ingenuous mind, praiſe and ſhame will at all times have the deſired affect. On the intermediate ſorts, thoſe who are neither remarkable for tenderneſs of feeling nor generoſity of ſentiment, and who conſtitute the common maſs, it will be ſometimes indiſpenſably neceſſary to inflict corporal puniſhment. To inveigh againſt it, is no new topic. Long and conſtant experience has decided on its abſolute neceſſity. Yet, even on the more hardened, there are a few methods which may be tried previouſly to the infliction of extreme ſeverity. They may be confined from play on a holiday; they may be debarred a meal; they may be ſent to their chamber before their companions; their battlings may be retrenched; or an additional taſk may be aſſigned. The frequency of theſe, however, deſtroys their effect; and, in many caſes, it is not poſſible to avoid the uſe of the rod. Capital offences, ſuch as immoral actions, which, from the early depravity of the human heart, often abound in ſchools, muſt meet a capital puniſhment. The greateſt degree of terror and diſgrace attends it, when inflicted with a few concomitant formalities, which ſometimes operate when the pain would be diſregarded. After all, they who are converſant with boys, know that there ſometimes ariſe individuals ſo hardened by nature or habit, that they can bear every pain with alacrity, and glory in their ſhame. For ſuch ſpirits, a ſea-life opens the only refuge.

Lenity, however amiable its motive, when ill-judged and exceſſive, is in effect cruelty. It is eaſy to enlarge in its praiſe, and almoſt any thing advanced in recommendation of it will meet with extenſive approbation. But when ſpeculation is reduced to practice, the ſober deciſions of experience muſt ſuperſede the flouriſhes of fanciful opinion. Artificial rhetoric may adorn any quality and recommend any conduct; but nothing is permanently advantageous, or can be confidently relied on, which has not the ſanction of the mother of wiſdom, *experience*. Some degree of ſeverity is, and has ever been, adopted in our beſt ſeminaries; and bodily puniſhment is appointed by the ſtatutes even of our univerſities, though,

indeed, never inflicted in the preſent age. Milton is ſaid to have been one of the laſt who underwent an academical flagellation. So generous a ſpirit as was his, it may be preſumed, could not have deſerved it; and, indeed, the kind of diſcipline is highly improper in the univerſities. But in ſchools, the general practice, as well as reaſon, may juſtify it; for it cannot be ſuppoſed, that all the maſters who have preſided in our public ſchools, have been injudicious or inhumane.

The infliction of puniſhment, however, requires great judgment, and great command of temper; judgment to proportion the degree of ſeverity to the degree of mental feeling, or want of it; and command of temper, that the cool reſult of the dictates of juſtice may not appear the effect of anger and revenge. Not to be able to command paſſion, is to ſet a bad example to the ſcholars, and to leſſen authority, by ſhewing weakneſs; for it is great weakneſs in an inſtructor to be often carried away by the impulſe of anger. He who does not check his rage, will find it grow habitual; and it will lead him to ſudden acts of injuſtice and cruelty, of which he will immediately repent, without being able to make any adequate reparation for breaking the ſpirit of an innocent and injured child. It is alſo of great importance that young perſons be accuſtomed to ſubmit, without difficulty and reluctance, to proper authority; by which is meant ſuch authority as it is for their own good, and the good of ſociety, that that they ſhould ſubmit to; becauſe that habit of ready ſubmiſſion, and the temper of mind which accompanies it, will be of unſpeakable ſervice to them, and to every ſociety of which they ſhall be members, through life. Now, this can only be enforced by the parent, or tutor, abſolutely inſiſting upon ſubmiſſion, without ever retracting what has once been peremptorily enjoined, and without ever remitting the penalty which has been once threatened for an offence, unleſs ſome ſufficient and manifeſt reaſon intervene. Mankind always yield to neceſſity, and when their ſituation is properly underſtood by them, they do it at once, and without pain. "A child, (ſays Dr. Prieſtley,) that finds it abſolutely impoſſible for him to reach the moon, will never ſtretch his hand towards it again. If he be ſhut up in a room, he will never think of puſhing againſt the wall, becauſe he never knew it give way to him; but he will go to the door, and make repeated attempts to force his way out there, becauſe he has known the door to open. It is the ſame with man in every period of life."

Whoever has had experience among young people, muſt have remarked, how early, and with what violence, the vicious propenſities of human nature diſplay themſelves. To eradicate them is difficult, and perhaps, impoſſible. But they may be reſtrained and weakened, ſo as to be rendered leſs dangerous to future felicity. There are, indeed, many moſt deſtructive vices of boys, againſt which no vigilance can ſufficiently guard. All that a preceptor can do is, to check any tendency to them when he happens to detect it, to correct all converſation and behaviour which lead to the commiſſion of them, and to take care that the pupil is obſerved in retirement as cloſely as circumſtances will allow. Some vices are ſo indelicate, as ſcarcely to admit of being mentioned. But where there is reaſon to ſuſpect any boy of being habitually guilty of ſuch, delicacy muſt not prevent a ſuperintendant from repreſenting the conſequences in colours as frightful as the imagination can conceive. This is a painful taſk, and requires great addreſs in the execution. But, difficult as it muſt be to a man of delicacy, yet it is certainly deſirable, that while he gives moral diſſuaſives againſt vice in general, he ſhould ſpecify ſome vices, and paint in lively colours the particular ill conſequences which ariſe from them. If virtue in itſelf does not appear deſirable, or vice deteſtable, yet the idea that vice will occaſion pain, diſtempers, imbecility, and premature old age, muſt have weight. Irregular and intemperate paſſions, indulged at a boyiſh age, will raiſe a tempeſt in the vernal ſeaſon of life, and cut off all hope of future eminence. The mind will ſympathize with the body, and both be reduced to a wretched ſtate of weakneſs by too early and exceſſive indulgences. Diſeaſe will infallibly follow vice, and blaſt every fair and hopeful bloſſom of youth.

The iraſcible paſſions of boys, too, are often violent. When they diſplay their effects in acts of premeditated malice and revenge, they ſhould certainly meet with correction. A judicious ſchoolman will give general admonitions on the neceſſity of reſtraining the paſſions, and, in particular caſes, will apply proper puniſhment. He will do right to repreſent malice and revenge as by no means the effects of a generous and noble ſpirit, but of a baſe and malignant heart. It will indeed be much better to bring any improper behaviour into diſgrace, than to animadvert upon it with ſeverity. Time and experience of their bad influence on perſonal happineſs and reputation, will be the moſt effectual remedies for the diſorders of the angry paſſions. Many of them gradually loſe their force as reaſon arrives at maturity, and time effects a reformation, which art could never produce. Much leſs evil happens to young perſons from the iraſcible, than from the concupiſcible, affections. Still, however, great care muſt be taken to reſtrain them, and religious arguments ſhould always and principally be applied; for the indulgence of the iraſcible paſſions particularly militates againſt the ſpirit of Chriſtianity.

Boys are apt to indulge in ſullenneſs and obſtinacy. Nothing cures ſuch diſtempers ſo effectually as ridicule. They ſhould be laughed out of theſe diſagreeable diſpoſitions, by their maſter and ſchool-fellows: and, indeed, this is one of the great advantages of public education, that boys ſhame each other from many abſurd and odious habits, which the private pupil may retain through life. The buſineſs of correcting the paſſions and bad habits of children, belongs in a particular manner to parents; but as children are often kept at ſchool, and at a diſtance, during the puerile age, it ought undoubtedly to be comprehended in the plan of ſcholaſtic education. Many conſider anger and revenge as marks of manly ſpirit, and, by ſeeming pleaſed with their moſt violent effects, by laughing at them, or by not diſcountenancing them, give them additional force. Parents ought to be ſufficiently conſiderate to ſecond the maſter's endeavours, both by precept and example, when they have their children at home. Though they may be diverted with a boy's petulance and paſſion, during the ſhort time he is with them, they ſhould not ſhew themſelves pleaſed; but ſhould conſider, that theſe beginnings will, in a few years, grow to ſuch a height, as one day to deſtroy their children's happineſs and their own. The paſſions are certainly the cauſes of the greateſt miſeries of human nature; and not to diſcourage them in boys, under all circumſtances whatever, is the extreme of cruelty.

Many parents are over anxious to initiate their ſons in what is called a *knowledge of the world*. But what is the knowledge of the world? A knowledge of its follies and its vices; a knowledge of them at a time of life when they will not appear in their true light, contemptible in themſelves, and the ſources of miſery; yet flattering and pleaſurable. To ſee theſe at a boyiſh age, before the mind is properly prepared, will not cauſe an abhorrence, but an imitation of them. To introduce boys, therefore, to ſcenes of immoral and indecent behaviour, is to educate them in vice, and to give the young mind a foul ſtain, which it will never loſe. It is uſual, in teaching this knowledge of the world, to ſpare no pains in acquainting the pupil with the tricks and deceits of mankind. At the age of fourteen or fifteen, his mind is impreſſed with the ideas of ſharpers, hypocrites, and diſſemblers. He is taught to conſider mankind in maſquerade, and to believe, that all with whom he has any intercourſe, have ſome deſign upon him. He is therefore armed with arts and tricks to counteract the attacks of his

his aſſailants. He is taught, indeed, to aſſume the appearance of good qualities; but it is not for their own ſake, but merely to facilitate deception. In the progreſs of this diſcipline, all the native ſentiments of truth and honour are of neceſſity diſcarded. Suppoſing that the deceiving arts, acquired by this mode of inſtitution, may ſerve intereſted purpoſes, yet the end is not worth the means. No wealth, no power, no popularity, can compenſate corruption of heart, and ſelf-abaſement. Such characters as have nothing but external accompliſhments to recommend them, may indeed be greatly admired and approved by vain and weak underſtandings, which penetrate no deeper than the ſurface; but they are deſpiſed by all the truly ſenſible, and pitied by all the truly good.

Boys, early initiated in the world, have uſually a forwardneſs of behaviour, and a degree of loquacity which pleaſes ſuperficial people. He who is attending to his books, and collecting ideas which will one day render him a bleſſing and an honour to all with whom he is connected, will appear dull, awkward, and unengaging, to many, in compariſon with the pert ſtripling, who has been plunged into vice and diſſipation before he knows the meaning of the words. The reception which the latter meets with in company, gives him additional ſpirits, and the deluded parents uſually triumph a-while in the conſcious ſuperiority of their judgment. In four or five years they commonly ſee and feel the effects of their folly. Their conduct, as it often undoubtedly proceeds from ignorance, is to be compaſſionated; but if ever it ariſes from affectation of ſingularity, pride, vicious principles, or careleſſneſs concerning their offspring, it deſerves the ſevereſt reprehenſion. From this cauſe it is obvious to obſerve in the world multitudes of beardleſs boys aſſuming airs of manhood, and practiſing manly vices, to obtain a title to the appellation of men. The preſent age abounds with ſuch examples. Theſe are the unhappy objects whom their injudicious parents have extruded from the foſtering wing into the wide world, before nature had given ſufficient maturity. Their emaciated looks inform the ſpectator, that a ſecret canker has preyed on the flower of their youth. Their words, their dreſs, their actions, all combine in proving that they are far advanced in the ways of vice, and have been familiarly acquainted with its conſequent miſeries. The years which ſucceed a vain, a wicked, and a moſt wretched, youth, are often ſpent in nurſing a ruined fortune and a ſhattered conſtitution.

Prudence, as well as reaſon and religion, requires that a parent ſhould do all he can to preſent his ſon to the community unſpotted. The faireſt ſide of the world ſhould be exhibited to his view. Vice in every mode and degree ſhould be concealed. Diſhoneſty, in which is comprehended all the arts which are incompatible with truth, ingenuouſneſs, and ſimplicity of manners, ſhould never be mentioned but with abhorrence. He ſhould be prepared by fixing deeply in his boſom principles of piety and moral honeſty. He ſhould be kept under the eye of a parent, or a faithful inſtructor, as long and as conſtantly as poſſible. And, when he muſt be introduced into the world at large, let his inſtructor tell him what miſeries inevitably await immoral and intemperate indulgence. With ſuch preparation, and with the bleſſing of Providence, there will be little danger, but that a young man will make valuable advances in virtue and learning, and receive their reward.

On this ſubject archbiſhop Secker has the following remarks: "An acquaintance with the world, however corrupted, may be a uſeful part of education; but then it muſt be the laſt. It gives a beautiful poliſh; but of this the beſt prepared mind will be the moſt ſuſceptible. It teaches many things; but good or bad, according as the learner is qualified to diſtinguiſh. He, whom improved good ſenſe hath enabled to obſerve upon common practice, will extract wiſdom and virtue from the vices and follies of mankind. But ſuch as are ignorant, and capable only of imitating, will of courſe admire the worſt of what they ſee; and be the more effectually ruined, the more they aim to be accompliſhed. Regular cultivation of the underſtanding, then, is what good education begins with. The earlieſt branch of this acquaintance with uſeful languages, unlocks the treaſures of ancient learning, and makes the improvement of every age and climate our own. Then the politer parts of literature moſt agreeably open the faculties, and form the taſte of young perſons; adorn our diſcourſe, and endear our company in riper years; give a grace to wiſdom and virtue; relieve the fatigue of our buſy hours, and elegantly fill up the leiſure of our vacant ones. At the ſame time, the art of juſt reaſoning opportunely comes in, to curb the licence of imagination, and direct its force; to fix the foundations of ſcience, aſcertain the degrees of probability, and unveil ſpecious error. With this guide we proceed ſecurely. Knowledge of nature opens the univerſe to our view; enables us to judge worthily of the conſtitution of things; ſecures us from the weakneſs of vulgar ſuperſtitions; and contributes, in many ways, to the health and ſecurity, the convenience and pleaſure, of human life. If from hence we go on to ſurvey mankind, a contemplation of their different ſtates in different ages, eſpecially of their ancient regulations and laws, the public wiſdom of brave and great nations, will furniſh variety of uſeful reflections to the mind, often teaching us to improve our own condition, often to be happy in it."

Boys ſhould be taught to act a juſt and an honourable part in all their little pecuniary tranſactions. Fraud and covetouſneſs appear very early. If one is thoughtleſs and extravagant, there is another ready to take advantage of his folly, and to lend ſome of his little ſtore on exorbitant intereſt. Such practices unreſtrained, ſow the ſeeds of future uſury and prodigality. Let boys therefore be obliged to give an account of their expences whenever called upon; and whenever meanneſs or fraudulent tricks are detected, let them be corrected by the infliction of diſgrace or ſevere puniſhment.

Inſtruction in religious and moral ſentiments, ought to form a principal object in every ſchool. It ſhould by no means be neglected; for, if the mind is not early tinctured with religious ideas, it will not afterwards admit them without great difficulty. Many perſons have objected to the long-eſtabliſhed method of teaching children to read, by uſing the Teſtament: they rather wiſh that they ſhould be initiated by Æſop's Fables, or ſome ſimilar book. Yet no book is ſo well adapted to this purpoſe as the Teſtament. The language is remarkably eaſy and familiar; and the matter is entertaining to children. The eaſy narrative pleaſes them, and no one inconvenience can reſult from the uſual practice. Poſſibly ſome advantages may attend it. It may impreſs on the memory many ſcriptural paſſages, which would never be properly attended to at another age. If we rely on the goſpel, we can never object to giving the young mind its firſt tincture of letters from the evangelical writings. Perhaps the growing neglect of this and other practices of our forefathers, may in ſome meaſure account for the prevalence of irreligion.

The buſineſs of a ſchool ſhould never commence or cloſe without a prayer. Boys may appear to give it little attention; and, indeed, they will not always join in ſupplication with that ſerioufneſs and ardour which is to be deſired. Yet ſometimes the mind will be in ſuch a tone, as to be greatly affected with a proper prayer, and many will catch a ſpirit of devotion. Seeds will be ſown, which, though they may lie a long while dormant, will one day ſpring up, and bear fruit in abundance. It is to be hoped, that there are no parents injudicious enough to have no regard to the religious education of their children. Religion will not only contribute to preſerve their innocence, and draw down the bleſſing of Providence, but will afford them in adverſity the beſt conſolation, and at all times a pure and lively pleaſure.

After having advanced thus far in a ſcholaſtic education, no places in the world are better adapted to the perfecting of a ſtudious life, than our noble univerſities. Much ruſt, indeed, has been contracted in them by time, many evils deeply rooted, which cannot be eradicated but by the legiſlative arm; yet, with all their imperfections, no places are able to furniſh more advantages to the real ſtudent. In them are founded ſome of the fineſt libraries on earth; not only public libraries for the general uſe of members of the univerſity, but libraries in each college, ſcarcely leſs convenient than if they were in the ſtudent's own apartment. In the univerſity at large, profeſſorſhips eſtabliſhed with ample ſtipends; in colleges, tutors and lecturers. The buildings convenient, elegant, ſpacious, airy. The apartments of ſtudents for the moſt part handſome and commodious, ſilent, retired, and in every reſpect fitted for a life of ſtudy. Delightful gardens and groves, charming walks and rural retreats. Add to all this, that the high antiquity of the places, and the many great and learned perſons who have iſſued from them, give them a moſt venerable air, and tend to animate the ſtudent with a generous emulation.

In general, boys ſhould not be ſent to the univerſity ſo young as they often are. It is dangerous to let a boy of fifteen be precipitated into the world, which is now the caſe at the univerſities. By a too early entrance, his health may be injured, his peace of mind broken, his learning impeded, and his morals depraved. Examples and opportunities for vice abound; and the inexperience, and want of reſolution, characteriſtic of boys, will render it difficult to avoid contagion. There are inſtances of thoſe who have gone through with ſafety, who entered at this early age: but they are few in compariſon with thoſe who have ſuſtained ſuch injuries as they have long and ſeverely felt. Every one, on putting on the academical dreſs, commences a MAN in his own opinion, and will often endeavour to ſupport the character by the practice of manly vices. For theſe reaſons no boy ſhould be ſent to the univerſity till he is nearly nineteen years old. An additional reaſon is, that, in four years, he may take a bachelor's degree; and four years bring him to the age at which he may go into orders, or enter with propriety into other profeſſions. But when a boy enters at fifteen, he takes his degree at nineteen, and then waits till three-and-twenty without employment. This awkward interval is not often ſpent in the univerſity, but in the employments of a ſportſman and man of pleaſure. Four years of idleneſs muſt make great havoc in his learned attainments. Let it be conſidered how much more advantageouſly the four years from fifteen to nineteen would be ſpent in a well-directed ſchool. Such a foundation would be laid in claſſical learning, as would ſcarcely ever give way, even though it ſhould ſuffer a temporary neglect. Perhaps all boys cannot wait at ſchool till nineteen, becauſe vacancies in ſcholarſhips, exhibitions, and fellowſhips, often ſummon them unexpectedly before that time. But let not parents ſuffer their ſons to incur danger of moral and mental corruption, for the ſake of adding a few pounds a year to their allowance. Where any conſiderable advantage of the pecuniary kind is to be obtained, we cannot expect, in theſe times, that it will be foregone; but every precaution muſt be uſed to obviate the ill conſequences of embarking a boy without a proper pilot, on a wide and ſtormy ocean.

Whenever the circumſtances of the parent will admit, a private tutor of character ſhould be engaged. A compenſation muſt be made him ſufficient to induce him to inſpect his pupil not only in the hours of ſtudy, but alſo of amuſement; and the pupil ſhould aſſociate with none but the private tutor, and thoſe whom he may approve. A faithful tutor, who will thus condeſcend to watch the moral conduct of his pupil, will be far more deſirable than a man of genius and learning, who will only attend to literary improvement. The college tutors are generally men of judgment, as well as learning and morals, and are well qualified to direct the ſtudent in every part of his conduct; but it is at the ſame time to be lamented, that from the number of pupils uſually allotted to one, he is incapable of paying all that attention to each, which a tender parent muſt deſire. For that reaſon a private tutor ſhould be joined with the college or official tutor, whenever it can conveniently be effected. The private tutor, it muſt be remembered, ſhould have the chief management of the pupil's finances. Scarcely any but thoſe who have reſided in the univerſity, can form an adequate idea of the many evils of every kind and degree, which would be avoided by giving a prudent private tutor full powers to ſuperintend the expences of his pupil.

We will now ſuppoſe the young ſtudent to have been educated till the age of ſeventeen, eighteen, or nineteen, in ſome reputable claſſical ſchool; and to have acquired a competent ſhare of ſchool learning. He is now to become, in a great meaſure, his own inſtructor; for, though the aſſiſtance of able tutors and profeſſors is to be ſought in the univerſities, yet he is to rely more on his own efforts, than on the external aid of any ſuperintendant. It will certainly be wiſe, to form in his mind an accurate idea of the ſcope at which he aims. A vague and deſultory application to letters may indeed amuſe him in a pleaſing and innocent manner; but it will not ſerve him ſo effectually as if he ſpent the ſame time in regular and methodical ſtudy.

There ought to be two ends in the mind of every rational ſtudent. One is, to improve and enlarge his intellectual faculties for his own ſake; from a liberal and moſt laudable deſire of exalting and meliorating his nature and capacity: and this is a moſt generous purpoſe, and furniſhes him who entertains it with ſuch ſentiments as muſt, in the firſt inſtance, give him a noble ſuperiority. The other is, to acquire the knowledge and habits which are requiſite to the performance of the duties which his profeſſion or employment renders neceſſary. Both theſe purpoſes ſhould be preſerved conſtantly in the mind's eye. He who attends to the firſt only, will probably waſte his days in contemplation, entertaining indeed and improving to himſelf, but uſeleſs to the ſociety of which he is a member, and to the advantage of which all ſtudies ought, in ſome mode, to conduce. He who attends to the ſecond only, will poſſeſs a mind comparatively narrow. He will be apt to prefer his own acquiſitions to all others, ſolely becauſe he knows not the nature and value of others. He will be in danger of falling into ſelf-conceit and pedantry. He will cut off a copious ſource of delight, and will certainly be deemed, by all who are able to judge, far inferior to the ſtudent who has added general knowledge to profeſſional dexterity.

As it is a duty we owe to ſociety, to be well qualified to perform the office which we undertake, it certainly becomes every man of principle, to beſtow his chief attention on his profeſſional qualifications, at leaſt till he has obtained in them a perfect maſtery. But there are intervals in all purſuits. A variety in our ſtudies is known to give additional vigour to the power of proſecuting them. Let the intervals be filled, and the variety ſupplied, by expatiating, from the beaten track, into the delightful regions of univerſal knowledge. It is this commixture of general knowledge with particular ſkill, which conſtitutes the characteriſtic difference between a liberal and a confined education. The one is content in paſſing along, to ſee the hedges of the highway; the other looks abroad at every proſpect, and climbs the hill, to penetrate as far as the mental horizon is extended.

Knowledge is confeſſedly not only pleaſant, but uſeful and honourable. The liberal ſtudent will therefore endeavour to collect ideas on all ſubjects which can enrich the human underſtanding. Languages, and a taſte for elegant letters, will form comparatively but a ſmall part of his literary objects. He will dedicate a great portion of his time to the ſciences properly ſo denominated. He will

will ſearch for knowledge, not only in books, but in the exchange, the warehouſe, the manufactory, the world at large. From theſe various ſources he will collect food for the mind, on which he will afterwards ruminate. He will beſtow much of his time in thinking on what he ſees, and, by digeſting it, convert it into ſolid nutriment. But, during the whole period of his intellectual excurſions, he will do right to preſerve a taſte and a knowledge of thoſe authors, whom the world has ſo long admired for their generoſity of ſentiment, and for their ſtrength and beauty of expreſſion.

On his leaving his ſchool, he will not, like many others, cloſe for ever the claſſics, which he has learned to read there; but will preſerve his acquiſitions, as the certain means of farther improvement in all elegant literature, and as being in themſelves both uſeful and ornamental. At ſchool, the claſſics can ſeldom be read ſo perfectly as to enable the ſtudent to relinquiſh the ſtudy of them, and yet retain their advantages on his departure. They muſt be read again with a critical and manly attention. Let the ſtudent, then, when he has left his ſchool, procure the beſt editions *variorum*, or of individual commentators, who have been juſtly applauded; and let him go through a courſe of claſſical reading, with the aſſiſtance of the beſt annotations, and, if neceſſary, of the beſt inſtructors.

Young men in the preſent times often depart from the diſcipline of a ſchool at too early an age. That they may be enabled to enter on philoſophy with advantage, they ought to have acquired a large ſtore of grammatical and claſſical knowledge. If they have not attained this preparatory accompliſhment at ſchool, there is great danger that they will not be able to ſupply the defect at the univerſity. They are more at liberty at the univerſity than at the ſchool; and, when young men are free from the reſtraint of authority, it is not likely that they ſhould apply themſelves, with a due degree of diligence, to thoſe elementary ſtudies which cannot but be attended with painful labour. Beſides, their age requires that theſe puerile purſuits ſhould have been already completed. The elements of grammar ſhould be perfectly underſtood; not philoſophical or univerſal grammar, but the grammars of the Engliſh, the Greek, and the Latin, languages. Univerſal grammar is a fine ſcience of itſelf; but at ſchools grammar is only taught as a preliminary ſtep to learning in general. Every one will agree, that no pupil ſhould be ſent to college, who cannot write a theme or letter, either in Latin or in Engliſh, without a ſingle grammatical error, and who cannot, at the ſame time, grammatically analyſe both the Greek and Latin claſſics, which he has learned to conſtrue or interpret.

Before a pupil enters at an univerſity conſtituted like thoſe of England, it is deſirable that he ſhould be in ſome degree acquainted with the beſt writers of Athens, Rome, and England; and it is greatly to be wiſhed, that thoſe of France were to be added. He cannot have done this without contracting a taſte and attachment for the works which he admires. And, when once this object is accompliſhed, there is no doubt but the mind will revert to them ſpontaneouſly. They will be ſought as the alleviation of ſeverer ſtudies; they will become the delight, and not the labour, of life. But, if the knowledge of the claſſics is ſuperficial, it will afford but little pleaſure, as all obſcurity and indiſtinctneſs is naturally diſguſtful; and it is well known that collegiate tutors have not authority enough to oblige the pupil to ſpend his private hours in painful ſtudy; and the temptations to nominal pleaſure are ſo great at that age, as frequently to preclude an attention to any ſtudies but ſuch as are abſolutely required, or ſuch as, from a perfect ſkill in them, afford an eaſy pleaſure. Ignorance is of itſelf a great evil, but its wretchedneſs is abundantly increaſed by the moral miſchief to which it often leads. The mind, unfurniſhed with an ability to employ itſelf in laudable and innocent purſuits, ſeeks a ſcope for its natural activity in vicious, in trifling, and in expenſive, amuſement. It may then be juſtly concluded, that he who ſends a boy to a univerſity without a ſufficient quantity of ſchool-learning to enable him to proceed ſtill farther with eaſe, will have to criminate himſelf as well as his ſon, when he finds his expectations of future proficiency greatly diſappointed.

Abilities, application, and inſtruction, may have co-operated in promoting a ſcholar's improvement; and yet he may be ſtopped in the career of his progreſs, by the interference of an unruly deſire. Love, or a groſſer paſſion, indulged at too early a period, will divert all attention from books, and, perhaps, fix the mind ſo firmly, as that it ſhall become ſtationary for life. Quintilian aſſiſts, that the future orator muſt be a good man. Goodneſs, according to his amiable and judicious doctrine, is no leſs neceſſary than intellectual vigour. To become a diſtinguiſhed ſcholar, it is neceſſary to abſtain from exceſſive, though innocent, indulgences, and to command the paſſions, whenever they are likely to become ſo ſtrong as to engroſs the attention, and to render the love of books a ſecondary attachment.

As the government of the paſſions is highly favourable to advancement in literature, ſo is advancement in literature to the government of the paſſions. Indeed, among a thouſand advantages attending literary application in youth, it is a principal one, that a young man is diverted from ſuch thoughts and tendencies as uſually involve him in guilt, and all its wretched conſequences. If the mind is filled with literary ideas, and warmed with ſcientific purſuits, there will be little inclination and opportunity for trifling and vicious employments. No remark has been more repeatedly made, than that "idleneſs is the root of all evil." But in what ſhall he employ himſelf, whoſe fortune precludes the neceſſity of an attention to trade, and whoſe rank renders mechanical induſtry unbecoming and improper? In what, but in the improvement of his mind, the accumulation of knowledge, the refinement of taſte? Thouſands have derived from ſtudy, not only thoſe qualities which adorn and aggrandize a character, but thoſe habits of harmleſs induſtry, which have preſerved them from the pollutions of vice. And, even with reſpect to a virtuous paſſion, at a very early age, though it may certainly ariſe in the moſt amiable hearts, yet it is deſirable, if it be poſſible, that it may be moderated till a competent ſhare of learning is obtained; for love, like all other ſtrong paſſions, is tyrannical. Love will not ſuffer the mind to acknowledge any other ſovereign; nor give his attention, in a due degree, to ſtudy. His application, if he be capable of any, will probably be unequal, deſultory, and unfruitful.

To honourable love ſucceed the cares of a family, and the interruptions of various domeſtic engagements. Theſe are, indeed, ſuch as, at a proper period, claim a great ſhare of every prudent man's attention. But when they are engaged in during a ſtate of minority, and before a competent education is completed, little elſe than miſery can enſue. For they require that judgment which is not yet mature; and they often enforce the practice of a profeſſion, for the honourable and ſucceſsful practice of which the mind is not duly prepared. Anxiety may excite practical induſtry; but it is by no means favourable to contemplation. Juvenal accounts for the mediocrity of the poets who wrote in his age, by alleging their diſtreſſes. He who is to produce a ſublime poem, ſays he, muſt be free from ſolicitude; nor is it likely that he ſhould arrive at any other degree of excellence than is neceſſary to acquire gain, whoſe mind is engroſſed in early youth with the care of providing for a family, or in avoiding the preſent pain of cold and hunger.

All thoſe, therefore, who wiſh to raiſe themſelves by a liberal profeſſion, will take care to ſecure a government over their own conduct, ſo as to avoid, in their minority, thoſe connections which may afterwards be ſought with the utmoſt propriety. To the ſciences let their firſt years be faithfully devoted. They will ſcarcely ever find

ſo convenient a ſeaſon during their exiſtenee. In the manly period, ambition and other objects importunately demand a principal ſhare of attention. In youth, their ſenſibilities are all in vigour, they have no official employment, and every circumſtanee unites to favour, unleſs paſſion ſhould gain the aſcendancy, an application to ſcience and philoſophy. And let the young man inſpect the living world. Who are thoſe who ultimately make the moſt honourable figure in it, and ſucceed, to the beſt advantage, in thoſe profeſſions where merit is allowed to make its way to eminenee? Thoſe, ſurely, who devoted themſelves, during a long time, to the ſtudy of the profeſſion which they practiſe; not thoſe who were contented with elementary attainments, who precipitately involved themſelves in love, and its conſequences; and who began the practice of ſome profeſſion before they had obtained the theory. There are, indeed, always ſome inſtances to the contrary; for great genius will break through all obſtacles, in its aſcent to excellence; but, in general, it will be found true, that thoſe who have left their books too early, and involved themſelves in ſtrong attachments, much more thoſe who have been embarraſſed in the miſeries of vice, are but ſuperficially qualified in every thing which can claim the name of real knowledge.

A very great part of thoſe who receive a liberal education, conſiſts of ſuch as are in expectation of places or preferment from family or parliamentary connections. The general object of ſuch perſons is to go through the forms of education, with little ſolicitude coneerning the eſſence. Thus, if there is a good living waiting for them, they find it neeeſſary to procure orders, which cannot be done with credit, but in the regular way; they go to ſchool, enter at college, ride, hunt, ſhoot, and enjoy themſelves in a genteel ſtile, till they have arrived at the proper age. After a certain number of terms kept, if their conduct has been ſueh as, in the civil world, would eſcape criminality, a teſtimonium is readily granted, a title procured without any difficulty, and the ordination follows in courſe. Little learning having been required or acquired, the ſtudent is at a loſs to ſpend his time in any thing but ſporting and drinking; and often paſſes a life not very honourable or comfortable to himſelf, and extremely diſgraceful to his profeſſion. It has often been ſaid, that when a boy knows that there is an ample proviſion for him, it is a misfortune. It certainly is ſo, when it prevents him from paying that degree of attention to the improvement of his mind, which is neceſſary to the higheſt ſtate of ſelf-enjoyment, as well as to ſocial utility. Indeed, as a young man who is provided for by his parents or friends, is free from the anxiety under which others labour, who have no ſuch ſecurity to depend upon, he is more particularly obliged to devote his attention to the eulture of his mind. He has alſo better opportunities for improvement. He may employ all his time in ſuch purſuits, which he certainly could not do with prudence, if he were under the neceſſity of labouring for a precarious ſubſiſtence.

Much of the diſgrace which has fallen on the ſacred profeſſion, ariſes from the want of due qualifications in the profeſſors. Perſons who have livings in their families, or who have patrons among the great, are too little anxious in the purſuit of learning. They often know not its value, but, from want of an improved taſte, become mere men of the world, and votaries of that vanity and folly, to oppoſe which, their profeſſion was originally inſtituted, and is ſtill rewarded. To ſuch perſons we recommend a particnlar attention, not only to the ſcience or ſtudy more immediately connected with the practice of their profeſſion; but alſo to philoſophy, to the Belles Lettres, and to every part of uſeful and valuable erudition. It is the mark of a mean mind to avoid ſuch liberal purſuits, becauſe, in a pecuniary view, they are not abſolutely neceſſary. A generous ſpirit purſues excellence for its own ſake; and is even pleaſed and encouraged in its progreſs, by the conſideration that its induſtry is ſpontaneous and entirely diſintereſted.

There is, perhaps, no obſtacle to improvement in morals and learning, greater than that which ariſes from a wiſh to be admired as *a man of the world*. A youth no ſooner leaves his ſchool, than he feels himſelf tranſported with his liberty, and knows not how to reſtrain his joy within the bounds of moderation. He pants for diſtinction; and, if he ſought it by reaſonable methods, his ambition would do him honour: but he aims at nothing but pleaſure and faſhion; and, in purſuit of this, not only neglects the admonitions of reaſon, but alſo of common prudence. He runs into expences which his fortune will not bear; and aſſumes airs of importance which his ſituation will by no means juſtify. Improvement in learning, in good morals, in diſcreet behaviour, is the leaſt of his cares. If he can be taken notice of by the illuſtrious perſonages who ſhine at gaming-tables, in ſtables, on the turf, or at the aſſembly, he willingly relinquiſhes all concern with literary and philoſophical employments.

Whoever is aequainted with the univerſities will know, that theſe remarks are founded on actual obſervation. It is impoſſible to walk the ſtreets, or to enter a coffee-houſe, without meeting young men who ought to be engaged in ſtudy; but who ridicule all ſerious things, and affect the character of libertines. They are uſually in the dreſs of ſportſmen; and their language is ſuch as is heard in the camp, or at Newmarket. A degree is nothing in compariſon with the honourable diſtinction of being in danger of *ruſtication* for a debauch. To break the windows of a college, to play at cards on Sundays, or to read novels, and blaſpheme in chapel, are the methods whieh young men of ſpirit have recently adopted to diſplay their fire. Now, the engaging in ſueh feats is conſidered by many as a proof of ſenſe as well as ſpirit. But it is in truth a weakneſs, which renders the young man fearful of incurring the deriſion of the profligate, and which induces him to ſacrifice, for the applauſe of ſuch perſons, the ſubſtantial qualifications which would adorn and felicitate every ſubſequent period of his life. It muſt be owned, that it is difficult for a young man to preſerve a ſingularity in the midſt of the ridieule of the audacious. There is a falſe ſhame which induces him to comply with what his judgment diſapproves, through a fear of beeoming the laughing-ſtock of thoſe whom he might juſtly deſpiſe. With good prineiples, and a ſincere deteſtation of vice, he gradually falls into extreme irregularity. His compliance at firſt is cauſed by good-nature, or by a fear of offending. But he is allured from one ſtep to another, till at laſt he arrives at that melancholy ſtate, which glories in every thing of which it ought to be aſhamed. He now derides his tutors, his parents, his books, and takes delight in ſuch things only as have a tendency to involve him in vice and extravagance. He lives, perhaps, long enough to ſee his folly, but is not able to retract or avoid its conſequences. His character is injured, and his opportunities of improvement loſt.

It is not to be expected or deſired that a young man ſhould be a cynic. His wiſh to accommodate himſelf to the manners of thoſe with whom his age and his purſuits lead him to aſſociate, is amiable; but yet ſomething muſt be done to prevent him from being led, by his good nature, to his ruin. Suppoſe him, then, to purſue a conduct in ſome reſpects ſimilar to the following: Let him avoid all moroſeneſs, and cultivate every pleaſing and graceful quality. The pretenders to ſpirit will then have no advantage over him in the external recommendation of an agreeable appearance and behaviour. In every thing innocent and indifferent, he will comply with the wiſhes of his companions, and give them no offence when he can poſſibly avoid it. He will be aſſiduous in cultivating their benevolence, from a conviction that a ſtate of amity is the moſt conducive to happineſs; and alſo, from a wiſh to ſerve them, by uſeful ſuggeſtions, which cannot be done when the avenues are totally ſhut againſt

advice

advice by prejudice and averſion. But at the ſame time he will poſſeſs and diſplay a firmneſs of mind, which in the end cannot fail of overcoming an ill-grounded audacity. His true ſpirit will cauſe their falſe ſpirit to evaporate as the culinary fire is extinguiſhed by the rays of the ſun. Real merit, true genius, unaffected courage, are always diſtinguiſhed by an air of moderation. They make few pretenſions; they are content with being excellent; and leave their gold to find its proper eſteem, by its nature, weight, and luſtre. The tinſel glitters on the tawdry veſtment, and fools admire; but let it be the care of every one who aſpires at the excellence of a worthy and liberal character, to adorn himſelf with ſolid and uſeful ornaments, which will ſecure him the eſteem of all judicious men, while children and weak perſons only are caught by the brilliancy of falſe ſpangles and ſuperficial embroidery.

In barbarous ages and countries, in which all orders are nearly on an equality in point of mental improvement, rank and titles may, perhaps, give an enviable diſtinction, independently of perſonal character. But, where learning and civilization are univerſally diffuſed, as in this country, the want of perſonal character will deprive the great of the power to excite general eſteem. No opinion can therefore be advanced more injurious to the poſſeſſors of civil honours, than that which tends to prevent a due cultivation of their minds, becauſe they are elevated above the neceſſity of profeſſional ſkill and labour. It has been common in England to beſtow great attention on the education of the younger ſons in great families, and to neglect the heir. And from this moſt egregious abſurdity it has happened, that the poſſeſſors of fortunes, thoſe whoſe actions are of the moſt importance in their conſequences, have been totally unqualified to ſupport their hereditary dignity. Many of them have been diſtinguiſhed only by weakneſs, wickedneſs, inſolence, and a title. Surely nothing can be more reaſonable than that a ſingular degree of diligence ſhould be exerted in the education of men who are to draw the notice of the world upon them by the luſtre of a peerage, and to ſit in the ſenate-houſe as hereditary lawgivers. If the order of nobility conſulted little elſe than the preſervation of its own dignity, it would act moſt prudently in requiring, in its ſucceſſors, a peculiar degree of improvement. All civil honour depends on public eſteem; and, though cuſtom and uſage may preſerve an external reſpect for titles during a long time, yet they will certainly fall into contempt, when at laſt they ſhall be diſcovered to be nothing but deluſive pageantry, when it ſhall appear that they ſerve as the ſubſtitutes of merit; and that they give men the preſumption and pride of excellence, without the reality.

Internal dignity, correſponding with external, cannot but carry with it great influence. Reſpect is naturally paid to titles and rank; but, when it is found that they are juſtly due to the merit of him who is inveſted with them, they command a degree of veneration. Let young men of faſhion therefore endeavour to become men of competent learning alſo; for the minds of the great have more influence in the regulation of affairs, than thoſe of the lower orders; and it is therefore a moſt valuable object, to ſecure to the great a ſolid and comprehenſive education.

As to the ſubject of foreign travel, for the finiſh of a liberal education, many authors have largely deſcanted upon it. With reſpect to its utility, there can be no doubt but that a mind, properly prepared, will derive from it great and laſting advantages. It muſt open ſources of knowledge, and furniſh opportunities of reflection, which cannot be obtained by him who never leaves his own country. But this ſtep muſt not be taken too early. A great degree of mental maturity, and of acquired knowledge, is neceſſary to enable the mind to derive advantage, and avoid inconvenience, from viſiting a foreign nation. To expect that boys ſhould make obſervations on men and manners, ſhould weigh and compare the laws, inſtitutions, cuſtoms, and characteriſtics, of various people, is to expect an impoſſibility. It is no leſs abſurd to ſuppoſe, that boys will not be ſtruck and captivated with vanity and trifles. Parents, in our age and country, are impatient to thruſt their ſons into the world, to puſh them into the ſenate before they have a beard, and to urge them to offices of command in the army and in the navy, almoſt as ſoon as they come from the nurſery. Many evils, national as well as private, are the conſequence; but, when avarice and ambition ſolicit, reaſon, philoſophy, and propriety, ſcarcely find a hearing. National calamities can alone remedy this, and many other abuſes which will inſinuate themſelves, and abound, till the evil which they occaſion becomes too heavy to be longer borne; when it will become its own remedy.

Among other arguments for travel in general, and early travel in particular, it has been urged, that it is abſolutely neceſſary, in order to be delivered from local prejudice in favour of our country. Prejudices in favour of our country are, indeed, eaſily removed by ſpending our early days in another. But is there no danger leſt theſe innocent and uſeful prejudices ſhould be changed for others equally unreaſonable, and really pernicious? Is it not likely, that prejudices in favour of our country being removed, prejudices againſt it may find admiſſion? This has often happened. And, however a modern philoſopher may inveigh againſt that honeſt preference which an Engliſhman gives to his nation, it is a natural attachment, and attended with effects greatly beneficial. This preference is not an ill-grounded prejudice, but is fully juſtified by real obſervation and by fair compariſon. Corrupted as we are, we have not yet kept pace in corruption with ſome of our admired neighbours. And we may add, that the corruption at preſent prevailing among us, if it does not originate, is greatly increaſed by our too frequent intercourſe with France and Italy.

Thoſe who begin their travels ſhould go out as philoſophers, when they are capable of conducting themſelves, both in the ſearch of knowledge and their moral behaviour. Travel undertaken in this manner, and after a valuable ſtore of learning, and a knowledge of our native country, have been acquired, is one of the beſt methods of accompliſhing the human mind. It crowns and completes all its other improvements. A few months occaſionally ſpent in France, or Italy, or Holland, or Swiſſerland, at or between the age of thirty or forty, will enrich the underſtanding of a man of ſenſe with valuable treaſure. He will then ſearch for gold, and find it in abundance; while, at a boyiſh age, he would have been fully employed, and ſufficiently ſatisfied, in procuring droſs or tinſel, inſtead of bullion.

But ſince, to reform the world, as the poet ſays, is a vaſt deſign, and the deſign commonly proves abortive, a writer muſt be contented with giving ſuch admonitions as may permit it to proceed in its own way with the leaſt inconvenience. As, therefore, mere boys will certainly continue to be ſent on their travels, notwithſtanding all that reaſon can advance againſt it, it remains that ſuch directions be given as may at leaſt prevent them from incurring evil, if they cannot obtain advantage. Much of the ſucceſs certainly depends on the choice of the tutor or travelling companion. He ſhould be a grave reſpectable man of a mature age. A very young man, or a man of levity, however great his merit, learning, or ingenuity, will not be proper; becauſe he will not have that natural authority, and that perſonal dignity, which command attention and obedience. A grave and good man will watch over the morals and the religion of his pupil; both which, according to the preſent modes of conducting travel, are commonly ſhaken from the baſis, and levelled with the duſt, before the end of the peregrination. In their place ſucceed univerſal ſcepticiſm and unbounded libertiniſm. But a tutor of character and principle will reſolve to bring his pupil home, if it be poſſible, not

worſe in his moral character than he was on his departure. It is a known fact, that they who, at too early an age, ſpend much time on the continent, ſeldom retain that religion in which their good forefathers lived and died. They commonly become the diſciples of the faſhionable philoſophers, and are led aſtray by the falſe lights of falſe wit, or loſt amidſt the clouds of metaphyſics. So many, indeed, are the dangers attending foreign travel, that they whoſe ſituation and circumſtances will not permit them to engage in it, need not repine. Our own country abounds with objects ſufficient to excite, and amply to repay, the labour of inquiry. And to prove that foreign travel is not abſolutely neceſſary to give the full improvement to the human mind, we may recollect many eminent perſons who have been richly adorned with every accompliſhment of the gentleman, and furniſhed with all the lights of the man of ſenſe and extenſive knowledge, though they never left their native ſhore.

We ſhall now conclude, by drawing the attention of our readers to the long-agitated queſtion, "Whether public or private education be the moſt advantageous for the riſing generation?"—And we think, that no one will heſitate to decide in favour of our public ſchools, when to what has been already ſuggeſted in the preceding pages, is added the following incontrovertible remark of Dr. Barrow, in his Eſſay on Education, publiſhed in 1803. "There is a further advantage reſulting from a *ſcholaſtic* education, of more value to the future man, than will at firſt ſight be eaſily ſuppoſed; the power, by which, whatever can be done, can be done at once; by which intellectual wealth can be immediately produced in current coin; that ſelf-poſſeſſion, by which he can at all times determine and perform what the occaſion requires; that promptitude of thought and action, ſo eſſentially neceſſary to eminence in any public profeſſion; that ready and ſpontaneous eloquence, which is no leſs uſeful in buſineſs, than pleaſing in converſation; that command over his inclinations and paſſions, which enables him to convert to his own purpoſes the paſſions and inclinations of others; that confidence in himſelf and his own ſtrength, which guards him againſt ſurpriſe, and leads him to meet difficulty or danger without diſmay; theſe advantages, with all their various branches and dependencies, are, not indeed univerſally and excluſively, but the moſt early, the moſt frequently, and the moſt effectually, obtained from the diſcipline, the ſtudies, and the amuſements, of a large and well-regulated public ſchool. It is the obſervation of Bacon, that 'Reading makes a full man, converſation makes a ready man, and writing makes an exact man.' But unleſs the foundation of theſe various excellencies be laid in the uſual ſeaſon of inſtruction, a ſuperſtructure is ſeldom afterwards erected of much beauty or utility." For a more ample diſcuſſion of this queſtion, and for a complete view of the opinions of all the moſt eminent writers on the inſtruction of youth, we beg leave to recommend to all parents and ſcholars, an attentive peruſal of the Liberal Education of Dr. Viceſimus Knox, from which valuable work this treatiſe has been principally ſelected.

On FEMALE EDUCATION.

Many prejudices are entertained againſt the character of a learned lady; and perhaps, if all ladies were profoundly educated, ſome inconveniencies might ariſe from it; but it does not appear that a woman will be rendered leſs acceptable in the world, or worſe qualified to perform any part of her duty in it, by having employed the time from ſix to ſixteen, in the cultivation of her mind. Time enough will remain, after a few hours every day ſpent in reading, for the improvement of perſonal accompliſhments. The ladies, and their inſtructors, want no directions in matters of external ornament, the end of which is to pleaſe on intuition. However ſelf-ſufficient the men have been in their claims of ſuperiority, they have uſually allowed the ladies the poſſeſſion of a delicate taſte in the improvement and perception of all kinds of beauty.

The literary education of women ought indiſputably to be varied according to their fortunes and their expectations. Much refinement, and a taſte for books, will injure her, whoſe time, from prudential motives, muſt be entirely engroſſed by economy. To theſe, arithmetic and book-keeping would often be moſt uſeful, and tend to preſerve the eſtates of families. Wives are often the beſt ſtewards, not only in commercial, but in genteel life. Few women are indeed exempted from all attention to domeſtic cares. But the unmarried, and thoſe who enjoy opulence, find many intervals which they devote to ſome ſpecies of reading. And there is no doubt, but that the reading would be ſelected with more judgment, and would afford more pleaſure and advantage, if the taſte were formed by what may be termed a claſſical education; we mean, that they ſhould be well and early acquainted with the French and the Engliſh claſſics. As ſoon as young ladies can read with fluency, let them begin to learn Lowth's or Aſhe's Grammar, and to read at the ſame time ſome eaſy and elegant author, with a view to exemplify the rules. They ſhould learn a part in grammar every morning, and then proceed to read a leſſon, juſt in the manner obſerved in claſſical ſchools in learning Latin. After a year ſpent in this method, if the ſucceſs is adequate to the time, they ſhould advance to French, and ſtudy that language exactly in the ſame mode. In the French grammar, it will not be neceſſary to go through thoſe particulars which are common to the grammars of all languages, and which have been learned in ſtudying Engliſh. Several years ought to be ſpent in this elementary proceſs; and when the ſcholar is perfectly acquainted with orthography and grammar, ſhe may then proceed to the cultivation of taſte. Milton, Addiſon, and Pope, muſt be the ſtanding models in Engliſh; Boileau, Fenelon, Fontenelle, and Vertot, in French; and theſe ſhould be attended to for a conſiderable time. Many inconveniencies ariſe from engaging young minds in the peruſal of too many books at a time. After theſe authors have been read with attention, and with a critical obſervation of their beauties, the ſcholar may be permitted to ſelect any of the approved writers of France and England, for her further improvement. She will now be able to ſelect with ſome judgment, and will have laid a foundation which will bear a good ſuperſtructure. Her mind, if ſhe has been ſucceſsful in this courſe, will have imbibed an elegance which will naturally diffuſe itſelf over her converſation, addreſs, and behaviour. It is well known, that internal beauty contributes much to perfect external grace. It will alſo be favourable to virtue, and will operate greatly in reſtraining the fair ſex from any conduct groſsly indelicate and obviouſly improper. Much of the profligacy of female manners has proceeded from a levity occaſioned by the want of a proper education. She who has no taſte for well-written books, will often be at a loſs how to ſpend her time; and the conſequences of ſuch a ſtate are too frequent not to be known, and too fatal not to be avoided.

Whenever a young lady in opulent circumſtances appears to poſſeſs a genius, and an inclination for learned purſuits, ſhe ought, if her ſituation and connections permit, to be early inſtructed in the elements of Latin and Greek. Her mind is certainly as capable of improvement, as that of the other ſex. The inſtances which might be brought to prove this, are all too well known to need citation. And the method to be purſued muſt be exactly the ſame as that which is uſed in the private tuition of boys, when judiciouſly conducted. And though we might diſapprove, for the moſt part, of private tuition for boys, yet it might be recommended for girls, with little exception. All ſenſible people agree in thinking, that large ſeminaries of young ladies, though managed with all the vigilance and caution which human abilities can exert,

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are in danger of great corruption. Vanity and vice are too often introduced by ſome among a large number, and the contagion ſpreads with irreſiſtible violence. Who can be ſo proper an inſtructor and guardian, as a tender and a ſenſible mother? Where can virgin innocence and delicacy be better protected, than under a parent's roof, and in a father's and a mother's boſom? Certainly no where; provided the parents are ſenſible and virtuous, and the houſe free from improper or dangerous connections. But where the parents are much engaged in pleaſure or in buſineſs; where they are ignorant or vicious; where a family is expoſed to the viſits or conſtant company of libertine young perſons; there it is certainly expedient to place a daughter under the care of ſome of thoſe judicious matrons who preſide over the ſeminaries of learning adapted to the education of young ladies. It too often happens, however, that young females are ſent from their parent's eye to theſe ſeminaries, principally with a view to form connections, or to acquire external graces. Let the heart of a feeling father determine, whether it is not cruel to endanger the morals of his offspring from motives of intereſt or vanity. But it muſt be remembered, that only thoſe parents can incur this cenſure, who keep their daughters at ſchool after a certain age. Women, from fourteen years old, are commonly flattered by the men. Therefore, perceiving that they are regarded only as qualified to pleaſe, they begin to adorn themſelves; and in that to place all their hopes. It would be better to make them ſenſible, that they are much more eſteemed for a decent, modeſt, and diſcreet behaviour.

One of the ſtrongeſt arguments in favour of the literary education of women, is, that it enables them to ſuperintend the domeſtic education of their own children in the earlier periods. We are told, in the very elegant dialogue on the cauſes of the decline of eloquence, that it was the glory of the ancient Roman matrons to devote themſelves to economy, and the care of their children's education. As ſoon as a ſon was born, he was not brought up in the cottage of ſome hireling nurſe, but in the lap and the boſom of his mother, whoſe principal merit it was to take care of the houſe, and to devote herſelf to the ſervice of the children. But when the Romans had loſt the virtues, together with the liberties, of the ancient republic, theſe generous cares, with every other rational and laudable attention, gave way to the faſhionable diſſipations of thoſe degenerate days. The children were then conſigned to the care of ſome paltry female, in conjunction with two or three other domeſtics, equally unqualified for the important office of tuition. From the idle tales and groſs manners of this low and illiterate tribe, the ſoft and ductile mind was ſuffered to receive its earlieſt and deepeſt impreſſions. The parents themſelves, alſo, far from training their young families in the principles of virtue and knowledge, were the firſt to lead them, by their own encouragement and example, into the moſt luxurious indulgences, and moſt unprincipled licentiouſneſs of manners. A paſſion for races, theatrical entertainments, and gladiatorial ſhows, the favourite occupations of that frivolous age, was ſown even in their very womb: and when once the ſeeds of theſe contemptible and unmanly pleaſures had early taken root in the heart, they neceſſarily over-ran and deſtroyed every affection of nobler growth. Whether this picture of degenerate Rome bears any reſemblance to thoſe of more modern days, is left to the reader's conſideration. But be this as it may, it ſhould certainly be made a principal object of female education, to reſtrain young ladies, on coming into life, from an expenſive profuſion of dreſs, and from a baneful propenſity to the pleaſures of gay life. To dreſs, to appear gay, and to be ſeen in public places, will undoubtedly attract the attention of the men; but not of thoſe, with whom a connection for life would be eligible. Deſirous as thoſe might be of an honourable alliance with an elegant and graceful woman; yet, when they diſcover a want of economy, and a proneneſs to extravagance, they will have reaſon to dread the ſame conduct in affairs of greater moment; which, in a married life, would be productive of evils truly alarming and extenſive. Prudential conſiderations thus deter many from offering their hands, where their hearts are inclined, becauſe they are apprehenſive of bringing on themſelves a train of expences, which their fortunes could not ſupport. They would likewiſe ſuſpect, that the love of domeſtic retirement would not be found in thoſe ladies, who have been accuſtomed to a life of gaiety and pleaſure.

There appears too much truth in the remark of Mrs. Hannah More, in her Treatiſe on Female Education, publiſhed in 1799, "that in all poliſhed countries, an *entire devotedneſs* to the fine arts has been one grand ſource of the corruption of women." The whole time of a young lady is often conſumed either in the acquiſition or in the diſplay of what are termed *accompliſhments*; and ſhe ſeems to regard the end of exiſtence as being to ſhine rather than to be uſeful. If, ſays this author, the life of a young lady formerly too much reſembled the life of a confectioner, it now too much reſembles that of an actreſs. This is a fatal extreme for female domeſtic virtue, and little calculated for happineſs in the female circles. On the contrary, the profeſſion of ladies, to which the bent of their inſtruction ſhould be turned, is that of daughters, wives, mothers, and miſtreſſes of families. They ſhould be therefore trained with a view to theſe ſeveral conditions, and be furniſhed with a ſtock of ideas, and principles, and qualifications, ready to be applied and appropriated, as occaſion may demand, to each of theſe reſpective ſituations: for though the arts which merely embelliſh life muſt claim admiration; yet when a man of ſenſe comes to marry, it is a companion whom he wants, and not an artiſt. It is not merely a creature who can paint, and play, and dreſs, and dance; it is a being who can comfort and counſel him; one who can reaſon, and reflect, and feel, and judge, and diſcourſe, and diſcriminate; one who can aſſiſt him in his affairs, lighten his cares, ſooth his ſorrows, ſtrengthen his principles, and educate his children. This ſhould be the view of parents in the education of their daughters; and, perhaps, if this were more generally done, and daughters were only allowed to attend day-ſchools for the purpoſe of acquiring accompliſhments, they would not be ſo frequently educated above their ſtation in life; and the mind of a reputable merchant's child, or clergyman's daughter, would not be filled with notions of pride, caught by aſſociating with the daughters of the great and the faſhionable.

With regard to amiable manners in a young lady, much depends on the delicacy of her converſation, propriety of behaviour, modeſty, and tender ſenſibilities of feeling; all which engaging qualities are to be acquired and modified by the rules of female education. Propriety is to a woman what the great Roman critic ſays action is to an orator: it is the firſt, the ſecond, the third, requiſite. A woman may be knowing, active, witty, and amuſing; but without *propriety* ſhe cannot be amiable. Propriety is the centre in which all the lines of duty and of agreeableneſs meet. It is to character what proportion is to figure, and grace to attitude. It does not depend on any one perfection; but it is the reſult of general excellence. It ſhews itſelf by a regular, orderly, undeviating, courſe; and never ſtarts from its ſober orbit into any ſplendid eccentricities; for it would be aſhamed of ſuch praiſe as it might extort by any aberrations from its proper path. It renounces all commendation but what is characteriſtic; and becomes the criterion of true taſte, right principle, and genuine feeling, in a woman, whether ſhe would be leſs touched with all the flattery of romantic and exaggerated panegyric, than with that beautiful picture of correct and elegant propriety, which Milton draws of our firſt mother, when he delineates

> "Thoſe thouſand *decencies* which daily flow
> From all her words and actions."

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These amiable decencies are seen in the propriety of conversation.—To place a just remark, hazarded by the diffident, in the most advantageous point of view; to call the attention of the inattentive to the observation of one, who, though of much worth, is perhaps of little note; are requisites for conversation, less brilliant, but far more valuable, than the power of exciting bursts of laughter by the brightest wit, or of extorting admiration by the most poignant sallies. For wit is, of all the qualities of the female mind, that which requires the severest castigation; yet the temperate exercise of this fascinating quality throws an additional lustre round the character of an amiable woman; for to manage with discreet modesty a dangerous talent, confers a higher praise than can be claimed by those in whom the absence of the talent takes away the temptation to misemploy it. But to women, wit is a peculiarly perilous possession, which nothing short of the sober-mindedness of Christianity can keep in order. Intemperate wit craves admiration as its natural aliment; it lives on flattery as its daily bread. The professed wit is a hungry beggar that subsists on the extorted alms of perpetual panegyric; and, like the vulture in the Grecian fable, its appetite increases by indulgence. Simple truth and sober approbation become tasteless and insipid to the palate, daily vitiated by the delicious poignancies of exaggerated commendation. Women of the brightest faculties should not only bear those faculties meekly, but consider it as no derogation, cheerfully to fulfil those humbler duties which make up the business of common life, always taking into the account the higher responsibility attached to higher gifts. While women of lower attainments should exert to the utmost such abilities as Providence has assigned them; and while they should not deride excellencies which are above their reach, they should not despond at an inferiority which did not depend on themselves; nor, because God has denied them ten talents, should they forget that they are equally responsible for the one he *has* allotted them, but set about devoting that one with humble diligence to the service of society, and the glory of the Giver.

On sensibility, and the feelings of the mind, much has been said and written; but notwithstanding all the fine theories to which this topic has given birth, it will be found that very exquisite sensibility contributes so little to happiness, and may yet be made to contribute so much to usefulness, that it may, perhaps, be considered as bestowed for an exercise to the possessor's own virtue, and as a keen instrument with which to work for the good of others. Women of this cast of mind are less careful to avoid the charge of unbounded extremes, than to escape at all events the imputation of insensibility. They are little alarmed at the danger of exceeding, though terrified at the suspicion of coming short, of what they take to be the extreme point of feeling. They will even resolve to prove the warmth of their sensibility, though at the expence of their judgment, and sometimes also of their justice. Even when they earnestly desire to be and to do right, they are apt to employ the wrong instrument to accomplish the right end. They employ the passions to do the work of the judgment; forgetting, or not knowing, that the passions were not given us to be used in the search and discovery of truth, which is the office of a cooler and more discriminating faculty; but that they were given to animate us to warmer zeal in the pursuit and practice of truth, when the judgment shall have pointed out what is truth. Through this natural warmth, which they have been justly told is so pleasing, but which, perhaps, they have not been told will be continually exposing them to peril and to suffering, their joys and sorrows are excessive. Of this extreme irritability, the ill-educated learn to boast as if it were an indication of superiority of soul, instead of labouring to restrain it as the excess of a temper which ceases to be interesting when it is no longer under the control of the governing faculty. It is misfortune enough to be born more liable to suffer and to sin, from this conformation of mind; it is too much to allow its unrestrained indulgence; it is still worse to be proud of so misleading a quality.

Flippancy, impetuosity, resentment, and violence of spirit, grow out of this disposition, which will be rather promoted than corrected, by the system of education, which labours to ornament the person, rather than the mind; and in which system, emotions are too early and too much excited, and tastes and feelings are considered as too exclusively making up the whole of the female character; in which the judgment is little exercised, the reasoning powers are seldom brought into action, and self-knowledge and self-denial scarcely included. This propensity of mind, if unchecked, lays its possessors open to unjust prepossessions, and exposes them to all the danger of unfounded attachments. In early youth, not only love, but friendship, at first sight, grows out of an ill-directed sensibility; and in afterlife, women, under the powerful influence of this temper, conscious that they have much to be borne with, are too readily inclined to select for their confidential connections, flexible and flattering companions, who will indulge, and perhaps admire, their faults, rather than firm and honest friends, who will reprove and would assist in curing them. We may adopt it as a general maxim, that an obliging, weak, yielding, complaisant friend, full of small attentions, with little religion, little judgment, and much natural acquiescence and civility, is a most dangerous, though generally a too much desired, confidante: she sooths the indolence, and gratifies the vanity, of her friend, by reconciling her to her own faults, while she neither keeps the understanding nor the virtues of that friend in exercise. These obsequious qualities are the *soft green*, on which the soul loves to repose itself. But it is not a refreshing or a wholesome repose: we should not select, for the sake of present ease, a soothing flatterer, who will lull us into a pleasing oblivion of our failings; but a friend, who, valuing our soul's health above our immediate comfort, will rouse us from torpid indulgence to animation, vigilance, and virtue.

To EDU'CE, *v. a.* [*educo*, Lat.] To bring out; to extract; to produce from a state of occultation.—This matter must have lain eternally confined to its beds of earth, were there not this agent to *educe* it thence. *Woodward.*

Th' eternal art *educing* good from ill,
Grafts on this passion our best principle. *Pope.*

EDUC'TION, *s.* The act of bringing any thing into view.

EDUL'CORANTS, *s.* [from *edulco*, Lat. to make sweet.] Medicines which absorb the vicious humours of the body, sweeten the fluids, and deprive them of their acrimony.

To EDUL'CORATE, *v. a.* [from *dulcis*, Lat.] To sweeten.

EDULCORA'TION, *s.* The act of sweetening. In chemistry, it imports the same thing as dulcification; namely, the rendering things more mild: but chemists use the terms very differently. Dulcification consists in the obtunding of acids by combination with ardent spirit. Edulcoration consists in carrying off superfluous acid, or other saline matter, by one or more washings with water. Metallic calces, and other insoluble precipitates, are usually edulcorated previous to drying them.

EDU'LIA, in heathen mythology, the goddess who was supposed to give nourishment to infants.

ED'WARD, [eab, Sax. blessedness; and *aerd*, Teut. nature.] A man's name.

ED'WARD, a fort of the American States, in Nova-Scotia, in the town of Windsor, in Hampshire county. It is situated on Avon river, which is navigable thus far for vessels of 400 tons; those of sixty tons can go two miles higher.

ED'WARD, prince of Wales, surnamed, from the colour of his armour, the *Black Prince*; one of the most truly heroical characters of his age. He was the eldest son of Edward III. and Philippa of Hainault, born in 1330. For his noble exploits, see the article ENGLAND.

ED'WARDS (George), a celebrated ornithologiſt, born in 1693, at Weſt Ham in Eſſex. Being deſigned for commercial life, he was placed with a tradeſman in London, who happened to be a man of education. This circumſtance, with that of his chamber's being made the repoſitory of the library of a deceaſed phyſician, gave the youth a turn to literature and ſcientific inquiry, which detached him from the purſuit of gain. He paſſed ſome years in travelling, with no fixed purpoſe, but that of indulging his curioſity with the various objects of nature and art. On his return he cloſely applied to the ſtudy of natural hiſtory, and practiſed the drawing and colouring from nature of ſuch animals as fell under his inſpection; in which performances he ſtrictly attended to correctneſs of imitation. His birds were admired by the curious; and by his exertions in this branch he obtained a decent ſubſiſtence and a large acquaintance. In 1733, through the recommendation of ſir Hans Sloane, he obtained the place of librarian to the college of phyſicians. In 1743, he publiſhed the firſt volume of his Hiſtory of Birds, in quarto, with fifty-two coloured plates from original drawings, and full deſcriptions in French and Engliſh. Of this ſplendid work ſucceſſive volumes appeared in 1747, 1750, and 1751. The author diſplayed the characteriſtic piety of his diſpoſition, though in a manner ſomewhat ſingular, by a dedication of the concluding volume "To God," drawn up and ſubſcribed in the cuſtomary mode of thoſe formularies. As ſupplementary to this work, he publiſhed, in three ſucceſſive parts, 1758, 1760, and 1763, Gleanings of Natural Hiſtory, conſiſting of coloured plates of birds, fiſhes, inſects, and plants. The whole of his labours compriſes upwards of ſix hundred ſubjects in natural hiſtory, firſt delineated and deſcribed by himſelf. For this valuable work he juſtly obtained a high reputation, and was particularly eſteemed by the illuſtrious Linnæus. For his Hiſtory of Birds he was honoured by the Royal Society, in 1750, with ſir Godfrey Copley's medal; and in 1757 he was choſen a member of that body, whoſe memoirs he enriched with various occaſional papers on ſubjects of natural hiſtory. In 1769, he withdrew from his office at the college of phyſicians, and purchaſed a ſmall houſe at Plaiſtow in Eſſex. He had previouſly diſpoſed of his large collection of drawings to lord Bute. He publiſhed, in 1770, an octavo volume of Eſſays, chiefly collected from the prefaces and introductions to his books. He added ſome inſtructions for drawing and painting in water-colours, and for etching. His patience was tried in his latter years with the ſtone, and with a cancer which deprived him of the ſight of one eye; but he bore all his ſufferings with the greateſt fortitude and reſignation, and died at the age of eighty, in July 1773.

ED'WARDS (Jonathan), an Anglo-American divine, of conſiderable talents, born at Windſor, in Connecticut, in 1703. He was entered a ſtudent at Yale college in 1716, where he took his degree of bachelor of arts before he was ſeventeen years of age. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the diligence of his application to the uſual courſe of collegiate ſtudies, and made conſiderable progreſs in his acquaintance with the ſciences, and particularly natural philoſophy, which he cultivated through life with pleaſure, and that degree of diſcernment which he eminently poſſeſſed. In 1722, at the requeſt of ſeveral miniſters in New England who were entruſted to act on behalf of the Engliſh preſbyterians at New York, he went to that city, and preached there with great acceptability. Soon after this he received invitations from ſeveral churches to officiate among them, with a view to his ſettlement as their miniſter; but being choſen tutor of Yale college in 1724, he ſedulouſly devoted himſelf to the duties of that office for above two years. In 1726, his maternal grandfather, the Rev. Mr. Stoddard, miniſter of a congregation at Northampton, being from his great age under the neceſſity of calling in the aid of a colleague, Mr. Edwards was induced to reſign his tutorſhip and accept of that ſituation, where he was ordained to the paſtoral office in the following year. In this connection he continued reſpected, beloved, and happy, for many years, until, in 1744, a ſudden revolution took place in the diſpoſition of the people towards him, which terminated in his formal diſmiſſion from his miniſterial charge. In 1751 he accepted of an invitation to become Indian miſſionary at the town of Stockbridge, in the province of Maſſachuſets bay, where he diſcharged the duties of that office for ſix years, to the ſatisfaction of the inhabitants, both Engliſh and Indians, and was honourably ſupported by the commiſſioners of the ſociety in London for propagating the goſpel in foreign parts, who placed great confidence in his judgment and wiſdom in all matters relative to that inſtitution. In this quiet retreat he enjoyed more time to devote to the proſecution of his ſtudies, than during the preceding years of his life, and he diligently improved it in preparing different treatiſes for publication, and in digeſting materials for numerous other theological works, which he intended to complete if he met with the neceſſary encouragement. In 1757, on a vacancy taking place in the preſidency of the college of New Jerſey, the truſtees elected Mr. Edwards to that honourable ſtation. He had, however, ſcarcely entered upon his new office, when the ſmall pox, which he had hitherto eſcaped, became prevalent in the Jerſeys, and he fell a victim to the diſeaſe in March 1758, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. In his religious principles he was a rigid Calviniſt, and proved himſelf one of the ableſt defenders of ſome of the peculiarities of the Genevan ſchool. Beſides a vaſt number of manuſcripts, which he left behind him, on almoſt all ſubjects in divinity, and in ſcripture criticiſm, he was the author of a variety of ſingle ſermons, publiſhed during his life-time, and of a collection of Sermons on various important Subjects, 8vo. publiſhed after his death in 1765. He alſo publiſhed a great number of tracts on religious controverſy.

ED'WARDS, (John), a learned and pious divine of the church of England, ſon of the Rev. Thomas Edwards, born at Hertford, in 1637. After receiving his grammatical education at Merchant-tailor's ſchool in London, he was ſent, in 1653, to the univerſity of Cambridge, where he was entered at St. John's college. Soon after his admiſſion, he was choſen ſcholar of the houſe, and quickly recommended himſelf to notice by the manner in which he performed his exerciſes both in his tutor's chamber and in the college-hall. Towards the cloſe of his under-graduateſhip, he was appointed one of the moderators for the year. When he was middle bachelor he was choſen fellow of his college; and, during the time of his ſenior bachelorſhip, was again appointed moderator in the ſchools, where his performances were ſo able as to be long ſpoken of with great commendation. In 1664, he undertook the duty of Trinity church, in Cambridge; and, from the excellence of his pulpit-compoſitions, was frequently attended by many members of the univerſity of conſiderable ſtanding and rank. In 1665, when the plague raged at Cambridge, he removed from the college into the town, that he might devote himſelf entirely to the edification and comfort of his pariſhioners in the time of that calamity. In 1668 he was choſen one of the lecturers of Bury St. Edmund's in Suffolk, whither he removed, and diſcharged the duties of the office with great reputation and acceptability for twelve months, when he reſigned it, and returned to his college. Here, however, he met with ſome circumſtances of diſguſt, which determined him to reſign his fellowſhip, and remove to Trinity hall, where he entered himſelf as a fellow-commoner, and performed the regular exerciſes in the civil law. Not being willing, however, to remain unemployed in his clerical profeſſion, he accepted of an invitation to become miniſter of the pariſh of St. Sepulchre, in Cambridge, where his ſermons attracted the ſame reſpectable audience as had formerly attended him in Trinity church. In 1676, he was preſented to the living of St. Peter's in Colcheſter; and, during three years that he continued there, was highly

highly acceptable to his parifhioners. In 1699, he was admitted to the degree of doctor in divinity. He continued in a courfe of diligent ftudy till near his death, which took place in 1716, when he was in the feventy-ninth year of his age. That Dr. Edwards was a man of extenfive learning cannot be denied; and that he was diftinguifhed by ardent piety, and an exemplary moral conduct, there is not the leaft reafon to difpute. He, however, rendered himfelf obnoxious by the zeal which on all occafions he difplayed for the calviniftic doctrine; a zeal which he certainly carried to the excefs of bigotry, by contending for the abfurd notion of the old puritans, that there is a clofe connection between arminianifm and popery. His works, which are written much in the fcholaftic manner, will be chiefly acceptable to readers of the calviniftic fchool. They conlift of a great number of tracts in religious controverfy: alfo, Twelve Sermons, preached on fpecial Occafions and Subjects, 8vo. 1698; A Survey of the different Difpenfations of Religion, from the Beginning of the World to the Confummation of all Things, in two volumes, 1699; The Preacher, in three parts; *Theologia Reformata*, or the Subftance and Body of the Chriftian Religion, in two volumes, folio; to which was added a third volume folio, ten years after the author's death.

ED'WARDS (Thomas), a learned divine of the church of England, born at Coventry in 1729. His grammatical education he received, partly at the free grammar-fchool in his native city, but principally under the tuition of his own father, who was a clergyman there; and he early fhowed an uncommon eagernefs for acquiring knowledge. In 1747, he was entered at Clare-hall, in the univerfity of Cambridge, where he took his degree of bachelor of arts in 1750, and of mafter of arts in 1754. He was, likewife, chofen a fellow of his college. Before Mr. Edwards had completed the twenty-fixth year of his age, he afforded a ftriking proof of the diligence of his application to the ftudy of the learned languages, and the acquifition of facred literature, by publifhing A new Engliih Tranflation of the Pfalms from the original Hebrew, reduced to Metre by the late Bifhop Hare, with Notes, critical and explanatory, Illuftrations of many of the Paffages drawn from the Claffics, &c. 8vo. In 1758, he was appointed, by the corporation of Coventry, mafter of the free grammar-fchool, and prefented to the rectory of St. John the Baptift, in that city. The next work which Mr. Edwards fent into the world was in 1759; it is intitled The Doctrine of irrefiftible Grace proved to have no Foundation in the Writings of the New Teftament. This work reflects great honour on his abilities as a fcripture critic, on his liberality, and on his candour, and is of conliderable importance in the controverfy between the Calviniits and the Arminians. In 1762, he publifhed *Prolegomena in Libros Veteris Teftamenti poeticos, &c. fubjicitur metricæ Lowthianæ Confutatio, &c.* 8vo. In 1766, Mr. Edwards was admitted to the degree of doctor in divinity; and in the following year publifhed two differtations: the firft, On the Abfurdity and Injuftice of religious Bigotry and Perfecution; the fecond, On the principal Qualifications, &c. neceffary for the right and accurate Interpretation of the New Teftament, 8vo. Thefe differtations are entitled to conliderable praife, on account of the enlarged and liberal fentiments which they inculcate, and the ufeful aflillance which they afford to theological ftudents in attaining a critical knowledge of the Chriftian fcriptures. In 1770, Dr. Edwards was prefented by the crown to the valuable vicarage of Nuneaton in Warwickfhire, whither he retired in 1779, after having refigned his fchool and rectory at Coventry, and where he refided during the remainder of his life. In the year laft mentioned he publifhed his laft work, intitled *Selecta quædam Theocriti Idyllia recenfuit, variorum Notas adjecit, fuafque Animadverfiones, partim Latine, partim Anglice, fcriptas immifcuit Thomas Edwards, S.T.P.* 8vo. This work reflects honour on the extent and accuracy of the author's claffical literature, and will be found of great ufe to young ftudents, for whofe benefit it was chiefly defigned. He died at Nuneaton, in 1785, in the fifty-fixth year of his age.

ED'WARDS (Thomas), a critic and poet, born in 1699, fon of a gentleman in the profeffion of the law in London. After receiving a claffical education, he was entered of Lincoln's-inn, and was called to the bar, though a hefitation in his fpeech prevented him from ever engaging much in profeffional practice. It appears too that his favourite ftudies were of another kind, and the belles-lettres occupied more of his attention than books of law. Shakefpeare, in particular, was the object of his ftudy; and the appearance of Warburton's edition of that dramatift firft induced him to become an author. He publifhed, in 1744, A Letter to the Author of a late Epiftolary Dedication, addreffed to Mr. Warburton. This was followed, in 1747, by A Supplement to Mr. Warburton's Edition of Shakefpeare, a work which paffed through feveral editions, and became famous under its fubfequent title of The Canons of Criticifm. As a poet, Mr. Edwards chiefly diftinguifhed himfelf by his attempts to revive the fonnet, then a fpecies of compofition little ufed in Engliih poetry, to which, indeed, it feems but indifferently adapted. He compofed fifty of thefe pieces, of which feveral were printed in Dodfley's and Pearch's collections of poems. Their general character is ferious, moral, and unaffected; correct in their formation, but cold and fomewhat ftiff. They are more creditable to the juftnefs of his fentiments than to the powers of his imagination. He was likewife a fkilful critic in the Engliih language; and the feventh edition of his Canons of Criticifm, publifhed in 1765, befides his fifty fonnets, contains An Account of the Trial of the letter Y, alias Y, in which are difcuffed the principles of Engliih orthography. A poftlhumous tract on the doctrine of predeftination, finifhes the lift of his performances. Mr. Edwards paffed his life in literary leifure, and maintained a friendly intercourfe with many of the moft refpectable characters of his time. He died, unmarried, in 1757.

ED'WARDS (Bryan), a Weft-India merchant, and a writer of conliderable eminence. A little before his death, he drew up the following biograghical fketch of his own life, which he committed to the care of fir William Young, bart. with directions to have it prefixed to his Hiftory of the Weft Indies.

"I was born the 21ft of May 1743, in the decayed town of Weftbury, in the county of Wilts. My father inherited a fmall paternal eftate in the neighbourhood, of about 100l., per annum; which proving but a fcanty maintenance for a large family, he undertook, without any knowledge of the bufinefs, as I have been informed, to deal in corn and malt, but with very little fuccefs. He died in 1756, leaving my excellent mother, and fix children, in diftreffed circumftances. Luckily for my mother, fhe had two opulent brothers in the Weft Indies, one of them a wife and worthy man, of a liberal mind, and princely fortune. This was Zachary Bayly, of the ifland of Jamaica, who, on the death of my father, took my mother and her family under his protection, and, as I was the eldeft fon, directed that I fhould be well educated. I had been placed by my father at the fchool of a diffenting minifter in Briftol, whofe name was William Foot, of whom I remember enough to believe that he was both a learned and good man; but, by a ftrange abfurdity, he was forbidden to teach me Latin and Greek, and directed to confine my ftudies to writing, arithmetic, and the Engliih grammar. I fhould therefore have had little to do, but that the fchoolmafter had an excellent method of making the boys write letters to him on different fubjects, fuch as the beauty and dignity of truth, the obligation of a religious life, the benefits of a good education, the mifchief of idlenefs, &c. previoufly ftating to them the chief arguments to be urged; and inlifting on correctnefs in orthography and grammar. In this employment I had fometimes the good fortune to excel the other boys; and, when this happened, my mafter never failed to praife me very liberally before them all;

and he would frequently tranſmit my letters to my father and mother. This excited in my mind a ſpirit of emulation, and, I believe, gave me the firſt taſte for correct and elegant compoſition. I acquired, however, all this time, but very little learning; and, when my uncle (on my father's death) took me under his protection, his agent in Briſtol conſidered me as neglected by Mr. Foot, and immediately removed me to a French boarding-ſchool in the ſame city, where I ſoon obtained the French language; and, having acceſs to a circulating library, I acquired a paſſion for books, which has ſince become the ſolace of my life.

"In 1759, a younger and the only brother of my great and good uncle came to England, and, ſettling in London, took me to reſide with him, in a high and elegant ſtile of life. He was a repreſentative in parliament for Abingdon, and afterwards for his native town. Farther I cannot ſpeak of him ſo favourably as I could wiſh, for I remember that, at the period I allude to, his conduct towards me was ſuch as not to inſpire me with much reſpect: he perceived it, and ſoon after, in the latter end of the ſame year, ſent me to Jamaica. This proved a happy and fortunate change in my life, for I found my eldeſt uncle the reverſe, in every poſſible circumſtance, of his brother. To the moſt enlarged and enlightened mind he added the ſweeteſt temper, and the moſt generous diſpoſition. His tenderneſs towards me was exceſſive, and I regarded him with more than filial affection and veneration. Obſerving my paſſion for books, and thinking favourably of my capacity, he engaged a clergyman (my loved and ever to be lamented friend Iſaac Teale) to reſide in his family, chiefly to ſupply by his inſtructions my deficiency in the learned languages. Mr. Teale had been maſter of a free grammar-ſchool, and beſides being a moſt accompliſhed ſcholar, poſſeſſed an exquiſite taſte for poetry. I dare not ſay, however, that I made any great progreſs in the languages under his tuition; I acquired "ſmall Latin and leſs Greek;" even now, I find it difficult to read the Roman poets in their own language. The caſe was, that not having been grounded in the Latin grammar at an earlier period of life, I found the ſtudy of it inſupportably diſguſting, after I had acquired a taſte for the beauties of fine writing. Poetry was our chief amuſement; for my friend, as well as myſelf, preferred the charms of Dryden and Pope to the dull drudgery of poring over ſyntax and proſody. We preferred belles lettres. We laughed away many a happy hour over the plays of Moliere, and wrote verſes on local and temporary ſubjects, which we ſometimes publiſhed in the colonial newſpapers. Yet the Latin claſſics were not altogether neglected; my friend delighted to point out to me the beauties of Horace, and would frequently impoſe on me the taſk of tranſlating an ode into Engliſh verſe, which, with his aſſiſtance in conſtruing the words, I ſometimes accompliſhed.

"Having made myſelf known to the public by my writings, it is probable that after I am in the grave, ſome collector of anecdotes, or biographical compiler, may pretend to furniſh ſome particulars concerning my life and manners. It is not pleaſant to think that miſrepreſentation or malice may faſten on my memory; and I have therefore made it the amuſement of an idle hour, to compile a ſhort account of myſelf. My perſonal hiſtory, however, is of little importance to the world. It will furniſh no diverſified ſcenes of fortune, nor relate many circumſtances of myſelf, worth remembering. Yet I feel the fond ambition of an author, and am willing to hope, that thoſe who have read my book with approbation, will be glad to know ſomething farther concerning me;

For who, to dumb forgetfulneſs a prey, &c.

For the ſatisfaction then of ſuch kind readers (if ſuch there are) and the information of my poſterity, I have drawn up this paper, which I deſire my bookſeller to prefix to the next edition of my Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies.

B. E."

Thoſe who knew and were intimate with Mr. BRYAN EDWARDS, will recognize, in this ſhort account of himſelf, the energy of mind, the induſtry, and the truth, which characterized his converſations and his life; but all muſt allow, that much therein is omitted, which has uſual and proper place in biography, and which the editor might be preſumed, or be called upon, to ſupply. Some account might be required, of his literary eſſays and legiſlative acts, ſo efficient in the cauſe of humanity towards the negroes, whilſt a member of the aſſembly in Jamaica. Some account might be demanded, of this good and independent man, whilſt a member of the Britiſh parliament; and, eſpecially, in the poſthumous life of a literary man, ſome accurate detail of his literary purſuits and writings might be expected; of his Correſpondence—of his Eſſays—and of his conduct in the judicious compilation and elegant recital of the Travels of Mungo Park—and, eſpecially, of the origin and progreſs of his great work, the "Hiſtory of the Britiſh Colonies in the Weſt Indies," 3 vols. 4to. To theſe, and other points, the recollection of the reader is thus awakened. The editor preſumes no farther. He cannot venture to alter, or add to, the ſacred depoſit committed to his charge, but gives it to the public, as its author left, and *willed* it, to be given.

The above ſketch was haſtily drawn by its author, as an outline of a portrait intended to be filled up and finiſhed, had God permitted, and annexed with ſome intereſting prefatory matter to the third volume of his "Weſt Indies;" but ere the laſt ſheet was reviſed from the preſs, BRYAN EDWARDS was no more! He had long ſuffered from the diſorder which brought him to the grave, and ſeemed to foreſee the hour of diſſolution haſtening on. Rendered incapable by weakneſs and diſeaſe, of completing his prefatory diſcourſe, yet, with a fond anxiety for honeſt fame, he rouſed the embers of his genius,—to claim a fair reputation with poſterity for induſtry, integrity, and candid expoſition of the talents and acquirements which introduced him to public notice. The firmneſs of his mind, and the cheerfulneſs of his temper, which, throughout a long and checquered life, gave confidence to his friendſhips, and delight to his ſociety, forſook him not, even when he apprehended the laſt ſhort hour was before him. This he clearly ſhows, when turning from the awful conſideration of futurity, to look back upon his paſt life, himſelf brings the retroſpect to our view; and deſcribes the ſcene in ſo pure and lively colours, with no gloom from diſcontent, and no ſhade from remorſe, that we readily infer the nature of the light which ſo beamed on his laſt work, and to the laſt hour;—and pronounce its emanation to be from the pure conſcience of a benevolent and upright man! He died in the polygon-houſe (his own eſtate) at Southampton, in 1800, in the fifty-ſeventh year of his age. His much-eſteemed "Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies" has already undergone two editions; the copy-right of which he generouſly preſented to Mr. John Stockdale, in Piccadilly, as a reward for former civilities. He likewiſe kindly received the celebrious African traveller, Mr. Mungo Park, into his houſe at Southampton, aſſiſting him in arranging the materials, and in compiling, judiciouſly and elegantly, his intereſting Travels in the interior Diſtricts of Africa, in 1795, 1796, and 1797, 4to.

By the death of BRYAN EDWARDS, the proprietor of THIS ENCYCLOPÆDIA loſt an invaluable friend, and a moſt able aſſiſtant. He was the original projector of the work itſelf—furniſhed many intereſting articles for it—had undertaken to write the prefatory matter, with a ſyllabus of its various parts—its general objects—and particular utility.—To us, therefore, his loſs is truly irreparable, and never to be enough lamented!—He left a widow, ſince re-married; a ſecond ſon, Zachary Edwards, eſq. of Southampton; and one daughter. His eldeſt ſon Bryan Edwards died at Wincheſter, under the tuition of Dr. G. I. Huntingford, the preſent learned biſhop of Glouceſter.

ED'WAY, a river of South Wales, which runs into the Wye, four miles fouth-eaſt of Bealth, in the county of Radnor.

ED'WIN, [of ead, and pin, Sax. a happy conqueror.] A man's name; the name of two kings of England.

ED'WITH, a river of England, in the county of Monmouth, which joins the Uſk, at its mouth.

EECK'HOUT (Gerbrandt Vanden), a painter of great merit, born at Amſterdam in 1621. His father, a goldſmith by trade, meant him for the banking buſineſs; but his natural inclination was ſo decidedly bent to painting, that he was placed as a pupil under Rembrandt. He adopted the ſtyle of his maſter, and acquired great reputation in portraits, which he painted with admirable truth and expreſſion. His touch was bold and firm, his management of the chiaro-ſcuro excellent, and he ſurpaſſed Rembrandt in the care with which he finiſhed the extremities of his figures. Succeſsful as he was in this branch, he preferred being employed in hiſtory-painting, in which his compoſitions are rich and well diſpoſed, his diſtribution of light and ſhade admirable, and his expreſſion ſtrong and natural. His colouring, however, is accounted not equal to that of his maſter, though his backgrounds are clearer. He ſhared his maſter's defects of incorrectneſs in deſign, want of grace, and neglect of the coſtume. The ſlowneſs with which he worked kept him poor, notwithſtanding his excellence, till he obtained the patronage of a burgo-maſter, who gave him a penſion, and employed him on various ſcripture hiſtories, which were much admired. One of the beſt is Chriſt among the doctors, in the Duſſeldorp collection. Another, of the infant Jeſus in the arms of Simeon, is much eſteemed. This painter died at Amſterdam in 1674, at an age when he was ſtill capable of improvement.—ANTONY VANDEN EECKHOUT, born at Bruſſels in 1656, became eminent as a fruit and flower painter.

EED, a town of Norway: twenty-four miles north-north-weſt of Drontheim.

EEDT, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: fourteen miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Ens.

To EEK, *v. a.* [ɛacan, ɛcan, ıcan, Sax. *eak*, Scott. *eek*, Erſe.] To make bigger by the addition of another piece. To ſupply any deficiency. See EKE.

Hence endleſs penance for our fault I pay;
But that redoubled crime, with vengeance new,
Thou biddeſt me to *eek*. *Spenſer.*

EEL, *ſ.* in ichthyology. See MURÆNA.

EEL-BACKED, *adj.* Applied to ſuch horſes as have black liſts along their backs.

EEL-FARES, *ſ.* A fry or brood of eels. 25 *Hen.* VIII.

EEL-POUT, *ſ.* A kind of young eel.

EEL-RIVER, a river of North America, with a large cove on the ſouth ſide of Chaleur bay, about three leagues from Maligaſh. The cove abounds with ſalmon, and great quantities of that fiſh is taken annually by the inhabitants ſettled on its bank.

EEL-RIVER-INDIANS, a tribe of Indians who inhabit the lands on Eel-River, a head branch of the Wabaſh. They were formerly hoſtile; but ceded ſome land at the mouth of the river to the United States, at the treaty of Greenville, in 1795; when that government paid them a ſum of money, and engaged to pay them in goods, to the value of 500 dollars annually for ever.

EEL-SKIN, *ſ.* The ſkin of an eel.—When he's drunk, you may thruſt your hand into him like an *eel-ſkin*, and ſtrip him inſide outwards. *Overbury.*

EEL-SPEAR, *ſ.* A forked inſtrument with three or four jagged teeth, uſed for catching eels; which they ſtrike into the mud at the bottom of the river, and if it ſtrike againſt any eels it never fails to bring them up.

EEL'WYCK, a town of Norway: twenty miles weſt of Romſdal.

EEM'BURG, or EMBURG, a town of Utrecht, on the Ems: five miles north-north-weſt of Amersfort.

EEMS, a river of Holland, which runs into the Zuyder ſea, below Emburg, in the ſtate of Utrecht.

E'EN, *adv.* Contracted from *even*. See EVEN.—Says the ſatyr, if you have a trick of blowing hot and cold out of the ſame mouth, I have *e'en* done with you. *L'Eſtrange.*

EER'SEL, a town of Brabant: ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Eyndhoven.

EF-BE, a ſafe and ſecure harbour, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland of Mixaol, one of the Moluccas. Lat. 2. 12. S. It has ſeveral ſmall picturesque iſlands on each ſide its entrance; the principal of which is called Crown Iſland, on account of its ſummit being crowned with a magnificent evergreen wood.

EFE'SC, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-two miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Smyrna.

EF'FABLE, *adj.* [*effabilis*, Lat.] Expreſſive; utterable.

To EFFA'CE, *v. a.* [*effacer*, Fr.] To deſtroy any thing painted, or carved. To leave no longer legible or viſible; to blot out; to ſtrike out.—Characters on duſt, the firſt breath of wind *effaces*. *Locke.*

Otway fail'd to poliſh or refine,
And fluent Shakeſpeare ſcarce *effac'd* a line. *Pope.*

To deſtroy; to wear away:

Nor our admiſſion ſhall your realm diſgrace,
Nor length of time our gratitude *efface*. *Dryden.*

EFFE'CT, *ſ.* [*effectus*, Lat.] That which is produced by an operating cauſe.—*Effect* is the ſubſtance produced, or ſimple idea introduced into any ſubject, by the exerting of power. *Locke.*—We ſee the pernicious *effects* of luxury in the ancient Romans, who immediately found themſelves poor as ſoon as this vice got footing among them. *Addiſon.*—Conſequence; event.—No man, in *effect*, doth accompany with others, but he learneth, ere he is aware, ſome geſture, or voice, or faſhion. *Bacon.*—To ſay of a celebrated piece that there are faults in it, is, in *effect*, to ſay that the author of it is a man. *Addiſon.*—Purpoſe; meaning; general intent.—They ſpake to her to that *effect*. 2 *Chron.*—Conſequence; intended ſucceſs; advantage.—Chriſt is become of no *effect* unto you. *Gal.* v. 4.—The inſtitution has hitherto proved without *effect*, and has neither extinguiſhed crimes, nor leſſened the numbers of criminals. *Temple.*—Completion; perfection:

Semblant art ſhall carve the fair *effect*,
And full achievement of thy great deſigns. *Prior.*

Reality; not mere appearance:

State and wealth, the buſineſs and the crowd,
Seems at this diſtance but a darker cloud;
And is to him, who rightly things eſteems,
No other in *effect* than what it ſeems. *Denham.*

[In the plural.] Goods; moveables.—The emperor knew that they could not convey away many of their *effects*. *Addiſon.*

To EFFE'CT, *v. a.* [*efficio*, Lat.] To bring to paſs; to attempt with ſucceſs; to achieve; to accompliſh as an agent:

Being conſul, I doubt not to *effect*
All that you wiſh. *Ben Johnſon.*

To produce as a cauſe.—The change made of that ſyrup into a purple colour, was *effected* by the vinegar. *Boyle.*

EFFECT'IBLE, *adj.* Performable; practicable; feaſible.—That a pot full of aſhes will ſtill contain as much water as it would without them, is not *effectible* upon the ſtricteſt experiment. *Brown.*

EFFEC'TION, *ſ.* in geometry, a conſtruction, a propoſition; a problem or praxis, drawn from ſome general propoſition.

EFFEC'TIVE, *adj.* Having the power to produce effects; efficacious; effectual: with *of*.—They are not *effective of* any thing, nor leave no work behind them. *Bacon.*—There is nothing in words, and ſtiles, but ſuitableneſs, that makes them acceptable and *effective*. *Glanville.*—Operative;

—Operative; active; having the quality of producing effects.—Nor do they ſpeak properly who ſay that time conſumeth all things; for time is not *effective*, nor are bodies deſtroyed by it. *Brown.*—Producing effects; efficient. —Whoſoever is an *effective* real cauſe of doing his neighbour wrong is criminal, by what inſtrument ſoever he does it. *Taylor.*—Having the power of operation; uſeful: as, *effective* men in an army.

EFFEC'TIVELY, *adv.* Powerfully; with real operation.—This *effectively* reſiſts the devil, and ſuffers us to receive no hurt from him. *Taylor.*

EFFECT'LESS, *adj.* Without effect; impotent; uſeleſs; unmeaning:

I'll chop off my hands;
In bootleſs prayer have they been held up,
And they have ſerv'd me to *effectleſs* uſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

EFFECT'OR, *ſ.* [Lat.] He that produces any effect; performer. Maker; Creator.—We commemorate the creation, and pay worſhip to that infinite Being who was the *effector* of it. *Derham.*

EFFEC'TRIX, *ſ.* A woman that effects. *Scott.*

EFFEC'TUAL, *adj.* [*effectuel*, Fr.] Productive of effects; powerful to a degree; adequate to the occaſion; operative; efficacious.—The communication of thy faith may become *effectual*, by the acknowledging of every good thing. *Philem.* 6.—Veracious; expreſſive of facts. *A ſenſe not in uſe:*

Reprove my allegation, if you can;
Or elſe conclude my words *effectual.* *Shakeſpeare.*

EFFEC'TUALNESS, *ſ.* The quality of being effectual. *Scott.*

EFFEC'TUALLY, *adv.* In a manner productive of the conſequence intended; efficaciouſly.—Sometimes the ſight of the altar, and decent preparations for devotion, may compoſe and recover the wandering mind more *effectually* than a ſermon. *South.*

To EFFEC'TUATE, *v. a.* [*effectuer*, Fr.] To bring to paſs; to fulfil.—He found means to acquaint himſelf with a nobleman, to whom diſcovering what he was, he found him a fit inſtrument to *effectuate* his deſire. *Sidney.*

EFFE'MINACY, *ſ.* Admiſſion of the qualities of a woman; ſoftneſs; unmanly delicacy; mean ſubmiſſion:

But foul *effeminacy* held me yok'd
Her bond ſlave: O indignity, O blot
To honour and religion! *Milton.*

Laſciviouſneſs; looſe pleaſure.—So long as idleneſs is quite ſhut out from our lives, all the ſins of wantonneſs, ſoftneſs, and *effeminacy*, are prevented.

EFFE'MINATE, *adj.* [*effeminatus*, Lat.] Having the qualities of a woman; womaniſh; ſoft to an unmanly degree; voluptuous; tender; luxurious: of perſons.—The king, by his voluptuous life and mean marriage, became *effeminate*, and leſs ſenſible of honour. *Bacon.*—Reſembling the practice of a woman; womaniſh: of things:

After the ſlaughter of ſo many peers,
Shall we at laſt conclude *effeminate* peace? *Shakeſpeare.*

Womanlike; ſoft without reproach. *A ſenſe not in uſe:*

As well we know your tenderneſs of heart,
And gentle, kind, *effeminate*, remorſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

To EFFE'MINATE, *v. a.* [*effemino*, Lat.] To make womaniſh; to weaken; to emaſculate; to unman.—When one is ſure it will not corrupt or *effeminate* children's minds, and make them fond of trifles, I think all things ſhould be contrived to their ſatisfaction. *Locke.*

To EFFE'MINATE. *v. n.* To grow womaniſh; to ſoften; to melt into weakneſs.—In a ſlothful peace both courage will *effeminate* and manners corrupt. *Pope.*

EFFE'MINATELY, *adv.* In an effeminate manner. By means of a woman:

What boots it at one gate to make defenſe,
And at another to let in the foe,
Effeminately vanquiſhed? *Milton.*

EFFEMINA'TION, *ſ.* The ſtate of one grown womaniſh; the ſtate of one emaſculated or unmanned.—Vices the hare figured; not only feneration, or uſury, from its fecundity and ſuperfetation, but degenerate *effemination. Bacon.*

EFFEN'DI, *ſ.* in the Turkiſh language, ſignifies *maſter:* and accordingly it is a title very extenſively applied; as, to the mufti and emirs, to the prieſts of moſques, to men of learning, and of the law. The grand chancellor of the empire is called *reis-effendi.*

EFFERA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *fera*, a wild beaſt.] The act of making wild. *Not uſed.*

To EFFERVE'SCE, *v. n.* [*efferveſco*, Lat.] To generate heat by inteſtine motion.—The compound ſpirit of nitre, put to oil of cloves, will *efferveſce* even to a flame. *Mead.*

EFFERVES'CENCE, *ſ.* [from *efferveo*, Lat.] The act of growing hot; production of heat by inteſtine motion.

In chemiſtry this term is appropriated to the commotion and increaſe of volume produced in fluids by ſome part of the maſs ſuddenly taking the elaſtic form, and eſcaping in numerous bubbles. Thus, when an acid is poured on chalk, the fixed air is diſengaged in the elaſtic ſtate with bubbles, vapour, and an hiſſing noiſe. Effervеſcences are more or leſs violent, according to circumſtances, and are uſually attended with a change of the temperature. If the capacity of the mixture or new combination for heat be diminiſhed by the change the bodies have undergone, in a greater degree than that of the elaſtic fluid is enlarged, the temperature will be increaſed: but if, on the contrary, the mixture retains its original, or acquire an increaſed capacity, the elaſtic fluid will carry off ſo much of the heat as to produce a greater or leſs degree of cold in the remainder. Chemiſtry affords many inſtances of both effects taking place.

EF'FERDING, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ten miles weſt of Lintz, and 100 weſt of Vienna. Lat. 48. 14. N. lon. 31. 40. E. Ferro.

EFFE'TE, *adj.* [*effœtus*, Lat.] Barren; diſabled from generation. It is probable that females have in them the ſeeds of all the young they will afterwards bring forth, which, all ſpent and exhauſted, the animal becomes barren and *effete. Ray.*—Worn out with age.—All that can be allowed him now, is to refreſh his decrepit *effete* ſenſuality, with the hiſtory of his former life. *South.*

EFFICA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*efficax*, Lat.] Productive of effects; powerful to produce the conſequence intended:

A glowing drop with hollow'd ſteel
He takes, and, by one *efficacious* breath,
Dilates to cube or ſquare. *Philips.*

EFFICA'CIOUSLY, *adv.* Effectually; in ſuch a manner as to produce the conſequence deſired.—If we find that any other body ſtrikes *efficaciouſly* enough upon it, we cannot doubt but it will move that way in which the ſtriking body impels it. *Digby.*

EFFICA'CIOUSNESS, *ſ.* The quality of being efficacious.

EFFICA'CITY, *ſ.* Efficacy. *Not much uſed.*

EF'FICACY, *ſ.* [from *efficax*, Lat.] Power to produce effects; production of the conſequence intended.—*Efficacy* is a power of ſpeech which repreſents a thing, by preſenting to our minds the lively ideas or forms. *Peacham.* —The apoſtle tells us of the ſucceſs and *efficacy* of the goſpel upon the minds of men; and, for this reaſon, he calls it the power of God unto ſalvation. *Tillotſon.*

EFFI'CIENCE, or EFFICIENCY, *ſ.* [from *efficio*, Lat.] The act of producing effects; agency.—A pious will is the means to enlighten the underſtanding in the truth of Chriſtianity, upon the account of a natural *efficiency*: a will ſo diſpoſed, will engage the mind in a ſevere ſearch after truth. *South.*

EFFI'CIENT, *ſ.* [*efficio*, Lat.] The cauſe which makes effects to be what they are. See CAUSE AND EFFECT,

vol. iv. p. 2.—God, which moveth meer natural agents as an *efficient* only, doth otherwiſe move intellectual creatures, and eſpecially his holy angels. *Hooker.*—He that makes; the effector.—Obſervations of the order of nature carry the mind up to the admiration of the great *efficient* of the world. *Hale.*

EFFI'CIENT, *adj.* Cauſing effects; that makes the effect to be what it is.—Your anſwering in the final cauſe, makes me believe you are at a loſs for the *efficient*. *Collier.*

EFFIC'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *ex*, out of, and *fingo*, to faſhion.] The act of faſhioning, the act of repreſenting. *Not uſed.*

To EFFI'GIATE, *v. a.* [*effigio*, Lat.] To form a ſemblance; to image.

EFFIGIA'TION, *ſ.* The act of imaging; or forming the ſemblance of things or perſons.

EFFI'GIES, or EF'FIGY, *ſ.* [*effigies*, Lat. effigy is from being *in effigy*.] Reſemblance; image in painting or ſculpture; repreſentation; idea.—We behold the ſpecies of eloquence in our minds, the *effigies* or actual image of which we ſeek in the organs of our hearing. *Dryden.*

Obſerve thoſe numerous wrongs in *effigy*,
The gods have ſav'd from the devouring ſea. *Garth.*

EF'FINGHAM, a village in the county of Surrey, three miles from Leatherhead, which gives the title of earl to the noble family of Howard. It was once, according to tradition, a large and populous place, in which were ſixteen churches. There are evident proofs of its having been much larger than at preſent; for wells, and cavities like cellars, are frequently found in the fields and woods in its vicinity; and in the church are ſome very ancient and curious ſtalls and monuments.

EF'FINGHAM, formerly Leavitſtown, a townſhip of the American States, in Strafford county, New Hampſhire, ſouth-eaſt of Oſſipee pond, on Oſſipee river, incorporated in 1766.

EF'FINGHAM, a county of the American States, in the lower diſtrict of Georgia, bounded by Savannah river on the north-eaſtward, which ſeparates it from South Carolina; by Ogechee river on the ſouth-weſtward, which divides it from Liberty county. It contained, by the cenſus, in 1796, 2424 inhabitants. Chief towns, Ebenezer and Elberton.

To EFFLA'GITATE, *v. a.* [*efflagitare*, Lat.] To deſire a thing earneſtly. *Bailey.*

EFFLAGITA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *ex*, out of, and *flagito*, to crave.] An earneſt deſire. *Not much uſed.*

EFFLA'TED, *adj.* Puffed up. *Chaucer.*

EFFLA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *ex*, out of, and *flo*, to blow.] The act of belching, the act of breaking wind. *Not much uſed.*

EFFLORES'CENCE, or EFFLORESCENCY, *ſ.* [*efflorеſco*, Lat.] Production of flowers. The time or ſeaſon in which plants put forth their bloſſoms.—Where there is leſs heat, there the ſpirit of the plant is digeſted, and ſevered from the groſſer juice in *efflorеſcence*. *Bacon.*—Excreſcencies in the form of flowers.—Two white ſparry incruſtations, with *efflorеſcencies* in form of ſhrubs, formed by the trickling of water. *Woodward.*—[In phyſic.] The breaking out of ſome humours in the ſkin, in diſtempers called exanthematous; as in the meaſles, &c. *Quincy.*—A wart beginneth in the cutis, and ſeemeth to be an *efflorеſcence* of the ſerum of the blood. *Wiſeman.*—[In chemiſtry.] The effect which takes place when ſolid or conſiſtent bodies gradually and ſpontaneouſly become converted into a powder. See the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 229.

EFFLORES'CENT, *adj.* [*efflorеſco*, Lat.] Shooting out in form of flowers.—Yellow *efflorеſcent* ſparry incruſtations on ſtone. *Woodward.*

EFFLU'ENCE, *ſ.* [*effluo*, Lat.] That which iſſues from ſome other principle.—Bright *effluence* of bright eſſence increate. *Milton.*

From the bright *effluence* of his deed
They borrow that reflected light,
With which the laſting lamp they feed,
Whoſe beams diſpel the damps of envious night. *Prior.*

EFFLU'ENT, *adj.* [from *ex*, out of, and *fluo*, Lat. to flow.] Flowing from; running out. *Cole.*

EFFLU'I, a town of Norway: thirty-two miles north of Chriſtianſand.

EFFLU'VIA, or EFFLUVIUM, *ſ.* [from *effluo*, Lat.] Thoſe ſmall particles which are continually flying off from bodies; the ſubtilty of which appears from their being able, a long time together, to produce very ſenſible effects, without any ſenſible diminution of the body from whence they ariſe. *Quincy.*

If theſe *effluvia*, which do upward tend,
Becauſe leſs heavy than the air, aſcend;
Why do they ever from their height retreat,
And why return to ſeek their central ſeat? *Blackmore.*

EF'FLUX, *ſ.* [*efflux*us, Lat.] The act of flowing out.—Through the copious *efflux* of matter through the orifice of a deep ulcer, he was reduced to a ſkeleton. *Harvey.*—Effuſion; flow.—The firſt *efflux* of men's piety, after receiving of the faith, was the ſelling and conſecrating their poſſeſſions. *Hammond.*—That which flows from ſomething elſe; emanation:

Prime chearer, light!
Of all material beings, firſt and beſt!
Efflux divine! *Thomſon.*

The act of flowing is more properly *effluence*, and that which flows more properly *efflux*.

To EFFLU'X, *v. n.* [*effluo*, Lat.] To run out; to flow away.—Five thouſand and ſome odd centuries of years are *effluxed* ſince the creation. *Boyle.*

EFFLUX'ION, *ſ.* [*efflux*um, Lat.] The act of flowing out.—By *effluxion* and attraction, bodies tend towards the earth. *Brown.*—That which flows out; effluvium; emanation.—There are ſome light *effluxions* from ſpirit to ſpirit, when men are one with another; as from body to body. *Bacon.*

To EFFOR'CE, *v. a.* [*efforcer*, Fr.] To force; to break through by violence:

In all that room was nothing to be ſeen,
But huge great iron cheſts and coffers ſtrong,
All barr'd with double bonds, that none could ween
Them to *efforce* by violence or wrong. *Spenſer.*

To force; to raviſh; to violate by force:

Then 'gan her beauty ſhine as brighteſt ſky,
And burnt his beaſtly heart t' *efforce* her chaſtity. *Spenſer.*

To ſtrain; to exert with effort or vehemence:

The palmer lent his ear into the noiſe,
To wheet who called ſo importunely;
Again he heard a more *efforced* voice,
That bad him come in haſte. *Spenſer.*

To EFFO'RM, *v. a.* [*efformo*, Lat.] To make in any certain manner; to ſhape; to faſhion.—Merciful and gracious, thou gaveſt us being, raiſing us from nothing, and *efforming* us after thy own image. *Taylor.*

EFFORMA'TION, *ſ.* The act of faſhioning or giving form to.—Nature begins to ſet upon her work of *efformation*. *More.*

EF'FORT, *ſ.* [*effort*, Fr.] Struggle; ſtrain; vehement action; laborious endeavour:

Though the ſame ſun, with all diffuſive rays,
Bluſh in the roſe, and in the diamond blaze,
We prize the ſtronger *effort* of his pow'r,
And always ſet the gem above the flow'r. *Pope.*

EFFOS'SION, *ſ.* [*effodio*, Lat.] The act of digging up from the ground; deterration.—He ſet apart annual ſums for the recovery of manuſcripts, the *effoſſion* of coins, and the procuring of mummies. *Arbuthnot.*

EFFOY'ES,

EFFOY'ES, a town of France, in the department of the Aube: three leagues eaſt of Bar-ſur-Seine.

EFFRAC'TOR, *ſ.* [from *ex*, out of, and *frango*, Lat. to break.] One that breaks through; one that breaks into a houſe; a burglar. *Not uſed.*

EFFRÆNA'TION, *ſ.* [from *ex*, out of, and *fræna*, Lat. a bridle.] Ungovernableneſs. *Not uſed.*

EFFRAI'ABLE, *adj.* [*effroyable*, Fr.] Dreadful; frightful; terrible.—Peſtilential ſymptoms declare nothing a proportionate efficient of their *effraiable* nature but arſenical fumes. *Harvey.*

EFFRIN'GED, *adj.* [from *ex*, out of, and *frango*, Lat. to break.] Broken; ground to powder. *Not uſed.*

EFFRON'TERY, *ſ.* [*effronterie*, Fr.] Impudence; ſhameleſſneſs; contempt of reproach.—A bold man's *effrontery*, in company with women, muſt be owing to his low opinion of them, and his high one of himſelf. *Clariſſa.*

EFFRON'TES, *ſ.* in church-hiſtory, a ſect of heretics, in 1534, who ſcraped their forehead with a knife till it bled, and then poured oil into the wound. This ceremony ſerved them inſtead of baptiſm. They are likewiſe ſaid to have denied the divinity of the Holy Spirit.

To EFFUL'GE, *v. n.* [*effulgeo*, Lat.] To ſend forth luſtre or effulgence:

The topaz charms the ſight,
Like theſe *effulging* yellow ſtreams of light. *Savage.*

EFFUL'GENCE, *ſ.* [*effulgeo*, Lat.] Luſtre; brightneſs; clarity; ſplendour:

On thee
Impreſs'd, th' *effulgence* of his glory abides. *Milton.*

EFFUL'GENT, *adj.* [*effulgens*, Lat.] Shining; bright; luminous:

How ſoon th' *effulgent* emanations fly
Through the blue gulph of interpoſing ſky. *Blackmore.*

The downward ſun
Looks out *effulgent*, from amid' the flaſh
Of broken clouds. *Thomſon.*

EFFUMABI'LITY, *ſ.* [*fumus*, Lat.] The quality of flying away, or vapouring in fumes.—They ſeem to define mercury by volatility, or, if I may coin ſuch a word, *effumability*. *Boyle.*

To EFFU'ND, *v. a.* [from *ex*, out of, and *fundo*, Lat. to pour.] To pour out. *Scott.*

To EFFU'SE, *v. a.* [*effuſus*, Lat.] To pour out; to ſpill; to ſhed:

He fell, and, deadly pale,
Groan'd out his ſoul, with guſhing blood *effus'd*. *Milton.*

EFFU'SE, *ſ.* Waſte; effuſion:

The air hath got into my deadly wounds,
And much *effuſe* of blood doth make me faint. *Shakeſpeare.*

EFFU'SION, *ſ.* [*effuſio*, Lat.] The act of pouring out:

My heart hath melted at a lady's tears,
Being an ordinary inundation;
But this *effuſion* of ſuch manly drops,
This ſhow'r, blown up by tempeſt of the ſoul,
Startles mine eyes, and makes me more amaz'd. *Shakeſp.*

Waſte; the act of ſpilling or ſhedding.—When there was but as yet one only family in the world, no means of inſtruction, human or divine, could prevent *effuſion* of blood. *Hooker.*

Yet ſhall ſhe be reſtor'd, ſince public good
For private int'reſt ought not be withſtood,
To ſave th' *effuſion* of my people's blood. *Dryden.*

The act of pouring out words.—Endleſs and ſenſeleſs *effuſions* of indigeſted prayers, oftentimes diſgrace, in moſt inſufferable manner, the worthieſt part of Chriſtian duty towards God. *Hooker.*—Bounteous donation.—Such great force the goſpel of Chriſt had then upon men's ſouls, melting them into that liberal *effuſion* of all that they had. *Hammond.*—The thing poured out.—Purge me with the blood of my Redeemer, and I ſhall be clean; waſh me with that precious *effuſion*, and I ſhall be whiter than ſnow. *King Charles.*

EFFU'SIVE, *adj.* Pouring out; diſperſing:

The north-eaſt ſpends its rage; th' *effuſive* ſouth
Warms the wide air. *Thomſon.*

EFFUTI'TIOUS, *adj.* [from *ex*, out of, and *fundo*, Lat. to pour.] Laviſhly diſtributed; fooliſhly uttered. *Not uſed.*

EFLA'NI, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-two miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Amaſieh.

EFNANLU', a lake of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-ſix miles weſt of Boli.

E'FRIM, a town of Egypt: twenty-ſeven miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Alexandria.

EFT, *ſ.* [ɐꝼeꝛa, Sax.] A newt; an evet; a ſmall kind of lizard that lives generally in the water. See LACERTA.—The crocodile of Egypt is the lizard of Italy, and the *eft* in our country. *Nicholas.*

EFT, *adv.* [ɐꝼꝛ, Sax.] Soon; quickly; ſpeedily; ſhortly. *Obſolete:*

Quite conſumed with flame,
The idol is of that eternal maid;
For ſo at leaſt I have preſerv'd the ſame,
With hands profane, from being *eft* betray'd. *Fairfax.*

Again.—*Eft* looking back would faine have runne away. *Spenſer.*—Afterwards:

Eft, when yeares
More rype as reaſon lent to choſe our peares,
Ourſelves in league of vowed love we knit. *Spenſer.*

Likewiſe.—Yet ſeem'd the ſoyle both fayre and frutefull *eft*. *Spenſer.*

EFT'SOONS, *adv.* [ɐꝼꝛ and ꝑoon, Sax.] Soon afterwards; in a ſhort time; again. An obſolete word; formed, as it ſeems, by the conjunction of two words of the ſame meaning.—The Germans deadly hated the Turks, whereof it was to be thought that new wars ſhould *eftſoons* enſue. *Knolles.*

Eftſoons, O ſweetheart kind, my love repay,
And all the year ſhall then be holiday. *Gay.*

E. G. [*exempli gratia.*] For the ſake of an inſtance or example.

E'GA, a river of Spain, which runs into the Ebro, about a league below Calahorra.

E'GA, or AEGA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: ſeven miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Coimbra.

EGAK'LO, one of the ſmaller Kurule iſlands, in the North Pacific Ocean. Lat. 49. 5. N. lon. 172. 10. E. Ferro.

EG'BEL, a town of Hungary: eight miles weſt of Topaltzan.

EG'BERT, [of ece, eternal, and beoꝛht, Sax. flouriſhing, *q. d.* always flouriſhing; but Verſtegan derives it from eꝛht, equity, and beꝛht, propenſe, *q. d.* greatly inclined to equity.] A man's name; the name of the firſt monarch of England. See ENGLAND.

EGE'DE (Hans or John), ſuperintendant of the Daniſh miſſion to Greenland, born in January 1686, and in 1707 became preacher at Bogen in Nordland. Soon after, he formed a reſolution of converting the Greenlanders to the Chriſtian religion; for which purpoſe he went to Greenland in 1721, where he firſt eſtabliſhed the Daniſh miſſion, and where he reſided continually for fifteen years, employed with great zeal in endeavouring to accompliſh his pious undertaking. He died on the 5th of November 1758, at Stubekioping, in the Daniſh iſland of Falſter. Egede left behind him a natural hiſtory of Greenland, which appeared firſt in Daniſh, in 1729, 4to. A new edition, improved by the obſervations of his ſon Paul, was publiſhed at Copenhagen, with plates, in 1741. A Dutch tranſlation appeared at Delft in Holland, in 1746, 4to. and a French, by Roches de Parthenay, at Geneva, in 1763, 8vo. with a map and ten plates.

EGE'DE (Paul), ſon of the former, miſſionary and biſhop of Greenland, born in 1708. From his twelfth year, that is 1721, he was one of his father's moſt active aſſiſtants; and Denmark was much indebted to him for the ſucceſs of its Greenlandic colony. A deſire to promote the welfare and happineſs of the Greenlanders was the moſt ardent wiſh of his heart, as appears by his laſt publication, entitled *Efferretninger om Gronland, ud dragne af en Journal holden fra 1721 til 1788*; Kiopen. 1789, large 8vo. with plates. This journal, which the author began in his twelfth year, and continued to his eightieth, contains a great many curious facts reſpecting the Greenlanders, and the ſuperſtitious notions they entertain in regard to a kind of pretended conjurors whom they call *Angekok*. As it is carried down to a late period, it may ſerve to ſupply the deficiencies in what his father and Krantz wrote on the ſtate of Greenland, and the manners and cuſtoms of its inhabitants. He died on the 3d of June, 1789.

E'GEK, a town of Hungary: eight miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Levens.

To EGE'LIDATE, *v. a.* [*egelidare*, Lat.] To thaw; alſo to make cold, or congeal. *Bailey.*

E'GELN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Magdeburg: ſixteen miles ſouth-weſt of Magdeburg.

E'GENBURG, or EGGENBURG, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Znaym, and thirty-ſix north-weſt of Vienna. Lat. 48. 37. N. lon. 33. 30. E. Ferro.

E'GER, *ſ.* See EAGER. An impetuous or irregular flood or tide.—From the peculiar diſpoſition of the earth at the bottom, wherein quick excitations are made, may ariſe thoſe *egers* and flows in ſome eſtuaries and rivers; as is obſervable about Trent and Humber in England. *Brown.*—An early tulip.

E'GERI, a lake of Swiſſerland: eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Zug.

E'GERI, or AEGERI, one of the grand communities, which, with the town of Zug, forms the canton of Zug. In this diſtrict, on a mountain, called *Mongarten*, a famous battle was fought in 1315, between the Auſtrians and the Swiſs, when the latter, with a far inferior number of troops, gained a complete victory.

EGE'RIA, a nymph of Aricia in Italy, where Diana was particularly worſhipped. She was courted by Numa Pompilius; and, according to Ovid, became his wife. This prince frequently viſited her; and that he might introduce his laws and new regulations into the ſtate, he ſolemnly declared before the Roman people, that they were previouſly ſanctified and approved by the nymph Egeria. Ovid ſays, that Egeria was ſo diſconſolate at the death of Numa, that ſhe melted into tears, and was changed into a fountain by Diana. She is reckoned by many as a goddeſs who preſided over the pregnancy of women; and ſome maintain that ſhe is the ſame as Lucina.

To EGER'MINATE, *v. a.* [*egerminare*, Lat.] To bud or ſpring out. *Bailey.*

EGERMINA'TION, *ſ.* [from *ex*, out of, and *germino*, Lat. to ſprout.] The act of budding; the act of ſprouting forth.

E'GERO, a ſmall iſland, near the coaſt of Norway, in the North Sea: twenty-four miles ſouth of Stavanger.

E'GERTON (Thomas), viſcount Brackley, lord-high chancellor of England, ſon of ſir Richard Egerton, born in Cheſhire about 1540. He was educated at Brazennoſe college, Oxford, whence he removed to Lincoln's-inn, and purſued the ſtudy of law. He ſoon acquired profeſſional reputation, and in 1581, was appointed ſolicitor-general. In 1584, he roſe to the office of attorney-general, and was knighted. The maſterſhip of the rolls was conferred upon him in 1593; and in 1596, from the queen's ſpecial favour, he received the ſeals, with the title of lord keeper. He was at the ſame time ſworn of the privy-council. Few perſons have enjoyed their advancement with more general approbation than this eminent lawyer, who may be conſidered as one of the worthieſt of queen Elizabeth's reign, when great places were uſually beſtowed upon approved merit and abilities. On the acceſſion of James, Egerton was continued in his office, and created baron of Elleſmere. He was ſoon after created lord-high-chancellor, which poſt he occupied above twelve years, with great dignity and reputation. He preſided as lord ſteward at the trials of lords Cobham and Grey de Wilton. In 1610, he was elected chancellor of the univerſity of Oxford, when he zealouſly occupied himſelf in checking the progreſs of popiſh and calviniſtical opinions in that ſeminary, and in ſupporting the doctrine and diſcipline of the church of England, to which he was ſincerely devoted. He diſtinguiſhed the merit of Williams, afterwards the celebrated archbiſhop of York, made him his chaplain, and brought him into the king's notice. He was alſo a friend and favourer of the great ſir Francis Bacon, with whom he lived ſeveral years in habits of intimacy. In 1615, when his health had begun to decline, he underwent a profeſſional attack from lord chief-juſtice Coke, relative to an interference of the court of chancery in a matter of common law, which that great lawyer judged illegal. The caſe was heard before the king, aſſiſted by ſeveral eminent lawyers, who decided in favour of the chancellor. He was ſoon after appointed high-ſteward at the trial of the earl and counteſs of Somerſet for the death of ſir Thomas Overbury; and, after the earl's conviction, he ſteadily refuſed to affix the great ſeal to the pardon which the king's weakneſs granted him. His age and infirmities at length cauſed him earneſtly to requeſt his diſmiſſion from his office of chancellor. The king, who appears greatly to have eſteemed him, complied with ſome reluctance, and as a mark of his approbation, raiſed him, in 1616, to the dignity of viſcount Brackley. He further intended to honour him with an earldom and a penſion, and ſent his ſucceſſor Bacon, with the earl of Buckingham, to acquaint him with this deſign; but the aged ſtateſman, then on his death-bed, replied by ſaying that theſe things were now only vanities to him. He expired at York-houſe, in the Strand, March 15, 1617, in his ſeventy-ſeventh year. The propoſed earldom of Bridgewater was conferred upon his ſon. Chancellor Elleſmere (the name by which he is generally known) was of a highly venerable preſence, and in all reſpects worthily filled the great ſtation which he occupied. His diſpoſition was open and ſincere, his adminiſtration honeſt and upright. His private character was virtuous and honourable. There was printed during his life-time, his Speech in the Exchequer Chamber, in Robert Calvine's cauſe, commonly called the caſe of the Poſtnati. After his death appeared his Privileges and Prerogatives of the High Court of Chancery; and his Obſervations concerning the Office of Lord Chancellor. There were likewiſe publiſhed, from ſome papers ſaid to be written in his own hand, Lord Chancellor Egerton's Obſervations on the Lord Coke's Reports; but it is doubted whether theſe are his. He left to his chaplain Williams four manuſcript collections, relating to, 1, The Prerogative Royal; 2, The Privileges of Parliament; 3, Proceedings in Chancery; 4, The Power of the Star-chamber; which are ſuppoſed to have been the ſource of that prelate's legal and political knowledge.

To EGE'ST, *v. a.* [*egero*, Lat.] To throw out food at the natural vents.—Divers creatures ſleep all the winter; as the bear, the hedge-hog, the bat, and the bee: theſe all wax fat when they ſleep, and *egeſt* not. *Bacon.*

EGES'TION, *ſ.* [*egeſtus*, Lat.] The act of throwing out the digeſted food at the natural vents.—The animal ſoul or ſpirits manage as well their ſpontaneous actions as the natural or involuntary exertions of digeſtion, *egeſtion*, and circulation. *Hale.*

EGESTUO'SITY, *ſ.* Extreme poverty. *Scott.*

EGES'TUOUS, *adj.* [*egeſtuoſus*, Lat.] Very poor.

EGG, *ſ.* [ægʒ, Sax. *eugh*, Erſe.] That which is laid by

by feathered and ſome other animals, from which their young is produced.—*Eggs* are perhaps the higheſt, moſt nouriſhing and exalted, of animal food, and moſt indigeſtible. *Arbuthnot.*—The ſpawn or ſperm of other creatures:

Ev'ry inſect of each different kind,
In its own *egg*, chear'd by the ſolar rays,
Organs involv'd and latent life diſplays. *Blackmore.*

Any thing faſhioned in the ſhape of an egg.—There was taken a great glaſs-bubble with a long neck, ſuch as chemiſts are wont to call a philoſophical *egg*. *Boyle.*

The animal phyſiology of the egg, with the proceſs of incubation, offers an enquiry of the moſt intereſting kind to thoſe who delight in the curious operations of nature: and for which ſee COMPARATIVE ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 663.—An early inveſtigation of the powers of the parent bird in producing its young firſt taught the Egyptians (that once learned and ſcientific people) the method of hatching chickens by artificial means. This has, for many centuries, conſtituted a regular trade in Cairo and its vicinity. Its practice, ſays Mr. Browne, in his recent Travels in Egypt, appears to have proceeded from the experience that, at a certain ſeaſon, the eggs foſtered only by the hens are commonly unprolific: of thoſe hatched in the ovens, on the contrary, not quite one-third is loſt. The ovens wherein theſe eggs are hatched, are conſtructed in the moſt ſimple manner, conſiſting only of a low arched apartment of clay. Two rows of ſhelves are formed, and the eggs are placed on them ſo as not to touch each other. They are ſlightly moved five or ſix times in twenty-four hours; and the whole time they are in the oven does not exceed twenty-two days, when the chickens eaſily free themſelves from the ſhells. All poſſible care is taken to diffuſe the heat equably throughout; and there is but one ſmall aperture, large enough to admit a man ſtooping. During the firſt eight days the heat is rendered great; and, during the laſt eight, is gradually diminiſhed, till at length, when the young brood is ready to come forth, it is reduced to the ſtate of the natural atmoſphere. At the end of the firſt eight days, it is known which eggs will not be productive. Thoſe who have eggs to be hatched, bring them to the maſter of the oven, and contract to pay ſo much a hundred; and when the chickens appear, he receives his money on delivering them. The eggs which have not ſucceeded are required to be produced; and the ovens are conſidered in the light of public property. It has been calculated that 92,640,000 chickens are by this means annually brought into life in Egypt.

M. Reaumur, contemplating this practice of the Egyptians, was led, by a number of experiments, to reduce the art of hatching eggs to fixed principles. He found, by experience, that the heat neceſſary for this purpoſe is nearly the ſame with that marked 32 on his thermometer, or that marked 96 on Fahrenheit's. This degree of heat is nearly that of the ſkin of the hen, and, what is remarkable, of the ſkin of all other domeſtic fowls, and probably of all other kinds of birds. The degree of heat which brings about the developement of the cygnet, the goſling, and the turkey-pout, is the ſame as that which fits for hatching the canary, and in all probability, the ſmalleſt humming-bird: the difference is only in the time during which this heat ought to be communicated to the eggs of different birds; it will bring the canary-bird to perfection in eleven or twelve days, while the turkey will require twenty-ſeven or twenty-eight. After many experiments, M. Reaumur found, that ſtoves heated by means of a baker's oven, ſucceeded better than thoſe made hot by layers of dung: and the furnaces of glaſs-houſes and thoſe of the melters of metals, by means of pipes to convey heat into a room, might, no doubt, be made to anſwer the ſame purpoſe. As to the form of the ſtoves, no great nicety is required. A chamber over an oven will do very well. Nothing more is neceſſary than to aſcertain the degree of heat; which may be done by melting a piece of butter of the ſize of a walnut, with half as much tallow, and putting it into a phial. This will ſerve to indicate the heat with ſufficient exactneſs: for when it is too great, this mixture will become as liquid as oil; and when the heat is too ſmall, it will remain fixed in a lump: but it will flow like a thick ſyrup, upon inclining the bottle, if the ſtove be of the proper temperature. Great attention therefore ſhould be given to keep the heat always at this degree, by letting in freſh air if it be too great, or ſhutting the ſtove if it be too ſmall: and that all the eggs in the ſtove may equally ſhare the irregularities of the heat, it will be neceſſary to ſhift them from the ſides to the centre; and thus to imitate the hens, who are frequently ſeen to make uſe of their bills, to puſh to the outer parts thoſe eggs that were neareſt to the middle of their neſts, and to bring into the middle ſuch as lay neareſt the ſides. For the purpoſe of hatching eggs, M. Reaumur has invented a ſort of boxes without bottoms lined with fur. Theſe, which he calls *artificial parents*, not only ſhelter the chickens from the injuries of the air, but afford a kindly warmth, ſo that they preſently take the benefit of their ſhelter as readily as they would have done under the wings of a hen. After hatching, it is neceſſary to keep the chickens, for ſome time, in a room artfully heated and furniſhed with theſe boxes; but afterwards they may be expoſed to the air in the court-yard, in which it may not be amiſs to place one of theſe artificial parents to ſhelter them, if there ſhould be occaſion for it. As to the manner of feeding the young brood, they are generally a whole day after being hatched, before they take any food at all; and then a few crumbs of bread may be given them for a day or two, after which they will begin to pick up inſects and graſs for themſelves. But to ſave the trouble of attending them, cocks may be taught to watch them in the ſame manner as hens do; and to lead them about, in ſearch of their food, juſt the ſame as if hatched under a hen.

With regard to the preſervation of eggs, it is obſerved that the egg is always quite full when it is firſt laid by the hen; but from that time it gradually becomes leſs and leſs ſo, to its decay: and, however compact and cloſe its ſhell may appear, it is nevertheleſs perforated with a multitude of ſmall holes, though too minute for the diſcernment of our eyes, the effect of which is a daily decreaſe of matter within the egg, from the time of its being laid; and the perſpiration is much quicker in hot weather than in cold. To preſerve the egg freſh, there needs no more than to ſtop its tranſpiration, the method of doing which is, by ſtopping up thoſe pores with matter which is not ſoluble in watery fluids: and on this principle it is, that all kinds of varniſh, prepared with ſpirit of wine, will preſerve eggs freſh for a long time, if they are carefully rubbed all over the ſhell: tallow, or mutton fat, is alſo good for this purpoſe; for ſuch as are rubbed over with this, will keep as long as thoſe coated over with varniſh.

A method of preſerving eggs has been lately offered to the public, by Mr. William Jayne, of Sheffield, in Yorkſhire, under the ſanction of letters patent, dated February 8, 1791, which deſcribes the invention as follows: Take one buſhel of quicklime, thirty-two ounces of ſalt, eight ounces of cream of tartar, and mix the whole together, with as much water as will reduce the compoſition to that conſiſtence which will cauſe an egg, put into it, to ſwim with its top juſt above the liquid; then put, and keep, the eggs therein, whereby they may be preſerved ſound and ſweet for the ſpace of two years at the leaſt.

To EGG, *v. a.* [*eggia*, to incite, Iſlandic; eggian, Sax.] To incite; to inſtigate; to provoke to action: for this, *edge* is ſometimes ignorantly uſed.—Study becomes pleaſant to him who is purſuing his genius, and whoſe ardour of inclination *eggs* him forwards, and carrieth him through every obſtacle. *Derham.*

EGG, one of the weſtern iſlands of Scotland, about ten miles in circumference: four miles ſouth of the iſland of Sky.

EGG, a town of Norway: forty-eight miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Drontheim.

EGG, a town of the American States, in Glouceſter county, New Jerſey, on Great Egg Harbour; famous for the exportation of pine and cedar.

EGG-BIRD, *ſ.* A bird of the Pacific Ocean.—Under the low trees ſat infinite numbers of a new ſpecies of tern or *egg-bird*. *Cook and King's Voyage.*

EGG HARBOUR (Great), a bay of the American States, in the ſtate of Jerſey, on the eaſt coaſt. Lat. 39. 20. N. lon. 74. 30. W. Greenwich.

EGG HARBOUR (Little), a bay of the American States, in the ſtate of Jerſey, on the eaſt coaſt. Lat. 39. 32. N. lon. 74. 23. W. Greenwich.

EGG HARBOUR RIVER *(Great and Little)*. Great Egg Harbour riſes between Glouceſter and Cumberland counties, in New Jerſey. After running eaſt-ſouth-eaſt a few miles, it becomes the diviſional line between Cape May and Glouceſter counties, and falls into the bay of its own name. The inlet from the Atlantic Ocean lies in lat. 39. 22. The river abounds with rock-fiſh, perch, oyſters, &c. which find a ready market at Philadelphia. This river is navigable twenty miles for veſſels of 200 tons. Little Egg Harbour inlet, lies about ſeventeen miles north-eaſt of Great Egg Harbour inlet. It receives Mulicus river, which riſes in Glouceſter and Burlington counties, and forms part of the diviſional line a few miles from the bay. It is navigable twenty miles for veſſels of ſixty tons. The townſhip of Little Egg Harbour, in Burlington county, conſiſts of about 23,000 acres; and the compact part of the townſhip is called *Clam Town*, where there is a meeting-houſe for friends, and about a dozen houſes. It has a ſmall trade to the Weſt Indies. During the American war, captains Ferguſon and Collins burnt a number of privateers and other veſſels in Little Egg Harbour, and deſtroyed the place.

EGG ISLAND, a ſmall iſland of the American States, on the north-eaſt ſide of Delaware-bay, in Cumberland county.

EGG PLANT, *ſ.* in botany. See SOLANUM.

EG'GE, a river of Germany, which runs into the Danube, between Dillingen and Hochſtet.

EG'GENBERG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: three miles weſt-north-weſt of Graz.

EGGENFEL'DEN, a town of Germany, in Lower Bavaria: twelve miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Dingelfingen.

EG'GERON, a town of Egypt; ſeven miles ſouth of Atfieh.

EG'HAM, a pleaſant town in the county of Surrey, ſeated on the Thames, eighteen miles from London, on the great weſtern road. Here is a neat alms-houſe, founded in 1706, by Mr. Henry Strode, merchant, of London, for ſix men and ſix women, who muſt be ſixty years of age, and have been pariſhioners of Egham twenty years, without having received any parochial relief. The center of this building is a houſe for a ſchool-maſter, amply endowed, for the education of twenty poor boys of Egham. Sir John Denham, father of the poet of the ſame name, and baron of the exchequer in the reigns of James and Charles I. alſo founded an alms-houſe here, for ſix men and ſix women. Here is an annual fair, commencing May 29, which continues three days. Cooper's Hill, the ſubject of a poem by Denham, is ſituated near this town, on the right of the road from London.

EGIL'SHA, one of the Orkney iſlands, about ſix miles in circumference, a little to the eaſt of Ronſa.

EGIN'HART. See ÆGINHARD.

EGIS'THUS, king of Argos, the ſon of Thyeſtes by his daughter Pelopea. Thyeſtes, being at variance with his brother Atreus, was told by the oracle, that his wrongs could be revenged only by a ſon born of himſelf and his daughter. To avoid ſuch an inceſt, Pelopea had been conſecrated to the ſervice of Minerva by her father, who ſome time after met her in a wood, and raviſhed her, without knowing who ſhe was. Pelopea kept the ſword of her raviſher, and finding it to be her father's, expoſed the child ſhe had brought forth. The child was preſerved, and when grown up, preſented with the ſword of his mother's raviſher. Pelopea, ſoon after this melancholy adventure, had married her uncle Atreus, who received into his houſe her natural ſon. As Thyeſtes had debauched the firſt wife of Atreus, Atreus ſent Egiſthus to put him to death; but Thyeſtes, knowing the aſſaſſin's ſword, diſcovered he was his own ſon, and, fully to revenge his wrongs, ſent him back to murder Atreus. After this murder Thyeſtes aſcended the throne, and baniſhed Agamemnon and Menelaus, the ſons, or as others ſay, the grandſons of Atreus. Theſe children were taken care of by Œneus, king of Ætolia. By their marriage with the daughters of Tyndarus, king of Sparta, they were impowered to recover the kingdom of Argos, in which Agamemnon ſucceeded, while Menelaus reigned in his father-in-law's place. Egiſthus had been reconciled to the ſons of Atreus; and when they went to the Trojan war, he was left guardian of Agamemnon's kingdoms, and of his wife Clytemneſtra. Egiſthus fell in love with Clytemneſtra, and lived with her. On Agamemnon's return, theſe two adulterers murdered him, and, by a public marriage, ſtrengthened themſelves on the throne of Argos. Oreſtes, Agamemnon's ſon, would have ſhared his father's fate, had not his ſiſter Electra privately ſent him to his uncle Strophius, king of Phocis, where he contracted the moſt intimate friendſhip with his couſin Pylades. Some time after, Oreſtes came to Mycenæ, the reſidence of Egiſthus, and reſolved to puniſh the murderers of his father, in conjunction with Electra, who lived in diſguiſe in the tyrant's family. To effect this more effectually, Electra publicly declared that her brother Oreſtes was dead; upon which Egiſthus and Clytemneſtra went to the temple of Apollo, to return thanks to the god for his death. Oreſtes, who had ſecretly concealed himſelf in the temple, attacked them, and put them both to death, after a reign of ſeven years. They were buried without the city walls. *Ovid. de Rem. Am.* 161. *Ælian. Æſchyl. Homer.*—Pompey uſed to call Julius Cæſar Egiſthus, on account of his adultery with his wife Mutia, whom he repudiated after ſhe had born him three children.

EGIST'MENT, *ſ.* a law term. The agiſtment, the compoſition for feeding cattle in the king's foreſt; cattle fed at a certain rate. *Scott.*

E'GLAH, [Heb. an heifer.] The name of a woman.

E'GLAIM, [Heb. drops of the ſea.] A city of Moab. *Iſaiah*, xv. 8.

E'GLANTINE, *ſ.* [*eſglantier*, Fr.] A ſpecies of roſe; ſweet-briar. See ROSA.

O'er-canopied with luſcious woodbine,
With ſweet muſk-roſes, and with *eglantine*. *Shakeſpeare.*

E'GLANTINE (P. F. N. Fabre d'), a dramatic writer, and inventor of the new French calendar, born at Chalons in Champaigne. He was early educated by his parents, in polite literature and natural philoſophy. From his youth he felt an invincible inclination to court the muſes, which he evinced in his juvenile publication, intitled *Les Etrennes du Parnaſſe*. He wrote a comedy in three acts, in verſe, called *Le Collateral, ou l'Amour et l'Intérêt*, which was repreſented at the *Théâtre de Monſieur*, but was not ſucceſsful. The revolution did not immediately confer on Fabre either wealth or diſtinction; he continued his literary labours, and produced another comedy called *Philinte*, which was alſo in verſe, and in five acts. This piece, the principal character of which is taken from Moliere, and intended as a continuation of the Miſanthrope, is much praiſed. La Harpe commends it as a judicious and ſpirited work. The plot is ſerious, and where the author has deviated from his model, he has

has done it with genius and judgment. His next production was a comedy in verſe, in two acts, called *Le Convaleſcent de Qualité, ou l'Ariſtocrate*, in which, as may be expected from the title, all the faults of the old French government, and all the prejudices and foibles reſulting from the pride of birth, are virulently attacked. At the ſame time he produced another in five acts, called *L'Intrigue epiſtolaire*, which was much applauded, and had conſiderable ſucceſs.

But the dramatic muſe, however aſſiduouſly or ſucceſſfully cultivated, was not able, in the tumult of revolution, to ſecure to her votary either fame or profit. Fabre had other qualities which promiſed to facilitate his progreſs in the paths of wealth and political renown. The ſpirit of intrigue which he diſplayed on the theatre, was his own characteriſtic in life. He was ſupple, inſinuating, cunning, and laborious; he echoed the ſentiments, and flattered the paſſions, of his ſuperiors, careful in avoiding offence, and careful to obtain the eſteem of all. With theſe requiſites he commenced flatterer of the duke of Orleans, and attached himſelf perſonally to Danton. Danton introduced him to madame Roland's cabinet parties, and recommended him to conduct, jointly with Camille Deſmoulins and Robert, a poſted paper called *Compte rendu au Peuple Souverain*. This publication was commenced and carried on for a ſhort time, but the parties having received the ſum propoſed, it was diſcontinued. Danton then made him one of his ſecretaries; in which ſituation he is ſuppoſed to have acquired great riches previous to and during the maſſacres of the priſoners. He was alſo one of the council-general of the commune, and among the firſt who divided with Danton, and joined Robeſpierre's party againſt Roland. He now lived in the Rue du Théâtre Français in a ſtile of elegance and luxury, and acknowledged himſelf to be worth twelve thouſand livres (525l.) a-year. As he poſſeſſed no viſible means of attaining ſuch a fortune, it was juſtly attributed to his having ſhared in the plunder of the murdered captives, or, perhaps, of the jewel-office.

Having diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the Jacobin club as a republican, and by his exertions againſt la Fayette, he was, by Danton's influence, elected member of the convention for Paris. During ten months he was not conſpicuous. He voted with the reſt of his party on the trial of the king, and recommended death in four-and-twenty-hours. He was marked as a conſtant opponent of Roland; but does not appear to have aſſiſted actively in the expulſion of the Briſſotines. He was a member of the committee of public ſafety, and of the committee of public inſtruction. At the beginning of the war with England, he moved that an addreſs to the Britiſh nation, againſt their government, ſhould be publiſhed; and that the perſons and property of Engliſhmen reſiding in France, and ſubmitting to the laws, ſhould be defended and protected: but, in the ſame year, he propoſed the meaſure of arreſting all the Engliſh, and other ſubjects of the king of England, then in the republic. Ambitious to be eſteemed a good economiſt and financier, he preſented to the convention a plan for ſupplying the army with neceſſaries, and preventing frauds: it ſeems well adapted to a revolutionary government, but totally inapplicable to a regular ſyſtem. He alſo made a report on the diſcredit of aſſignats; but it ſurpaſſed his talents to prevent that calamity.

He was an active member of the club of Cordeliers, and ſhewed himſelf worthy of their eſteem by joining earneſtly in all their labours for the extirpation of religion. One principal effort towards this was the formation of a new calendar, of which d'Eglantine was the author, and which took place from the 22d of September, 1793. The obvious aim of this invention was, by a new diviſion of the year, by the abolition of weeks, by the alteration of months, and by giving new names to the days; to obliterate every trace of Sundays, ſaints' days, holidays, and Chriſtian feſtivals. See the article CALENDAR, vol. iii. p. 615.

It has been aſſerted that Fabre materially aſſiſted Robeſpierre in the compoſition of his ſpeeches and writings; the ſame is ſaid of Camille Deſmoulins; but theſe accounts ſhould be received with caution. They are improbable, becauſe the ſtile of Deſmoulins was extremely careleſs; and d'Eglantine required a judicious friend to reform his own diction: the works of Robeſpierre are ſuperior in wit, ſentiment, and language, to the writings of his ſuppoſed inſtructors. The ſtile in which Fabre lived, and the open profligacy with which he ſold his patronage, may, perhaps, have given riſe to this report; but it was a part of Robeſpierre's prudence not to prevent peculation in his inferior agents, that he might, at pleaſure, ſacrifice them to his revenge or convenience. Fabre was, however, expoſed to denunciations; Boileau accuſed him in the convention of having propoſed the reſtoration of royalty; but the charge was evaded by the influence of his party. His ſtile of living pointed him out to the malice of his brother cordelier Hebert, who attacked him in his journal, called *Le Père Duchesne*, as an enriched patriot. This offence brought Hebert to the ſcaffold; but Fabre did not long triumph over his fallen adverſary: ſoon after the execution of Hebert, he was himſelf arreſted, together with Chabot and ſeveral others, and confined, firſt in the Luxemburg, afterwards in the Conciergerie. In priſon he behaved with the moſt effeminate weakneſs; his health was impaired, and he gave way to unmanly lamentations. Pride prevented his making the loſs of life the apparent topic of his regret; he therefore affected concern about a comedy in five acts, which had been ſeized and ſent to the committee of public ſafety, and of which he was apprehenſive that Billaud de Varennes would aſſume the credit. At his trial he exhibited the ſame deſpondency; not even the heroiſm of Danton could animate him. In the cart he evinced the ſame feebleneſs of character, and died under the guillotine, on the 5th of April 1794.

E'GLE, or ÆGLE, *ſ.* in botany, a new genus in Dr. Roxburgh's Deſcription of the Plants of the Coaſt of Coromandel, ii. 2. 143. *Correa in Act. Soc. Lin.* v. 222. The generic characters are—Trunk pretty erect; bark aſh-coloured; branches thin and irregular; thorns axillary, in pairs, ſingle, very ſharp and ſtrong; but ſometimes wanting. Leaves three'd; leaflets oblong, or broad-lanced, attenuated to a blunt point, crenulated, differing much in ſize, but the exterior one always the largeſt. Panicles as in FERONIA, but the flowers are much larger, and white, and ſuppoſed to be all hermaphrodite. Calyx and corolla, as in Feronia, (monophyllous, campanulate, quinque-partite, *Koenig.*) Filaments about forty, (thirty-two to thirty-ſix, *Koenig.*) Antheræ linear, erect, (acute, *Koenig.*) Piſtillum, as in Feronia. Berry conſiderably larger than in Feronia; ſmoother; ſhell much harder, from ten to fifteen celled, (twelve to ſixteen, *Koenig,*) the cells contain, beſides the ſeeds, a large quantity of an exceedingly tenacious tranſparent gluten, which, on drying, becomes very hard, but continues tranſparent; when freſh, it may be drawn out into threads of one or two yards in length, and ſo fine as to be ſcarcely perceptible to the naked eye. Seeds from ſix to ten in each cell, oblong, a little compreſſed, woolly, of a light-grey colour.

The only ſpecies is egle marmelos, the maredoo of the Telingas. This appears to be the *crateva marmelos* of Linnæus; and it is obſervable, that when this eminent botaniſt made it a crateva, he expreſſed much doubt of the fact, and predicted that it might, when better known, prove to be a diſtinct genus. It grows to a large tree; is a native of the mountainous parts of the coaſt of Coromandel, but met with ſometimes in the low lands; flowers during the hot ſeaſon. It is an aromatic tree; and, from the rind of the fruit, the Dutch on the iſland

of Ceylon prepare a perfume. The wood is of a light chocolate colour, much variegated with darker coloured veins; it is hard, durable, and used for a variety of purposes. The fruit, delicious to the taste and exquisitely fragrant, is not only nutritious, but possesses a laxative and aperient quality, confirmed by experience, which renders it particularly serviceable in habitual costiveness. The mucus of the seed makes a very good cement for several purposes.

E'GLETONS, a town of France, in the department of the Correze, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Tulle: five leagues north-east of Tulle.

EGLIN'GEN, a lordship of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, joining the county of Oettingen, and duchy of Neuburg, with a town of the same name, purchased by the prince of Tour-Taxis, for 200,000 florins. It pays twenty florins for a Roman month, and is taxed at five rixdollars thirty-six kruitzers. The town is six miles north of Dillingen, and six south of Norlingen.

EGLISAU', a town and bailiwic of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, on the Thur: fifteen miles north of Zurich.

EGLI'SE-NEUVE, a town of France, in the department of the Puy-de-Dome, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Besse: eight miles south of Besse.

EG'LOFF, or MEGLOFF, a lordship and principality of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, which pays sixteen florins for a Roman month, and is taxed at twenty-six rixdollars to the chamber of Wetzlar: the town of Egloff is four miles west of Isni.

To EGLO'MERATE, *v. n.* [from *e*, Lat. out of, and *glomero*, to gather into a round mass.] To unwind itself. *Not much used.*

E'GLON, [Heb. round.] A city of Palestine, in the tribe of Judah, situated in the low parts of that province. *Josh.* xv. 39.

EG'MONT, a town of Holland, on the sea coast: three miles south-west of Alcmaer.

EG'MONT BAY, a bay on the south-west of the island of St. John, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Lat. 46. 30. N. lon. 64. 0. W. Greenwich.

EG'MONT ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, six miles long, and four broad, the land low and full of trees; discovered by captain Carteret. The Spaniards called it Santa Cruz. Lat. 19. 20. N. lon. 138. 30. W. Greenwich.

EGNA'ZIO (Batista), a learned Italian, whose true name was *Giambatista Cipelli*, born at Venice of poor parents about 1478. He received a literary education under Benedetto Brognolo and Francesco Bragadino; and at the persuasion of the latter, opened a private school of belles-lettres at Venice, when only eighteen years of age. His rising reputation and success excited the jealousy of Marcantonio Sabellico, public professor in the same city, who began to use all means of discrediting his rival. Egnazio retaliated by a severe censure of the labours of Sabellico on various ancient authors, which he published in 1502, under the title of *Racemationes*. He afterwards undertook to write new annotations upon the authors commented on by Sabellico; and, still further to vex him, opened a public school in the vicinity of his. It is to the honour of both these learned adversaries, that Sabellico on his death-bed, in 1506, sent for Egnazio, asked him pardon for the enmity with which he had treated him, and committed to his care his ten manuscript books of Examples, in order for their publication; and that Egnazio not only complied with this request, but pronounced his funeral eulogy. The Venetian republic mean time had conferred upon him the right of citizenship, with the title of notary; and as he had early embraced the ecclesiastical state, he was presented with the benefice of Gelarino, in the diocese of Trevigi. In 1511 he was appointed parish priest of St. Basso, and prior of the hospital of St. Mark in Venice. In 1515 he accompanied to Milan, four procurators of St. Mark, sent to compliment king Francis I. to whose honour Egnazio composed a panegyric, for which he was rewarded with a gold medal. On the death of Regio, public professor of eloquence at Venice, in 1520, he was elected, against several competitors, to the vacant chair, and was allowed to hold his school in the hospital of which he was prior. Such was the concourse from various parts to hear him, that he had sometimes more than five hundred daily auditors. He was also frequently consulted upon important affairs by the senators, who had a great opinion of his wisdom. He died in 1553, at the age of seventy-five, bequeathing his property and library to three noble Venetian families. Egnazio was an author in various walks. He composed Orations on several occasions; Epistles; the Panegyric above-mentioned; a treatise *De Romanis principibus vel Cæsaribus*, containing the lives of Roman emperors, from Julius Cæsar to Constantine Palæologus, and from Charlemagne to Maximilian I. a treatise On the Origin of the Turks; and a work in nine books, *De Exemplis Virorum illustrium*. But he principally employed himself in correcting and commenting upon the works of the ancients, in the editing of which he was of great use to the elder Aldus. His *Racemationes* have been inserted in Grutcr's *Lampas*.

EGN'BERG, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Austria: eight miles north-east of Gmunden.

E'GOIST, *s.* [from *ego*, Lat.] A peculiar kind of Cartesian.—Hitherto Des Cartes was uncertain of every thing but his own existence, and the existence of the operations and ideas of his own mind. Some of his disciples, it is said, remained at this stage of his system, and got the name of *egoists*. *Reid.*

EGO'ITY, *s.* [*ego*, Lat.] The being or essence of I, or myself.

EGORBE'USK, a town of Russia, in the government of Riazan: twenty-eight miles north of Riazan.

EGOREVS'KOI, a town of Russia: forty miles north-east of Kologrin.

E'GOTISM, *s.* [from *ego*, Lat.] The fault committed in writing, by the frequent repetition of the word *ego*, or *I*; too frequent mention of a man's self in writing or conversation.—The most violent *egotism* which I have met with, in the course of my reading, is that of cardinal Wolsey's; *ego & rex meus*, I and my king. *Spectator.*

E'GOTIST, *s.* [from *ego*, Lat.] One that is always repeating the word *ego*, *I*; a talker of himself.—A tribe of *egotists*, for whom I have always had a mortal aversion, are the authors of memoirs, who are never mentioned in any works but their own. *Spectator.*

To E'GOTIZE, *v. n.* [from *ego*, Lat.] To talk much of one's self.

E'GRA, or CHEBBE, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Saatz, formerly imperial, and in possession of towns and villages; it yet preserves some valuable privileges, and contains a college and three convents. Near it are some medicinal springs, exported in bottles sealed with the arms of the town. It was taken by the French in 1742, but retaken by the Austrians in 1743. The district to which it belongs at one time made part of the duchy of Bavaria, from which it was sold to the king of Bohemia: seventeen miles south-west of Elnbogen, and seventy-six west of Prague. Lat. 49. 59. N. lon. 39. 9. E. Ferro.

E'GRA, or EGER, a river which rises in the marggraviate of Culmbach, and runs into the Elbe near Leitmeritz in Bohemia.

EGRE'GIOUS, *adj.* [*egregius*, Lat.] Eminent; remarkable; extraordinary.—He might be able to adorn this present age, and furnish history with the records of *egregious* exploits both of art and valour. *Moore.*

One to empire born;
Egregious prince; whose manly childhood shew'd
His mingled parents, and portended joy. *Philips.*

Eminently bad; remarkably vicious. *This is the usual sense.*—We may be bold to conclude, that these last times, for insolence,

J. Pass sculp.t

The Egle Marmelos; the Empis livida; and three Species of Enchelis.

London. Published as the Act directs. Aug.t 1.st 1804. by J. Wilkes.

infolence, pride, and *egregious* contempt of all good order, are the worſt. *Hooker.*

And hence th' *egregious* wizzard ſhall foredoom
The fate of Louis and the fall of Rome. *Pope.*

EGRE'GIOUSLY, *adv.* Eminently; ſhamefully.—He diſcovered that, beſides the extravagance of every article, he had been *egregiouſly* cheated. *Arbuthnot.*

EGREGOR'SIS, *ſ.* [from εγεγορεω, Gr. to watch.] An uneaſy watchfulneſs; a morbid want of ſleep.

E'GREMONT, an ancient town in the county of Cumberland, ſituate on the banks of a ſmall river that falls into the ſea, near the promontory of St. Bees. It was formerly a borough, and ſent a member to parliament in the reign of Edward I. but never after; for, the burghers becoming unwilling to pay the burgeſſes their wages, they, to free themſelves from the burden, petitioned the king that they might be exempted from that charge. Here are the ruins of a caſtle finely ſituated, with juſt as much of it preſerved as is convenient for the earl of Egremont to hold a court in. Egremont is well watered. Its market, which is on Saturdays, is plentifully ſupplied with barley and oats. It has a fair on the 19th of September. Its diſtance from London is 299 miles. It gives the title of earl to the family of Wyndham.

This place bears the ſtrongeſt features of antiquity, ſeveral of the houſes being piazzaed in front. The remains of the caſtle is ſituated on a remarkable eminence; and bears ſingular marks of ſtrength. One cannot enter a place where ſuch veſtiges of ancient magnificence are ſeen, and where every object ſtrikes the eye with proofs of former pomp and power, and of preſent deſertion, decay, and deſolation, without various ſenſations of feeling and reflection. A contemplative viſitor is apt to exclaim, How fluctuating are the affairs of man! how changeable are all ſublunary things! theſe towers ſubmit to the ravages of time, and this once impregnable fortreſs yields itſelf to every aſſailant. How are thy honours waſted, and thy pride brought low! thy military powers are no more, and thy magnificence ſinks in the duſt! the ſhouts of victory are no longer re-echoed from thy walls, the voice of feſtivity hath forſaken thee! authority and rule are rent from thy hands, and thy conquering banners are delivered up to the deſtroying hand of time, who yields them to the darkneſs of oblivion! thy towers are no longer the abode of ſtrength, nor thy chambers of ſecurity! where the haughty hero trod, returning with the ſpoils of war, and the honours of victory, amidſt the acclamations of his troops, the lazy aſs now ſtands in his mid-day dream, ſhadowing his drowſy eye with heavy ear! tribulation takes the ſeat of hoſpitality; and, where the jocund gueſt laughed over the ſparkling bowl, adders hiſs, and owls ſing the ſtrains of melancholy to the midnight moonſhine, that ſleeps upon thy mouldering battlements!

E'GREMONT, a townſhip of the American States, in Berkſhire county, Maſſachuſetts, incorporated in 1760: fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Stockbridge, and 145 weſt of Boſton.

E'GRESS, *ſ.* [*egreſſus*, Lat.] The power or act of going out of any place; departure:

Gates of burning adamant,
Barr'd over us, prohibit all *egreſs*. *Milton.*

EGRES'SION, *ſ.* [*egreſſio*, Lat.] The act of going out.—The vaſt number of troops is expreſſed in the ſwarms; the tumultuous manner of iſſuing out of their ſhips, and the perpetual *egreſſion*, which ſeemed without end, are imaged in the bees pouring out. *Pope.*

E'GRET, *ſ.* A water-fowl of the heron kind. See ARDEA.

E'GREVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Nemours: three leagues ſouth-eaſt of Nemours.

E'GRIOT, *ſ.* [*aigret*, Fr. perhaps from *aigre*, ſour.] A ſpecies of cherry.—The cœur-cherry, which inclineth more to white, is ſweeter than the red; but the *egriot* is more ſour. *Bacon.*

EGRISEL'LES, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Sens: ſeven miles ſouth of Sens.

E'GRITUDE, *ſ.* [from *æger*, Lat. ſick.] Sickneſs. *Not much uſed.*

EGUIL'LES, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Aix: two leagues north-weſt of Aix.

EGUIMU'HA, or ELGIMUHA, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, at the foot of mount Atlas, near which is an iron mine.

E'GUISHEM, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Colmar: three miles ſouth-weſt of Colmar.

E'GULA, *ſ.* A ſort of ſulphur uſed in working woollen cloth, which makes it ſoft and white.

EGUREN'DE, a town of France, in the department of the Correze, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Uſſel: four leagues north-eaſt of Uſſel.

To EGUR'GITATE, *v. a.* [*egurgitare*, Lat.] To empty or diſgorge.

E'GUZON, a town of France, in the department of the Indre, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Argenton: three leagues ſouth of Argenton.

E'GYPT, a country of Africa, celebrated in all ages as the firſt ſeat of the ſciences, and the fountain from whence originally flowed every ſpecies of valuable learning. Its hiſtory becomes doubly intereſting to the Chriſtian and Engliſh reader, not only from its intimate connection with numerous paſſages of the holy ſcriptures, but likewiſe on account of the recent events which have occurred in that diſtant region. For theſe reaſons we ſhall be, perhaps, more circumſtantial in our details of this article, than the circumſcribed limits of our plan will generally allow.

Egypt is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt by the Red Sea and the iſthmus of Suez, on the ſouth by mountains, which ſeparate it from Nubia, and on the weſt by the deſerts of Lybia. Its length from north to ſouth is about 500 miles, its breadth, including the greater and leſſer Oaſis, about 250. Egypt is now divided into Upper and Lower, the former extending in a long and narrow valley from Syene to Grand Cairo. Two ridges of mountains form the outlines of Upper Egypt, running along each ſide of the Nile till, reaching Cairo, the weſtern ridge takes its courſe towards Alexandria, the other towards the Red Sea. Beyond theſe mountains, on each ſide, are deſerts; between them lies a long plain, whoſe greateſt breadth is not more than nine leagues. Down this valley rolls the Nile. Lower Egypt includes all the country between Cairo and the Mediterranean on the north and ſouth; and Lybia and the iſthmus of Suez to the eaſt and weſt; bounded by ſandy deſerts, it contains ſlips of land fertile and well cultivated on the borders of the river and canals, and in the center, that tract or iſland which is called *Delta*, formed by the branches of the Nile.

Ancient geographers divided Egypt into three parts, Upper, Middle, and Lower. The Upper Egypt was called by the Greeks *Thebais*, now *Said*, or *Al Said*, which extends from Syene to Manfalout; Middle Egypt, called by the Greeks *Heptanomis*, now *Voſtani*; and Lower Egypt, the beſt part of which was is *Delta*, now called *Bahira*, or *Rif*.

Among the famous cities that formerly embelliſhed Upper Egypt, we may enumerate, on the weſtern ſide of the river, Lycopolis, or the city of the Wolves; Hypſele, now called Aboutig; Aphroditopolis, or the city of Venus; Ptolemais; Abydus, celebrated for the magnificent palace of Memnon; Little Dioſpolis, or the city of Jupiter; Tentyra; Latopolis; Great Apollinopolis, and Elephantine: and on the oppoſite ſide of the river ſtood

Antæopolis; Paſſalus; Panopolis; Chemoboſcia; Cæne, or Neapolis; Apollinopolis, or the village of Apollo; and the celebrated Thebes; which vied with the moſt illuſtrious cities in the univerſe for its extent, wealth, and population. Previous to its deſtruction by Cambyſes, its extent is ſaid to have been no leſs than fifty-two miles and a half: ſo great was its wealth, that, after it had been plundered by the Perſians, three hundred talents of gold, and two thouſand three hundred of ſilver, were found among the remains of the pillage; and its population has been deſcribed with peculiar animation by Homer, who informs us, that from each of its hundred gates iſſued two hundred warriors with their horſes and chariots. Some authors have, indeed, ſuppoſed that by the gates here ſpoken of are to be underſtood either the temples of the city, or the palaces of certain powerful princes, but as this ſuppoſition is avowedly founded upon the aſſertions of modern travellers reſpecting the *ruins* of Thebes, we beg leave to obſerve, that Mr. Browne found ſufficient veſtiges, in 1792, to eſtabliſh a contrary belief. "From the roof of the great temple at Akſor," ſays he, "may be ſeen an inſulated maſs, toward the ſouth, which has apparently been a gate; and ſome other imperfect remains may be diſcovered with a teleſcope, in the directions weſt and north, under the ſame circumſtances; ſo that from the ſituation of theſe ruins, preciſely oppoſed to each other at the three cardinal points, it ſeems extremely probable that they were three of the gates belonging to the ancient city." Among the auguſt remains of this celebrated city, are ſome temples and palaces, which have triumphed over the corroding hand of time, and ſtill exhibit to the amazed ſpectator a profuſion of majeſtic columns, exquiſite ſtatues, and brilliant paintings. We cannot give a livelier idea of the ſtrong effects of their appearance upon a contemplative mind, than is expreſſed in the words of M. Sonnini, who viſited the ſpot in the ſummer of 1778: "It would be impoſſible," ſays this traveller, "to deſcribe the ſenſations I experienced at the ſight of objects ſo truly grand and majeſtic. It was not ſimply admiration, but an exſtacy which ſuſpended the uſe of my faculties: I remained a long time motionleſs with rapture, and was more than once inclined to proſtrate myſelf in veneration before monuments the erection of which ſeemed to ſurpaſs the genius and the powers of man. Coloſſal and other gigantic ſtatues, obeliſks, avenues formed by rows of ſphinxes which are ſtill viſible, porticoes of a prodigious elevation, immenſe colonnades, the pillars of which are ſome twenty and ſome thirty feet in circumference; paintings which ſtill retain an incomparable brilliancy; granite and marble laviſhed in the ſtructures; ſtones of aſtoniſhing dimenſions forming the magnificent roofs; and thouſands of proſtrate columns which literally ſtrew the ground, combine to ſtrike the beholder with equal admiration and amazement."

Middle Egypt was called *Heptanomis* on account of the ſeven nomes or prefectures into which it was divided. This part of Egypt was alſo celebrated for the magnificence of its cities, of which the moſt remarkable were Memphis, Acanthus, Heracleopolis, Arſinoe, and Antinopolis.—Memphis, ſuppoſed to have been founded by Menes the firſt Egyptian monarch, was for ſeveral ages the metropolis of the whole kingdom. This part of Egypt contains the principal of its curioſities, viz. the obeliſks, the pyramids, the labyrinth, the lake of Moeris, &c.

Lower Egypt contains not only the Delta, but alſo Mareotis and Alexandria to the weſt, and Caſiotis and Auguſtamnica toward the eaſt. Several places have been mentioned by the ancients as being ſituate in the Mareotic nome, but we find nothing relating to them worthy of notice. The famous city of Alexandria, which was formerly reckoned next to Rome for the grandeur of its buildings and richneſs of its materials, is ſituate between the lake Marea and the Canopic branch of the Nile. For a more particular deſcription of this and the other ancient cities of Egypt, ſee under their reſpective titles in this Encyclopædia.

At a ſmall diſtance from Alexandria was the iſland of Pharos, and the famous light-houſe or tower of the ſame name. The iſland Antirrhodes has been alſo mentioned by the ancients as lying at a ſhort diſtance from the ſhore, but this has been totally deſtroyed by the ſea. About three miles diſtant was the city of Nicopolis, greatly embelliſhed by Auguſtus after the defeat of Antony; and at the diſtance of one hundred and twenty ſtadia was Canopus, reputed infamous on account of the lewd diverſions which the Alexandrians there indulged in. On the narrow tract of land, between the ſea and the canal that runs from Alexandria to Canopus, were Zephyrium, the Leſſer Tapoſiris, and Thonis; and to the ſouth of Canopus ſtood Shadia, Anthylla, Momemphis, Andropolis, and Latona. The Delta is encompaſſed by the arms of the Nile, lying between the Canopic branch to the weſt, and the Peluſian to the eaſt. It is ſaid to have contained ſeveral famous cities, of which we enumerate Sais, once the metropolis of Lower Egypt, and celebrated for a magnificent temple of Minerva; Butus, famous for the oracle of Latona; Leontopolis, where particular adoration was paid to the lion; and Tanis, formerly honoured by the reſidence of the Pharaohs. Theſe are the chief cities in the Delta, which, together with the province of Al Feyyûm, may be regarded as the moſt fertile and beſt cultivated part of Egypt. It is now ſaid to contain 360 villages, and yields a variety of fruit in ſo great an abundance, that when a ſcarcity is experienced in other parts of the kingdom, the Delta is crowned with an exuberant produce. The other cities of Lower Egypt are Bubaſtus, which formerly contained a ſplendid temple of Diana; Babylon, ſaid by Joſephus to have been built on the ſite of the ancient Latopolis; Peluſium, called by Hirtius the key of Egypt, becauſe whoever was maſter of this city had a free paſſage into Egypt; and Heliopolis, or the city of the ſun, where a magnificent temple was erected to the great luminary of heaven, and where particular worſhip was paid to a bull under the name of Menevis.

ORIGINAL HISTORY.

No part of ancient hiſtory ſeems more abſtruſe than that of the firſt Egyptian monarchs. According to the account of its own hiſtorians, gods and demi-gods governed it ſucceſſively, through a ſeries of twenty thouſand years. But the abſurdity of ſuch an aſſertion is ſufficiently obvious. To theſe gods and heroes ſucceeded mortals as ſovereigns of Egypt, of whom Manetho has left us thirty dynaſties or principalities, which, if allowed to be ſucceſſive, make up a ſeries of time of more than five thouſand three hundred years, to the reign of Alexander the Great; but this is evidently erroneous: beſides, Eratoſthenes, the hiſtorian of Cyrene, has written a catalogue of thirty-eight kings of Thebes, all different from thoſe of Manetho. Much labour has been uſed by the literati in attempting to clear up theſe difficulties; but it is generally ſuppoſed that the kings of theſe dynaſties did not reign ſucceſſively, but many of them at the ſame time, and in different parts of Egypt.

Pharaoh, in ſcripture hiſtory, is the common name of the early kings of Egypt. Joſephus ſays, that all the kings of Egypt, from Minæus, the founder of Memphis, who lived ſeveral ages before Abraham, have always had the name or Pharaoh, down to the times of Solomon, for more than 3300 years. He adds, that in the Egyptian language, the word *Pharaoh* ſignifies *king*; and that thoſe princes did not aſſume this name but when they aſcended the throne, at which time they quitted alſo their former name. Hence, ſays Joſephus, Herodotus names none of the kings of Egypt after Minæus, the builder of Memphis, though he had 330 kings for his ſucceſſors, becauſe they had all the name of Pharaoh; but becauſe this name did not paſs

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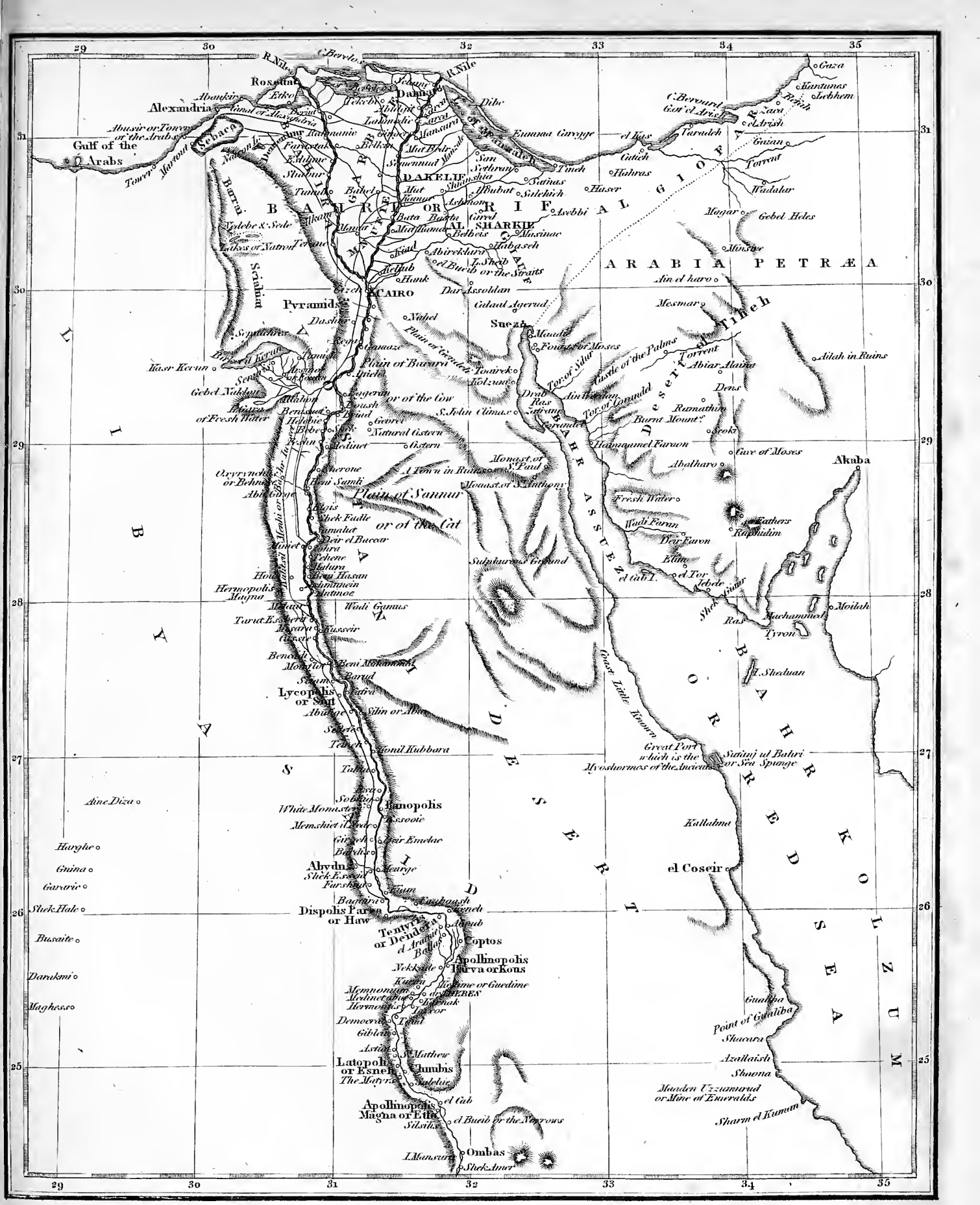
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Gulf of the Arabs
Alexandria
Rosetta
Damietta
R. Nile
Lake Menzaleh
Lake Bourlos
Gaza
Mantunes
Lebhem
Rafah
C. Bernard
Gen el Arish
Zaui
el Arish
Tarabeh
Gaian
Torrent
Gatieh
Hahras
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Wadalar
Magar
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ARABIA PETRÆA
Ain el haro
Mesmar
Suez
Gulf of Suez
Pyramids
CAIRO
Dar Assoldan
Gilaut Agerud
Maudie
Fontain of Moses
Castle of the Palms
Desert Torrent
Abiar Alaima
Ailah in Ruins
Dens
Ramathin
Scrok
Hammamel Farvon
Cave of Moses
Akaba
Abalharo
Fresh Water
Wadi Farun
Dear Farun
Mt Fathers
Rod Sudim
Elim
el Tor
Sebbe
Sheh Gunar
Ras Muchammed
Moilah
Tyron
Gebel Sheduan
Great Port which is the Myoshormos of the Ancients
Sirainj ul Bahri or Sea Sponge
Kallabna
el Coseir
Gualiba
Point of Gualiba
Shacara
Azallaish
Shuona
Maaden Uzzumarud or Mine of Emeralds
Sharm el Kuman
Red Sea
Gulf of Kolzum
Desert
Libyan Desert
Arabian Desert
Lake Mareotis
Lake Aboukir
Lake Etko
Lake Burlos
Nile
Rosetta Branch
Damietta Branch
Delta
Barrin
Sciaiina
Natron Lakes
Valley of Natron
Pyramids
Dashur
Sakkara
Memphis
Ghizeh
Kasr Keroun
Gebel Nakkel
Heights of Fresh Water
Plain of Bussari
Plain of Sannur
Oxyrynchus or Behnesa
Abu Girge
Monastery of the Cow
Natural Cistern
Cistern
Monast. of St Paul
Monast. of St Anthony
Sulphurous Ground
Lycopolis or Siut
Hermopolis Magna
Wadi Gamus
Benoah
Beni Mohammed
Baruel
Abutige
Silin or Abou
Tahta
Gomil Kubbara
Ptolemais
Sohag
White Monastery
Panopolis
Akmim
Girgeh
Abydus
Dispolis Parva or Haw
Tentyra or Dendera
Coptos
Apollinopolis Parva or Kous
Memnonium
Medinet Habu
Hermonthis
Thebes
Diospolis Magna
Latopolis or Esneh
The Meyris
Apollinopolis Magna or Edfu
Silsilis
el Gab
el Bueib or the Narrows
Ombas
Sheh Amer
Mansura
Aine Diza
Harghe
Guina
Gavaric
Sheh Hale
Busaite
Daraksmi
Maghess
Ain el Hudra
Ain el Bueib
Ain Sudr
Ain Hawara
Ain Musa
Ain Hamam
Ain Sheikh
Ain Sedr
Ain Ghurundel
Ain Abu Suweir
Ain Nasb
Ain Gharandel
Ain Hudra
Ain Tarfa
Ain Abu Aweigila
Ain Kossaima
Ain Muilah
Ain Kadis
Ain Gudeirat
Ain Kadeis
Ain Mesfak
Ain Jerafi
Ain Ghadian
Ain Hadeira
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to women alſo, he names an Egyptian queen, Nicaule, who ſucceeded them. Laſtly, I find, adds Joſephus, from the ancient records of our nation, that from the age of Solomon no king of Egypt had any longer the name of Pharaoh. But Joſephus is not very accurate in this paſſage. True it is, Herodotus ſays, that Mines, or Minæus, was the firſt king of Egypt, and founder of Memphis; that there were 330 kings after him in Egypt; that after them there was a queen called Nicotris, and not Nicaule, as Joſephus writes it; but it is not true that theſe kings had no other name but Pharaoh. Herodotus ſays expreſsly, that in the books of the Egyptian prieſts were read the names and the catalogue of 330 kings; that in this number of 330 there were eighteen Ethiopians, and a woman that was a foreigner, called Nicotris, and that all the others were Egyptians. Theſe princes, therefore, had every one his proper name mentioned in the catalogue of the Egyptian kings, and which, in the order of this treatiſe we ſhall follow. So likewiſe we ſee in the fragments of Manetho, that every king of Egypt had a name peculiar to him; and we find the name *Pharaoh* only in ſcripture.

What Joſephus adds concerning queen Nicaule, or Nicotris, whom he pretends to be the ſame as the queen of Sheba, of whom mention is made in ſcripture, 1 Kings, x. 1, 2, &c. is entirely fabulous; and as to what he ſays, that ſince the time of Solomon the kings of Egypt have no longer had the name of Pharaoh, is manifeſtly falſe, ſince we ſtill find this name in the ſecond book of Kings, under Hezekiah, 2 Kings, xviii. 21; under Joſiah, xxiii. 29, 30, 33, &c. where this name is joined to Necho, which was the proper name of this prince; under Jehoiakim, xxiii. 35; and in the prophets Iſaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel, who are much later than Solomon. It is very probable that the Egyptians gave the name of Pharaoh to their kings as long as the Egyptian language was in common uſe, and as long as their kings were of their own nation: but after the conqueſt of Egypt by Alexander the Great, and that the Grecians introduced their language with their government, the name of Pharaoh was known no longer among them, being ſupplied by that of *Ptolemy*, a title applied to the Greek monarchs who reigned over Egypt, as *Pharaoh* had before been to its native kings.

The firſt prince known to us by the name of Pharaoh was he in whoſe time Abraham went down to Egypt, when Sarah, who paſſed only for Abraham's ſiſter, was by the command of Pharaoh brought to his palace in order to become his wife. But the Lord ſmote Pharaoh and his family with great infirmities, and gave him to know that ſhe was Abraham's wife; whereupon Pharaoh ſent for Abraham, reſtored him his wife, and at the ſame time gave orders that he ſhould be conducted out of Egypt, with every thing that belonged to him. The ſecond Pharaoh ſpoken of in the ſcriptures is he that reigned when Joſeph arrived there. This prince, or his ſucceſſor, had the myſterious dream of the fat and lean kine, and the ſeven full and barren ears of corn, which Joſeph explained ſo well to his ſatisfaction, that he made him governor of his houſe and of all Egypt, reſerving only to himſelf the name of a king. This is the ſame Pharaoh that ſent for and entertained the patriarch Jacob and his family in Egypt, and gave them the land of Goſhen for their habitation. The third Pharaoh known in holy writ is he that perſecuted the Iſraelites. Moſes tells us that he was a new king, and had no knowledge of Joſeph, Exod. i. 8. This prince, obſerving that the Iſraelites were become very numerous and powerful, reſolved to depreſs them by hardſhip and labour; and ſet cruel and pitileſs taſkmaſters over them. But the more he oppreſſed them, the faſter they multiplied; inſomuch that he gave orders to the Egyptian midwives, who aſſiſted the Hebrew women in their labour, to put all the male children to death, and to ſave alive the females only. But this command was not executed. The midwives feared the Lord, and preſerved alive not only the female children, but the males alſo. Pharaoh, ſeeing this edict did not ſucceed, publiſhed a decree, Exod. i. 22. that all the male children born of Hebrew women ſhould be thrown into the Nile, and that only the females ſhould be ſpared. This order was rigorouſly executed; yet, by the providence of God, Moſes was preſerved, and even brought up in Pharaoh's own court, by his own daughter, who by chance had found the child as he was expoſed upon the Nile.

Moſes being grown up, and having killed an Egyptian who had abuſed an Hebrew, was obliged to fly from Egypt to avoid the death that Pharaoh had threatened to inflict upon him. Several years after, when about eighty years old, he returned again by an order from God, and performed the mighty miracles before Pharaoh. There is great probability that this Pharaoh, before whom Moſes appeared, and in whoſe ſight he ſmote Egypt with ſo many plagues, was a different perſon from him who would have laid hands on him after he had ſlain the Egyptian. This ſame Pharaoh having at laſt been compelled to ſend away the Hebrews, and to ſuffer them to go out of Egypt, purſued them at the head of his army with his chariots, and was drowned in the Red Sea, wherein he had raſhly entered in the eagerneſs of his purſuit. Hiſtorians pretend to give us the name of this Pharaoh; ſome, as Appion, call him Amoſis or Amaſis; Euſebius calls him Chenchris; Uſher calls him Amenophis; but we muſt not look for accuracy among vague conjectures.

The fifth Pharaoh known to us in the Bible, is he that gave protection to Hadad ſon of the king of Edom, who gave him to wife the ſiſter of his own queen, enriched him with lands, and brought up his ſon Genubah in his own court. Hadad returned to Idumea after the death of David. The ſixth Pharaoh is he that gave his daughter in marriage to Solomon king of the Hebrews, 1 Kings, iii. 1. and, having taken Gezer, he ſet it on fire, drove the Canaanites out of it, and gave it for a preſent to Solomon, in lieu of a dowry for his daughter, whom he had married to this prince, 1 Kings, ix. 16. The ſeventh is Shiſhak, who entertained Jeroboam in his dominions, a rebellious ſubject of Solomon, and offered him a refuge in oppoſition to the king his maſter. The ſame Shiſhak declared war againſt Rehoboam the ſon and ſucceſſor of Solomon, beſieged and took Jeruſalem, carried away all the king's treaſures, and thoſe of the houſe of God, and particularly the golden bucklers that Solomon had made. The eighth is that Pharaoh with whom Hezekiah made a league againſt Sennacherib king of Aſſyria, in the year of the world 3290. This Pharaoh is probably the ſame whom Herodotus names Sethon, prieſt of Vulcan, who came to meet Sennacherib before Peluſium, and to whoſe aſſiſtance Vulcan ſent an army of rats, which gnawed the bow-ſtrings and the thongs of the bucklers of Sennacherib's ſoldiers. The ninth is Pharaoh Necho, or Nechus ſon of Pſammiticus, who made war with Joſiah, and ſubdued him. Herodotus alſo mentions this prince. The tenth is Pharaoh Hophra, who entered into an alliance with Zedekiah king of Judah, and attempted to come to his aſſiſtance againſt Nebuchadnezzar king of Chaldea. It was againſt this Pharaoh that Ezekiel pronounced ſeveral of his prophecies. See *Ezek.* xxix. xxx. xxxi. xxxii. He is called Apries in Herodotus. He is alſo mentioned in Habakkuk, ii. 15. See alſo *Iſaiah*, xix. xx. and *Jeremiah*, xlvi. 16. We ſhall now give the ancient hiſtory of the Egyptian kings, from the records afforded us by profane authors.

Menes is generally acknowledged as the firſt king who ſwayed the Egyptian ſceptre. In his time the greateſt part of the country was a moraſs, till he diverted the courſe of the Nile, and founded the city of Memphis within the ancient bed of that river. He was the firſt who inſtructed the Egyptians in theology; introduced domeſtic luxury; and inſtituted magnificent feaſts.

Herodotus informs us, that the Egyptians had a catalogue

logue of three hundred and thirty monarchs, extending from Menes to Moeris, and that nothing worthy notice was recorded of any of them, except an Ethiopian woman named Nitocris: but Diodorus affirms, that the family of Menes ſucceſſively filled the throne for the ſpace of fourteen hundred years. As, therefore, we find ſo vaſt a chaſm in the accounts of both hiſtorians, we ſhall venture to fill it up, in part, with ſome tranſactions which evidently belong to that remote period. During the reign of Timaus king of Egypt, the government was ſubverted, and the country ſubdued, by a multitude of perſons from the eaſt, who poured forth like a torrent, and behaved in the moſt inhuman manner, extirpating the princes, burning the cities, demoliſhing the temples, and carrying the women and children into captivity. After ſatiating their cruelty by theſe atrocities, they elected a king from among themſelves, who choſe Memphis for the place of his reſidence; and, by placing garriſons in various parts, contrived to keep the upper and lower regions in ſubjection. He alſo fortified the eaſtern parts, to ſecure him from an invaſion of the Aſſyrians, who were at that time a powerful people. He rebuilt a city, in the Saitic nome, which was ſeated on the eaſtern bank of the river Bubaſtis, and, having ſurrounded it with a ſtrong wall, he placed a garriſon of twenty-four thouſand ſoldiers therein. On the deceaſe of Salatis, the throne was ſucceſſively occupied by Beon, Aphacnas, Apophis, Janias, and Aſſis, who, like their predeceſſor, endeavoured to deſtroy the whole nation of the Egyptians. Theſe invaders were called *Hyeſos*, or Shepherd kings, and are ſaid by Manetho to have held all Lower Egypt in ſubjection for the ſpace of two hundred and fifty-nine years, at the expiration of which they were obliged, by Amoſis king of Upper Egypt, to abandon their uſurped poſſeſſions.

According to the account of Diodorus, Buſiris in proceſs of time obtained the diadem, and was ſucceeded by eight princes of his line; the laſt of whom, called Buſiris the Second, founded the city of Thebes, and made it the capital of his kingdom. Oſymandyas occupies the next place; but it is equally uncertain whom he ſucceeded, or at what time he obtained the regal dignity. He is ſaid to have chaſtiſed the Bactrians for a revolt, with an army of four hundred thouſand foot and twenty thouſand cavalry: and his monument far exceeded the moſt ſplendid of thoſe which graced the royal city. It conſiſted of ſpacious courts, ſhrines, porticoes, temples, a library, and other buildings. The firſt court was 200 feet in extent and forty-five feet high. Next to this was a ſquare portico 400 feet long on each ſide, and ſupported by figures of animals of an extraordinary ſize: the ceiling was deſigned to repreſent the ſplendid canopy of heaven, being painted of an azure blue, and ſprinkled with a profuſion of ſtars. Beyond this portico was the ſecond court, ſimilar in extent and conſtruction to the firſt, but enriched with a variety of exquiſite ſculptures, three of which were deſigned to repreſent the royal founder, with his mother and daughter; and a fourth was erected in honour of his mother only, whoſe head was decorated with three crowns, in token of her illuſtrious birth, marriage, and progeny. This court led to a ſecond portico, the walls of which were covered with numerous ſculptures and paintings, repreſenting the king fighting at the head of his army, accompanied by a lion; the captives deprived of their hands as a puniſhment for their cowardice; the royal ſacrifices and triumph; and two gigantic ſtatues, each twenty-ſeven cubits high. From hence three paſſages led into a great hall ſupported by columns, and decorated with ſeveral repreſentations of parties engaged in law, and the diſcuſſion of cauſes before the aſſembly of judges. Next was a gallery in which were apartments ſtored with the moſt delicious refreſhments. Here was a ſtatue of the king, moſt curiouſly wrought and painted, in the act of preſenting to the gods the annual produce of the Egyptian mines, amounting to 3,200,000 minæ, or £6,000,000 of pounds ſterling. Not far from hence was a magnificent library with this appropriate inſcription: "The office for the diſeaſes of the mind:" and beyond the library was a ſumptuous edifice containing twenty couches, and the ſtatues of Jupiter, Juno, and the king. This was ſurrounded by ſeven pavilions ornamented with pictures of the ſacred animals; and from hence was the aſcent to the mauſoleum of Oſymandyas, which diſcovered an extraordinary magnificence, being encompaſſed with a circle of gold, one cubit broad, and 365 cubits in circumference; and this ring being divided by the days of the year, ſhewed the riſing, ſetting, and aſpects, of the ſtars, according to the Egyptian aſtrology.

Uchoreus, the laſt deſcendant of Oſymandyas who reigned in Egypt, is ſaid to have enlarged the city of Memphis; to have ſecured it from invaſion by mounds and trenches; and to have adorned it with ſeveral public buildings. He tranſlated the royal ſeat from Thebes to that city, and has been therefore regarded by ſeveral authors as its original founder.

Having followed Diodorus thus far in his account, we ſhall next relate what Herodotus has left upon record concerning Nitocris. This woman ſucceeded her brother, (an Ethiopian, who was murdered by the Egyptians, though they afterwards conferred the crown upon her,) and meditating revenge for his untimely fate, put many of her ſubjects to death privately, and afterwards contrived a ſubterraneous building, whither ſhe deluded the chief objects of her vengeance to a feaſt, and, in the midſt of their mirth, overwhelmed them with deſtruction, by turning the river upon them through a ſecret paſſage. She then eluded the rage of the populace by taking refuge in a place well fortified. Her perſon is ſaid to have been extremely beautiful, but her diſpoſition revengeful and cruel. Some authors ſuppoſe her to have erected the third great pyramid. After twelve generations, we find the throne of Egypt filled by Moeris, who dug the celebrated lake which bears his name, built a ſumptuous portico on the north ſide of Vulcan's temple at Memphis, and erected ſome other ſtructures.

Seſoſtris, the celebrated king of Egypt, being deſigned by his father for a great warrior, was in his early youth attended by all the male Egyptians of his own age, who, together with the prince, were inured to a hard and laborious life, that they might be able to ſuſtain the toils of war without repining. When he was more advanced in years, he was ſent, with his companions, againſt the Arabians, who had never been conquered. In this expedition he acquired a conſiderable ſhare of military knowledge; ſurmounted all the dangers and perils of a howling deſert; patiently endured the hardſhips attached to a dry and ſteril country; and finally compelled the enemy to bow to his reſiſtleſs arms. He was next ſent by his father to try his fortune weſtward, and he ſubdued the greateſt part of the African continent with the ſame facility that attended his enterprizes in Arabia. About this time his father died, leaving him the undiſputed ſucceſſion of the government. Seſoſtris immediately formed the deſign of conquering the world; but, previous to his quitting the kingdom, he provided for his domeſtic ſecurity by a generous and obliging behaviour towards his ſubjects at large, and by magnificent donations and remiſſions of puniſhments among his ſoldiers. He alſo divided the kingdom into thirty-ſix nomes or provinces, and beſtowed them on perſons of the moſt approved fidelity. Having taken theſe precautions, he levied forces equal to his great deſigns, and headed them with officers of known courage, who were chiefly ſelected from the companions of his youth; this army conſiſted of ſix hundred thouſand foot, twenty-four thouſand horſe, and twenty-ſeven thouſand armed chariots. Conſcious, however, that this amazing force was not adequate to his vaſt intentions, he broke through the ancient ſuperſtition of the Egyptians, and fitted out a fleet of 400 ſail, which was commiſſioned to vanquiſh the iſles and cities lying on the coaſts of the Red Sea; while the king himſelf,

ſelf, heading his land forces, obliged the nations of Ethiopia to pay him an annual tribute of ebony, gold, and ivory; and afterwards overran and pillaged all Aſia, and ſome part of Europe. He is even ſaid to have extended his victories beyond the Ganges, and to have advanced as far as the ocean. The Scythians were obliged to ſubmit to his authority. The ancient kingdom of Colchis was partly colonized by his followers; and his empire extended from the Ganges to the Danube. It was his cuſtom to erect pillars in every country he ſubdued, with an inſcription to this effect: "Seſoſtris, king of kings, and lord of lords, vanquiſhed this country by the power of his arms:" and theſe pillars were alſo marked with hieroglyphical figures, expreſſive of the courage or puſillanimity of the conquered nations.

Finding a ſcarcity of proviſions in Thrace, whither he had advanced in the progreſs of his conqueſts, he returned to Egypt laden with the ſpoils of various ſubjugated nations, and followed by a ſurpriſing multitude of captives. He now rewarded his officers and ſoldiers with a truly royal munificence, in proportion to their rank and merit; reſolving that thoſe who had been his companions in the toils of war, ſhould be enabled to paſs the remainder of their days in the full enjoyment of peace and plenty. While he thus provided for the future repoſe of his brave followers, he rendered his power highly advantageous to his ſubjects, by enriching their country with uſeful works and magnificent edifices. An hundred temples, raiſed as monuments of gratitude to the tutelar gods of all the cities, were the firſt and moſt celebrated teſtimonies of his ſignal ſucceſs; and, in the courſe of this univerſal undertaking, no Egyptian was employed, as appeared from an inſcription upon each temple to this effect: "No native laboured hereon." But he was particularly ſtudious of embelliſhing the temple of Vulcan at Memphis, in acknowledgment of that god's imaginary deliverance of himſelf and his family from fire, contrived by his own brother, at the period of his return from the wars.

To ſecure Egypt from the inroads of its neighbours, the Syrians and Arabians, he fortified all the eaſtern ſide with a wall that extended from Peluſium to Heliopolis, a diſtance of 187 miles and a half. He alſo raiſed a great number of lofty mounts, to which he removed ſuch towns as had formerly been injured by the inundations of the Nile; and cut on both ſides of the river ſeveral canals, which not only advanced the trade and proſperity of the kingdom, by affording an eaſy communication between the diſtant cities; but alſo rendered the country inacceſſible to the cavalry of its enemies, which in former times had haraſſed it by frequent predatory incurſions. But with reſpect to the kings and chiefs of the conquered nations, who waited upon him to preſent their tribute, his behaviour was groſsly inſolent; for he is ſaid to have cauſed theſe princes, four a-breaſt, to be harneſſed to his car inſtead of horſes, that they might draw him to the temple. A conduct ſo unworthy fails not to tarniſh all his warlike actions, and draws a cloud over the luſtre of his private virtues. Having loſt his ſight in his old age, this celebrated hero of antiquity laid violent hands on himſelf, and left the throne to his ſon Pheron.

This monarch, by ſome called Pheron, and by others Seſoſtris the Second, ſeems to have performed nothing to dignify his memory. Herodotus relates, that in an extraordinary inundation of the Nile, he capriciouſly took offence, and inſolently threw a javelin into the waters, as if he intended to chaſtiſe them for their encroachment upon his dominions; he was, however, immediately afflicted with a violent pain in his eyes, and ſoon after had the misfortune to be involved in total darkneſs. Several ages after this event, the government devolved to Ammoſis, whoſe reign was one continued ſcene of cruelty, violence, and oppreſſion. Many of his ſubjects were dragged to execution without cauſe; others were ſtripped of their poſſeſſions upon no other motive than his imperious will; and toward all he behaved with the moſt intolerable arrogance; till at length he was driven from the throne by the united exertions of the people, aſſiſted by Actiſanes, king of Ethiopia. Actiſanes united Egypt and Ethiopia under his government, bore his proſperity with prudence and moderation, and behaved in the moſt affectionate manner towards his new ſubjects. Having cauſed a general ſearch to be made after the Egyptian robbers, he commanded their noſes to be cut off, and then baniſhed them to the remoteſt part of the deſert, between Syria and Egypt, where he built them a town, which, from the mutilation of its inhabitants, was diſtinguiſhed by the name of Rhinocolura.

On the deceaſe of Actiſanes, the throne was left at the diſpoſal of the Egyptians, and they elected Mendes for their king. His actions, however, were, in all probability, unworthy notice, as he is merely celebrated in hiſtory for building a ſepulchral labyrinth. After Mendes, enſued an interregnum for five generations, at the end of which a Memphite, of ignoble extraction, was exalted to the throne. The prieſts characterized him as a magician, and pretended that he could aſſume whatever form he pleaſed. His Egyptian name was Cetes, which the Greeks rendered Proteus. During his reign, Paris and Helen were driven by contrary winds on the coaſts of Egypt, in their paſſage to Troy; but when the Egyptian monarch underſtood the perfidious breach of hoſpitality the young Trojan had committed, he commanded him to quit his dominions within three days; at the ſame time detaining Helen and her huſband's treaſures, till they might be reſtored to the injured owner.

Rhampſinitus, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Proteus, was of ſo avaricious a diſpoſition, that Diodorus aſſerts, his conduct during his whole reign, was rather that of a mean-ſpirited ſteward than of a wealthy king. The ſame author informs us, that he was never at any expence either for the honour of the gods or the welfare of his people, but that his whole delight was in the augmentation of his private fortune, which, at his deceaſe, amounted to no leſs than 400,000 talents. He is, however, ſaid to have been a ſtrict obſerver of that good order which had hitherto ſubſiſted throughout the kingdom, from its firſt foundation. This king was ſucceeded by ſeven others, all of ignoble character, except Nilus, who is celebrated for the great number of canals he dug in the country, and for his endeavours to render the advantages of the Nile as general as poſſible, for which reaſon the river that had been formerly called Egyptus, was now firſt called by his name.

Cheops is branded in the page of Egyptian hiſtory for his tyranny and impiety. He began his reign with ſhutting up the temples, and forbidding all public ſacrifices; he then boldly ſubverted the laws, invaded the liberties of his people, and reduced them to a ſtate of the moſt abject ſlavery; numbers of them were ſent to work in the Arabian quarries, and others burdened with the labour of raiſing the largeſt of the pyramids. By this and other works of oſtentation, the king was reduced ſo low, that he expoſed his daughter to proſtitution for the ſake of gain. She complied with his injunctions, and is ſaid to have required each of her gallants to contribute a ſtone towards a ſmall pyramid which ſhe built, after her father's example, to perpetuate her memory. This tyrannical prince, having reigned fifty years, was ſucceeded by his brother Cephrenes, whoſe actions were ſtrictly conſonant with thoſe of his predeceſſor. He alſo erected a pyramid, but its dimenſions were conſiderably ſmaller than thoſe of the other. He reigned fifty-ſix years, and left orders that his remains ſhould be depoſited in his pyramid; but neither this king nor Cheops obtained their wiſh in this reſpect, as their friends, dreading the rage of the populace, buried them in ſilence and obſcurity.

Egypt having thus groaned under the ſway of tyrannical power for the ſpace of one hundred and ſix years, was next governed by Mycerinus, the ſon of Cheops, who, being

ing of a merciful diſpoſition, and abhorring the impiety of his deceaſed relatives, opened the temples, reſtored the ſacrifices, encouraged his people to follow their reſpective avocations with avidity, and cheerfully redreſſed the injured, to the beſt of his ability. This conduct might naturally have been ſuppoſed to have drawn down bleſſings upon his perſon and family; but, on the contrary, his lovely daughter was torn from his arms by death, and the oracle at Butus pronounced that his own life ſhould continue but ſix years more. In conſequence of this prediction the king ſent to remonſtrate with the oracle, alleging that his father and uncle, who were monſters of impiety, had been bleſſed with length of days; while he, who had reverenced the gods, and acted with juſtice and humanity towards his ſubjects, was requited with ſo ſevere a ſentence. To this expoſtulation the oracle replied, that Cheops and Cephrenes were acquainted with the decree of fate which had doomed the Egyptians to one hundred and fifty years of ſevere miſery, and had acted conformably thereto; but, as the preſent reign had interrupted the courſe of the deſtined affliction, it muſt therefore be ſuddenly terminated. Mycerinus, finding his doom irrevocable, reſolved to make the moſt of his allotted time, and ordering a ſplendid illumination to be prepared every night, ſo that he devoted the whole of his time to feaſting and revelry, thenceforward making no diſtinction between day and night. He is alſo ſaid to have erected a pyramid, which, from the baſis to the middle, was of Ethiopian ſtone, inſcribed on the northern front with the name of the royal founder.

Though we are unable to fix with accuracy the time of his ſucceſſion, we ſhall procced to notice Gnephactus, a king renowned for his temperance, and for the execration he denounced againſt Menes, who firſt introduced exceſs and luxury among the Egyptians. This execration reſulted from the ſalutary repoſe which Gnephactus enjoyed, after a day of fatigue and ſlender diet, in the midſt of a barren deſert; and, by conſent of the prieſts, it was engraved upon a pillar in the temple of Thebes.

Bocchoris, the ſon of this abſtemious prince, was ſurnamed the Wiſe, on account of his great prudence and knowledge; though his perſonal appearance is ſaid to have been ignoble. He is called the fourth Egyptian lawgiver; and his excellent deciſions were retained for ſeveral ages after his death. The luſtre of his qualities was, however, tarniſhed by his inordinate love of money; and he drew a general odium upon himſelf, by letting in a wild bull to the ſacred animal called Mnevis, though the latter obtained a complete victory over his antagoniſt. Previous to this event, Bocchoris was highly venerated by his ſubjects, but at laſt he was taken captive by Sabbaco the Ethiopian, and burnt to death.

Aſychis, whom ſome authors ſuppoſe to have been the ſame with Bocchoris, is ſaid to have built the eaſtern portico to the temple of Vulcan with peculiar magnificence; to have erected a pyramid of brick, on which appeared a vaunting inſcription; and to have enacted a law, whereby a man might borrow money on the dead body of his father. The throne was now filled by a blind man named Anyſis, who, on the invaſion of his kingdom by Sabbaco, fled for ſhelter to the fens. Sabbaco, who is ſaid to have condemned the unhappy Bocchoris to the devouring flames, no ſooner found himſelf eſtabliſhed in his new dignity, than he laid aſide his cruelty, and became a pattern of clemency and benevolence. He was excited to the invaſion of Egypt by a dream, which aſſured him that he ſhould hold that country for the ſpace of fifty years. During his continuance in Egypt, he exhibited the brighteſt proofs of wiſdom and piety, and ſtudied to render his power ſerviceable to all his ſubjects. At length, however, he had a viſion in his ſleep, wherein the tutelar god of Thebes informed him that he could no longer retain the Egyptian diadem with happineſs and ſecurity, unleſs he maſſacred the prieſts as he paſſed through them with his guards. In conſequence of this viſion he ſent for the prieſts, and reſigning the crown, which he had now held for the promiſed term of fifty years, he returned into Ethiopia. On this Anyſis came forth from his hiding-place, and re-aſſumed the reins of government, having formed an iſland during his long abſence, compoſed of earth and ſand, in the midſt of the Nile, for his habitation.

Sethon king of Egypt, and prieſt of Vulcan, injuriouſly diveſted the military order of their lands and ancient privileges; in conſequence of which they thought themſelves abſolved from their allegiance, and determined not to bear arms under his command. In this ſtate of affairs, Egypt was threatened with an invaſion by Sennacherib king of Aſſyria. Sethon, perceiving his danger, had now recourſe to the men whom he had treated with ſuch injuſtice; but, finding them obſtinate in their determination, he repaired to his god, and in the deepeſt diſtreſs implored aſſiſtance. Whilſt he was in the temple he fell into a deep ſleep, during which he imagined Vulcan ſtood before him, exhorting him to march againſt the enemy, promiſing to crown his efforts with a complete victory. Animated by this dream, he aſſembled a body of tradeſmen, labourers, and artificers, and boldly commenced his march towards Peluſium. The night after his arrival, an infinite multitude of field rats entered the enemy's camp, and gnawed the quivers, ſhield-ſtraps, and bow-ſtrings, to pieces; in conſequence of which Sethon purſued them with great ſlaughter, and, in memory of the miraculous event, erected a ſtatue of ſtone in the temple of Vulcan, holding a rat in one hand, and bearing an inſcription to this effect: "Whoever beholdeth me, let him learn to reverence the gods." Such is the account given by Herodotus; but we are inclined to ſuppoſe, with M. Rollin, that this ſtory is merely an alteration of that which is narrated in the ſeventeenth chapter of the Second Book of Kings. We there read that Sennacherib king of the Aſſyrians, having vanquiſhed all the neighbouring nations, deſigned to beſiege Hezekiah in Jeruſalem. The Jewiſh miniſters, alarmed for their own ſafety, ſent (in oppoſition to the advice of their prince and the prophet Iſaiah) to the Egyptians and Ethiopians for aſſiſtance. Theſe armies united and marched immediately to their relief; but were overthrown in a pitched battle by the Aſſyrians, who purſued them into Egypt, and plundered the country. At his return from thence, on the very night preceding his intended aſſault of the holy city, he loſt one hundred four-ſcore and five thouſand men, by the immediate judgment of God, placed in the hands of the deſtroying angel. This was the real fact; but, as it was no ways honourable to the natives of Egypt, they endeavoured to turn it to their advantage by corrupting the circumſtances, and weaving it into the tale recited by Herodotus.

After the death of Sethon, Egypt was divided into twelve kingdoms, and as many nobles ſeized on the government of the ſtate. Theſe kings entered into the ſtricteſt aſſociation for the public welfare, and built the famous labyrinth, in order to perpetuate their names to the lateſt ages. Their government was for a conſiderable time attended with peace, and their regulations were productive of ſatisfaction and harmony; till at length, being all aſſembled in the temple of Vulcan, Pſammetichus preſented his libation in his helmet, the high-prieſt having neglected to provide him with a golden bowl. This occurrence, though purely accidental, was obſerved by the other kings as an inauſpicious augury reſpecting their future fortunes, as they immediately recollected that an oracle had affirmed, the man who ſhould offer his libation to Vulcan in a brazen cup, ſhould be king of all Egypt. They thought it therefore prudent to ſecure themſelves from his attempts, and unanimouſly agreed to baniſh him into the fenny parts of the country. Pſammetichus withdrew in purſuance of his ſentence, but ſent to the oracle of Latona, to enquire by what means he might hope for redreſs. The oracle affirmed, in anſwer, that

that brazen men would ſuddenly ariſe from the ſea and avenge the ſeverity of his treatment. This declaration was regarded as an abſurdity; but, not long after, ſome Grecians, Carians, and Ionians, landed in braſs-armour, which Pſammetichus conceiving to be the accompliſhment of the myſterious prediction, immediately engaged the ſtrangers by large promiſes to ſtay with him, and uniting them with ſuch Egyptians as eſpouſed his cauſe, he obtained a deciſive victory over the eleven kings, and ſeized on the whole kingdom for himſelf. Thus was the duodecemvirate diſſolved, after it had continued fifteen years.

Pſammetichus, thus poſſeſſed of the throne without a rival, in the year before Chriſt 670, is ſaid to have reigned with as much policy, wiſdom, and magnificence, as any of his predeceſſors. He rewarded his allies to the full extent of his promiſe. He alſo gave them certain lands on each ſide of the Nile, and honoured them with the tuition of ſeveral young Egyptians who were deſirous of learning the Greek language. Herodotus informs us, that he built the ſouthern portico to the temple of Vulcan, and raiſed a magnificent edifice for the reception of the god Apis. The partiality expreſſed by this monarch towards the foreigners who placed him on the throne, was ſo obnoxious to the Egyptians, that two hundred thouſand of them quitted his ſervice at once, and removed, in ſpite of every remonſtrance, to the territories of Ethiopia. Pſammetichus, however, contrived to repair this loſs by opening his ports to all ſtrangers, in oppoſition to the reſerved maxims of his predeceſſors, and by entering into an advantageous alliance with the Athenians and other Greek nations. After a reign of fifty-four years he died, and was buried in the temple of Minerva, at Sais. He is celebrated for the ſiege he laid to Azotus in Syria, which held out againſt the whole power of Egypt for twenty-nine years; and he is ſaid to have been the firſt king who ſent perſons to diſcover the ſprings of the Nile. It was this prince alſo, who, being anxious to prove whether the Egyptians were in reality the moſt ancient nation upon earth, cauſed two children born of poor parents to be brought up in a hovel, under the care of a ſhepherd, who was to nouriſh them with goats milk, and to ſeclude them carefully from every other human being, that they might never have an opportunity of hearing an articulate ſound. At the end of two years, as the ſhepherd was one day entering the hut to feed theſe children, they both extended their little hands towards him, crying out at the ſame time *beckos*, *beckos*. They were immediately taken to court, that the king might hear them ſpeak; and after much enquiry it was found that the Phrygians called bread by the name of *beckos*. The Egyptians were therefore obliged to reſign the honour of antiquity, or rather of priority, to the Phrygians.

On the deceaſe of Pſammetichus, before Chriſt 616, the ſceptre devolved to his ſon Nechus, the Pharaoh-Necho of the ſcriptures, a prince of an enterprizing genius. In the commencement of his reign, he attempted to cut a canal that might unite the Red Sea with the Nile; but, after much expence and labour, he was warned by an oracle to deſiſt. He accordingly gave up his deſign; built a fleet of galleys in the northern ſea, and another in the ſtraits of the Arabian gulf; and ſent out ſome of the moſt expert Phœnician mariners, upon a diſcovery of the African coaſts. He was not only great at ſea, but formidable alſo by land. The ſcripture expreſsly ſays, that he went out againſt the king of Aſſyria. In this expedition he was oppoſed by Joſiah, who was mortally wounded in the valley of Megiddo. The conqueror then proceeded to the banks of the Euphrates, ſubdued the city of Carchemiſh, and, at the expiration of three months, returned towards Egypt. Hearing that Jehoahaz had raiſed himſelf to the throne in Jeruſalem, he ordered him to appear before him at Riblah in Syria, where he loaded him with chains, and ſent him priſoner into Egypt. He then viſited Jeruſalem; made Eliakim king over Judah, changing his name to Jehoiakim, and impoſing on him a tribute of one talent of gold and a hundred talents of ſilver. Thus he became maſter of Judea and Syria; and, in commemoration of his good fortune, he conſecrated to Apollo the garments which he had worn in his moſt ſplendid engagements. His enjoyment of theſe new acquiſitions was, however, but of ſhort duration; for, in a few years, he was defeated and ſtripped of all his poſſeſſions in Syria and Judea by Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, who undertook to drive the Egyptians from Carchemiſh, and recover the Syrian and Phœnician provinces. After this period, the actions of Nechus gradually dwindled into obſcurity, nor did he again attempt to quit the boundaries of his own kingdom. He died in the ſixteenth year of his reign, and left the kingdom to his ſon.

Pſammis, who began to reign in the year before Chriſt 600, held the regal dignity only ſix years; and hiſtory contains nothing reſpecting him worthy of mention, except that he made an expedition into Ethiopia. During this reign a ſplendid embaſſy was ſent by the Eleans to know whether the moſt ſage Egyptians could diſcover any defect in the Olympic games. The king accordingly called an aſſembly of the moſt judicious men in his dominions, who, having heard all that could be ſaid in favour of the inſtitution and its regulations, aſked the Eleans whether ſtrangers and citizens were both admitted to contend at their games; and, on the Eleans replying that they were open to any one, the Egyptians pronounced their conduct erroneous, ſince it was natural they ſhould favour their fellow-citizens more than foreigners.

Apries the ſon of Pſammis, and the Pharaoh Hophra of holy writ, entered into a league with Zedekiah king of Judah, againſt the king of Babylon. About two years after this tranſaction, which marked his acceſſion, he led an army to the relief of Jeruſalem, then cloſely beſieged by Nebuchadnezzar; but, finding that the Babylonian reſolved to give him battle, he retreated haſtily to his own country, and abandoned the Jews to the fury of their enemy. To puniſh this breach of faith, Ezekiel predicted that the Egyptians ſhould be confounded and deſolate for forty years, and that they ſhould gradually degenerate till they ſhould have no power to elect a monarch of their own. The ſcripture ſpeaks of Apries in very degrading terms, and finally threatens him with a violent death, which was his fate. The fulfilment of theſe prophecies are ſatisfactorily recorded, even by profane hiſtorians, who inform us that Apries, in conſequence of expoſing the Egyptians to a dreadful defeat, by ſending them to the relief of Andican king of Lybia, cauſed an univerſal defection among his ſubjects; that, in the hope of appeaſing the diſturbance by the mediation of his ſuppoſed friend Amaſis, he furniſhed the rebels with a valiant leader, whom they accordingly ſaluted king of Egypt; and that Apries, being vanquiſhed in a pitched battle near Memphis, was taken captive by the uſurper, who for ſome time treated him with great reſpect; but at length delivered him into the hands of the people, who ſtrangled him, and laid his body among his deceaſed anceſtors, in the temple of Minerva.

During theſe inteſtine commotions, Egypt was invaded by Nebuchadnezzar, who miſerably haraſſed the country, and led great numbers of its inhabitants into captivity. At length, however, he came to an accommodation with Amaſis, and quitted the kingdom with an immenſe booty, which had been promiſed him by the God of Iſrael in theſe words: "Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, cauſed his army to ſerve a great ſervice againſt Tyrus, yet had he no wages, nor his army for Tyrus. Therefore, thus ſaith the Lord God, I will give the land of Egypt unto Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, and it ſhall be the wages for his army."

Amaſis began to reign in the year 569 before Chriſt; and is generally believed to have been of plebeian extraction, upon which account he met with no reſpect from

from his ſubjects in the beginning of his reign. He, however, thought it prudent to ſubdue their temper by an artful mode of conduct, and to conciliate their affections by gentleneſs and reaſon. He cauſed a golden ciſtern, in which he uſed to waſh his feet, to be melted down and caſt into a ſtatue, which, by his expreſs order, was expoſed to public adoration. The people haſtened in crowds to perform their devotions before the new god, when the king informed them of the vile uſes to which it had once been applied, though it was now become an object of their worſhip. The application of this remark had the deſired ſucceſs, and the king was from that time treated with veneration. He attended cloſely to buſineſs during the morning, and devoted the reſt of the day to mirth and conviviality: but, as he ſometimes carried his gaiety beyond due bounds, his friends aſſured him that he would render himſelf contemptible by the unſuitableneſs of his conduct: to which he anſwered, that the mind of man required relaxation to preſerve its energy; and that it was as impoſſible to be always ſerious, as for a bow to continue always bent, without loſing its vigour. He built a magnificent portico to the temple of Minerva at Sais; founded the great temple of Iſis at Memphis; enriched the other celebrated temples with a profuſion of gifts and ornaments; and removed an edifice, conſiſting only of one ſtone, from Elephantina to Sais: two thouſand men were employed during the ſpace of three years in tranſporting this extraordinary edifice, which meaſured twenty-one cubits in front, fourteen in depth, and eight in height: the interior dimenſions were eighteen cubits, twelve, and five. So great was his fame for munificence and humanity, that when the Delphians endeavoured to raiſe a contribution towards the rebuilding of their temple, which had been deſtroyed by fire, he voluntarily gave them a thouſand talents of alum. He made an alliance with the Cyrenians, and married Ladice, the daughter of Critobolus. After the conſummation of his nuptials, he ſent a gilded ſtatue of Minerva and his own portrait to the city of Cyrene; to the city of Lindus he preſented two ſtone ſtatues of the ſame goddeſs; and to Samos he ſent two wooden images of himſelf, which were ſeen ſtanding ſeveral ages afterwards behind the gates of the great temple of Juno. To theſe particulars we may add, that he was the firſt prince who conquered Cyprus, and extorted a tribute from its inhabitants.

Hitherto we have ſpoken of Amaſis as a great and happy monarch, but we are now obliged to confeſs that his reign, however glorious in ſome particulars, was mixed with ignominy, and that his latter days were darkened by one of the moſt dreadful ſtorms that ever threatened the ſafety of Egypt. Xenophon aſſures us that Egypt was ſubdued by Cyrus; which muſt have been during this long reign. Herodotus aſſerts, that Amaſis and Cræſus were leagued together againſt Cyrus; and it is well known that Nebuchadnezzar almoſt ruined the whole kingdom; though no mention is made of this deſtruction by profane authors, who have either copied from the ancient records of Egypt, or depended upon the oral traditions of the Egyptian prieſts, men who would naturally exert themſelves to hide from every ſcrutinizing eye the foul diſhonour of their nation. Amaſis, having by ſome means exaſperated Cambyſes the Perſian, was threatened with an invaſion by that prince immediately after the death of Cyrus. At the ſame time Phanes of Halicarnaſſus, commander of the Grecian auxiliaries in the pay of Amaſis, quitted Egypt in diſguſt, and embarked for Perſia. Amaſis was juſtly alarmed at the gathering cloud, and was perfectly ſenſible how great a loſs he muſt ſuſtain in the defection of a man who, as a valiant captain, a judicious counſellor, and a perſon thoroughly acquainted with all his affairs, might ſtrengthen the hands of Cambyſes, and facilitate the deſtruction of Egypt. He therefore ſent a ſwift-ſailing galley to purſue the fugitive, who was overtaken at Lycia; but, having intoxicated his guard, he rendered abortive all the ſchemes of Amaſis, and proceeded without moleſtation to the court of Cambyſes. About the ſame period Amaſis, as if finally deſtined to accumulated misfortunes, renounced the friendſhip and alliance which had long ſubſiſted between himſelf and Polycrates, the tyrant of Samos. In conſequence of this prepoſterous behaviour, Polycrates offered to aſſiſt Cambyſes with a fleet of ſhips, in his purpoſed invaſion. Previous, however, to the commencement of the impending ſtorm, Amaſis paid the debt of nature, in the forty-fourth year of his reign; and left a diſtracted kingdom to his ſon.

Pſammenitus had ſcarcely aſſumed the enſigns of the regal office, when Cambyſes appeared on the frontiers with a powerful army, in the year before Chriſt 525. A body of forces was levied with all poſſible expedition, to elude the preſſing danger; but the Perſian laying ſiege to Peluſium, made himſelf maſter of that important city, without the leaſt oppoſition from the Egyptian garriſon. Immediately after the ſurrender, Pſammenitus advanced to ſtop the progreſs of his foe. Previous to the engagement, the Greeks who ſerved under Pſammenitus, anxious to expreſs their indignation againſt their faithleſs countryman, Phanes, brought his children into the camp, killed them before their father's face, and drank their blood in preſence of the two armies. This barbarity rouſed the Perſian ſoldiers to vengeance, and they immediately commenced their revenge with ſuch fury as ſoon put the Egyptian forces to flight, and covered the field with their dead bodies. Thoſe who eſcaped the ſlaughter fled to Memphis, where they tore a Perſian herald to pieces, and carried his limbs in triumph through the city. They were, however, ſoon beſieged by their inveterate foes, and compelled to ſurrender at diſcretion: when their enormities were retaliated by the public execution of the prime nobility, among whom was the ſon of Pſammenitus. The Egyptian monarch himſelf was taken captive, but Cambyſes reſtored him to his liberty, and would probably have entruſted him with the adminiſtration of affairs; but this forbearance made no impreſſion on his vindictive ſpirit, which thirſted for revenge on the conqueror; he was therefore condemned to drink bull's blood, and expired after a diſmal reign of ſix months, and a ſhort captivity. Cambyſes having thus brought Egypt under his ſubjection proceeded to Sais, the burying-place of the Egyptian kings; and having cauſed the dead body of Amaſis to be taken from the ſepulchre, he expoſed it to a thouſand indignities, and finally ordered it to be reduced to aſhes. He afterwards pillaged and burnt the Theban temples; killed the god Apis with his own hand; and ordered the prieſts to be ſeverely whipped. Theſe ſeverities made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion upon the minds of the wretched Egyptians, that they ever afterwards regarded the Perſians with the moſt irreconcileable averſion. In the reign of Darius Hyſtaſpis, they broke out into an open revolt, and remained in a ſtate of rebellion againſt the Perſians, till the ſecond year of Xerxes, when they were reduced to greater ſubjection than before, under Achæmenes, who was appointed their governor.

Their ſufferings, however, ſeem rather to have irritated than broken their ſpirits; as we find them revolting again, in the fifth year of Artaxerxes Longimanus, before Chriſt 450. As this period they perſuaded Inarus king of Lybia, to fill their vacant throne, and implored aſſiſtance from the Athenians, who embraced with ardour this opportunity of driving the Perſians from Egypt. Theſe auxiliaries attacking the Perſian fleet, took and deſtroyed fifty ſail of their ſhips; and then ſailed up the Nile, haſtened to join the Egyptian and Lybian forces, under the banner of Inarus. Having effected a junction, they ventured to attack the Perſian general, though his army conſiſted of three hundred thouſand effective men; and their attempt was crowned with ſuch ſucceſs, that a third part of the enemy were ſlain, together with the general himſelf, and the reſt fled to Memphis, where they

took refuge in the beſt fortified part of the city, called the White Wall. The Egyptians, elated with ſucceſs, ſuppoſed that they had completely delivered themſelves and their poſterity from the ſeverity of their oppreſſors: but, at the end of three years, during which they had blocked up the Perſians in the White Wall, they were defeated by Artabazus governor of Silicia, and Megabyzus governor of Syria. Inarus was wounded in the engagement, but he retreated with his Athenian allies, and the remnant of the Egyptian army to the city of Byblus, in the iſland of Proſopitis, where he ſuſtained a ſiege of eighteen months duration. The majority of the Egyptians laid down their arms, and acknowledged the ſovereignty of Artaxerxes; but Amyrtæus retreated with a body of men to the fens, where he enjoyed his government for ſeveral years without moleſtation, as the nature of the place ſecured him againſt all the attempts of the Perſians. Inarus and his adherents, in the mean time, were fully occupied in defending themſelves againſt the attacks of the enemy: but, at length, the latter having recourſe to ſtratagem, drained that branch of the Nile which contained the Athenian fleet, and thus effected a paſſage to the iſland. Inarus and the Egyptians now ſurrendered themſelves, on condition of being ſecured in their lives; but the Athenians ſet their veſſels on fire, and reſolved to ſell their lives at the deareſt rate: the Perſians, however, thought fit to offer ſuch terms as were accepted. At this juncture, a fleet of fifty Athenian ſhips appeared in the river, on behalf of the beſieged; but they were immediately deſtroyed by the Perſians, and with their deſtruction ended the war between Inarus king of Egypt, and Artaxerxes of Perſia, under whoſe government the Egyptians long remained quiet, and made no farther exertions for the recovery of their liberty during his reign. Sartamus was now left as governor of Egypt, and Inarus was carried to Suſa; where, in violation of the Perſian general's promiſe, he was condemned to the ignominious death of the croſs. Amyrtæus, the Saite, ſtill remained in poſſeſſion of the marſhy country; and in the fifteenth year of Artaxerxes, was joined by an Athenian fleet of ſixty ſail, but nothing worthy of notice was effected towards the extirpation of the Perſians.

In the tenth year of Darius Nothus, the diſcontent of the Egyptians again burſt through the barriers of reſtraint, and they revolted a third time. Amyrtæus being appriſed of their deſigns, was inſpired with the moſt enthuſiaſtic ardour in behalf of his diſtreſſed countrymen; and ruſhing from his ſequeſtered abode, put himſelf at the head of the Egyptians, and performed ſuch prodigies of valour, as effectually drove the Perſians beyond the frontiers, and left him monarch of the whole kingdom. Elated with ſucceſs, Amyrtæus reſolved to carry his arms into Phœnicia; that, in confederacy with the Arabians, he might drive the Perſians from thence alſo. This expedition, however, proved unfortunate to the Egyptian, who was engaged by Darius in perſon, and overthrown. Pauſiris the ſon of Amyrtæus, was now elected to the throne of Egypt, with the conſent of the Perſians; by which means the Egyptians, though probably tributary, experienced ſome alleviation of their misfortunes, under a governor of their own nation. Subſequent to this reign was that of Pſammetichus, a barbarous and ungrateful prince, who, hearing that Tamus, a Memphite by birth, had quitted the Perſian ſervice, and ſailed for Egypt, with his family and effects, fell upon him as an enemy, and cauſed him to be inhumanly murdered with all his followers, that his treaſures might be conveyed into the royal coffers. Nephereus, who next ſucceeded to the throne, ſent a ſquadron of an hundred galleys to aſſiſt the Lacedæmonians in their war againſt the Perſians, and ſupplied them with 600,000 buſhels of corn for the ſubſiſtence of their army; but the veſſels which carried this valuable preſent, were taken by the Perſian fleet at Rhodes, and never reached the place of their deſtination.

Acoris, the ſucceſſor of Nephereus, in the year before Chriſt 398, entered into a treaty againſt the Perſians, with the Tyrians, Barceans, Arabians, and the king of Cyprus. About the ſame time Gaus, the only ſurvivor of the family of Tamus, who, like his father, had been promoted to the rank of admiral in Perſia, quitted the ſervice, and, carrying with him a great part of the fleet and army, formed an alliance with the Egyptians and Lacedæmonians. But ſoon afterwards Gaus was aſſaſſinated by ſome of his followers; and other incidents conſpired to ſet aſide the deſigns which began to alarm the Perſian power. Thirty years after the acceſſion of Amyrtæus to the throne of Egypt, and the expulſion of the Perſians, Artaxerxes Mnemon threatened the Egyptians with a cruel war. Great preparations were accordingly made, and Acoris engaged a number of mercenaries under the command of Chabrias the Athenian; but, previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, Acoris died and left the kingdom to his ſon. Pſammuthis enjoyed the regal dignity but one year; and his actions ſeem to have been unimportant, as they are paſſed over in ſilence by hiſtorians. Nepherotes his ſucceſſor, reigned but four months. He is called the laſt of the Mendeſian race.

The ſceptre now devolved to Nectanebis, who, in the ſecond year of his reign, was invaded by the Perſian fleet and army. Owing, however, to the king's precautions, and the mutual jealouſies that ſubſiſted between the Perſian commanders, the attempt of the enemy was rendered abortive; and they were finally obliged to retreat, by the inundation of the Nile. Five years after this event, Ageſilaus king of Sparta, viſited Egypt in character of an ambaſſador, to requeſt ſuccours for the Lacedæmonians, who were ſeverely diſtreſſed by the Thebans: and, in ſeven years after this embaſſy, Nectanebis died. Tachos, the ſucceeding prince, collected all his forces, in order to fruſtrate the plans of his ambitious enemies, who had not relinquiſhed their hope of reducing Egypt. To ſtrengthen himſelf the more, he applied for ſuccour to the Lacedæmonians, who ſent him a conſiderable number of troops under the command of Ageſilaus; but Tachos conceiving an averſion to that able commander, violated his promiſe of appointing him generaliſſimo of the forces, and ſlighted thoſe counſels which might have preſerved Egypt from deſtruction. Having joined his mercenaries and Egyptians together, he marched imprudently towards Phœnicia, deſigning to attack the Perſians in that quarter; but, during his abſence, the Egyptians ſhook off their allegiance, and placed his kinſman Nectanebis on the throne. Ageſilaus eſpouſed the cauſe of the new monarch, and thus completed the ruin of Tachos; who fled through Arabia, and took refuge under the Perſian government.

Nectanebis had ſcarcely obtained the crown, when a Mendeſian came forth with one hundred thouſand men to wreſt the ſceptre from his hands. This rebellion increaſing daily in ſtrength, became at length ſo formidable, that the king ſhut himſelf up in one of his towers, till the beſiegers were defeated by Ageſilaus, who took the Mendeſian priſoner, and eſtabliſhed Nectanebis in the full poſſeſſion of his dominions. In the twelfth year of this reign, the Perſians made great preparations for the reduction of Egypt; but the Sidonians and Phœnicians entering into a confederacy with Nectanebis, formed a ſtrong barrier to his kingdom; ſo that it was impoſſible that the enemy ſhould approach without marching through Phœnicia. Upon this account, the Egyptian prince detached a body of Greek mercenaries to join the allies; who, being encouraged with the ſupply, expelled the Perſians from their territories, and were immediately after joined by the Cypriots, in their ſtruggle for complete liberty. Darius Ochus, appriſed of theſe circumſtances, reſolved to put himſelf at the head of his forces, and to inflict a ſevere chaſtiſement upon the unruly Egyptians; a deſign which was approved and forwarded by Mentor the Rhodian, who was perfectly acquainted with the con-

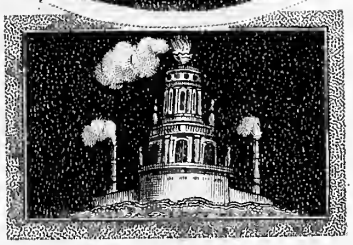
cerns of Egypt. Nectanebis, in the mean time, aſſembled an army of one hundred thouſand men, conſiſting of forty thouſand mercenaries, and the reſt Egyptians; but they did not altogether amount to a third part of the Perſian troops. With ſome of them he guarded the paſſes through which the enemy muſt approach, and the others were appointed to garriſon the frontier towns. Darius, on the other hand, detached three bodies from his army. The firſt, commanded by Lachares the Theban, ſat down before Peluſium; the ſecond, under the command of Nicoſtratus the Argive, ſailed up the Nile in a ſquadron of the Perſian fleet, and, landing at a convenient place, formed a ſtrong encampment in the heart of the country; and the third remained under the command of Mentor, in expectation of a favourable opportunity for their incurſion.—The whole kingdom being now alarmed at the poſition of Nicoſtratus, all the neighbouring garriſons undertook to force him from his entrenchments; but, after a long and obſtinate combat, the Egyptians were utterly overthrown and diſperſed. Upon the news of this defeat, Nectanebis abandoned the paſſes and marched haſtily to the capital, which he ſuppoſed Nicoſtratus would aſſault with his victorious fleet and army. This removal completed his ruin; for the Greek garriſon at Peluſium immediately ſurrendered to Lachares, upon condition that they and their effects ſhould be conveyed in ſafety to Greece: and Mentor the Rhodian, entering the country, affirmed publicly that Darius would receive with clemency all who ſubmitted, but take the moſt ample vengeance on thoſe who preſumed any longer to oppoſe him. The Egyptians, and Egyptian Greeks, immediately ſtrove which ſhould make the moſt ready ſubmiſſion; and Nectanebis, thus driven to deſpair, fled with his treaſures into Ethiopia, from whence he never attempted to return. From this time, before Chriſt 350, Egypt continued to be a province of Perſia, till that monarchy was ſubverted by Alexander the Great, who was in conſequence received by the Egyptians as their deliverer from the Perſian tyranny.

From the FOUNDATION of the MONARCHY of PTOLEMY SOTER to the REDUCTION of EGYPT by the ROMANS.

In the diviſion of the Macedonian empire, upon the death of Alexander the Great, Ptolemy Lagus was inveſted with the government of Egypt, Lybia, and part of Arabia; provinces which he retained during his life, and tranſmitted, with other acquiſitions, as an hereditary kingdom to his deſcendants. Hiſtorians differ materially in their aſſertions reſpecting the extraction of this prince; ſome affirming that he was a native of Eordea, a ſmall place in the province of Mygdonia, and that he was called Lagides, or the ſon of Lagus, though he was commonly believed to be an illegitimate ſon of king Philip; others ſuppoſing him to have been of the royal family of Macedon, not by the father, but his mother Arſinoe, who was nearly related to Philip; and others aſſuring us that he was of a mean deſcent, and that he ſerved in the Macedonian army as a common ſoldier, till his gallant behaviour induced Alexander to honour him with a chief command. Ptolemy himſelf ſeems to have preferred the name of Lagides to any other appellation, as he tranſmitted it to all his deſcendants; and Epiphanius tells us, that he inſtituted a military order in honour of his father, calling it from his name Lageion. But whatever was his real extraction, it is certain that he was equally beloved by Alexander and the army; and all the ancients have given him a moſt excellent character. He choſe the city of Alexandria for the place of his reſidence, and granted many privileges to all perſons who ſettled there, whether Greeks, Jews, or Egyptians; in conſequence of which it became one of the moſt wealthy and populous cities of the eaſt. Hence it is called by the ancients the ſecond metropolis of the world, the city of cities, the queen of the eaſt, a ſecond Rome, &c.

Though Ptolemy exerciſed the regal authority from the time of his appointment to the government, before Chriſt 304, he did not aſſume the title of king, till he found himſelf firmly ſettled in his new dignity, after the unſucceſsful attempts of Antigonus and Demetrius, which were relinquiſhed nineteen years after the death of Alexander. From this time he reigned twenty years, agreeable to Ptolemy's canon, and theſe with the nineteen aſcribed by that writer to Philip and Alexander Ægus, make up the thirty-nine years, which other authors ſuppoſe Ptolemy Lagus or Soter to have reigned alone. The name of *Soter* was firſt given to Ptolemy Lagus by the Rhodians on the following occaſion: Antigonus having projected the ſeizure of the iſland of Cyprus, which was then held by Ptolemy, demanded a ſquadron of ſhips from the Rhodians for the accompliſhment of his purpoſe; but as thoſe iſlanders were ſenſible of the great advantage which reſulted from their trade with Egypt, they refuſed to enter into any meaſures that appeared inimical to the intereſt of Ptolemy. Antigonus, in revenge, ſent his ſon Demetrius with a powerful fleet and army to reduce their iſland; but Ptolemy afforded ſuch ſuccours to the beſieged during the ſpace of a whole year, that Demetrius was obliged to conclude a peace upon honourable terms; and the Rhodians, in teſtimony of gratitude, conſecrated a grove to Ptolemy, and decreed that he ſhould be honoured with the name of *Soter* or Saviour, in commemoration of their happy deliverance. In the fortieth year of his reign he placed Ptolemy Philadelphus on the throne, declaring him his partner and ſucceſſor to the kingdom after his death. In this year, which was the firſt of the hundred and twenty-fourth olympiad, was finiſhed the famous tower in the iſland of Pharos; and the image of Serapis was brought to Alexandria, after Ptolemy had for three ſucceſſive years requeſted it of the king of Pontus without effect. Ptolemy Soter poſſeſſing a conſiderable ſhare of erudition, as appears from his hiſtory of Alexander, which was greatly eſteemed by the ancients, founded in that city an academy, or ſociety of learned men, who devoted their time to the ſtudy of philoſophy, and all other ſciences. For the uſe of theſe perſons, he made a collection of choice books, which gradually increaſed under his ſucceſſors to the fineſt library in the world. See ALEXANDRIA, vol. i. p. 273.

Toward the cloſe of the ſecond year of Philadelphus, before Chriſt 284, his father Ptolemy Soter expired, in the eighty-fourth year of his age, and the forty-firſt of his reign. He was revered as the beſt prince of his race, and left behind him an illuſtrious example of prudence, juſtice, and clemency, which none of his ſucceſſors were able to imitate. He retained the ſame unaffected eaſe and ſimplicity of manners in his royal dignity, as he had ſhown while in a private ſtation. He did not think himſelf degraded by converſing with the meaneſt of his ſubjects: the objects of oppreſſion had at all times a free acceſs to his perſon; and the injured party might ſafely look up to him for redreſs and protection. When he gave a public entertainment, he thought it no diſparagement to borrow plate of his friends, having no more of his own than was requiſite for his common uſe; and, when his courtiers obſerved that a monarch ſhould be better provided, he anſwered, that the magnificence of a king conſiſted in enriching others rather than himſelf. He had four wives, viz. Artonis, Thais, Eurydice, and Berenice. By the third of theſe he had Ptolemy Ceraunus, or the Thunderer, who, being the eldeſt of the male iſſue, was conſidered as the rightful heir to the crown; but Bereniee, whoſe wit and beauty had gained an aſcendancy over her royal conſort, prevailed upon him to exclude Ceraunus from the ſucceſſion, and to ſettle it upon her children; in conſequence of which, he reſolved to ſhare the throne in his life-time with her ſon Philadelphus, to prevent the wars that might otherwiſe ariſe between the brothers after his deceaſe. He had by Berenice four children, viz. Philadelphus, Argæus, Philoteria, and Arſi-



PTOLEMY SOTER.

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noe. He had alſo iſſue by his other wives, Lenticus, Lagus, Irene, Ptolemais, and Lyſandra.

Ceraunus finding himſelf diſappointed in the regal ſucceſſion, quitted Egypt, and fled to the court of Seleucus Nicanor, where he was received in the moſt affectionate manner, and entertained with unbounded hoſpitality: yet the ungrateful wretch conſpired againſt his benefactor, and treacherouſly murdered him. He then ſeized the kingdom of Macedon, which Seleucus had recently wreſted from Lyſimachus; but, as he could not expect to enjoy theſe dominions in peace while the queen and children of Lyſimachus were alive, he formed the horrid reſolution of putting them to death, in order to free himſelf from any apprehenſions on their account. Arſinoe, the widow of Lyſimachus, though half-ſiſter to the uſurper, was well acquainted with his cruel temper; and had therefore abſconded with her children, on the death of Seleucus. Ceraunus, however, reſolved that ſo fine a woman ſhould not eſcape him; and therefore feigning a paſſion for Arſinoe, he offered to eſpouſe her, and to adopt her two children as his own. This propoſal was at firſt rejected, through dread of ſome unhappy conſequence; but Ceraunus, to obviate all ſuſpicion, repaired to a temple which the Macedonians held in the higheſt veneration, and there proteſted before the ſtatues of the gods and the friends of Arſinoe, that he entertained no thought inimical to the welfare of his ſiſter and her children. But no ſooner had the traitor attained his ends, than he threw off the maſk; cauſed the young princes to be aſſaſſinated in the very boſom of their diſtracted mother; and, ſtripping her of all her poſſeſſions, baniſhed her into Samothrace, with only two women to attend her. Such diabolical conduct might be naturally ſuppoſed to incur a dreadful retribution; and we accordingly find that this monſter of cruelty was taken priſoner the next year by the Gauls, and literally torn to pieces. After the death of Ceraunus, Arſinoe quitted the place of her baniſhment, and haſtened to the court of her brother Philadelphus, who, being ſtruck with her charms, exalted her to the participation of his throne, after he had divorced another woman of the ſame name, whom he had eſpouſed on his acceſſion to the crown, but whoſe jealouſy prompted her to ſome treaſonable deſigns. On the diſcovery of the plot, all the other conſpirators were executed; and the queen was confined for life to a province of Upper Egypt, bordering upon Ethiopia.

Pyrrhus king of Epirus, having been defeated in Italy by the Romans, and driven diſgracefully into his own country, Ptolemy Philadelphus was anxious to form an alliance with the conquerors, whoſe name began to be highly celebrated among foreign nations; and he accordingly ſent ambaſſadors to Rome for that purpoſe. This being the firſt time that any Egyptian had viſited Rome, the ſenate was greatly delighted to ſee foreigners come from ſuch a diſtance to ſolicit the friendſhip of their republic. They immediately diſpatched four ambaſſadors to Egypt, who met with a reception at Ptolemy's court ſuitable to their rank, and worthy the magnificence of an Egyptian monarch. At a ſplendid entertainment given by the king, each of them was preſented with a crown of gold, which they reſpectively accepted; but the very next morning they placed them on the ſtatues of Ptolemy, which were erected in the city. This contempt of wealth eſtabliſhed the reputation of the Romans in Egypt, but the king would not ſuffer them to depart without other tokens of his royal favour towards their republic and themſelves; however, they ſhowed the ſame diſintereſtedneſs on their return; for they depoſited all their preſents in the public treaſury, before they gave an account of their embaſſy to the ſenate.

Ptolemy who had for a long time enjoyed the ſweets of domeſtic tranquillity was, in the year before Chriſt 265, unexpectedly alarmed by the revolt of Magas, who had been regarded as one of the king's moſt faithful friends. This man was the ſon of Berenice, by a Macedonian officer, previous to her marriage with Ptolemy Soter, and in conſequence of her aſcendency over the mind of her royal conſort, ſhe had obtained for this ſon the government of Lybia and Cyrene. Magas having ſtrengthened himſelf in theſe provinces by long poſſeſſion, and an advantageous marriage with a princeſs of Syria, began to give vent to his ambition, and actually formed the deſign of driving his brother from the throne. With this intent, he marched at the head of a numerous army towards the capital, and obtained poſſeſſion of Paretonion in his way thither, but upon intelligence that the Marmarides had revolted from him, he abandoned his enterprize and returned home. The king, who was then with a great body of troops on the frontiers, had a favourable opportunity of cutting off the rebels, by falling upon their rear; but he was prevented from embracing it by a ſimilar revolt among the Gauls, whom he had taken into his ſervice, and who had now reſolved to ſeize the throne for themſelves. To obviate this danger, he haſtened back into Egypt, and ſhut up the conſpirators ſo effectually in an iſland of the Nile, that moſt of them periſhed either by famine or the ſword. Magas, after quelling the troubles which demanded his attendance at home, renewed his deſigns upon Egypt, and prevailed on Antiochus Soter, his father-in-law, to invade the country on one ſide, while he ſhould make an incurſion on the other. Theſe meaſures were however fruſtrated; for Ptolemy, who received private intelligence of all his motions, ſent a powerful force into the maritime provinces of Syria, which committed ſuch devaſtations as obliged Antiochus to relinquiſh his engagement, and Magas thought it moſt adviſable to withdraw his pretenſions. Ptolemy now began to turn his thoughts to the advancement of his people's proſperity; and to this end he reſolved to draw to Egypt all the trade of the eaſt, which the Tyrians had till this time carried on by ſea to Elath, and from thence by the way of Rhinocorura to Tyre. To effect this important deſign, Ptolemy built a city on the weſtern ſide of the Red Sea, from whence he ſent out his fleets to all the countries whither the Tyrians reſorted with their merchandize from Elath; but finding that the Red Sea was extremely dangerous, on account of its numerous ſhelves and rocks, he transferred the trade to the city of Myas-Hormos, near the frontiers of Ethiopia. To this place all the commodities of the different nations were conveyed by ſea, and from thence carried on camels to Coptus on the Nile, where they were again ſhipped for Alexandria; and diſpoſed of from that city all over the weſt, in exchange for the goods that were afterwards exported to the eaſt. Alexandria thus became the chief mart of all the trade that ſubſiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern countries, and continued to be the greateſt emporium of the world for upwards of one thouſand ſeven hundred years, till the paſſage was found out by the Cape of Good Hope. But as the road from Coptus to the Red Sea lay acroſs the deſerts, where travellers were equally diſtreſſed for lodging and water, the king cauſed a canal to be opened along the great road, which was filled by the waters of the Nile, and bordered with houſes at ſuitable diſtances, where paſſengers might find repoſe and neceſſary refreſhments. Ptolemy alſo provided for the ſecurity of his trading ſubjects, by fitting out two powerful fleets, one of which he kept in the Red Sea, and the other in the Mediterranean. With theſe fleets he rode triumphant on the ſeas, and kept moſt of the maritime provinces of Aſia Minor in ſubjection.

Magas, king of Cyrene and Lybia, expreſſed a deſire, in the latter part of his reign, of compoſing all differences with Ptolemy; and, in order to effect a complete reconciliation, he propoſed a marriage between his brother's eldeſt ſon and his own daughter, promiſing to give the latter all his dominions by way of dowry. This propoſal was accepted at the court of Egypt, and peace was concluded upon theſe terms; but Magas dying before the celebration of the nuptials, his wife Apamea uſed her utmoſt

utmoſt efforts to break off the match; her attempts were, however, unſucceſsful, and only ſerved to kindle the flames of war between Ptolemy and her brother Antiochus Theus, king of Syria. Notwithſtanding the inquietudes occaſioned by this war, Ptolemy did not relinquiſh his ſearch for books wherewith to enrich his library, and for paintings and drawings, of which he was a great admirer. Aratus, the Sicyonian, being employed to collect pictures from Greece, conciliated the king's favour, by this ſervice, to ſuch a degree, that Ptolemy regarded him as one of his deareſt friends; and preſented him with an hundred and fifty talents for the reſtoration of peace and liberty to his native city.

This celebrated prince died in the ſixty-third year of his age, and the fortieth of his reign. He left behind him two ſons and a daughter, whom he had by his firſt wife, the daughter of Lyſimachus. Ptolemy Euergetes, his eldeſt ſon, ſucceeded to the throne; Lyſimachus (ſo named from his grandfather by the mother's ſide) was put to death for engaging in a rebellion; and Berenice was married to the king of Syria. With reſpect to the character of Ptolemy Philadelphus, we cannot propoſe it as a perfect model of royal imitation; as his numerous good qualities were in ſome meaſure counterbalanced by his faults. The commencement of his reign was diſhonoured by a deſpicable reſentment againſt a man of uncommon merit, whoſe only offence conſiſted in having given ſuch advice as was ſtrictly conſonant with the laws of juſtice and ſound policy. He cauſed two of his brothers to be put to death from mere motives of jealouſy. He was greatly addicted to effeminate pleaſures; and paid ſo little attention to military diſcipline, that the army was utterly unfit for action at the time of his death. Yet, on the other hand, he was a zealous patron of literature, an induſtrious collector of books, and the man to whom we owe the Greek tranſlation of the ſcriptures, commonly called the Septuagint. Though this prince was extremely fond of ſcientific ſtudies, he did not ſuffer them to engroſs his whole time or attention, but applied himſelf with unremitting induſtry to the welfare of the ſtate, and to ſuch purſuits as ſeemed moſt likely to enſure the wealth and felicity of his ſubjects. By this laudable conduct he enticed ſuch multitudes of foreigners to ſettle in his dominions, that he is ſaid to have poſſeſſed thirty-three thouſand three hundred and thirty-nine populous cities. Conſcious that the real power of a monarch conſiſts in the number and riches of his people, he purſued his meaſures with firmneſs, and yielded to no diſcouragement of difficulty or trouble. Notwithſtanding the great expence he muſt have been at in maintaining two great fleets, an army of two hundred thouſand foot, forty thouſand horſe, two thouſand chariots of war, and three hundred elephants, the Alexandrian armory containing three hundred thouſand ſuits of armour, engines, implements, &c. and the Alexandrian library, muſeum, &c. he left in his treaſury ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand Egyptian talents. Athenæus therefore juſtly calls him the moſt wealthy prince of the age; and Appian obſerves, that "as he was the moſt magnificent of kings in the diſtribution of his money, ſo he was the moſt ſkilful and induſtrious in raiſing it."

Ptolemy Euergetes, his eldeſt ſon, had no ſooner obtained the crown, before Chriſt 246, than he engaged in a war with the king of Syria; from whoſe dominions he brought two thouſand five hundred pictures and ſtatues, among which were many of the idols formerly carried from Egypt by Cambyſes. Theſe were reſtored to their ancient temples by the king, who was on that occaſion honoured by his ſubjects with the appellation of *Euergetes*, or the Beneficent. In this expedition he is ſaid to have made himſelf maſter of all the countries that lie between Mount Taurus and the confines of India. On his return he paſſed through Jeruſalem, and made a ſolemn acknowledgment for his conqueſt over Syria, by offering many ſacrifices to the God of Iſrael. It is highly probable that he had ſeen the prophecies of Daniel, and that he concluded from thence who was the real author of his ſignal victories. Subſequent to the concluſion of peace, he ſeems to have devoted the greateſt part of his time to the cultivation of the ſciences, and the improvement of the Alexandrian library. He diſpatched perſons of eminence into foreign countries to purchaſe valuable books at any price, and invited Eratoſthenes the Cyrenian, from Athens, to take charge of the library.

The tribute of the Jews having been withheld for a conſiderable time from Ptolemy, by the covetous diſpoſition of Onias, the high prieſt, a meſſenger was diſpatched from Alexandria to demand the arrears, and to inform the citizens of Jeruſalem, that if they continued to delay the remittance, a body of troops would be ſent into Judea, to drive out the inhabitants, and to divide the country among themſelves. This meſſage was no ſooner made public at Jeruſalem, than the whole city was in the utmoſt conſternation, as not knowing how to divert the effects of the king's anger. At that time Joſeph, the nephew of Onias, was in high repute for his prudence, and the ſanctity of his manners: he was therefore ſummoned to the city, and choſen as ambaſſador to the court of Ptolemy. Joſeph ſoon furniſhed himſelf with a ſuitable equipage; commenced his journey to the Egyptian capital, and in his way met with ſome of the chief nobility of Cœlo-Syria and Paleſtine, who deſigned to offer terms for farming the revenues of thoſe provinces. On their arrival at Alexandria, they were informed that Ptolemy had made an excurſion to Memphis; Joſeph accordingly ſet out for that city, but had the good fortune to meet the king upon the road. He was immediately honoured with a ſeat in the royal chariot; when he made ſo handſome an apology for the neglect of his aged uncle Onias, that Ptolemy was not only appeaſed, but allotted Joſeph an apartment in the palace, and honoured him with ſeveral proofs of his eſteem.

On the day when the revenues of the provinces were ſet up in order to be let to the higheſt bidder, before Chriſt 234, the Syrians and Phœnicians, who had been Joſeph's fellow-travellers, offered no more than eight thouſand talents for Cœlo-Syria, Phœnice, Judea, and Samaria; but, as they had plainly diſcovered by their converſation on the road, that theſe provinces were worth more than double the ſum which they meant to offer, Joſeph upbraided them with depreciating the king's revenues, and offered ſixteen thouſand talents, beſides the forfeitures, which he promiſed to return into the royal treaſury, though they had always been regarded as the property of the farmers, Ptolemy liſtened with aſtoniſhment; but aſked Joſeph what ſecurity he could give for the fulfilment of his agreement. He anſwered he would give the ſecurity of ſuch perſons as were unexceptionable; and on being commanded to mention them, he named the king and queen, affirming, that they would be bound to each other for the faithful performance of his undertaking. This well-timed pleaſantry ſerved to confirm the king in his opinion of Joſeph; and he therefore entruſted him with the charge of all the afore-mentioned revenues, without any other ſecurity than his own word. Joſeph thus appointed receiver-general, borrowed five hundred talents at Alexandria to pay his uncle's arrears, and having received a ſuitable guard for the execution of his office, he quitted the court, in order to act in his new capacity. On his arrival at Aſkelon he was inſulted by the populace, who refuſed to pay him the accuſtomed duties. He, however, ſoon appeaſed the tumult, with the aſſiſtance of his guards; and cauſing twenty of the ringleaders to be executed, he ſent their forfeited eſtates to the king. By a ſimilar conduct at Scythopolis, where he met with the ſame treatment, he ſo effectually terrified the other cities, that they all paid the king's dues without heſitation. His prudent conduct, and the punctuality of his payments, procured him ſuch favour at court, that he was continued in his office, by three ſucceſſive

ceſſive monarchs, for the ſpace of two-and-twenty years; at the expiration of which time the provinces were annexed to the crown of Syria by Antiochus the Great.

Ptolemy having at length concluded a peace with Syria, applied himſelf to the extenſion of his dominions ſouthward; and proved ſo ſucceſsful in his attempts, that he became maſter of all the coaſts of the Red ſea, both on the Arabian and Ethiopian ſhores, down to the ſtraits through which that ſea diſembogues itſelf into the ſouthern ocean. Theſe acquiſitions were made with little trouble; and the king returned to Alexandria with an immenſe treaſure, which he generouſly divided amongſt his gallant followers. Upon his return, he received an embaſſy from the Achæans, and promiſed them his aſſiſtance againſt the Etolians and Lacedemonians; but they having, in the mean time, requeſted ſuccours from the king of Macedon, Ptolemy renounced his firſt intention, and reſolved to humble both the Achæans and their new ally, by ſending a ſtrong reinforcement to Cleomenes king of Sparta. His expectations were, however, ſoon fruſtrated, as Cleomenes was totally defeated at the famous battle of Selaſia, and finally obliged to take refuge in Egypt. Ptolemy, though much chagrined, received the vanquiſhed prince with every mark of kindneſs and reſpect, allowed him a yearly penſion of twenty-four talents, and aſſured him that he would uſe his utmoſt exertions to replace him on the throne; but this promiſe was annulled by the death of Ptolemy, which happened in the twenty-ſeventh year of his age. This prince, with reſpect to his encouragement of literature and the arts, ſeems to have trodden in the ſteps of his predeceſſor, as he applied himſelf with the utmoſt care to the augmentation of the public library, and the remuneration of ſuch perſons as were eminent for their abilities. He is ſaid to have poſſeſſed a conſiderable ſhare of erudition, and to have written, in his younger days, ſome hiſtorical commentaries that were in high repute.

Ptolemy Philopator, ſon of Euergetes and Berenice, ſucceeded his father in the government, before Chriſt 217, and proved a moſt debauched prince. Juſtin affirms that he committed the crime of parricide to obtain the crown, and that he was therefore ironically called Philopator, or lover of his father; but this aſſertion ſeems ill-founded. He was named Tryphon, from the effeminacy of his diverſions; and Gallus, becauſe he uſed to walk through the ſtreets on the bacchanal ſolemnities with a wreath of ivy on his head, like the galli, or prieſts of Cybele. In the very commencement of his reign, he cauſed his brother Magas to be put to death, at the inſtigation of Soſibius his prime miniſter; and this act of barbarity was ſoon followed by others of a ſimilar nature. Cleomenes, whom we have mentioned as having obtained a ſecure aſylum after his defeat with Euergetes, was, for ſome time, entruſted with the moſt ſecret counſels of Soſibius; but in conſequence of his oppoſition to the murder of Magas, his advice was ſoon neglected, and both the king and his courtiers abandoned themſelves ſo entirely to licentiouſneſs and debauchery, that the kingdom fell into a kind of anarchy; and the Spartan prince began to lead a very melancholy life. In the mean time he received intelligence that Antigonus, king of Macedon, was dead; that the Achæans were engaged in hoſtilities with the Etolians; and that the Lacedæmonians had joined the latter againſt the Achæans and Macedonians. He therefore reminded Philopator that he had promiſed to aſſiſt him with a powerful fleet; and earneſtly petitioned for leave to depart with his followers, as he could not poſſibly expect a more favourable opportunity for the recovery of his dominions. This requeſt was, however, of no effect; for Ptolemy was too deeply immerſed in vice and luxury to attend to ſuch concerns; and Soſibius, knowing the great ſagacity and enterpriſing ſpirit of the Spartan, deemed it adviſable to detain him in Egypt, leſt he ſhould invade the kingdom at a future day, and take an ample revenge for the illiberal treatment he had lately received. It was even judged impolitic to allow him his liberty at Alexandria; wherefore the unfortunate Cleomenes was ſeized and kept in confinement till his deſpair ſuggeſted the reſolution of eſcaping from priſon, with his friends and domeſties, in order to excite the Alexandrians to a revolt. This attempt was, however, rendered abortive, and the prince and his followers voluntarily periſhed by each other, to avoid the ignominy of a public puniſhment. The dead body of Cleomenes was flayed and hung upon a croſs, by command of Philopator; who alſo extended his inhuman revenge to the mother, children, and attendants, of the deceaſed.

Ptolemy, by concluding a diſhonourable peace with Antiochus king of Syria, occaſioned ſo general a diſcontent among the Egyptians, as finally broke out into an open rebellion; but the royal party ſeems to have obtained a victory, though hiſtorians are ſilent with reſpect to the particulars of the event. About this time, before Chriſt 208, the king, who had received an affront from the Jews, publiſhed an edict, excluding all perſons from the palace, who did not ſacrifice to the Egyptian deities; in conſequence of which every individual of the Jewiſh nation muſt either violate the law of his Creator, or reſign all pretenſions to the royal protection, in what caſe ſoever he might need it. And by another decree, the Jews were ſtripped of all thoſe valuable rights and privileges, which had induced them to quit their native country and ſettle in Egypt; for it ſhould be obſerved, that by favour of Alexander the Great and Ptolemy Soter, they enjoyed the ſame privileges at Alexandria as the Macedonians, and were enrolled among the firſt rank of inhabitants. Philopator, however, degraded them to the third rank, and ordered that at the time of this enrolment the mark of an ivy leaf ſhould be impreſſed on their faces with a hot iron; that this mark ſhould be univerſally regarded as a badge of ſlavery; and that every perſon, who preſumed to oppoſe the execution of the decree, ſhould be put to death. But that he might not appear an enemy to the whole nation, he made an exception in favour of thoſe who ſhould ſacrifice to his idols, promiſing all ſuch the enjoyment of their former rank and privileges. This ſpecious offer was however of ſmall effect, ſince only three hundred individuals out of the many thouſands of the Jews who reſided in Alexandria, debaſed themſelves by a complianee with the king's command: the others preferred the ignominious badge, or purchaſing a dear exemption, with all their property. Thoſe who continued ſtedfaſt in allegiance to their God, expreſſed their abhorrence of their apoſtate brethren, by excluding them from all manner of communication. This being conſidered as a contempt of the king's authority, it ſo much enraged Ptolemy, that he reſolved on the extirpation of all the Jews, beginning with thoſe who reſided in Egypt, and then proceeding with equal ſeverity againſt the inhabitants of Judea and Jeruſalem. Purſuant to this ſanguinary deſign, he cauſed all the Jews who dwelt in Egypt to be brought in chains to his capital, and there to be ſhut up in the hippodrome, that he might amuſe himſelf with the view of their deſtruction. He next commanded the maſter of the elephants to prepare five hundred of thoſe animals for the execution of that perſecuted people; and appointed the enſuing morning for the tragical cataſtrophe of their misfortunes. Theſe orders were accordingly obeyed, and the people aſſembled in crowds to witneſs the cruel maſſacre; but the king having ſat till a late hour with his debauched companions, was unable to attend the dreadful exhibition, and the priſoners conſequently obtained a ſhort reſpite. Next morning Ptolemy was awakened, by his own command, for the ſame purpoſe; but being much inebriated, he threatened the perſon who ſpoke to him with the effects of his reſentment, and the execution was delayed till the third day. In the mean time the captive Jews preſented their prayers to

Almighty God for their deliverance, and obtained it: for on the third day, when Ptolemy had taken his ſeat, and the elephants were let looſe upon the trembling priſoners, thoſe powerful animals, inſtead of aſſailing the captive Jews, turned the whole of their rage upon the ſpectators, ſoldiers, and aſſiſtants, and deſtroyed great numbers of them; which, together with ſome ſingular appearances in the air, ſo terrified Philopator, that he immediately gave orders for the liberation of the captives; publicly acknowledged the power of their God, and ſtrove to deprecate his wrath by reinſtating the Jews in their former privileges, beſtowing upon them many favours, and loading them with preſents at their departure.

In the ninth year of this reign, two ambaſſadors arrived at Alexandria to propoſe a renewal of the ancient friendſhip and alliance that had ſubſiſted between the Romans and Egyptians. Shortly after this embaſſy, Ptolemy had an opportunity of obliging the Romans, by reſcuing one of their moſt illuſtrious officers from captivity, and by honouring him with his favour and protection. Arſinoe, the queen, who had for ſeveral years been barren, was at length delivered of a ſon, ſurnamed *Epiphanes*, or the Illuſtrious. His birth occaſioned great rejoicings in the kingdom; and many of the Syrian and Phœnician nobles went to Alexandria to congratulate Ptolemy on the occaſion: but the king, purſuing his cuſtomary diverſions, devoted his time to drinking, gaming, and intemperance. Arſinoe, ſhocked at his infamous conduct, reproached him with ſuch ſeverity, that orders were given to Soſibius for her aſſaſſination. Soon after the death of this princeſs, Ptolemy fixed his affections upon Agathoclea, a woman of mean extraction; and was ſo abſolutely governed by her, by Œnanthes her mother, and Agathocles her brother, that his power was literally veſted in their hands, and all the civil and military offices were filled with their creatures and favourites. The murder of Arſinoe incenſed the populace ſo violently againſt Soſibius, that Ptolemy was obliged to diſmiſs him, and to raiſe to the office of prime-miniſter a young man of quality named Tlepolemus, who had ſignalized himſelf in the army, and was at that time the king's treaſurer.

Ptolemy, having exhauſted a robuſt conſtitution by intemperance and debauchery, died in the thirty-ſeventh year of his age, and the ſeventeenth of his reign. He was one of the moſt wicked princes that ever governed a kingdom. He began his career with the murder of an innocent brother, and terminated it with the aſſaſſination of an affectionate wife. His whole time was devoted to the gratification of his ruling paſſions, ſome of which were of the moſt deteſtable nature: his ſubjects groaned beneath the oppreſſion of his abandoned courtiers; and the ſtate of his affairs was in the utmoſt confuſion. He is, however, celebrated for his liberality towards the Rhodians, who were involved in the deepeſt diſtreſs by an earthquake; for his encouragement of learning; and for his erection of a magnificent temple in honour of Homer, whoſe ſtatue was placed in the center of the edifice, and ſurrounded with the repreſentations of the ſeveral cities that claimed the honour of his birth. As the only perſons preſent at the death of the king were Agathocles, his ſiſter, and their creatures, they concealed the news as long as poſſible, and in the mean time appropriated to their own uſe all the money, jewels, and other valuables, found in the palace; they alſo formed a project for uſurping the regency during the minority of the young prince, and vainly ſuppoſed that the death of Tlepolemus, the new miniſter, would eſtabliſh their deſign. When, therefore, they thought proper to publiſh the king's death, they aſſembled a council of thoſe Alexandrians who were of the Macedonian race; informing them that Philopator had, with his departing breath, recommended his young ſucceſſor to the care of Agathocles; and exhorted them to take vengeance on Tlepolemus, who had formed the ambitious deſign of aſcending the throne. Agathocles, who ſpoke to this purport in the aſſembly, imagined this weak artifice would have exaſperated the people againſt Tlepolemus; but his malicious contrivance was ſo ill diſguiſed, that he drew upon his own head the deſtruction which he had planned for the miniſter. The people of Alexandria, recollecting the numerous crimes and oppreſſions of Agathocles and his party, roſe in a general tumult, and having placed the young king on the throne in the hippodrome, brought before him Agathocles, Agathoclea, and their mother Œnanthes, and cauſed them to be put to death; after which their bodies were dragged through the ſtreets, and torn in pieces by the multitude.

Ptolemy Epiphanes, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Philopator, was but five years old at the time of his father's death, before Chriſt 204. During his minority Antiochus the Great, and Philip of Macedon, ſubdued the provinces of Cœlo-Syria and Paleſtine; but were ſoon obliged to relinquiſh them to Ariſtomenes, the prime-miniſter of Egypt. In the third year of his reign three deputies were ſent to Alexandria to notify the victory which the Romans had gained over Hannibal, and the treaty of peace concluded between Rome and Carthage; (ſee CARTHAGE,) to thank Epiphanes for his faithful attachment to the republic, at a time when the neighbouring nations had renounced her alliance through cowardice; and to intreat him alſo to continue his amity with the Romans, in caſe Philip ſhould compel them to carry the war into Macedon. The Egyptian nobles, who were guardians to the prince, encouraged by this embaſſy, thought it adviſable to place their young king and his dominions under the protection of the Roman ſenate; which they accordingly did, by ſending a deputation to Rome for that purpoſe. The ſenate, in compliance with their requeſt, empowered M. Lepidus to take upon him the guardianſhip, which, after a ſhort ſtay at Alexandria, he conferred upon Ariſtomenes, an experienced miniſter, and perfectly acquainted with the affairs of Egypt. He accordingly accepted the honourable charge, and acquitted himſelf in it with prudence and fidelity. In the commencement of his adminiſtration he perſuaded Ptolemy to offer the moſt unequivocal proofs of friendſhip to the Romans; and prudently renewed the ancient alliance between the kingdom of Egypt and the republic of Achaia.

Ptolemy Epiphanes, having arrived at the age of fourteen, was ſolemnly crowned and inveſted with full authority, in the year before Chriſt 195. But no ſooner had he aſſumed the reins of government, than he became the prey of flatterers and paraſites, who ſoon obliterated from his mind the judicious counſels of his tutor, and rendered the latter part of his reign tyrannical and infamous. Ariſtomenes did not indeed tamely ſubmit to this contamination of his royal pupil's diſpoſition, but frequently preſumed to give him advice, and beſought him to adopt a mode of life that might prove more advantageous to his ſubjects and honourable to himſelf. Epiphanes was ſo highly offended at this liberty, that he paſſed a ſentence of death upon his affectionate cenſor; and abandoned himſelf ſo entirely to every ſpecies of intemperance, that the Egyptians began to ſhrink from his tyrannic power, and formed a conſpiracy for the purpoſe of driving him from the throne. At this perilous criſis he raiſed Polycrates, a man of abilities and experience, to the office of prime-miniſter, and by his prudence obliged the leaders of the rebellion to ſubmit upon certain conditions; but, after promiſing them life and liberty, he treated them in the moſt cruel manner, and cauſed them all to be put to death. This treachery involved him in freſh difficulties, but he was again extricated by the policy of his faithful miniſter. He maintained a ſtrict friendſhip with the Romans during the whole of his reign; and offered them a thouſand pounds weight of gold, and twenty thouſand of ſilver, to proſecute the war againſt his father-in-law Antiochus, king of Syria. He hated Antiochus on account of the diſturbances he had occaſioned in Egypt, and his queen was ſhocked at the cruelty of her parent, who ſeems to have

have married her to Ptolemy with no other view than that of deſtroying the Egyptian monarch, and thereby obtaining an eaſy conqueſt of his dominions. But the virtuous queen, inviolably attached to her duty, joined with Ptolemy againſt Antiochus, and preferred the ties of nuptial love to thoſe of conſanguinity.

Ptolemy was anxious to conciliate the friendſhip of the Achæan republic. Towards the end of his reign he ſent ambaſſadors to them, inviting the confederacy to join with him in an offenſive and defenſive league, promiſing them a ſupply of ſhips, money, ſhields, &c. This offer was accepted, and ambaſſadors were appointed to renew the alliance; but while they were preparing to depart, news arrived of Ptolemy's death. This diſſipated prince, having cruſhed the rebellion in Egypt, reſolved to quit his kingdom in order to carry on a vigorous war againſt Seleucus, king of Syria: but as his finances were exhauſted, one of his chief officers aſked him by what means he deſigned to raiſe money for the expedition. The king anſwered, that his friends were his treaſure; in conſequence of which the nobles inferred that he intended to pillage them of their fortunes and eſtates; and, to prevent ſuch an evil, they contrived to put a period to his life by poiſon, in the twenty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign. While he acted under the care of Ariſtomenes, and ſubmitted to his directions, he was regarded as an excellent and munificent prince; but after the murder of that able man, he ſunk into the moſt abject ſtate of wickedneſs, and tarniſhed the honour of his youth by folly, tyranny, and debauchery. He left two ſons, Philometor and Phyſcon, both under age, and one daughter named Cleopatra.

Ptolemy Philometor, when ſix years old, ſucceeded his father, before Chriſt 180, under the guardianſhip of the queen-mother, who governed the Egyptians for the ſpace of eight years. Upon her death the regency was tranſferred to Lannæus, a nobleman of diſtinction, and to Eulæus, who was charged with the young king's education. Theſe perſons, in the very beginning of their adminiſtration, demanded the provinces of Cœlo-Syria and Paleſtine from Antiochus Epiphanes, who at that time occupied the throne of Syria. This demand was peremptorily rejected, and a war enſued; in the courſe of which Philometor either ſurrendered himſelf voluntarily to Antiochus, or was taken priſoner. The Alexandrians, ſuppoſing their ſovereign irrecoverably loſt, raiſed his younger brother to the throne, who for ſome time bore the name of Ptolemy Evergetes the Second, but was afterwards diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *Phyſcon*, or Great-bellied, in conſequence of the extreme obeſity which reſulted from his gluttony and luxury. On his acceſſion, Cineas and Cumanus were nominated to ſerve him in the capacity of prime-miniſters, and were charged with the important taſk of reſtoring the kingdom to its former wealth and ſplendor. But, on the return of Antiochus Epiphanes into Egypt, Phyſcon was driven from his ſtation, and Philometor was reſtored to his throne and dignity. Antiochus, however, deſigned to kindle a war between the brothers, in order that when their ſtrength was exhauſted he might ſeize on their dominions; and to this end he retained Peluſium in his hands, that he might be enabled to enter the country when he pleaſed. But Philometor, ſuſpecting his deſign, effected an accommodation with his brother, who embraced a propoſal of reigning jointly, and of uniting their arms againſt the treacherous Antiochus. In conſequence of this agreement, the king of Syria invaded Egypt with a great army; but he was compelled to relinquiſh his project, and quit the country.

The royal brothers, being delivered from the apprehenſions of a foreign enemy, began, as is uſual, to quarrel with each other, and their diviſions ſoon roſe to ſuch a height, that Phyſcon dethroned Philometor, and compelled him to quit the kingdom. He embarked for Italy, and landed at Brunduſium; whence he travelled to Rome on foot, meanly clothed and ill attended, a mode of conduct well adapted to raiſe the compaſſion of the Roman ſenate. Demetrius ſon of Seleucus Philopator, late king of Syria, who was then as hoſtage at Rome, hearing of the arrival of Ptolemy, and of the deplorable condition in which he was about to appear in the metropolis of the world, cauſed a magnificent equipage to be prepared, and went with it himſelf to meet him. Finding him on foot and covered with duſt, he embraced him in the moſt affectionate manner, placed a crown upon his head, and entreated him to make uſe of the carriage which he brought: but Ptolemy refuſed the offer of the Syrian, and would not even permit him to accompany him during the remainder of his journey. Demetrius therefore withdrew, and Philometor entered Rome in his humble attire, and took up his lodging in the private houſe of an Alexandrian painter. The ſenate, on his arrival, ſent for him, and apologized for the omiſſion of thoſe ceremonies which were uſual upon ſuch an occaſion, aſſuring him that it was not from want of reſpect, but merely becauſe his viſit had been kept ſo private that they had no intelligence of it till after his arrival. He was then requeſted to quit the habit in which he came, to accept of more ſuitable accommodations, and to fix a day for an audience of the ſenate.

Philometor, at the appointed time, preſented himſelf before the conſcript fathers, B. C. 162; and pleaded his cauſe ſo powerfully, that the juſtice of his complaint was obvious to every auditor, and a decree was paſſed for his reſtoration. Two deputies were ordered to attend him to Alexandria, and on their arrival in Egypt they ſucceeded in negociating an accommodation between the brothers; by virtue of which Phyſcon was acknowledged king of Lybia and Cyrene, and Philometor was reſtored to the government of Egypt and the iſland of Cyprus. This treaty of mutual agreement, though ſolemnly ratified by the cuſtomary ſacrifices, was ſoon violated by Phyſcon, who, being diſſatisfied with his diviſion of territory, ſent ambaſſadors to Rome, requeſting that the iſland of Cyprus might be aſſigned to him. Finding his embaſſy unſucceſsful, he went to Rome in perſon, in order to preſs his ſolicitation; but Menithyllus of Alabanda maintained the oppoſite cauſe with great ability. He repreſented to the ſenate, that Phyſcon had already received much more than he could reaſonably have expected from his injured brother; that he had been protected from the fury of the populace, who ſuſpected him of parricide; and that he had himſelf acceded to the recent diviſion of territory in the preſence of the gods; but that his unbounded ambition had ſlighted the moſt ſacred bonds, and led him to contemn the ſolemn decree of the conſcript fathers. Theſe aſſertions were ſubſtantiated by the ambaſſadors, who had been ſent from Rome to negociate the accommodation; and Phyſcon had nothing to anſwer, but that he was compelled, by the urgency of his affairs, to ſubmit to the propoſal of his elder brother, though highly prejudicial to his intereſt. He inſiſted upon the inequality of the diviſion, appealed to the equity of the ſenate for a favourable deciſion, and craftily ſuggeſted that Philometor, by retaining his preſent large dominions, might ſoon become a formidable enemy. This ſuggeſtion proved effectual in behalf of the royal ſupplicant: for thoſe refined politicians, who would have continued firm on the ſide of juſtice, though aſſailed by all the energy of zeal and the enchanting powers of oratory, no ſooner recollected it was for their own advantage that the ſtrength of Egypt ſhould be divided, than they adjudged the iſland of Cyprus to the younger brother, as an addition to his ſhare, in direct oppoſition to a treaty which had been ſo lately concluded by their own ambaſſadors. Two commiſſioners were therefore ſent with Phyſcon to put him in poſſeſſion of Cyprus; but they were commanded to uſe lenient methods, and to perſuade Philometer, if poſſible, voluntarily to give up the iſland to his brother. Phyſcon, arriving

riving in Greece, on his way to Cyprus, raifed a great number of mercenaries, with a defign to enlarge his territories by force; but, on the remonftrance of the ambaffadors, he difmiffed his forces and returned to Lybia, while one of the deputies proceeded to Alexandria.

The defign of the ambaffadors was to bring the two brothers to an interview on the frontiers of their dominions, and there to effect an amicable compromife agreeably to the orders of the fenate; but Torquatus, on his arrival at Alexandria, found Philometor much averfe to the requeft of the fenate. He did not, indeed, abfolutely refufe to fubmit to its decifion, but, confenting to fomethings, and objecting againft others, lengthened the difcuffion without coming to any determination. Phyfcon, receiving no intelligence, became impatient, and fent Merula, the other ambaffador, alfo to the Alexandrian court, hoping that both the deputies would prevail on Ptolemy to comply with the expreffs orders of the fenate. Philometor, however, ftill obferved the fame conduct, treating the ambaffadors with great kindnefs, and entertaining them in the moft fumptuous manner for forty days fucceffively, without giving them a decifive anfwer; and, when he found they would no longer be put off, he plainly told them that he would accede to no other treaty than that which had already been ratified between himfelf and Phyfcon.

The Cyreneans, in the mean time, conceived fo ftrong an averfion againft Phyfcon, that they determined to keep him out of their country by force of arms. Phyfcon immediately haftened to Cyrene with all his forces, but was overthrown by the iflanders. Being thus involved in great difficulties, he fent two ambaffadors to Rome to renew his complaints againft his brother; in confequence of which the fenate declared in his favour, and expreffed their refentment againft Philometor, by renouncing his alliance, and commanding his ambaffadors to leave the city. Phyfcon having in the mean time fubdued his rebellious fubjects, eftabliffied himfelf in Cyrene; but his vicious conduct foon eftranged the minds of the Cyreneans to fuch a degree, that feveral conf irators vowed his deftruction, and falling upon him one night as he returned from the palace, wounded him in feveral places, and left him for dead. This outrage was immediately attributed to Philometor, and Phyfcon repaired with all poffible fpeed to Rome to lay his grievances before the fenate, and to fhew them the fcars of his wounds. Though Philometor was well known to be a generous and humane prince, and moft unlikely to have countenanced affaffination, yet the confeript fathers encouraged the accufation, and carried their prejudices to fuch a height, that they actually refufed to hear Philometor's ambaffadors in refutation of the charge. At the fame time they appointed five commiffioners to conduct Phyfcon into Cyprus, and to put him in poffeffion of that ifland, enjoining all their allies in thofe parts to fupply him with forces for that purpofe. Phyfcon, thus encouraged by the Romans, affembled a numerous army, and effected his landing in Cyprus, B. C. 157; but, being there engaged by Philometor in perfon, his forces were defeated, and he was obliged to fhelter himfelf in the city of Lapitho, where he was befieged and taken prifoner. Philometor, on this occafion, gave a high proof of his generofity. Inftead of treating his turbulent brother with that feverity which his actions deferved, he indulged him with free forgivenefs, reftored to him Lybia and Cyrene, affigned him fome other territories in lieu of Cyprus, and promifed him his daughter in marriage. This unexampled clemency put an end to the war; and the Romans could no longer oppofe a prince whofe goodnefs of difpofition had gained him the affection of all the neighbouring nations.

Philometor, on his return to Alexandria, entrufted the government of Cyprus to a man of the name of Archias, before Chrift 145, who perfidioufly agreed, after the king's departure, to deliver up the ifland to Demetrius king of Syria. His treachery was, however, difcovered, and Archias, to avoid a public punifhment, became his own executioner. Ptolemy, in the mean time, determined to revenge himfelf upon Demetrius, and accordingly joined the kings of Pergamus and Cappadocia in fetting up Alexander Balas as a pretender to his crown. This defign was attended with fuccefs, and Alexander was not only placed on the throne of Syria, but received the daughter of Philometor in marriage: yet, notwithftanding thefe favours, the new monarch entered into a plot againft his benefactor, and Ptolemy, who confequently became his greateft enemy, marched againft him and defeated his army near Antioch, but was mortally wounded in this engagement, and died on the fifth day after his victory. This prince was of an amiable difpofition, and is highly commended for his clemency and good-nature. He aflumed the name of Philometor, to teftify his gratitude to his mother for her prudent adminiftration during his minority. He permitted the Jews to build a temple in Egypt; and he is faid to have received from Ariftobolus, an Alexandrian Jew, a commentary on the Pentateuch.

Cleopatra queen of Egypt, on the deceafe of her royal confort, before Chrift 145, endeavoured to fecure the fucceffion for her fon, being fupported in that defign by fome of the principal lords; but others declaring for Phyfcon, fent ambaffadors to invite him to Alexandria. The queen immediately took the moft prudent meafures for her fafety, and engaged a numerous army to efponfe her caufe. But, previoufly to the commencement of hoftilities, a compromife was effected between the parties by the Roman ambaffador, who propofed that Phyfcon fhould marry Cleopatra, and reign jointly with her during his life; but at the fame time declare her fon by Philometor next heir to the crown. Thefe terms were embraced; but Phyfcon had no fooner obtained the kingdom by his marriage, than he murdered the young prince in his mother's arms. This monarch, as we have already obferved, was commonly called Phyfcon, on account of his corpulency; but the name which he aflumed was Evergetes, or the Benefactor: this was changed by his fubjects into Kakergetes, or the Evil Doer; for he was the moft cruel, wicked, and defpicable, of the Ptolemies who fwayed the Egyptian fcep're. He was no fooner eftabliffied in the kingdom, than he caufed all perfons to be put to death who had lamented the fate of the young prince; and exercifed the moft wanton cruelties upon the Jews for no other reafon than their adherence to Cleopatra. In the fecond year of his reign his queen brought him a fon, whom he called Memphitis, from fome particular ceremonies which he was performing at the time of the child's birth in the city of Memphis. On his return to Alexandria, he baniffied all thofe who had been brought up with Philometor, and, without the leaft provocation, gave permiffion to the foreigners who compofed his guard, to plunder and maffacre the inhabitants at their pleafure; in confequence of which the ftreets were deluged with the blood of the innocent citizens; and thofe who efcaped the flaughter fled into other countries, leaving their native land in a manner defolate. After this unparalleled barbarity, Phyfcon invited ftrangers to re-people the place, giving them the habitations of the wretched fugitives, and admitting them to all the rights and privileges of the former citizens. As there were among thofe who had emigrated on this occafion many philofophers, phyficians, and maffers of the liberal arts and fciences, literature, was by their means, revived in Greece, Afia Minor, the iflands of the Archipelago, and in other places where they formed their new fettlements. The fanguinary wars which had been carried on for a conffderable number of years among the fucceffors of Alexander, had almoft annihilated learning in thofe parts; but the unfortunate Alexandrians, by erecting fchools, and undertaking the tuition of youth for a fmall falary, revived the feveral branches of learning, which would certainly have been

loft,

loſt, but for the protection and encouragement given to learned men by the Ptolemies of Egypt.

While foreigners were flocking from all parts to Alexandria, in purſuance of Phyſcon's invitation, B. C. 136, Scipio Africanus the younger, Spurius Mummius, and L. Metullus, landed at that port; having been ſent in quality of ambaſſadors to viſit the countries that were ſubject to, or in alliance with, their republic. They were commiſſioned to notice the ſtate of affairs in each kingdom, to compoſe ſuch differences as might exiſt between the ſovereigns, and to uſe their utmoſt endeavours in every place for the eſtabliſhment of peace and amity. Scipio, having filled the world with the fame of his exploits, was received with loud acclamations by the populace, and the king himſelf went out to meet the ambaſſadors; but his appearance inſpired them with equal contempt and averſion. He, however, affected to ſhew them the utmoſt reſpect, and entertained them, during their ſtay, with the moſt coſtly and delicious viands; but they, preferring the vigour of the conſtitution to the gratification of the palate, refuſed to partake of any nouriſhment but ſuch as was merely requiſite for the ſupport of nature. After viewing the royal palace, the treaſury, and whatever was worthy of notice in Alexandria, they ſailed up the Nile to Memphis, and other parts of Egypt; concluding, from their obſervations on the numerous cities, the great population, the fertile ſoil, &c. that nothing was wanted but a prince of abilities and application, to render Egypt one of the moſt powerful ſtates in the world. Shortly after the departure of the ambaſſadors, Phyſcon began to exerciſe the ſame tyrannical cruelties upon the new inhabitants of his metropolis, which had compelled the ancient citizens to ſeek an aſylum in a foreign country; and ſcarcely a week paſſed without ſeveral of the wealthy Alexandrians being murdered upon ſome frivolous accuſation. We have already obſerved that this monſter of wickedneſs married Cleopatra, his ſiſter and brother's widow, and ſlew her ſon in her arms on the very day of his nuptials: but now falling in love with his niece, who was alſo named Cleopatra, he firſt violated her chaſtity, and then married her; having divorced her ill-fated mother for the gratification of his carnal deſires. Theſe, and many other exceſſes of a ſimilar nature, rendered him ſo contemptible among his people, that they only waited an opportunity of taking up arms for revenging their injuries upon the mercileſs tyrant who occaſioned them. That Phyſcon retained poſſeſſion of the throne under ſo general an odium, was chiefly owing to the management of his prime-miniſter Hierax, who conciliated the eſteem of the ſoldiers by his punctual payments, and exerted himſelf to balance, as much as poſſible, the abominable conduct of his maſter: but, when Hierax was removed from his office, the Alexandrians began to complain openly of their oppreſſions, and to throw out menaces againſt their brutal monarch; Phyſcon, however, in order to incapacitate them for ſuch retribution, reſolved on a general maſſacre of the young men, in whom the ſtrength of the place conſiſted; and accordingly ordered the gymnaſium, or place of public exerciſes, to be ſet on fire when they were aſſembled, ſo that they either periſhed in the flames, or were ſlaughtered by the mercenary guards whom the king had placed at all the avenues. This diabolical action exaſperated the people to ſuch a degree, that they ran in a tumultuous manner to the palace, which they reduced to aſhes; but Phyſcon retired undiſcovered with his wife and ſon to the iſland of Cyprus. The Alexandrians were no ſooner informed of his cowardly flight, than they placed his divorced queen on the throne, and expreſſed their abhorrence of his cruelty by pulling down and deſtroying all the ſtatues which had been erected to him in Alexandria. Phyſcon, ſuppoſing this to have been done at the inſtigation of his repudiated conſort, reſolved to revenge himſelf upon the harmleſs Memphitis, whom he now conſidered only as the child of Cleopatra; and accordingly ordered his throat to be cut in his own preſence, and his mangled limbs to be put in a box, with the head entire, to ſhew to whom they belonged. Having thus ſhed the blood of his own ſon, who was amiable equally on account of his perſonal and mental accompliſhments, he ſent the box to Alexandria, charging the meſſenger to preſent it at court on the queen's birth-day. His inhuman orders were obeyed, and the public rejoicings were conſequently changed into a general mourning: but the exhibition of ſo dreadful a ſpectacle ſerved only to inflame the minds of the populace, who reſolved to prevent the tyrant from re-aſcending the throne.

Cleopatra, B. C. 129, having raiſed an army, gave the command of it to Marſyas; and Phyſcon ſent Hegelochus with a numerous body of mercenaries againſt the Alexandrians. The two armies met on the frontiers of Egypt, and a ſanguinary battle enſued, which terminated in the defeat of the Egyptians and the captivity of their general, who was ſent in chains to Phyſcon. It was expected that this unhappy priſoner would have been doomed to the moſt exquiſite torments; but the tyrant, to the aſtoniſhment of all, indulged him with a free pardon, and gave him his liberty; a generoſity which reſulted entirely from the policy of Phyſcon, who, finding that his cruelties had tended to exaſperate the people, reſolved to regain their affection by ſome public acts of lenity. The queen, greatly diſtreſſed by the loſs of her forces, ſent to implore aſſiſtance from her ſon-in-law Demetrius, promiſing to reward his exertions with the Egyptian diadem. The Syrian readily embraced her propoſal, and marching into Egypt at the head of a numerous army, laid ſiege to Peluſium; but, in conſequence of a revolt among his native ſubjects, he was obliged to return with all poſſible expedition into Syria. Cleopatra, thus diſappointed in her hopes, and too weak to reſiſt the conquering arms of Phyſcon, ſecured all her valuable effects, and ſet ſail for Ptolemais, where ſhe found an aſylum in the court of her daughter. The tyrant now returned to Alexandria and re-aſſumed the government, which he held without farther diſturbance till the ſixty-ſeventh year of his age, and the twenty-ninth of his reign, when his death put a period to his oppreſſive and iniquitous conduct. It ſeems ſcarcely credible that a prince of ſo vile and barbarous a diſpoſition ſhould have taken any pleaſure in the arts and ſciences, or have deſerved the character of a patron of literature. Yet ſeveral authors of reſpectability aſſure us that he acquired the appellation of the *philologiſt*, from his extenſive knowledge, and the facility with which he converſed on all literary ſubjects; that he enriched the Alexandrian library, at a great expence, with many valuable books; and that he obtained a conſiderable ſhare of reputation by ſome hiſtorical writings. He left three ſons, Apion, Lathurus, and Alexander. To Apion, whom he had by a concubine, he bequeathed the kingdom of Cyrene; and that of Egypt he left to his widow, in conjunction with one of her ſons whom ſhe ſhould chooſe. The ſucceſſion belonged, by right of inheritance, to Lathurus, the eldeſt of his legitimate children; but the queen preferred Alexander, who ſhe ſuppoſed moſt likely to leave the management of affairs in her own hands. This unjuſt partiality was, however, oppoſed by the Alexandrians, who obliged her to ſend for Lathurus from the iſland of Cyprus, whither he had been baniſhed in his father's life-time. The prince arrived accordingly, and was ſolemnly inaugurated; but Cleopatra ſtill retained the deſire of abſolute authority, and politically eſtabliſhed her younger ſon in the kingdom of Cyprus, that he might be in a condition to afford her important aſſiſtance in caſe of any miſunderſtanding with the reigning prince.

Lathurus began to reign in the year before Chriſt 107; but had not long enjoyed the regal dignity before his mother found means to occaſion a revolt among the Alexan-

drians, by accuſing him of the moſt heinous and unnatural crimes, in revenge for ſome meaſures he had entered into againſt her will. Her malicious fictions obtained ſuch credit with the misjudging populace, that they roſe in a general tumult againſt their ſovereign, and would certainly have torn him in pieces if he had not fortunately embarked in a veſſel, which carried him out of the reach of the impending danger. Cleopatra now ſent for Alexander from Cyprus; and, having cauſed him to be proclaimed king of Egypt, obliged Lathurus to be content with the former territory of his younger brother. Soon after this revolution, the inhabitants of Ptolemais were driven to the utmoſt extremities by Alexander Jannæus king of the Jews; in conſequence of which they ſent to Lathurus for aſſiſtance. But the meſſengers were ſcarcely gone, when they recollected that the alliance of Ptolemy might prove as prejudicial to their intereſts as the enmity of Alexander; for it was highly probable that Cleopatra would, upon their receiving the king of Cyprus, march againſt them with an irreſiſtible body of forces. Upon this conſideration they reſolved to rely on their own exertions; and they took the earlieſt opportunity of acquainting Lathurus with their determination: but he, having increaſed his army to the number of thirty thouſand men, and provided veſſels for their accommodation, ſailed to Phœnice, and encamped at a ſmall diſtance from the city of Ptolemais. Finding the citizens obſtinate in refuſing to admit his meſſengers, or to enter into any conference, he was greatly perplexed, not knowing what mode of conduct to adopt. But while he was meditating on the ſingularity of his ſituation, meſſengers arrived in his camp from the Gazæans, and from Zoilus prince of Dora, deſiring his aſſiſtance againſt the Jews, who were ſo divided by Jannæus, that one part of their army inveſted Ptolemais, while the other ravaged the territories of Zoilus and Gaza. Ptolemy embraced this opportunity of employing his troops, and accordingly marched to the relief of thoſe who had importuned him. His ſuccour was ſo powerful and opportune, that Jannæus deemed it adviſable to raiſe the ſiege of Ptolemais, and led back his army to watch the motions of Lathurus. Conſcious of his inability to vanquiſh ſo formidable an enemy, he affected to court his friendſhip, and promiſed to give him four hundred talents of ſilver, on condition that he would deliver Zoilus and his territories into his hands. Lathurus accepted the propoſal; but, diſcovering the treachery of Alexander, who was treating privately with Cleopatra, he ſuddenly renounced his intentions, and reſolved to take the moſt ample revenge on his pretended ally. With this view he divided his army into two bodies, one of which he commiſſioned to beſiege Ptolemais, and the other he led in perſon againſt Alexander. In the commencement of this expedition he ſubdued Aſochis, a city of Galilee, and carried from thence ten thouſand priſoners, with an immenſe treaſure. He alſo inveſted Sephoris, but was compelled to raiſe the ſiege, upon intelligence that Jannæus was advancing at the head of fifty thouſand men. The hoſtile armies met at Aſophos, near the river Jordan, and engaged with the utmoſt fury. Victory was for ſome time doubtful, as eight thouſand of Alexander's men, who carried brazen bucklers, performed prodigies of valour, and diſputed every inch of ground with undaunted firmneſs: but the Jews were at length defeated, after having loſt thirty thouſand men in the combat, excluſive of priſoners. A moſt inhuman conduct is attributed to Lathurus upon this occaſion; for, having taken up his quarters, after the engagement, in the neighbouring villages, he cauſed all the female and infant inhabitants to be murdered, and their mutilated limbs to be put into boiling caldrons, as if he deſigned to make a repaſt for his army. This refinement in cruelty was intended to ſtrike terror into the Jews, by repreſenting their enemies as cannibals.

While Lathurus and his followers were employed in ravaging the country, Cleopatra, B. C. 103, received intelligence of their motions, and reſolved to put a ſtop to their future progreſs. She therefore raiſed a powerful army, under the command of Chelcias and Ananias, two Jews; and, having ſecretly embarked with her troops, ſet ſail for Phœnice, where ſhe landed, to the aſtoniſhment of Lathurus, who haſtily raiſed the ſiege of Ptolemais, and retired into Cœlo-Syria. Cleopatra ſent one diviſion of her army to attack the fugitive, and with the other ſhe marched to Ptolemais, expecting to meet with an agreeable reception from the citizens: her expectations were, however, fruſtrated; for they obſtinately refuſed to open their gates. She therefore reſolved to obtain admiſſion by force, and commanded the fortreſs to be inveſted. Lathurus, in the mean time, contrived to elude the purſuit of his enemies, and marched with all his forces into Egypt, which he expected to find ſlenderly guarded in the abſence of his mother. But the troops which Cleopatra had left in that kingdom, defended their charge with the utmoſt valour, till a reinforcement arrived from Phœnice. Lathurus was therefore compelled to return to Paleſtine, and he took up his winter quarters at Gaza. The ſiege of Ptolemais in the mean time was carried on with ſuch vigour and reſolution, that the inhabitants were obliged to ſubmit to Cleopatra: when an alliance was formed between the queen and Alexander Jannæus. The victorious army ſailed back into Egypt; and Lathurus, finding that all his attempts in Paleſtine were rendered abortive, returned to his own territory of Cyprus.

During theſe tranſactions Ptolemy Alexander, the younger brother, ſuffered all the reſtraints of ſlavery under the ſpecious appearance of ſovereign authority; but, at length, being wearied with the indignities he received from his ambitious mother, and diſguſted at the unnatural malice with which ſhe perſecuted Lathurus, he departed privately from Alexandria, chooſing rather to live in obſcurity with ſafety, than to ſhare the throne with a woman of ſo baſe a diſpoſition. His flight embarraſſed the queen, who was well appriſed that the Alexandrians would never permit her to reign without one of her ſons; and ſhe, therefore, uſed all poſſible artifices to allure him back to court. Not long after his return ſhe formed a conſpiracy againſt his life; but Alexander, diſcovering her treachery, prevented his own deſtruction by turning it upon the life of the projector. She was certainly a vicious character, and might be thought to have deſerved this tragical retribution of her actions, if it had come from any hand than that of her own ſon. As ſoon as it was rumoured in the city, B. C. 89, that Ptolemy had cauſed his mother to be aſſaſſinated, the enormity of the crime ſtirred up all his ſubjects againſt him; they inſiſted upon the impropriety of ſubmitting to the government of a parricide, and drove him ignominiouſly from his dominions, which they now conferred upon his brother Lathurus. Alexander for ſome time led a wandering life in the iſland of Cos; but, having got together ſome ſhips, he, next year, attempted to return into Egypt. Being, however, fruſtrated in this deſign, he fled to Myra in Lycia; and from thence ſteered his courſe towards the iſland of Cyprus, where he hoped to obtain his brother's vacant throne; but Chœreas, one of Lathurus's admirals, obſtructed his landing, diſperſed his fleet, and killed him in the engagement, after he had borne the title of king for the ſpace of nineteen years. He left a ſon alſo named Alexander, of whom we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak hereafter.

Ptolemy Lathurus, being thus freed from two formidable competitors, began to regulate the government, and to remedy thoſe numerous abuſes which had militated againſt the felicity of the people; yet his regulations were ſo far from giving ſatisfaction, that the Thebans refuſed to ſubmit to them, and even attempted to ſhake off their allegiance. The king immediately led an army againſt

againſt the rebels, defeated them in a pitched battle, and cloſely inveſted their city, which reſiſted all his exertions with the moſt ſurpriſing obſtinacy for the ſpace of three years; but was finally reduced and given up to the rapacity of the ſoldiers.

In the year before Chriſt 78, Lucullus being ſent from Rome by Sylla to procure ſhips, in order to block up the ports of Piræus and Munychia, landed at Alexandria, and was received with ſuch honours as were only paid to the kings of Egypt. Upon the firſt intimation of his arrival the royal fleet ſailed out to meet him; and, upon his entrance into the city, the king honoured him with the moſt diſtinguiſhing marks of eſteem, allotted him an apartment in his own palace, and ordered his miniſters to give the Roman attendants four times the allowance that was uſually given to other ambaſſadors. Lucullus, however, obſerved the moſt rigid temperance amidſt the ſplendour and profuſion of the court; and refuſed a pecuniary preſent which Lathurus preſſed him to accept. He even declined viſiting the other famous cities of Egypt, which were the admiration of all the world; alleging that it would ill become him to take a tour of pleaſure, while his general was expoſing his life to the moſt imminent danger in behalf of his country. When he urged his requeſt of maritime aſſiſtance, Ptolemy pretended that he was threatened with a civil war in his own dominions, and could not, therefore, part with any of his ſhips; he, however, preſented him with his likeneſs cut in an emerald of great value, and diſmiſſed him with every token of veneration. Soon after this Lathurus died, having reigned, from the death of his father, thirty-ſix years; eleven jointly with his mother in Egypt, eighteen in Cyprus, and ſeven alone in Alexandria after the death of Cleopatra.

Upon the deceaſe of this prince, the ſceptre devolved on his only legitimate offspring Cleopatra. To obviate many obſcurities which occur in the Egyptian hiſtory, it is proper to remark, that as the males of the royal family had the general name of Ptolemy, ſo the females had that of Cleopatra, though they had likewiſe proper names to diſtinguiſh them from each other. Sylla, who at that time was perpetual dictator at Rome, ſent Alexander, the nephew of Lathurus, to aſſume the reins of government, as the next heir of the male line. On his arrival in Egypt, he was perſuaded to eſpouſe the princeſs, who had been placed on the throne ſix months before that period. The nuptials were accordingly ſolemnized with great pomp and magnificence; but Cleopatra, becoming an object of averſion to her conſort, either on account of her perſon, or her ſhare in the regal dignity, was cruelly aſſaſſinated nineteen days after the marriage. After this barbarous tranſaction, Alexander reigned fifteen years; during which time he rendered himſelf ſo obnoxious to his ſubjects by his tyrannical conduct, that they took up arms, and would have ſacrificed him to their reſentment, if he had not ſecured his ſafety by a precipitate retreat. He fled firſt to Pompey, who was then carrying on the war againſt Mithridates king of Pontus, and offered him a large ſum of money, in hopes of perſuading him to eſpouſe his cauſe; but, finding his deſign impracticable, he took refuge in the city of Tyre, whither he had ſent great part of his treaſures, and there died, as is ſuppoſed, with grief. By his laſt will he made over all his rights to the Romans, declaring them heirs to his wealth and dominions. This will, which was expreſsly intended to ſow the ſeeds of diſcord among the Roman ſenators and the people of Egypt, occaſioned ſome warm debates in the ſenate, but it was at length conſidered invalid, as far as related to the kingdom: and the fathers contented themſelves with ſending to Tyre for the effects which the deceaſed prince had bequeathed to the republic.

The Egyptians, after having driven Alexander into baniſhment, beſtowed the crown upon Ptolemy Auletes, the natural ſon of Lathurus, who, knowing he had but a doubtful title to the throne, purchaſed an alliance with the Romans at the price of ſix thouſand talents, fifty-eight years before Chriſt. Though the royal yearly revenues amounted to twice this ſum, yet Auletes could not raiſe it immediately without burdening his people with very heavy taxes. This occaſioned a general diſcontent; and the refuſal of the king to a popular requeſt reſpecting the iſle of Cyprus, exaſperated the populace to ſuch a degree, that they revolted from their allegiance; and, ſurrounding the palace, threatened the life of their ſovereign; but Auletes, on the firſt intimation of his danger, withdrew privately from Alexandria, croſſed Egypt, and embarked for Rhodes, with an intention of obtaining aſſiſtance from the Roman ſenate. Finding, on his arrival, that Cato was in the iſland, the Egyptian monarch went to viſit him: but, finding that Cato neither vouchſafed to riſe at his entrance, nor ſaluted him otherwiſe than as an ordinary perſon, he was much ſurprifed at a mode of conduct which appeared ſo incongruous with the Roman's ſimple dreſs and equipage: his amazement was, however, ſoon converted into admiration, when, having explained the ſituation of his affairs, Cato blamed him for leaving the richeſt country in the world, to expoſe himſelf to the indignities which he muſt endure among the proud and avaricious grandees of Rome; aſſured him, that the wealth of Egypt would be inſufficient to ſatisfy the rapacity of the leading men: and finally exhorted him to return, and ſtrive to regain the affections of his ſubjects by a more equitable conduct; adding, that he would cheerfully accompany him thither, and uſe his utmoſt exertions to effect a happy reconciliation. Auletes now perceived the impropriety of his flight, and entertained thoughts of embracing Cato's propoſal; but, on the advice of his companions, he relinquiſhed that deſign, and purſued his journey. The Egyptians, in the mean time, not knowing what courſe he had taken, and either believing or affecting to believe that he had periſhed, placed the diadem on the head of his daughter Berenice, and ſent an embaſſy into Syria, to Antiochus Aſiaticus, who, by his mother Selene, was the next male heir of the family, inviting him to marry the princeſs that he might reign jointly with her; but he being dead, the Alexandrian nobles enjoined the ambaſſadors to make a ſimilar propoſal to his brother Seleucus, who readily complied with their deſire. His conduct in Egypt ſoon rendered him contemptible in the eyes of his ſubjects, and Berenice was ſo violently exaſperated by his unbounded avarice, that ſhe laid aſide all conſiderations of duty, and cauſed him to be ſtrangled, after which ſhe beſtowed her hand upon Archelaus high-prieſt of Comana, who pretended to be the ſon of Mithridates the Great, though he was in reality only the ſon of that monarch's chief general.

Auletes, on his arrival at Rome, B. C. 57, found that Cæſar, on whom his principal hopes were founded, was making war in Gaul. He was, however, kindly received by Pompey, his other patron, who accommodated him with an apartment in his houſe, and omitted nothing that lay in his power to ſerve him; yet, notwithſtanding the protection of ſo powerful a man, the king was obliged to go, like a private citizen, from houſe to houſe, in order to obtain the ſuffrages of the ſenators. Having at laſt procured a ſtrong party, he was admitted to lay his complaints before the ſenate, which he did in the moſt artful manner, exaggerating the ill-treatment he had received from his rebellious ſubjects, and reminding the Romans of his alliance with their republic, by which they were bound to ſupport him againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies. To oppoſe theſe proceedings, and to juſtify the revolt of the Egyptians, a ſolemn embaſſy, conſiſting of one hundred citizens of diſtinction, was ſent from Alexandria; but Ptolemy found means to deſtroy moſt of them either by poiſon or the ſword, and ſtruck ſuch terror into the minds of the ſurvivors, that they were equally incapable of executing their commiſſion, or of demanding juſtice for the aſſaſſi-

nation

nation of their colleagues. The rumour of ſo audacious a contempt of the laws, rouſed the indignation of the public, and gave a general alarm. Marcus Favonius the ſtoic, boldly accuſed Auletes before the conſcript fathers; expatiated on the miſconduct of ſome intereſted ſenators who had ſuffered themſelves to be corrupted with money; and inſiſted that Dio, a celebrated philoſopher, who was the chief of the embaſſy, ſhould appear before the ſenate, in order to teſtify, upon oath, the murder of his companions. This demand was too reaſonable to admit a refuſal, and Dio was therefore ſummoned to come forward; but Pompey, Lentulus, and the other leading men, whoſe favour had been purchaſed by Ptolemy, declared ſo openly for the perfidious prince, that Dio was fearful of attending the ſummons; and Auletes, unwilling to give him time to recollect his accuſtomed firmneſs, cauſed him to fall by the dagger of a hired aſſaſſin. Ptolemy Auletes, now thinking himſelf ſecure in the protection of Pompey, had the audacity to avow this infamous action. A proſecution was, however, commenced againſt Aſcitius the murderer, who was proved to have ſtabbed Dio with his own hand: yet Aſcitius was acquitted in ſpite of the moſt incontrovertible evidence. An action was then brought againſt the venial judges by the adverſe party; but this was alſo ſet aſide by the artifices of Pompey's faction: and a decree was carried in the ſenate for Ptolemy's reſtoration by force of arms. All the great men were ambitious of re-conducting a monarch who had laviſhed ſuch immenſe ſums upon his protectors; and, after ſome debates, the commiſſion was obtained by Lentulus Spinther, the proconſul, who had been appointed governor of Cilicia. But about this time a ſtatue, erected on the hill of Alba, was thrown down by a thunder ſtorm; in conſequence of which the Sibylline books were opened to diſcover the meaning of the prognoſtic. C. Cato, an enterpriſing young man, who was one of the tribunes, ſeized this opportunity of confounding the intrigues of Ptolemy's party. He read, or pretended to read, in the Sibylline prophecies, the following words: "If a king of Egypt ſhall apply to you for ſuccour, aſſiſt him, but not with an army; if you adopt violent meaſures, you muſt expect great misfortunes." This prediction, though evidently forged, was reported to the people by the keepers of the Sibylline books, and produced its deſired effect ſo forcibly, that the recent decree of the ſenate was immediately revoked.

Various expedients were now propoſed in order to facilitate the king's return without violating the injunction of the pretended oracle; but, as the diverſity of opinion in the ſenate rendered every ſcheme abortive, Ptolemy determined, in purſuance of Pompey's advice, to recur to Gabinius, who commanded as proconſul in Syria. Gabinius was a perſon of the moſt infamous character, and would readily undertake any thing for money. He had already ruined the province of Syria by his unparallelled oppreſſions; and had engaged, for a large reward, to aſſiſt Mithridates in the recovery of his crown. Ptolemy came up with him as he was advancing towards the frontiers of Parthia, and delivered into his hands letters from Pompey, their common friend, whereby he was deſired to reſtore the baniſhed prince, upon ſuch terms as might prove agreeable to both parties. Gabinius was well aware that he ſhould tranſgreſs an expreſs law of the republic by acceding to this propoſal without orders from the ſenate; but on the receipt of five thouſand talents, and the aſſurance that he ſhould be rewarded with five thouſand more on Ptolemy's reſtoration to the throne, he laid aſide all dread of the conſequence, abandoned the cauſe of Mithridates, and marched without heſitation towards Egypt. On his approach, he detached Marc. Antony, who was extremely zealous in Ptolemy's behalf, to ſeize the paſſes with a body of cavalry, and open the way for the reſt of the army. The young Roman acquitted himſelf of this commiſſion with admirable addreſs, and, through the friendly offices of Hircanus prince of Judea, and Antipater the father of Herod, obtained poſſeſſion of the important city of Peluſium. Auletes on entering the place, propoſed a general maſſacre of the Egyptian inhabitants; but Antony, who juſtly ſuppoſed that ſo barbarous an action would fix an eternal ſtigma on the Roman name, and either prevent or retard the deſired reſtoration, prevented the king from executing his deſign.

On the firſt intelligence of Antony's ſucceſs, Gabinius advanced into the heart of the country, where he was met and engaged by Archelaus at the head of a conſiderable army. Victory, however, decided in favour of the proconſul, the Egyptian troops were cut in pieces, and Archelaus himſelf was taken priſoner. Gabinius might now have terminated the war without further effuſion of blood, but his avarice tempted him to prolong it; and he therefore firſt gave Archelaus his liberty, upon his paying a conſiderable ranſom; and then, pretending that his priſoner had eſcaped, he extorted freſh ſums from Ptolemy for the proſecution of the war. Archelaus, on recovering his liberty, exerted himſelf in the moſt heroic manner for the preſervation of his dominions; but his panic-ſtruck army, having turned its back in ſeveral encounters, he was obliged to ſuſtain a ſiege in Alexandria, till, being reduced to the utmoſt extremity, he marched out to hazard another battle, which put an end to his reign and life. Marc. Antony, who had been the particular friend of this valiant prince, commanded his dead body to be carefully embalmed, and cauſed it to be interred with the utmoſt magnificence. The entire reduction of Egypt ſoon followed this event, and Auletes was in conſequence reſettled on his throne: Gabinius left ſome of his Roman forces to overawe the Alexandrians; and Berenice was ſacrificed to the reſentment of her inhuman father. Moſt of the wealthy citizens were alſo put to death by the command of the king, who had occaſion for the confiſcation of their eſtates, to make up the reward he had promiſed to Gabinius; and every ſpecies of violence was daily practiſed with impunity. C. Rabirius Poſthumus, who had lent Auletes the greateſt part of the money he had borrowed at Rome, now preſſed the king to perform his engagements, but Ptolemy gave him to underſtand that he diſpaired of ſatisfying his claim, unleſs he would accept the office of receiver-general, by which he might pay himſelf as he collected the revenues. Rabirius embraced the offer, ſuppoſing that he muſt otherwiſe loſe his debt; but the ungrateful prince ſoon ordered the unfortunate creditor to be cloſely confined, though he was one of Cæſar's particular friends, and though Pompey was in ſome degree reſponſible for the debt, as the money had been advanced at his requeſt, and the obligation was executed in his preſence. Rabirius, having found means to obtain his liberty, quitted Egypt with all poſſible expedition, to elude the more dangerous deſigns of Auletes; but, to complete his misfortunes, a formal proſecution was commenced againſt him, on his return to Rome, for having aided Ptolemy in corrupting the ſenate; for having diſhonoured the quality of a Roman knight by accepting an employment in Egypt; and for having ſhared in the treaſures which Gabinius acquired in his late illegal expedition. The eloquent oration which Cicero delivered in his defence on this occaſion, is an eternal monument of Ptolemy's perfidy and ingratitude.

Auletes died in the peaceable poſſeſſion of his kingdom, about four years after his re-eſtabliſhment, and thirty after he had firſt aſſumed the government, leaving behind him two ſons and two daughters. He bequeathed his crown to his eldeſt ſon and daughter, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, commanding them to be joined in the bonds of marriage, according to the cuſtom of their family, and to govern with equal authority. And becauſe they were both under age he recommended them in the moſt ſolemn manner to the protection of the Romans, who in compliance with his deſire appointed Pompey the young prince's guardian. The name of *Auletus* had been given

to their father, becauſe he prided himſelf on his ſkill in playing on the flute, and debaſed himſelf ſo far as to contend for the prize in the public games. He was alſo called *Dionyſius Neos*, or the new Bacchus, from the great pleaſure which he took in imitating the effeminacies of the Bacchanals, dancing in a female habit, and in the ſame meaſures that they uſed during the ſolemnities of their god. Strabo aſſerts, that he ſurpaſſed all his predeceſſors in the effeminacy of his manners, and was no leſs contemptible on that account, than his grandfather Phyſcon was infamous for wickedneſs.

As Ptolemy the ſucceſſor of Auletes, who ſucceeded to the throne in the year before Chriſt 48, was a minor under Pothinus an eunuch and Achillas the commander in chief of the army, theſe miniſters, with a ſelf-intereſted view, deprived Cleopatra of her ſhare in the regal authority, and compelled her to quit the kingdom. This princeſs, who was the famous Cleopatra that had afterwards a conſiderable ſhare in occaſioning the civil wars of Rome, and whoſe high ſpirit could never bear an inſult, retired immediately into Syria, and having raiſed a powerful army, prepared to aſſert her right by force of arms. Ptolemy, receiving intelligence of her return at the head of her troops, aſſembled all his forces, and marched out againſt her. Both armies encamped between mount Caſius and Peluſium, each obſervant of the other's motions, but neither inclined to venture an engagement. Such was the ſituation of affairs, when Pompey, having loſt the battle of Pharſalia, arrived off Peluſium, expecting to find a ſecure aſylum in Egypt from the further perſecution of his enemies. He therefore ſent to inform the king of his arrival, and to ſolicit permiſſion to enter his kingdom. To this meſſage Ptolemy, who was but thirteen years of age, returned no anſwer; but the two miniſters, Achillas and Pothinus, conſulted with Theodotus a rhetorician, and ſome others, on the nature of Pompey's requeſt. Some voted for his reception, alleging that it would be an everlaſting reproach to the Egyptian nation if they ſhould refuſe to ſuccour a man in his diſtreſs, who had been the conſtant protector of Auletes, and was the acknowledged guardian of the preſent king. Others were for deſiring him to depart in queſt of ſome other aſylum; but Theodotus diſplayed all his eloquence to ſhew that it was moſt adviſable to murder him. This diabolical advice was readily embraced, and put in execution; as ſtated under the article Rome. Cæſar being informed, in the mean time, that his adverſary had ſteered his courſe towards Egypt, purſued him thither, and arrived at Alexandria juſt as the news of the perfidious aſſaſſination was brought to that city. Theodotus is ſaid to have preſented him with the head and ring of his deceaſed rival; but he melted into tears at the ſight, and ordered the head to be interred in a proper place with the accuſtomed ſolemnities. Cæſar, on his firſt landing, appears to have been in imminent danger from the lower claſs of Alexandrians, who were all in confuſion on account of Pompey's death. He, however, obtained admiſſion into the royal palace, where he ſhut himſelf up, with part of his men, till the tumult was appeaſed. He then ventured to appear in public; and, having conciliated the eſteem of the populace by his affable behaviour, he viſited the curioſities of that ſtately metropolis, and aſſiſted at the public harrangues of the young rhetoricians and orators; but, that he might not devote his whole time to diverſion, while detained by contrary winds, he began to ſolicit the payment of the money that was due to him from Auletes, and to take cognizance of the miſunderſtanding between the prince and his ſiſter Cleopatra. For this purpoſe he ſummoned a general aſſembly; and, cauſing the will of Auletes to be publicly read, he decreed, as guardian and arbitrator, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra ſhould reign jointly in Egypt, according to their father's expreſs deſire: and that Ptolemy the younger ſon, and Arſinoe the younger daughter, ſhould jointly exerciſe the regal authority in Cyprus, which had for ſome time been in the poſſeſſion of the Romans. The Alexandrians were all ſatisfied with this decree except Pothinus, who, dreading the reſentment of Cleopatra, inſpired the people with new jealouſies, and ſolicited Achillas, by private letters, to advance with his army from Peluſium to drive Cæſar from the metropolis. Achillas embraced the propoſal; and, approaching Alexandria with twenty thouſand regular troops, put all things into confuſion. Cæſar, being in no condition to hazard an engagement, reſolved to keep within the walls of the city, and poſted his men ſo advantageouſly in the ſtreets and avenues of the quarter where he reſided, that he found no difficulty in repelling the attacks of his enemies. Achillas, being thus foiled by the dictator's precautions, changed his meaſures, and went to attack the port, with the hope of ſecuring the fleet, that he might ſhut up the Romans by ſea, and cut off the poſſibility of their receiving ſuccours on that ſide; but Cæſar, repulſing him there, cauſed the Egyptian veſſels to be ſet on fire, and at the ſame time placed a ſtrong garriſon in the tower of Pharos, by which means he ſecured his communication with the ſea. Some of the burning ſhips happening to drive towards the ſhore, communicated their flames among the neighbouring houſes, whence the conflagration extended to the Bruchion, and conſumed the noble library, which had been the work of many kings, and contained four hundred thouſand manuſcripts.

Cæſar now wrote for ſpeedy ſuccours to Domitius Calvinus, his lieutenant in Aſia; and in the mean time fortified the quarter of the city which he poſſeſſed with walls, towers, and other works, including within them the royal palace, a theatre, which he uſed as a citadel, and a paſſage to the harbour. Ptolemy, who was ſtill detained by Cæſar, received intelligence of all that paſſed, through his chief miniſter Pothinus; but at length the correſpondence was diſcovered, and Pothinus was doomed to ſuffer death for his treaſon. This execution alarmed Ganymede, an eunuch who was charged with the education of Arſinoe, and who had been privy to the inſidious practices of Pothinus; he therefore conveyed the young princeſs ſecretly to the Egyptian army, who were overjoyed at her arrival, and immediately proclaimed her queen; and Ganymede, having cauſed Achillas to be put to death upon a falſe accuſation, obtained the command of the army, and aſſumed the adminiſtration of all other affairs. He contrived many artful ſtratagems to diſtreſs Cæſar during the courſe of the war; and by ſtopping up the communications between the reſervoirs in Cæſar's quarters, and thoſe in the reſt of the city, he contrived to turn the ſea-water into the former, and by that means ſpoiled all the freſh water that was kept in them. This produced the utmoſt diſtreſs among the Romans, until the dictator obviated the inconvenience, by cauſing wells to be ſunk till ſprings of freſh water were diſcovered. Cæſar having now intelligence that a legion ſent by Calvinus was detained on the neighbouring coaſts of Libya by contrary winds, he advanced with his whole fleet to convoy it ſafely to Alexandria. Ganymede inſtantly aſſembled all his naval force, with a deſign to intercept him on his return; but he was repulſed, and would have loſt the whole of his fleet, if Cæſar had not been compelled by the approach of night to retire with his auxiliaries into the harbour. To repair this misfortune Ganymede drew together all the ſhips that were in the private arſenals, and in the mouth of the Nile, with which he again attacked the Romans, but without ſucceſs. Cæſar, anxious to improve his victory, attempted to ſeize the iſle of Pharos, and the mole called the Heptaſtadium, by which it was joined to the continent; but, after he had effected a landing, he was repulſed, with the loſs of more than eight hundred men, and was himſelf expoſed to the moſt imminent danger in his retreat; for his veſſel being ready to ſink, he threw himſelf into the ſea, and with great difficulty ſwam to the next ſhip.

The Egyptians, finding that the Roman troops retained an unſhaken intrepidity in the midſt of dangers and difficulties, and that ill-ſucceſs only tended to inflame their military ardour, ſent a deputation to Cæſar, demanding their king, and aſſuring him that a compliance with their deſire would put a ſpeedy termination to the war. Cæſar readily granted their requeſt, and admoniſhed the young prince to inſpire his ſubjects with ſentiments of peace and equity; to redreſs the evils which had already reſulted from the war; and to prove himſelf worthy of the confidence that was now repoſed in him. Ptolemy petitioned, with tears in his eyes, that he might continue with the dictator, affirming that he would rather enjoy his company as a private citizen, than ſway the ſceptre without him. But he was no ſooner at the head of his army, than he renewed hoſtilities with more vigour than ever; he alſo attempted to intercept Cæſar's proviſions, but the engagement which this deſign brought on near Canopus, terminated in his defeat, and added new luſtre to the achievements of his enemy. About this time alſo, Mithridates of Pergamus, and Antipater the Idumean, marched into Egypt at the head of a conſiderable army, in compliance with Cæſar's requeſt, and upon arriving before Peluſium, they carried that city by ſtorm. On their route from thence to Alexandria they found all the paſſes in the country of Onion ſeized by the Jews, who conſtituted the greateſt part of the inhabitants. This difficulty threatened them with the deſtruction of their plan; but at length Antipater engaged the Jews to eſpouſe Cæſar's cauſe, and prevailed on them to furniſh the army with proviſions. On their approaching the Delta, Ptolemy detached a body of troops to diſpute the paſſage of the Nile, and a ſanguinary engagement enſued. Mithridates's wing was ſoon broken and diſordered, but Antipater, by affording him a ſpeedy ſuccour, checked the enemy's ſucceſs, drove them with incredible fury from the field of battle, and took poſſeſſion of their camp. Ptolemy then advanced with all his forces to overpower the victorious generals; but Cæſar having ſecretly fallen upon his rear, rendered his ſcheme abortive. Moſt of the Egyptian ſoldiers were cut in pieces, and Ptolemy, in attempting to eſcape, was drowned in the Nile. Cæſar returned to Alexandria, and finding no oppoſition to his will, beſtowed the crown of Egypt on Cleopatra, obliging her, through motives of policy, to marry her younger brother Ptolemy, who was then but eleven years of age. The paſſion he had conceived for Cleopatra was in reality the cauſe of his undertaking ſo dangerous a war, and the ſame paſſion detained him much longer in Egypt than his affairs required, but the ſucceſs which now attended Pharnaces, king of the Cimmerian-Boſphorus, and ſon of Mithridates, in the recovery of his father's dominions, awakened Cæſar from the lethargy into which he was drawn by Cleopatra's blandiſhments, and called him forth again to conqueſt and ambition.

Cleopatra now enjoyed the throne of Egypt without the leaſt diſturbance, having an unlimited authority during the minority of her brother; but the young prince no ſooner aſſumed his ſhare of the government than ſhe cauſed him to be poiſoned, and reigned from that time without a partner. Soon after this unnatural action, Cæſar being aſſaſſinated at Rome, and the famous triumvirate formed between Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius, afterwards ſurnamed Auguſtus Cæſar, the queen declared for the triumvirs, and ſent four legions to Albienus, the conſul Dolabella's lieutenant. Theſe forces were taken by Caſſius, who had earneſtly ſolicited Cleopatra to aſſiſt him againſt the triumvirs; but finding her obſtinate in refuſal, he marched towards the frontiers of Egypt with a deſign to invade her kingdom. The enterprize was, however, relinquiſhed; and Cleopatra, being freed from her apprehenſions, ſailed with a numerous fleet to join Octavius and Antony; but illneſs compelled her to return to Egypt, after ſeveral of he ſhips had been wrecked in a ſtorm.

Antony having paſſed over into Aſia, after the famous battle of Philippi, to ſettle all concerns for the intereſt of the conqueror, received intelligence that Cleopatra had aſſiſted Caſſius againſt Dolabella. He immediately ſummoned the queen to appear before him at Tarſus in Cilicia. Cleopatra, who had already proved the effect of her charms on Cæſar, inſtantly conceived the deſign of enſnaring Antony, and promiſed herſelf the moſt ample ſucceſs, upon the recollection that Cæſar had acknowledged her irreſiſtible at a time when ſhe was very young and unacquainted with the world, whereas Antony would be equally dazzled with the brilliancy of her wit, and the incomparable beauties of her perſon. She accordingly provided herſelf with rich preſents, immenſe ſums of money, ſumptuous habits, and ſplendid ornaments, and, in compliance with Antony's requeſt, ſet ſail for Cilicia. As ſoon as the news of her arrival was publiſhed in Tarſus, the citizens crowded out of the gates to meet her; and Antony, who was diſtributing juſtice in the forum, ſaw his tribunal ſuddenly deſerted, no one remaining with him but his lictors and domeſtics; nor was it ſurprizing that the populace ſhould flock to behold ſo unuſual a ſpectacle. Her royal galley flamed with gold, the ſails were of the fineſt purple, and the oars inlaid with ſilver; beneath a pavilion of cloth of gold appeared the Egyptian queen, robed like Venus, and ſurrounded by the moſt beautiful youths and virgins of her court, deſtined to repreſent the Nereids and the Graces; the hills and dales re-echoed with the ſound of hautboys, flutes, and other muſical inſtruments, with which the oars kept time, and rendered the ſcene more delightful; while the great quantity of perfumes that were burning on the deck, diffuſed their fragrance on each ſide of the river, and impregnated the air with the moſt balſamic odours. Cleopatra had no ſooner landed, than Antony ſent her a complimentary meſſage, and invited her to ſupper; but ſhe returned for anſwer, that according to the rules of decorum, he ſhould firſt viſit her, and that ſhe ſhould expect him in the tents which were erecting for her accommodation on the banks of the river. Antony complied with her deſire, and was entertained with inexpreſſible magnificence. Next day he returned the compliment, and commanded that no expence ſhould be ſpared; but notwithſtanding his utmoſt efforts, he acknowledged the inferiority of his banquet to that of Cleopatra. The queen's expectations were fully juſtified by the event; for Antony found ſuch irreſiſtible charms in her manners and converſation, that inſtead of arraigning her as an offender, he bowed in homage before the ſhrine of her beauty, and readily granted all her requeſts, however repugnant to the laws of juſtice, religion, or humanity: for it was about this time that Antony cauſed Cleopatra's ſiſter Arſinoe to be put to death, who had taken refuge in the temple of Diana, at Melitus.

Conſcious of her faſcinating powers, and anxious to bind the Roman by the ſtrongeſt ties to her perſon and intereſt, the fair Egyptian entertained him every day, during her reſidence at Tarſus, with the moſt ſumptuous banquets, which were ſerved up and diſpoſed with ſuch peculiar elegance, that ſhe ſeemed to ſtudy to excel her own inventions. Antony expreſſing ſome ſurprize at the profuſion of gold cups enriched with jewels that appeared on every ſide, ſhe told him, that if he admired ſuch trifles they were at his ſervice, and might be carried to his houſe. The next day the banquet was more ſuperb, and Antony was requeſted to bring all his officers of rank and diſtinction with him; he accepted the invitation, and Cleopatra preſented them with all the gold and ſilver plate that had been uſed in the courſe of the entertainment. In one of theſe feaſts happened the incident which Pliny relates of Cleopatra's profuſeneſs. Having laid a conſiderable wager that ſhe could expend more than fifty thouſand pounds upon one repaſt, ſhe cauſed one of the pearls that ſhe wore in her ears, which was valued at the above-mentioned ſum, to be diſſolved in an acid, and then ſwallowed it She was preparing to melt the other in

in a ſimilar manner, when Plancus, who was preſent, diverted her from the deſign. When Antony was obliged to quit Tarſus, Cleopatra accompanied him as far as Tyre, from whence ſhe returned into Egypt; but the triumvir, unable to endure her abſence, entruſted his affairs to two of his lieutenants, and haſtened to Alexandria, where he devoted the enſuing winter to all ſorts of voluptuouſneſs. Cleopatra's whole ſtudy was to divert him, and all her winning arts were exerted to retain him at her court. Yet after noticing the ſupineneſs theſe indulgencies had brought upon him, ſhe admoniſhed him to reaſſume the hero, and direct his thoughts to the reduction of cities and kingdoms.

Upon intelligence that Labienus had obtained ſome great advantages in Syria, at the head of the Parthian army, B. C. 39, Antony took leave of this beauteous queen early in the ſpring; but having changed his intentions with reſpect to the Parthians, he ſailed into Italy with two hundred ſhips, againſt Octavius: a reconciliation was, however, ſoon effected; and an allianee with his ſiſter Octavia, ſeemed to promiſe the happieſt conſequenees. It was generally ſuppoſed that the extraordinary merit of his new wife would effectually detach Antony from his recent ill-placed affection; but, after ſpending the winter at Athens, he haſtened back to Alexandria, where he again indulged without reſtraint in every ſpeeies of luxury and diſſipation. On his removing into Syria, to reſiſt the arms of the Parthians, he left Cleopatra in Egypt; but before he ſet out on his expedition, he ſent for her into Syria, in direct oppoſition to ſound policy, and the adviee of his friends. On her arrival ſhe perſuaded him to ſueh flagrant acts of cruelty and injuſtice, as rendered him odious to the whole nation. The delay whieh he made with her before he commeneed his mareh againſt the Parthians, was productive of many misfortunes; and his imprudenee in returning in the depth of winter, merely for the gratification of luſt, was attended with the loſs of ſixty thouſand ſoldiers, who either periſhed from the ſeverity of the ſeaſon, or the incredible hardſhips they had ſuffered on their march. On his return to Syria he retired to the caſtle of Leuceeome, between Sidon and Berytus, and there paſſed his time in revelling with the queen of Egypt, without expreſſing the leaſt eoneern for the wife of his boſom, or for the loſs of his troops. As, however, he deemed it neceſſary to pacify the ſoldiery, who juſtly eomplained of their aeeumulated ſufferings, he ordered ſome clothes and money to be diſtributed among them in Cleopatra's name, and then returned to Alexandria with the faſeinating idol of his affections.

The kings of Parthia and Media having quarrelled, in the mean time, reſpecting the diviſion of the booty which they had taken from the Romans, the latter ſent ambaſſadors to Antony, offering to join him againſt the Parthian with all his forces. At the ſame time intelligenee arrived that the Parthians had revolted againſt their ſovereign, and were in the utmoſt confuſion; in conſequenee of this, Antony haſtened into Syria to embraee the opportunity of revenging himſelf upon a formidable enemy. But Cleopatra, hearing that his wife Octavia was eome as far as Athens, in her way to meet Antony, and fearing that the virtue and wiſdom of that juſtly-eelebrated woman might reeal the triumvir to a ſenſe of duty and honour, ſhe employed various arts to make herſelf look pale and dejected, and then wrote to her credulous lover, that his abſenee had materially affected her health, and that ſhe muſt inevitably die if he refuſed to return. Antony needed no other allurements: he haſtened to the arms of his miſtreſs, and was ſo deeply affected by her tears, blandiſhments, reproaches, and vows of everlaſting love, that he conſented to relinquiſh his projected expedition, and to command Octavia to proeeed no farther, but to remain at Athens.

Early in the enſuing ſpring Antony ſet out for Syria, with an intention to march from thence into Parthia. Before he commeneed his journey, he beſtowed Cyrene, Cyprus, Cœlo-Syria, Itruria, and Phœnice, with great part of Crete and Cilieia, upon Cleopatra. But this not ſatisfying her ambition, ſhe earneſtly ſolicited him to put to death Herod king of Judea, and Malchus king of Arabia-Petræa, that their dominions might alſo be transferred to her. This wicked requeſt proved unſueceſsful; but Antony, to pacify her, conſented to give her that part of Malchus's kingdom which bordered on Egypt; and out of Herod's, the territory of Jericho, with the balſam gardens. The queen, having obtained theſe important grants, aeeompanied her lover as far as the Euphrates, and returning by way of Apamea and Damaſcus, came to Jeruſalem, where ſhe was ſumptuouſly entertained by Herod. During her ſtay in that city, ſhe was ſaid to feign an affection for the king, and acted ſo unbecoming the eharacter of her ſex, that Herod formed a deſign to aſſaſſinate her; but being diſſuaded from ſo wicked and inhoſpitable a meaſure, he eontinued to entertain her with all poſſible reſpect, and attended her in perſon to the frontiers of her kingdom.

Antony, who, in defiance of the moſt ſolemn oaths and promiſes, had taken Artabazus, king of Armenia, priſoner, and redueed his country, now haſtened back to Egypt, B. C. 33, and entered Alexandria in a triumphal ear, preceded by the trophies of his victory, and by the moſt illuſtrious eaptives. Cleopatra waited to receive him in the forum, being ſeated on a golden throne, ſurrounded by the ehief lords of her court. The unfortunate Artabazus was brought before her in chains, and with him the other priſoners of diſtinction; but on being commanded to kneel before her, they peremptorily refuſed their complianee. Antony now ſummoned a general aſſembly of the Alexandrians to meet in the gymnaſium, and there made a publie oration, in which he proclaimed Ceſario, the ſon of Cleopatra, begot by Julius Cæſar, king of Egypt and Cyprus, in conjunction with his mother. Antony had alſo three children by Cleopatra, named Alexander, Cleopatra, and Ptolemy. To Alexander he gave Armenia, Media, Parthia, and the other eaſtern eountries from the Euphrates to India, *when they ſhould be ſubdued*; to Cleopatra, the twin ſiſter of Alexander, he promiſed Lybia and Cyrene; and to Ptolemy, whom he ſurnamed Philadelphus, he preſented Phœnice, Syria, Cilieia, and all the countries of Aſia Minor from the Euphrates to the Helleſpont; eonferring on eaeh of the ehildren the title of kings. To eomplete the abſurdity of his conduct, he obliged his queen to take the name of Iſis, himſelf aſſuming that of Oſiris, and from that time they both appeared in publie in the dreſs that was deemed peeuliar to thoſe Egyptian deities. Yet after all this, Antony's mind was rent with jealouſy and ſuſpicion, that Cleopatra, notwithſtanding her pretended affection, had a deſign upon his life, and therefore he would not partake of any diſh at her banquets till it had been taſted by ſome other perſon. The queen, in order to obviate his fears, and at the ſame time to prove how ineffectual all his preeautions would be if ſhe really meditated his deſtruction, eauſed the flowers to be dipped in poiſon which compoſed the garlands that were to be worn by Antony and herſelf at the next feaſt. When the triumvir was in the height of feſtivity, Cleopatra propoſed drinking the flowers of their garlands, and Antony admiring the frolie, threw ſome of them into his wine, and was on the point of ſwallowing them, when the queen ſeizing him by the arm, told him the flowers were poiſoned, and that ſhe herſelf, againſt whom he had been ſo guarded, had prepared the poiſon. She then commanded a condemned eriminal to be brought in, and eauſed him to drink the wine in Antony's cup, which immediately terminated his life.

In eomplianee with the adviee of ſome of his partiſans, Antony declared war againſt his former colleague, who

was now employed in ſtirring up the Romans againſt him; and at the ſame time ſent a divorce to Octavia, whom he ordered to be driven forcibly from his houſe at Rome. His preparations for the war were ſo far advanced, that an immediate attack upon his adverſary would in all probability have been attended with ſucceſs, as Octavius was not then in a condition to withſtand his forces either by ſea or land; but in this, as in every other affair of importance, he was immerſed in misfortune through his ill-fated paſſion; for, inſtead of leading his ſoldiers to the field while they might reaſonably have expected the victory, he continued to revel in the arms of Cleopatra, as if in the moſt peaceable times. Whenever he appeared in public ſhe was with him; even in the adminiſtration of juſtice in the forum ſhe was ſeated by his ſide; he always addreſſed her with the title of queen and ſovereign; and frequently followed her on foot among the eunuchs, while ſhe was drawn through the city in a ſtately chariot. In ſhort, ſhe had gained ſo entire an aſcendancy over him, that ſhe entertained the hope of becoming queen of Rome.

In the year before Chriſt 31, Octavius, having prepared a powerful fleet and army, declared war againſt the queen of Egypt; and as ſoon as the ſeaſon would permit, the two armies prepared for engagement, and the fleets put to ſea. After ſeveral encounters, Antony was perſuaded by Cleopatra to put the whole to the iſſue of a ſea fight, though Canidius remonſtrated on the impolicy of ſuch a riſk. This memorable battle was fought at the mouth of the Ambracian gulf, near the city of Actium, in ſight of both armies. The victory, being diſputed with great vigour and reſolution, was for ſome time doubtful; but the timidity of Cleopatra induced her to draw off the whole Egyptian ſquadron, conſiſting of ſixty large veſſels, in the middle of the engagement; and her ill-fated lover immediately followed her, to the aſtoniſhment of all the ſpectators. Next day Octavius detached a ſquadron of his beſt ſhips in purſuit of the fugitives, but they ſoon returned to the fleet without executing their commiſſion, and Cleopatra and Antony arrived ſafely at Tænarus in Laconia. Octavius cauſed the war to be declared only againſt Cleopatra, to avoid offending Antony's friends, who were very numerous and powerful at Rome. Cleopatra now left Antony, and returned to Alexandria; but fearing leſt the knowledge of her misfortunes ſhould excite her ſubjects to a revolt, ſhe entered the harbour with emblematical ornaments on her ſhips, as if ſhe had obtained a ſignal victory; and when by this artifice ſhe had obtained admiſſion into her metropolis, ſhe iſſued orders for the execution of all thoſe perſons who were averſe to her meaſures.

From Tænarus Antony ſailed to Lybia, where he had left Pinarius Scarpus, with a conſiderable body of troops, to defend the Egyptian frontier on that ſide; but on his landing, he had the mortification to find that Scarpus, and all the forces under his command, had revolted to Octavius. The only reſolution therefore he could now take, was to follow Cleopatra to Alexandria: where he found her engaged in a very extraordinary undertaking. To avoid falling into the hands of Octavius, who, ſhe was well aware, would follow her into Egypt, ſhe commanded all her ſhips in the Mediterranean to be carried to the Red Sea, over an iſthmus of ſeventy miles, for the purpoſe of tranſporting herſelf and all her treaſures beyond the enemy's reach. But the Arabians who inhabited that coaſt having burnt all the veſſels, ſhe was obliged to relinquiſh her deſign. The extremity to which ſhe was thus reduced, effected a total change in her projects; and ſhe inſtantly formed the baſe reſolution of ſacrificing Antony to his inveterate foe, whom ſhe now regarded as her conqueror. She accordingly prevailed on her deluded lover to ſend propoſals of peace to Octavius, and joined her deputies in the ſame embaſſy, but gave them private inſtructions to treat ſeparately for herſelf. Octavius refuſed to admit Antony's ambaſſadors to his preſence, but Cleopatra's were diſmiſſed with a favourable anſwer.

Antony, on his return from Lybia, was ſo deeply overwhelmed with diſtreſs by the treachery of Searpus, that he was with difficulty prevented from ruſhing into the arms of death; and, on his landing, retired to a country-houſe on the banks of the Nile, in order to ſequeſter himſelf from Cleopatra, and all his former companions. But as nothing could eraſe from his heart the recollection of his beloved miſtreſs, he ſoon quitted his retreat, and returned to Alexandria, from whence he again ſent deputies to demand his life of Octavius, upon the ſhameful condition of reſiding at Athens in the capacity of a private perſon; provided Cleopatra and her children might retain the government of Egypt. This deputation proving equally unſucceſsful with the former, Antony ſeemed determined on extinguiſhing the recollection of his paſt troubles, and the apprehenſion of his approaching deſtiny, by immoderate luxury and voluptuouſneſs: Cleopatra and he regaled each other alternately, and ſtrove to exceed each ſucceſſive entertainment in ſplendor and magnificence.

Octavius being anxious to get the queen of Egypt within his power, that he might adorn his triumph with her perſon, and diſcharge his debts with her immenſe treaſures, ſent her ſeveral aſſurances of protection on condition that ſhe would kill Antony, whom he ſtiled the author of all her misfortunes: Cleopatra peremptorily refuſed to embrue her hands in the blood of Antony, but at the ſame time conſented to deliver his perſon, and the kingdom of Egypt, into the enemy's hand. In conſequence of this promiſe the city of Peluſium was betrayed to Octavius, while Antony was gone to lay ſiege to Peritonium, the key of Egypt on the weſtern ſide. Antony, fruſtrated in his deſigns, and defeated with the loſs of his whole fleet, haſtened to Alexandria to defend the metropolis from the fury of Octavius. On his arrival he found Cleopatra employed in removing her jewels and moſt valuable effects to a monument which ſhe was ſaid to have formerly built near the temple of Iſis. Upon being queſtioned reſpecting this removal of her treaſures, together with a great quantity of aromatic wood, flax, perfumes, &c. ſhe anſwered, that if the town ſhould be taken, ſhe would there raiſe a funeral pile and conſume herſelf with her riches in the flames, to diſappoint the enemy of his expectations. This, however, was a mere ſtratagem to conceal her perfidy from Antony, and to obtain further aſſurances of favour from Octavius. The enemy in the mean time encamped in the hippodrome, hoping ſoon to be maſter of the city, by means of the private intelligence which he held with Cleopatra. Antony, who was ſtill ignorant of the queen's intrigues, made a vigorous ſally, and threw the beſiegers into great diſorder; but this was the laſt effort of his expiring valour; for, inſtead of improving his advantage, or providing for his perſonal ſafety, he preſented himſelf in his armour before Cleopatra, and, amidſt the acclamations of the Alexandrians, proſtrated himſelf before her throne, recommending to her favour one of his ſoldiers who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf on that occaſion in a very eminent manner. The queen immediately ſent for the ſoldier, and, in the preſence of the whole people, preſented him with a ſuit of armour and helmet of pure gold, with which he deſerted the ſame night to Octavius. Early the next morning Antony reſolved to attack the invader by ſea and land. He accordingly drew up his land army upon ſome eminences within the city, and from thence kept the galleys in view, which were ſailing out of the port to attack the enemy's fleet. He waited in ſilence the reſult of the expected engagement; but the ſignal was no ſooner given, than Cleopatra's admiral ſtruck his flag and ſurrendered his whole force, in compliance with the orders of his royal miſtreſs.

This treaſon convinced Antony of the ſincerity of thoſe friends

friends who had warned him of Cleopatra's perfidy, and opened his eyes to the true extent of his misfortune. Frantic with rage and despair, he challenged Octavius to decide their quarrel by single combat; but the young Roman, smiling at the proposal, replied, that if Antony was weary of his life, there were means enough in Alexandria to give him relief. Upon the receipt of this contemptuous message, Antony hastened to the palace, in order to sacrifice Cleopatra to his just resentment; but she eluded his fury by a timely flight, and, having shut herself up in the above-mentioned monument, with three attendants, caused it to be published that she had killed herself to avoid the horrors of captivity. This artifice hastened on the catastrophe of Antony's calamities; for he no sooner heard that the queen was dead, than all his former affections rushed into his heart; his transports of rage were converted to those of grief; and he formed the desperate resolution of following her example. He accordingly retired to his apartment with a faithful slave, who had engaged to kill him when the extremity of his affairs should require that mournful office, and, reminding him of his promise, commanded him to run him through the body; but the affectionate Eros, unable to murder his unfortunate master, stabbed himself to the heart, and sunk lifeless at his feet. Antony immediately fell upon his sword, and gave himself the wound of which he afterwards died. At that moment one of the queen's officers came to contradict the account of her death, and found him weltering in his blood. Antony, hearing that Cleopatra was alive, suffered his wound to be dressed, and caused himself to be carried to the monument. The queen would not permit the gates to be opened for his admission, lest she should be surprised by the enemy; but, having ordered her servants to fasten him to some ropes which hung from the top of the monument, she drew him up, with the assistance of her two women. Never was there a more affecting scene! Antony, bathed in his blood, struggling with death, stretching out his feeble arms, and turning his dying eyes to Cleopatra, as if conjuring her to receive his latest breath, was dragged up in the air; while the object of his dearest affection pulled the cords with trembling hands and distorted features, for the poor satisfaction of seeing him die in her arms. When she had, with much difficulty, drawn him up, she laid him upon a bed; tore her garments to stop the bleeding of his wounds; bedewed his face with a profusion of tears; called him by the most endearing epithets; and cut off his hair, acccording to the superstition of the Pagans, who believed this to be a relief to all those who died a violent death. Antony, seeing the queen's affliction, endeavoured to comfort her by observing that his defeat was honourable, since it was no disgrace for one Roman to be vanquished by another; and that his death was rendered felicitous by her kind attentions: he advised her to save her life and kingdom, provided she could do it with honour, and warned her to trust none of the conqueror's friends, except Proculeius. The exertion which attended these words was too powerful for his strength, and he closed his eyes in death at the moment that Proculeius arrived from the enemy's camp, B. C. 30.

Octavius, who had received intelligence of all that passed, and had shed some tears at the sight of the sword with which Antony had wounded himself, commissioned Proculeius to get the queen into his hands: but she refused to surrender herself, unless he would promise, in his master's name, that her children should enjoy the kingdom. He, being unable to accede to these terms, reported the ill success of his conference to Octavius, who immediately sent Cornelius Gallus, a man of great learning and eloquence, to persuade her to confide in his clemency; Gallus accordingly went to the gate of the monument, and, speaking to her through the crevices, engaged her attention while Proculeius scaled the wall, and entered, with two officers, at the place where Antony had been taken in. When Cleopatra saw him appear, she drew a dagger with an intent to stab herself, but Proculeius running swiftly to her, forced the weapon from her hand, and shook her robes lest she should have concealed any poison in them; he then assured her, in general terms, that she might safely rely on Octavius's honour; and immediately dispatched a messenger to inform him that the queen of Egypt was his prisoner. The victorious Roman, overjoyed at this important news, now approached the city of Alexandria, and, finding the gates open, went with Arius, a native of the place, who had been his preceptor, to the gymnasium, where he ascended a tribunal, and made an eloquent harangue to the citizens, in which he told them that he freely pardoned, and would protect them. Cleopatra, having in the mean time obtained permission to bury Antony, caused the body of her unfortunate lover to be embalmed in the most costly manner, and deposited in the burying-place of the kings of Egypt.

Octavius deemed it improper to intrude upon Cleopatra's privacy during the first days of her mourning; but, when the violence of her grief had subsided, he was introduced, by her own permission, into her chamber. He found her extended on a little bed, in a very simple and negligent manner; her hair dishevelled; her visage haggard; her eyes swoln by excessive weeping; and her bosom covered with wounds and bruises: yet, though so greatly disfigured, she did not despair of inspiring her youthful conqueror with the same sentiments as had formerly inflamed the hearts of Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony. With this design she threw herself at his feet, and exerted all her powers in depicting the situation of her affairs: but all her arts were employed to no purpose, for Octavius did not appear to be affected either with her person or conversation, but merely advised her to take courage, and to rest assured that his intentions were equitable. She was far from misconstruing this inauspicious coldness; yet she dissembled her concern, and put an inventory into his hands of all her moveables, jewels, and revenues. Seleucus, one of her treasurers, then present, accused her of concealing part of her most valuable effects; in return for which affront she flew towards him, and, seizing him by the hair, gave him several blows on the face. Then, turning towards Octavius, she demanded whether such treatment from a servant was not insupportable; and acknowledged that she had reserved some jewels for a present to his wife and sister, that through their intercession she might receive some alleviation of her misfortunes. Octavius, supposing from this discourse that his prisoner had relinquished all sorts of suicide, gave her free permission to dispose of the jewels in what manner she thought proper; and, having promised to treat her with more generosity than she expected, quitted the apartment.

Cleopatra, being now convinced that she was designed as an ornament to the victor's triumph, resolved to avoid the approaching infamy by a voluntary death, and devoted her thoughts entirely to the execution of that design. In hopes of deceiving the vigilant Epaphroditus, who never suffered her to go out of his sight, she obtained permission to pay her last respects to the memory of Antony: she bathed the tomb with her tears, covered it with flowers, and, with many expressions of grief, performed such ceremonies as were practised among the Egyptians on similar occasions. But Epaphroditus kept so close to her during the whole time, that she had no opportunity of attempting any thing on her own life. Upon her return she commanded a sumptuous entertainment to be made, and exhibited an uncommon degree of vivacity during the feast. In the height of her apparent mirth she rose from the table, and wrote a letter to Octavius, which she requested Epaphroditus to deliver with his own hand. Having, by this artifice, delivered herself from the observation of Cæsar's freedman, she retired, with two female attendants, to her chamber, where she dressed herself in her royal robes, lay down on her bed, and asked

for a baſket of figs, which one of her ſervants had brought her in the diſguiſe of a peaſant. Among the figs was concealed an aſp, (ſee the article COLUBER, vol. iv. p. 799,) which ſhe applied to her left arm, and, ſinking immediately into a lethargy, ſhe expired in the arms of her attendants. Octavius, on entering the queen's apartment, found her lying dead on a golden bed; one of her maids likewiſe dead at her feet, and the other expiring by her ſide. Octavius tried all poſſible means to recover his fair priſoner; but, finding his attempts fruitleſs, he granted her laſt petition, and cauſed her to be buried with the utmoſt pomp in the ſame tomb with Antony.

Thus died Cleopatra, in the year before Chriſt 30, in the thirty-ninth of her age, and the twenty-ſecond of her reign. She was a woman of extraordinary abilities, for ſhe is ſaid to have been a perfect miſtreſs of the Greek and Latin languages, and to have converſed fluently with Ethiopians, Troglodites, Jews, Arabians, Syrians, Medes, and Perſians, without the aſſiſtance of an interpreter. She retained, in the midſt of her voluptuouſneſs, a taſte for polite learning, and erected a magnificent library, which ſhe enriched with the two hundred thouſand volumes taken from Pergamus. She ſeems to have been capable of the moſt ardent attachments; but ambition was her ruling paſſion, and to this ſhe ſacrificed her virtue, her kingdom, and her life. In her ended the family of Ptolemy Lagus, the founder of the Egyptian monarchy, after it had retained the ſceptre two hundred and ninety-three years from the death of Alexander the Great.

FROM THE CONQUEST OF EGYPT BY THE ROMANS TO THE FALL OF THE EGYPTIAN CALIPHS.

After the death of Cleopatra, Egypt was reduced to the humble ſtate of a Roman province, and was, for ſeveral centuries, governed by prætors ſent from Rome. This luxuriant country, however, was highly favoured by its conquerors, who delegated to the people the privilege of ſubſiſting under their ancient laws, and of exerciſing uninterruptedly the functions of their religion. Even the gods Iſis and Serapis were naturalized at Rome; and, though their temples were demoliſhed in the year of Rome 701, by order of the ſenate, yet they were afterwards reſtored with ſtill greater ſolemnity and magnificence. Under the Roman government, the revenues of Egypt were eſtimated at three millions ſterling per annum, having been greatly improved by the care and economy of the prætors, who literally made that province the granary and ſtorehouſe of Rome. When Probus commanded in Egypt, he executed many conſiderable works, which greatly contributed to the ſplendour and benefit of the country. The navigation of the Nile, ſo important to the Roman commerce, was highly improved; and temples, bridges, porticoes, and palaces, were conſtructed by the hands of the ſoldiers, who acted by turns as architects, as engineers, and as huſbandmen; all tending to the augmentation of this rich domain. Under the Roman juriſdiction, likewiſe, the light of the goſpel, and the bleſſings of the Chriſtian religion, made their firſt entrance into Eypt. It was firſt embraced by the Therapeutæ, or Eſſenians of the lake Mareotis, a Jewiſh ſect, which had abated much of its reverence for the Moſaic ceremonies; but it was in the ſchool of Alexandria, that the Chriſtian theology appears to have aſſumed a regular and ſcientific form; and, when Adrian viſited Egypt, he found a church compoſed of converted Jews and of Greeks, ſufficiently important to attract the notice of that inquiſitive prince.

But, notwithſtanding the wiſdom and mildneſs of the Roman juriſprudence over every part of Egypt, yet this grand acceſſion to their dominions could not be governed without frequent inſurrections and rebellions of the people. About the year of Chriſt 296, five Mooriſh nations iſſued forth from their deſerts to invade the neighbouring provinces; they ſeized upon Egypt, and, being joined by the natives, aſſumed the reins of ſovereignty in Alexandria. Dioeletian, appriſed of theſe meaſures, loſt no time in puniſhing the inſurgents. He opened the campaign in Egypt by the ſiege of Alexandria, cut off the aqueducts which conveyed the waters of the Nile into every part of the city; and, rendering his camp impregnable to the ſallies of the beſieged multitude, he puſhed his attacks with caution and vigour. After a ſiege of eight months, Alexandria, waſted by the ſword and by fire, implored the elemency of the conqueror; but it experienced the full extent of his ſeverity. Many thouſands of the citizens periſhed in a promiſcuous ſlaughter, and there were few obnoxious perſons in Egypt who eſcaped a ſentence either of death, or of exile. The fate of Euſiris and of Coptos was ſtill more melancholy than that of Alexandria; thoſe famous cities, the former diſtinguiſhed by its vaſt antiquity, the latter enriched by the paſſage of the Indian trade, were utterly deſtroyed by the arms and by the ſevere order of Dioeletian. The character of the Egyptian nation, inſenſible to kindneſs, but extremely ſuſceptible to fear, could alone juſtify this exceſſive rigour. The ſeditions of Alexandria had often affected the tranquillity of Rome; and the province of Upper Egypt, inceſſantly relapſing into rebellion, had embraced the alliance of the ſavages of Ethiopia. Even the Blemmyes, ſcattered between the iſland of Meroe and the Red Sea, were ſubſidized by the Egyptians; and theſe ſavage barbarians, whom antiquity, ſhocked with the deformity of their figure, had almoſt excluded from the human race, preſumed to rank themſelves among the enemies of Rome. Such had been the unworthy allies of the Egyptians, who now ſuffered in turn from the unrelenting rigour of the Roman arms. But at the ſame time that Dioeleſian chaſtiſed the paſt crimes of the Egyptians and their allies, he provided for the future ſafety and happineſs of the country, by many wiſe regulations, which were confirmed, and enforced, under the ſucceeding reigns.

Egypt continued under the Roman yoke, not without occaſional ſtruggles for the recovery of its liberty, and ſtill more ſerious quarrels with the prætors and Greek Chriſtians, until the reign of the emperor Heraelius, when the Saracen forces, in the caliphate of Omar, bore down the kingdoms of the eaſt, conquered Paleſtine, and reduced Syria under the Mohammedan power. After ſetting out from Medina, to viſit the holy city of Jeruſalem, and review his victorious troops, A. D. 638, Omar directed his general Yezid to remain in Paleſtine, Abu Obadiah to march againſt Antioch and Aleppo, and Amrou, otherwiſe Amru Ebn Al As, to invade Egypt. The intrepid Amrou, at the head of only four thouſand Arabs, haſtened from his ſtation at Gaza, and continued his route by forced marches, until his tents were pitched on Egyptian ground. He aſſembled his forces before Peluſium, and took poſſeſſion of that key to Egypt, as it is uſually called, in only thirty days, which unlocked the entrance of the country as far as the ruins of Heliopolis, and the neighbourhood of Memphis, or the modern Cairo. In the age of Auguſtus, and even in that of Conſtantine, Memphis ranked among the greateſt and moſt populous of the Roman provincial cities. The banks of the Nile, in this place of the breadth of three thouſand feet, were united by two bridges of ſixty and of thirty boats, connected in the middle ſtream by the ſmall iſland of Rouda, which was covered with gardens and habitations. The eaſtern extremity of the bridge was terminated by the town of Babylon and the camp of a Roman legion, which protected the paſſage of the river and the ſecond capital of Egypt. This important fortreſs, which might fairly be deſcribed as a part of Memphis or Miſrah, was ſoon inveſted by the arms of the valiant Amrou: a reinforcement of four thouſand Saracens arrived in his camp; and the military engines, which battered the walls, may be imputed to the art and labour of his Syrian allies. Yet the ſiege was protracted to ſeven months; and the raſh

invaders

CLEOPATRA, QUEEN OF EGYPT.

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invaders were encompaſſed and threatened by the approaching inundation of the Nile. Their laſt aſſault was therefore bold and ſucceſsful: they paſſed the ditch, which had been fortified with iron ſpikes, applied their ſcaling-ladders, entered the fortreſs with ſhouts, and drove the remnant of the Greeks to their boats and the iſle of Rouda. The ſpot was afterwards recommended to the conqueror by the eaſy communication with the gulf and the peninſula of Arabia: the remains of Memphis were deſerted; the tents of the Arabs were converted into permanent habitations: and the firſt moſque roſe up in the preſence of fourſcore companions of Mahomet. A new city aroſe in their camp on the eaſtward bank of the Nile; and the contiguous quarters of Babylon and Foſtat are confounded in their preſent decay by the appellation of old Miſrah or Cairo, of which they form an extenſive ſuburb. But the name of Cairo, the town of *victory*, more ſtrictly belongs to the modern capital.

The Arabs, however, after this glorious and profitable enterpriſe, muſt have finally retreated to the deſert, had they not found a powerful alliance in the heart of the country. The rapid conqueſt of Alexander had formerly been aſſiſted by the ſuperſtition and revolt of the natives: they abhorred their Perſian oppreſſors who had burnt the temples of Egypt and deſtroyed their gods. After a period of ten centuries, the ſame revolution was renewed by a ſimilar cauſe; and in the ſupport of an incomprehenſible creed, the zeal of the Coptic Chriſtians was equally ardent. The Saracens were therefore received as the deliverers of the Jacobite church; and a ſecret treaty was opened during the ſiege of Memphis between the victorious army and a people of ſlaves. A rich and noble Egyptian, named Al Mokawkas, had diſſembled his faith to obtain the adminiſtration of his province: but the abuſe of his truſt had expoſed him to the reſentment of Heraclius; his ſubmiſſion was only delayed by arrogance and fear; and his conſcience was prompted by intereſt to throw himſelf on the favour of the Saracens. In his firſt conference with Amrou, he heard without indignation the uſual option of the Koran, *the tribute, or the ſword.* "The Greeks, (replied Mokawkas,) are determined to abide the determination of the ſword; but with the Greeks I deſire no communion, either in this world or in the next, and I abjure for ever the Byzantine tyrant, his ſynod of Chalcedon, and his Melchite ſlaves. For myſelf and my brethren, we are reſolved to live and die in the profeſſion of the goſpel and unity of Chriſt. It is impoſſible for us to embrace the revelations of your prophet; but we are deſirous of peace, and cheerfully ſubmit to pay tribute and obedience to his temporal ſucceſſors." The tribute was aſcertained at two pieces of gold for the head of every Chriſtian; but old men, monks, women, and children of both ſexes under ſixteen years of age, were exempted from this perſonal aſſeſſment; the Copts above and below Memphis ſwore allegiance to the caliph, and promiſed an hoſpitable entertainment of three days to every Muſſulman who ſhould travel through their country. In the march, therefore, from Memphis to Alexandria, Amrou entruſted his ſafety to the zeal and gratitude of the Egyptians: the roads and bridges were diligently repaired; and in every ſtep of his progreſs, he could depend on a conſtant ſupply of proviſions and intelligence. The Greeks of Egypt, whoſe numbers could ſcarcely equal a tenth of the natives, were overwhelmed by the univerſal defection; they had ever been hated, they were no longer feared: the magiſtrate fled from his tribunal, the biſhop from his altar; and the diſtant garriſons were ſurpriſed or ſtarved by the ſurrounding multitudes. Had not the Nile afforded a ſafe and ready conveyance to the ſea, not an individual could have eſcaped, who by birth, or language, or office, or religion, was connected with the Greek name.

By this retreat of the Greeks from the provinces of Upper Egypt, a conſiderable force was collected in the iſland of Delta: the natural and artificial channels of the Nile afforded a ſucceſſion of ſtrong and defenſible poſts; and the road to Alexandria was laboriouſly cleared by the victory of the Saracens in two and twenty days of general or partial combat. In their annals of conqueſt, the ſiege of Alexandria is perhaps the moſt arduous and important enterpriſe. The firſt trading city in the world was abundantly repleniſhed with the means of ſubſiſtence and defence. Her numerous inhabitants fought for the deareſt of human rights, religion and property; and the enmity of the natives ſeemed to exclude them from the common benefit of peace and toleration. The ſea was continually open; and, if the emperor Heraclius had been awake to the public diſtreſs, freſh armies of Romans and barbarians might have been poured into the harbour to ſave the ſecond capital of the empire. A circumference of ten miles would have ſcattered the forces of the Greeks, and favoured the ſtratagems of an active enemy; but the two ſides of an oblong ſquare was covered by the ſea and the lake Maræotis, and each of the narrow ends expoſed a front of no more than ten furlongs. The efforts of the Arabs were not inadequate to the difficulty of the attempt and the value of the prize. From the throne of Medina, the eyes of the caliph Omar were fixed on the camp and city: his voice excited to arms the Arabian tribes and the veterans of Syria; and the merit of an holy war was recommended by the peculiar fame and fertility of Egypt. Anxious for the ruin or expulſion of their tyrants, the Egyptian natives devoted their labours to the ſervice of Amrou; ſome ſparks of martial ſpirit were perhaps rekindled by the example of their allies; and the ſanguine hopes of Mokawkas had fixed his ſepulchre in the church of St. John of Alexandria. Eutychius the patriarch obſerves, that the Saracens fought with the courage of lions; they repulſed the frequent and almoſt daily ſallies of the beſieged, and ſoon aſſaulted in their turn the walls and towers of the city. In every attack, the ſword, the banner of Amrou, glittered in the van of the Moſlems. On a memorable day, he was betrayed by his imprudent valour: his followers who had entered the citadel were driven back; and the general, with a friend and a ſlave, remained a priſoner in the hands of the Greek Chriſtians. When Amrou was conducted before the præfect, he remembered his dignity, but forgot his ſituation; a lofty demeanour, and reſolute language, revealed the lieutenant of the caliph, and the battle-axe of a ſoldier was already raiſed to ſtrike off the head of the audacious captive. His life was ſaved by the promptitude of his ſlave, who inſtantly gave his maſter a blow on the face, and commanded him, with an angry tone, to be ſilent in the preſence of his ſuperiors. The credulous Greek was by this artifice deceived; he liſtened to the offer of a treaty, and his priſoners were diſmiſſed in the hope of a more reſpectable embaſſy, till the joyful acclamations of the camp announced the return of their general, and inſulted the folly and weakneſs of their enemies. At length, after a ſiege of fourteen months, and the loſs of three and twenty thouſand men, the Saracens prevailed: the Greeks embarked their diſpirited and diminiſhed numbers, and the ſtandard of Mahomet was planted on the walls of Alexandria. "I have taken, (ſaid Amrou to the caliph,) the great city of the weſt. It is impoſſible for me to enumerate the variety of its riches and beauty; and I ſhall content myſelf with obſerving, that it contains four thouſand palaces, four thouſand baths, four hundred theatres or places of amuſement, twelve thouſand ſhops for the ſale of vegetable food, and forty thouſand tributary Jews. The town has been ſubdued by force of arms, without treaty or capitulation, and the Moſlems are impatient to ſeize the fruits of their victory." The caliph Omar rejected with firmneſs the idea of pillage, and directed Amrou to reſerve the wealth and revenue of Alexandria for the public ſervice: the inhabitants were numbered, a tribute was impoſed; and the people indulged in an obſcure exerciſe of their worſhip. The intelligence of this diſgraceful and calamitous

calamitous event afflicted the declining health of the emperor; and Heraclius died about ſeven weeks after the loſs of Alexandria. Under the minority of his grandſon, the clamours of the people compelled the court to undertake the recovery of Egypt. In the ſpace of four years, the harbour and fortifications of Alexandria were twice occupied by a fleet and army of Romans. They were twice expelled by the valour of Amrou, who was recalled by the domeſtic peril from the diſtant wars of Tripoli and Nubia. But the facility of the attempt, and the obſtinacy of the reſiſtance, provoked him to ſwear, "that if a third time he drove the infidels into the ſea, he would render Alexandria as acceſſible on all ſides as the houſe of a proſtitute." Faithful to his promiſe, he diſmantled ſeveral parts of the walls and towers, but the people was ſpared in the chaſtiſement of the city, and the moſque of *Mercy* was erected on the ſpot where the victorious general had ſtopped the fury of his troops.

It was now that the learned had to deplore the fate of the Alexandrian library, as it is deſcribed by the learned Abulpharagius. The ſpirit of Amrou was more curious and liberal than that of his brethren; and in his leiſure hours the Arabian chief was pleaſed with the converſation of John, the laſt diſciple of Ammonius, and who derived the ſurname of *Philoponus*, from his laborious ſtudies of grammar and philoſophy. Emboldened by this familiar intercourſe, Philoponus preſumed to ſolicit a gift, ineſtimable in his opinion, contemptible in that of the Barbarians; the royal library; which alone, among the ſpoils of Alexandria, had not been appropriated by the viſit and the ſeal of the conqueror. Amrou was inclined to gratify the wiſh of the grammarian, but his rigid integrity refuſed to alienate the minuteſt object without the conſent of the caliph; and the well-known anſwer of Omar was inſpired by the ignorance of a fanatic. "If theſe writings of the Greeks agree with the book of God, they are uſeleſs and need not be preſerved: if they diſagree, they are pernicious and ought to be deſtroyed." The ſentence was executed with blind obedience: the volumes of paper or parchment were diſtributed to the four thouſand baths of the city; and ſuch was their incredible multitude that ſix months were barely ſufficient for the conſumption of this precious fuel!

In the adminiſtration of Egypt, Amrou endeavoured to balance the demands of juſtice and of policy. In the management of the revenue he diſapproved the ſimple but oppreſſive mode of a capitation, and preferred with reaſon a proportion of taxes, deducted on every branch from the clear profits of agriculture and commerce. A third part of the tribute was appropriated to the annual repairs of the dykes and canals, ſo eſſential to the public welfare. Under his adminiſtration the fertility of Egypt ſupplied the dearth of Arabia; and a ſtring of camels, laden with corn and proviſions, covered almoſt without an interval the long road from Memphis to Medina. But the genius of Amrou ſoon renewed the maritime communication which had been attempted or achieved by the Pharaohs, the Ptolemies, or the Cæſars; and a canal, at leaſt eighty miles in length, was opened from the Nile to the Red Sea. This inland navigation, which would have joined the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean, was ſoon diſcontinued as uſeleſs or dangerous: and the Saracen throne was removed from Medina to Damaſcus. Of this new conqueſt, the caliph Omar had but an imperfect knowledge from the voice of fame. He requeſted that his general would place before his eyes the realm of Pharaoh and the Amalekites; and the anſwer of Amrou exhibits, even in thoſe early days, a lively and not unfaithful picture of that ſingular country; "O commander of the faithful, Egypt is a compound of black earth and green plants, between a pulveriſed mountain and a red ſand. The diſtance from Syene to the ſea is a month's journey for an horſeman. Along the valley deſcends a river, on which the bleſſing of the Moſt High repoſes both in the evening and morning, and which riſes and falls with the revolutions of the ſun and moon. When the annual diſpenſation of Providence unlocks the ſprings and fountains that nouriſh the earth, the Nile rolls his ſwelling and ſounding waters through the realm of Egypt: the fields are overſpread by the ſalutary flood; and the villages communicate with each other in their painted barks. The retreat of the inundation depoſits a fertilizing mud for the reception of the various ſeeds: the crowds of huſbandmen who blacken the land may be compared to a ſwarm of induſtrious ants: and their native indolence is quickened by the laſh of the taſk-maſter, and the promiſe of the flowers and fruits of a plentiful increaſe. Their hope is ſeldom deceived; but the riches which they extract from the wheat, the barley, and the rice, the legumes, the fruit-trees, and the cattle, are unequally ſhared between thoſe who labour and thoſe who poſſeſs. According to the viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, the face of the country is adorned with a *ſilver* wave, a verdant *emerald*, and the deep yellow of a *golden* harveſt. Thus the rich and fruitful province of Egypt was completely conquered, and the Roman government wholly ſuperſeded by the Arabs or Saracens, in the 19th year of the hegira, A. D. 640.

Upon the acceſſion of Othmar to the caliphate, after the aſſaſſination of Omar, Amrou was removed from his command in Egypt, in order to make way for Abdallah, foſter-brother to the new caliph. His birth and talents gave him an honourable rank among the Koreiſh; and, in a nation of cavalry, Abdallah was renowned as the boldeſt and moſt dextrous horſeman of Arabia. The conqueſt of Africa, from the Nile to the Atlantic Ocean, was now firſt projected by the caliph Othmar; who, A. D. 647, entruſted the conduct of the war to Abdallah. At the head of forty thouſand Moſlems, he advanced from Egypt into the unknown countries of the weſt. The ſands of Barca might be impervious to a Roman legion; but the Arabs, attended by their faithful camels, beheld without terror the familiar aſpect of the ſoil and climate; and, after a painful march, they pitched their tents before the walls of Tripoli. A reinforcement of Greeks was ſurpriſed and cut in pieces on the ſea-ſhore; but the fortifications of Tripoli reſiſted the firſt aſſaults; and the Saracens were tempted by the approach of the præfect Gregory to relinquiſh the labours of the ſiege for the perils and the hopes of a deciſive action. His ſtandard was followed by one hundred and twenty thouſand men; and he rejected with indignation the option of the Koran, or the tribute. During ſeveral days, the two armies were fiercely engaged from the dawn of light to the hour of noon, when their fatigue and the exceſſive heat compelled them mutually to ſeek ſhelter and refreſhment in their reſpective camps. The daughter of Gregory, a maid of incomparable beauty and ſpirit, is ſaid to have fought by her father's ſide: from her earlieſt youth ſhe was trained to mount on horſeback, to draw the bow, and to wield the ſcymetar; and the richneſs of her arms and apparel was conſpicuous in the foremoſt ranks of the battle. Her hand, with an hundred thouſand pieces of gold, was offered for the head of the Arabian general, and the youths of Africa were excited by the proſpect of the glorious prize. At the preſſing ſolicitation of his brethren, therefore, Abdallah withdrew from the field; but the Saracens were diſcouraged by the retreat of their leader, and the repetition of theſe equal or unſucceſsful conflicts.

A noble Arabian, Zobeir, who afterwards became the adverſary of Ali and the father of a caliph, had ſignalized his valour in Egypt, and was the firſt who planted a ſcaling-ladder againſt the walls of Babylon. In this war he had been detached from the ſtandard of Abdallah. On the news of the battle, Zobeir, with twelve companies, cut his way through the camp of the Greeks, and preſſed forwards, without taſting either food or repoſe, to partake of the dangers of his brethren. He caſt his eyes round the field: "Where, (ſaid he,) is our general?" "In his tent." "Is the tent a ſtation for the general of the

the Moſlems?" Abdallah repreſented with a bluſh the importance of his own life, and the temptation that was held forth by the Roman præfect. "Retort, (ſaid Zobeir,) on the infidels their ungenerous attempt. Proclaim through the ranks, that the head of Gregory ſhall be repaid with his captive daughter, and the equal ſum of one hundred thouſand pieces of gold." To the courage and diſcretion of Zobeir the general of the caliph entruſted the execution of his own ſtratagem, which inclined the long-diſputed balance in favour of the Saracens. Supplying by activity and artifice the deficiency of numbers, a part of their forces lay concealed in their tents, while the remainder prolonged an irregular ſkirmiſh with the enemy, till the ſun was high in the heavens. On both ſides they retired with fainting ſteps: their horſes were unbridled, their armour was laid aſide; and the hoſtile nations prepared, or ſeemed to prepare, for the refreſhment of the evening, and the encounter of the enſuing day. On a ſudden, the charge was ſounded; the Arabian camp poured forth a ſwarm of freſh and intrepid warriors; and the long line of the Greeks and Africans was ſurpriſed, aſſaulted, and overturned, by new ſquadrons of the Saracens. The præfect Gregory was ſlain by the hand of Zobeir: his daughter, who ſought revenge and death, was ſurrounded and made priſoner; and the fugitives involved in their diſaſter the town of Sufetula, to which they eſcaped from the ſabres and lances of the Arabs. After the attack and fall of this opulent city, the provincials and barbarians implored on all ſides the mercy of the conqueror. His vanity or his zeal might be flattered by offers of tribute or profeſſions of faith: but his loſſes, his fatigues, and the progreſs of an epidemical diſeaſe, prevented a ſolid eſtabliſhment; and the Saracens, after a campaign of fifteen months, returned to Egypt, with the captives and the wealth of their African expedition. The author of the death of Gregory was expected to have claimed the moſt precious reward of the victory: from his ſilence it might be preſumed that he had fallen in the battle, till the tears and exclamations of the præfect's daughter, at the ſight of Zobeir, revealed the valour and modeſty of that gallant ſoldier. The unfortunate virgin was offered, and almoſt rejected as a ſlave, by her father's murderer, who coolly declared that his ſword was conſecrated to the ſervice of religion; and that he laboured for a recompenſe far above the charms of mortal beauty, or the riches of this tranſitory life. A reward congenial to his temper, was the commiſſion of announcing to the caliph Othman the ſucceſs of his arms. The companions, the chiefs, and the people, were aſſembled in the moſque of Medina, to hear the intereſting narrative of Zobeir; and, as the orator forgot nothing except the merit of his own counſels and actions, the name of Abdallah was joined by the Arabians with the heroic names of Caled and Amrou.

The conqueſts of the Saracens were ſuſpended near twenty years by domeſtic broils, till their diſſentions were compoſed by the eſtabliſhment of the houſe of Ommiyah: and the caliph Moawiyah, who ſucceeded, was invited by the Africans themſelves. For the cauſes of theſe diſſentions, ſee the article ARABIA, vol. ii. p. 13, &c. The firſt general of Moawiyah acquired a juſt renown, ſubdued an important city, defeated an army of thirty thouſand Greeks, ſwept away fourſcore thouſand captives, and enriched with their ſpoils the adventurers from Syria and Egypt. But the title of conqueror of Africa is more juſtly due to his ſucceſſor Akbah. He marched at the head of ten thouſand of the braveſt Arabs; and the genuine force of the Moſlems was enlarged by the aid and converſion of many thouſand barbarians. The fearleſs Akbah plunged into the heart of the country, traverſed the wilderneſs in which his ſucceſſors erected the ſplendid capitals of Fez and Morocco, and at length penetrated to the verge of the Atlantic and the great deſert. The river Sus deſcends from the weſtern ſides of mount Atlas, fertilizes, like the Nile, the adjacent ſoil, and falls into the ſea at a moderate diſtance from the Canary, or Fortunate, iſlands. Its banks were inhabited by the laſt of the Moors, a race of ſavages, without laws, or diſcipline, or religion: they were aſtoniſhed by the ſtrange and irreſiſtible terrors of the oriental arms; and as they poſſeſſed neither gold or ſilver, the richeſt ſpoil was the beauty of the female captives, ſome of whom were afterwards ſold for a thouſand pieces of gold. The career, though not the zeal, of Akbah was checked by the proſpect of a boundleſs ocean. Yet this Mahometan Alexander was unable to preſerve his recent conqueſts. By the univerſal defection of the Greeks and Africans, he was recalled from the ſhores of the Atlantic, and the ſurrounding multitudes left him only the reſource of an honourable death. The prudence of Akbah had propoſed to found an Arabian colony in the heart of Africa; a citadel that might curb the levity of the barbarians, a place of refuge to ſecure, againſt the accidents of war, the wealth and the families of the Saracens. With this view, and under the modeſt title of the ſtation of a caravan, he planted this colony in the fiftieth year of the hegira. In its preſent decay, Cairoan ſtill holds the ſecond rank in the kingdom of Tunis, from which it is diſtant about fifty miles to the ſouth; its inland ſituation, twelve miles weſtward of the ſea, has protected the city from the Greek and Sicilian fleets. When the foreſt, or rather wilderneſs, was cleared, the veſtiges of a Roman town were diſcovered in a ſandy plain: the vegetable food of Cairoan is brought from afar; and the ſcarcity of ſprings conſtrains the inhabitants to collect in ciſterns and reſervoirs a precarious ſupply of rain-water. Theſe obſtacles were ſubdued by the induſtry of Akbah; he traced a circumference of three thouſand and ſix hundred paces, which he encompaſſed with a brick wall; in the ſpace of five years, the governor's palace was ſurrounded with a ſufficient number of private habitations; a ſpacious moſque was ſupported by five hundred columns of granite, porphyry, and Numidian marble; and Cairoan became the ſeat of learning as well as of empire. But theſe were the glories of a later age; the new colony was ſhaken by the ſucceſſive defeats of Akbah, and the weſtern expeditions were again interrupted by the civil diſcord of the Arabian monarchy. The ſon of the valiant Zobeir maintained a war of twelve years, and a ſiege of ſeven months againſt the houſe of Ommiyar, for the caliphate, (which ſee under ARABIA.)

The return of domeſtic peace allowed the caliph Abdalmalek to reſume the conqueſt of Africa, as an appendage to the government of Egypt; and the ſtandard was delivered to Haſſan, its governor, A. D. 692. The whole revenue of Egypt, with an army of forty thouſand men, was conſecrated to the important ſervice. In the viciſſitudes of war, the provinces had been alternately won and loſt by the Saracens. The veteran bands of Haſſan, under a boundleſs inſurrection, became inadequate to the defence of Africa: the conqueſts of an age were loſt in a ſingle day; and the Arabian chief, overwhelmed by the torrent, retired to the confines of Egypt, where he expected, for five years, the promiſed ſuccours of the caliph. The lot of combating this inſurrection devolved on the ſucceſſor of Haſſan; it was finally quelled by the activity of Muſa and his two ſons; but the number of the rebels may be preſumed from that of three hundred thouſand captives; ſixty thouſand of whom, the caliph's fifth, were ſold for the profit of the public treaſury. Thirty thouſand of the barbarian youth were immediately inliſted in the troops of Muſa, and deſtined to aſſiſt him in the conqueſt of Spain.

Egypt, for many centuries, continued thus under the uncontrolled dominion of the caliphs of Medina, Damaſcus, and Bagdad, conſtantly aſſiſting them in their conqueſt of Africa, or rather that portion of it which extends along the Mediterranean Sea; but which was not completed till the year 709 of our era. Under the caliphate of Mohammed ben Yezid, the Africans revolted,

and fell unexpectedly upon the Saracens, whom they defeated with great ſlaughter. Yezid died, and was ſucceeded by the caliph Hakim, who appointed Hantelé ben Seffran governor of Egypt, A. D. 741. This Arabian general, with the whole power of Egypt, added to the Saracen's troops, was ordered to march againſt the inſurgents, whom he defeated with great ſlaughter, and regained poſſeſſion of Cairoan, the Arabian capital of Africa, founded, as above-mentioned, by Akbal. The revolt ſoon after reviving, Hantelé again conquered the rebels, whoſe army was conducted by Abdel-wahhad. The uſual exaggeration of the Arabian authors, (againſt which the ſerious reader ſhould be conſtantly guarded,) computes the inſurgents ſlain at no leſs than 160,000! and Hantelé, in giving an account of his operations to the caliph Hakim, declared that a more ſanguinary battle had never been fought.

In the year 749, after conſiderable warfare and ſtruggle, (which ſee under ARABIA,) the ſceptre of the caliphs paſſed from the houſe of Ommiyah to the houſe of Al Abbas, thence called Abbaſſides; upon which Abdalrahman, the Saracen commander in Africa, and heir of Ommiyah, refuſed the tribute, aſſembled the people in the moſque of Cairoan, tore his robe, abjured the authority of the new Abbaſſide caliph, and procured himſelf to be proclaimed caliph in the weſt; but being ſlain by his brothers, a civil war aroſe, which was finally curbed by Dawud governor of Egypt, who conquered the Berbers or Arabs of the weſt, and once more reſtored tranquillity to Cairoan the capital. The family of Abdalrahman nevertheleſs continued to aſſume the dignity of caliphs, as deſcendants of the Ommiades; which title they carried with them into Spain, and exerciſed the regal authority in their palace at Cordova.

In conſequence of an attempt to aſſaſſinate the caliph Al Manſur, or Almanſor, in the palace of Damaſcus, the prince was induced to remove his court from that city to Bagdad; about which time, A. D. 800, began the dynaſty of the Agglabites in the perſon of Ibrahim ben el Aghleb, governor of Africa, who threw off the yoke of the caliphate, fortified himſelf in Cairoan, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Abul Abbas, in 811. Ziadat Ullah ſucceeded him, and ſubdued Sicily; but died A. D. 837, when Abu Akkal aſcended the African throne. The next prince, named after his great anceſtor Abul Abbas, began to reign in the year 840, and was humane, liberal, and a lover of juſtice. He reigned thirty-four years; and, having obtained from his brother Iſhak, in the moſque of Cairoan, a formal renunciation of all claim to the crown, left the ſucceſſion to his ſon. But on his death, Iſhak ſlew the young prince, and aſſumed the ſovereignty of Africa. In 877, he beſieged Syracuſe, which he plundered of immenſe treaſures, and put the inhabitants to the ſword. The Egyptians, ſtill faithful to the caliphs of Bagdad, were ordered by the deſcendants of the famous Harun al Raſhid, to invade Africa, and beſiege Tripoli; but on the approach of Iſhak with his negro army, the Egyptians retired, and were quickly driven back to their own country. Iſhak was a moſt cruel prince: he put to death, in one day, ſixteen of his own natural daughters by different concubines. His mother preſenting him with two beautiful females, he ſent her in return a platter covered with a napkin; on lifting it up, inſtead of jewels, which ſhe expected, ſhe beheld the heads of the two female ſlaves. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Abul Abbas Abdallah; but this prince was cruelly murdered by his brother Ziadet Ullah, who ſeized on the ſceptre of Cairoan. A revolt was the conſequence; upon which the timid Ullah abandoned his uſurped dominions, and fled for ſhelter to Egypt, then governed by Baſi al Nuchiſi, under Al Moktadi, or Moktadir, eighteenth caliph of the dynaſty of the Abaſſides. With Ziadat Ullah, who died in Egypt, A. D. 908, expired the dynaſty of the Agglabites, which had ruled Africa for an hundred and eight years.

The dynaſty of the Fatimites, or Iſmaëlians, now ſucceeded. Obeid Ullah, who had ſeized the authority, reſigned it ſoon after to his ſon Abul Caſſim. Though this new family was of Egyptian extraction, it pretended to deduce its origin from Fatima the daughter of Mahomet, through Iſmael the ſixth imam of the poſterity of Ali. Abul Caſſim, aſſuming the name of Mahadi, or *real ſucceſſor*, and cauſing himſelf to be proclaimed at Cairoan, A. D. 912, attacked Egypt with three armies, intending to add that rich province to his other African dominions. The caliph of Bagdad, however, had anticipated his deſign, which was fruſtrated by the defeat of the armies of Mahadi, though he took Alexandria. He built a city called after himſelf Mehedié, on the African ſhore, which he deſtined for the ſeat of his empire. He died in the year 933, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Achmed, who died while his capital Mehedié was beſieged by inſurgents. His ſon Iſmail defeated the rebels, aſſumed the ſovereignty, A. D. 945, and built Manſurich in Africa. Now ſucceeded Abu Tammin, ſurnamed Moaz, the ſon of Iſmail, A. D. 952. This prince determined on the conqueſt of Egypt; for which purpoſe he diſpatched Jaafan, or Jeuhar, a Greek general, in 968, at the head of a powerful army, to inveſt Memphis, or *Miſrah*; which inſtantly opened its gates. Encouraged by the inhabitants, Jeuhar reſolved to found a new capital for Moaz, and directed the building to be begun under the horoſcope or aſcendant of the planet Mars, called *kahir*, or conqueror, by the Arabs; and hence the city was named *Kahira*, or the *victorious*, now corrupted to Cairo. In the mean time Jeuhar reduced Egypt; and in 972, Moaz landed at Alexandria, from whence he advanced to Kahira, and was welcomed by the acclamations of his new ſubjects. To this city he removed all his treaſures, and even the bodies of his forefathers. The dynaſty of the Fatimites, thus tranſplanted into Egypt, ruled till the year 1171, of the hegira 566, when it was ſupplanted by Salah-el-din, the famous Saladin of the Chriſtian writers on the CROISADES: which ſee.

Moaz, after he had gained a firm footing in Egypt, and aſſumed the ſovereignty of Syria, reſigned the kingdom of Africa, on condition of homage, to Yuſſuf, or Joſeph ben Zeiri, of a family ſprung from Arabia Felix, and in whom commenced the African dynaſty of Zeirites. He was ſucceeded by Abul Caſſim Manſur, who erected a new palace in the city of Cairoan, which coſt eight hundred thouſand pieces of gold. His cruelty was manifeſted by the murder of his faithful miniſter Abdallah, and in the puniſhment of the rebel Abul Fahm, whoſe heart this prince is ſaid to have torn from his body and devoured. He died in his palace of Cairoan, where his ſon and ſucceſſor Abu Menad compelled the nobles to do homage. Jealous of the growing magnificence and power of this young prince, Moaz, now firſt caliph of Egypt and Syria, diſpatched his general Jeuhar to Abu Menad, with the dreſs and ſabre of Egypt, which he compelled him to wear, as a mark of the Egyptian ſovereignty over the African kingdom. Moaz died at the age of eighty-five, after a reign of twenty-one years as ſovereign of Africa, and of forty as caliph of Egypt and Syria. His body was interred in the magnificent moſque of Kahira, or Cairo, which he had erected, and in which he had depoſited the bones of his anceſtors.

Moaz was ſucceeded by his ſon Aziz, A. D. 975, who being only twenty-one years of age, deputed the conduct of the government to his late father's favourite general Jeuhar. Aziz married a Chriſtian woman; he had alſo a perſon of that religion for his ſecretary, and his treaſurer was a Jew; both the latter, however, were afterwards diſcarded and ſtripped of their wealth, in conſequence of the complaints of ſome of his courtiers. He carried on many wars, in which he was not always ſucceſsful; but he never appeared in perſon at the head of his armies. Jeuhar, the conqueror of Egypt, a ſecond Beliſarius, to whom Aziz had delegated the concerns of government, was, on account of his bad fortune in Syria, diſgraced and deprived

deprived of his riches, and died in poverty. After this, Aziz fuddenly died in the forty-third year of his age, having reigned twenty-one years and five months. He was fucceeded in the caliphate by his fon Hakim, or Alakem, A. D. 996, whom during his minority, he being then only eleven years of age, the dying father had committed to the care and fuperintendence of a miniſter of great experience and approved integrity. The firſt remarkable event of his reign was a dangerous inſurrection which broke out in his dominions, under the conduct of an obſcure water-carrier, though deſcended, or at leaſt pretending to be deſcended, from Heſham, of the houſe of Ommiyah. This perſon began his enterprize by crying aloud among the zealous Muſſulmans for a reformation of life and manners; and, by a more than ordinary oſtentation of ſanctity, he induced ſuch numbers of them to follow him, that he ſoon found himſelf at the head of a powerful army. He had made himſelf maſter of Upper Egypt, before Alakem had time to collect his troops. The conteſt was long obſtinate and doubtful; but the inſurgents were defeated, and their leader taken priſoner and put to death; upon which the revolt ceaſed, and tranquillity was reſtored. Alakem, at length, became inſane, and was murdered at the inſtigation of his own ſiſter, who, in order to avoid ſuſpicion, ſtabbed the aſſaſſins with her own hand. Daher, or Taher, his ſon, was only ſeven years of age when proclaimed caliph of Egypt and Syria, A. D. 1021; and his aunt, during his minority, took upon herſelf the regency of the two kingdoms. The obſcurity of his reign has furniſhed hiſtory with nothing more reſpecting him, than that he was a wiſe and prudent prince, and a lover of poetry. Taher was ſucceeded in the caliphate by his ſon Monſtanzer, called by ſome writers Abu Tamim Moſtanſir, a prince of extraordinary ſagacity and prudence, of great moderation, and who, by his mild and humane government, acquired the eſteem and affection of his ſubjects. The African monarchy having revolted from the ſovereignty of Monſtanzer, the Egyptians entered the province of Muggrib, by the town of Zenata, ſeized Tripoli, and inveſted the capital Cairoan; where they ſtopped the ſprings, turned the courſe of the river, and deſtroyed the magnificent palaces and delicious gardens of that city. During this reign, A. D. 1066, happened a moſt grievous famine throughout Egypt and Syria; inſomuch that cats, dogs, and horſes, were ſold for food at enormous prices; and thouſands of the inhabitants of Cairo periſhed. Amidſt the extreme miſery of the people, the caliph exhibited the moſt exemplary inſtances of generoſity towards his ſubjects. To ſupply their neceſſities, he not only diſpoſed of all the money, jewels, and other things of value, with which his predeceſſors had enriched the royal treaſury, but likewiſe ſold the coſtly furniture of his palaces and ſeraglios. A deſtructive peſtilence, which immediately followed the famine, tended to complete the miſery of the kingdom; and its calamities and deſolate condition encouraged Haſan to make an invaſion, at the head of a numerous army of Turks. After beſieging the caliph in his palace, the mercileſs invaders plundered Lower Egypt, and inflicted the moſt horrid cruelties on the inhabitants. Having no other reſource, Monſtanzer was reduced to the neceſſity of obtaining peace by giving up to the plunderers all the treaſures he could collect from his ſubjects. This evil was followed by the loſs of moſt of the Egyptian poſſeſſions in Syria. Towards the end of his reign, Monſtanzer committed the care and government of Egypt to a favourite miniſter, and retained little more than a nominal power. Having a taſte for poetry, he employed his time principally in reading and compoſing poetical works; and died in the ſixtieth year of his reign.

The grand-vizier eſpouſing the intereſts of Moſtali, the the younger ſon of the late caliph, againſt thoſe of his brother, had the addreſs to cauſe him to be proclaimed, A. D. 1094, and acknowledged by the court and army, as the lawful ſucceſſor to the caliphate. Nezar, the elder brother of Moſtali, fled with his friends to Alexandria, where he endeavoured to maintain his juſt title. The grand-vizier, however, ſoon compelled Nezar to ſurrender himſelf at diſcretion, whoſe life he not only ſpared, but alſo procured him the forgiveneſs and reconciliation of the caliph. But this clemency was of ſhort duration, and had little effect on the temper and diſpoſition of Nezar, who, being detected in a ſecond conſpiracy againſt the government, was thrown into irons, and condemned to be ſtarved to death in a dungeon. The moſt remarkable event during the life of this caliph, was the retaking the city of Jeruſalem from the Franks or cruſaders, and the immenſe plunder which Afdal, his general, brought from thence. Moſtali died in the eighth year of his reign.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Amer, though at that time only five years of age, was proclaimed caliph, and inveſted with the authority, A. D. 1101. The tender age of Amer encouraged his uncle to attempt to dethrone him. With that intention he repaired to Alexandria, which was then commanded by a ſlave belonging to the grand-vizier, who, by means of promiſes and rewards, permitted him to be proclaimed caliph in that city. Afdal, who governed the kingdom during the minority of Amer, was no ſooner apprized of this revolt, than he marched an army to beſiege the caſtle of Alexandria, which he reduced, and compelled the traitors to ſurrender at diſcretion. The grand-vizier returned in triumph to Cairo, and continued to conduct the affairs of the kingdom with ſuch moderation and prudence, that he acquired the affection and eſteem of the Egyptians; and the caliph, by his means, and during his regency, enjoyed a peaceable and proſperous reign. Afdal, however, was very ill rewarded for the ſervices he rendered to Amer and to the ſtate; being afterwards diſgraced by the prince, and expoſed to the moſt ignominious treatment. Amer, we are told, was cruel, abandoned to debauchery, addicted to gaming, and deſtitute of all religion. In other reſpects, he is repreſented as having been poſſeſſed of the art of governing, fond of the ſciences, and a prince of no inconſiderable learning and abilities. He was, at length, aſſaſſinated by ſome mercenary wretches, whom the diſcontented grandees of the kingdom hired for that purpoſe. In this reign Tamim, and his ſon Yaiah, who ſucceeded to the African monarchy, beſieged Tunis. Yaiah being addicted to aſtrology, imagined a particular day would be fatal to him, and paſſed it in prayer. In the evening, happy that he had eſcaped the danger, he ordered a magnificent feaſt, and died as he ſat down to table. Ali his ſon ſucceeded him, received Tunis on ſubmiſſion, ſent a fleet and army againſt Sicily, and ſeverely puniſhed the robbers of the caravans.

The widow of Amer, whom he had left pregnant at his death, being delivered of a daughter, Hafed, the grandſon of Monſtanzer, was proclaimed and acknowledged lawful ſucceſſor to the caliphate, A. D. 1126. This prince was no ſooner ſeated on the throne, than he appointed Bahram to be his grand-vizier, a perſon of noble extraction, and of great merit and integrity. Under his government, the Chriſtians were much favoured, and advanced to lucrative places of the army and the ſtate; inſomuch that the jealouſy of the Muſſulmans was thereby excited, and a tumult enſued. Redvan, the rival of the grand-vizier, marched to the gates of the palace, at the head of a body of troops, who were armed with lances to which copies of the Koran were affixed. Upon this Bahram removed with the beſt of his Armenian ſoldiers into Upper Egypt; but finding his affairs deſperate, he retired into a monaſtery, where he ſoon after took the monkiſh habit. Redvan deſtroyed a great part of Cairo, and plundered the houſes and churches of the Chriſtians, whom he compelled to wear a particular garb, as a mark of reproach. Hafed, however, to heal the diſſenſions which prevailed, thought it neceſſary to deprive Redvan of his dignities and authority, to confine him to his own palace, and not

to ſuffer him for the future to interfere in the affairs of government. From that time he ruled without the aſſiſtanee of a vizier: and he eſtabliſhed an equilibrium between the Chriſtian and Mahometan religions, by employing able and upright men of both perſuaſions. But the conteſt which was begun under Hafed, by the aſpirers to the office of vizier, was, to the great detriment of the authority of the caliphs, continued during the reign of Dafer, or Dhafer, and his ſucceſſors, A. D. 1151, and may be conſidered as a principal cauſe of the revolution which was afterwards effected in Egypt. Dhafer was murdered by Abbas his vizier; who, in the morning after the murder, repaired to the palace of the caliph, and after many pretended enquiries reſpecting Dhafer, accuſed two of his brothers, and ſome other relations, as principals or accomplices in the murder, and commanded them to be put to death.

Fayez, or Alfayez, who ſucceeded his father, A. D. 1154, was ſtruck with horror and dread at the ſight of his uncles and relatives, whom the vizier had unjuſtly condemned to death. The clamour and diſcontent of the people, occaſioned by the perfidious conduct of Abbas, ſoon became univerſal throughout the kingdom; and the vizier and his ſon privately conveyed themſelves and their wealth into Syria, attended by a conſiderable body of troops. The ſiſter of the late caliph, however, applied to the Franks, or European cruſaders, who had juſt taken Aſcalon; and by means of preſents and promiſes engaged them to apprehend thoſe murderers. Accordingly a body of troops was ſent to intercept them, and a bloody engagement enſued, in which Abbas was ſlain, and his ſon taken priſoner. Naſir was conducted to Cairo, where he expiated, by his ſufferings, the crimes and vices of his father and himſelf. His right hand was cruſhed; the fleſh was torn off his bones with hot pincers; and in this condition he was fixed to a gibbet till he was dead, when his body was burnt to aſhes. Alfayez did not long ſurvive, but died in the eleventh year of his age.

Previous to this event, the African dynaſty of the Zeirites had ceaſed in the perſon of Haſſan ben Ali, the laſt prince of that houſe; and upon whoſe deceaſe the Marabut dynaſty was founded, A. D. 1060, called by ſome writers Al Moravids. Marabut implies a ſaint; and this dynaſty advanced to power from a pretended zeal for religion. It aroſe in Cairoan; and Yuſſuf the ſecond prince founded Moroeco, in the year 1069. He conquered part of Spain, and died in 1106. His ſon ſuceeeded to the African throne; but being unſucceſsful in war, this ſhortlived race was followed by the dynaſty of the Elmohads, or Unitarians, which originated in Mount Atlas. Tomrut, its founder, was followed by his celebrated diſciple Abdel-mumin, originally a doctor of theology, but who diſplayed ſuch talents in war, that Ali, above-mentioned, after meeting with many defeats, died of a broken heart. Abdel-mumin, now aſpiring to the univerſal ſovereignty of the Mohammedans in Africa, beſieged and took Oran and Fez, A. D. 1142. Taſfin, the ſon of Ali, hardly retained Morocco, which had been founded by his aneeſtor; and it was now taken by Abdel-mumin from Ithak his ſucceſſor, the laſt of the Marabut dynaſty. The ſucceſs and ambition of this prince led him alſo to endeavour to ſhake off the Egyptian yoke, and war would have been inevitable, had not death unexpectedly ſeized him, A. D. 1160.

We now approach the era of the decline and fall of the Fatimite dynaſty in Egypt. Al Aded, the laſt of thoſe caliphs, ſuceeeded Alfayez, A. D. 1161, at a time when the Frank, or European arms, threatened death and deſolation to the Mohammedan powers in Aſia and Africa. Egypt was rent with internal diſſentions, owing to the perſonal imbecility of the caliph Aded, and the intrigues and ambition of two favourite viziers, Shawur and Dargham. Al Aded withdrew from the buſy world, and committed the abſolute direction of the government to Shawur; but in a ſhort time, by the aid of party and cabal, Dargham found means to ſupplant Shawur, and aſſumed the reins of government, and the command of the army, without ſuffering his colleague to exerciſe the ſmalleſt authority. Finding no redreſs from the ſupine and inactive caliph, Shawur reſorted to the Turkiſh ſultan of Damaſcus, named Nur-el-din, or Noureddin, promiſing him one-third of the whole revenue of Egypt, provided he would furniſh an army to reinſtate him in the government of that country. Noureddin, who had long thirſted for the ſubjugation of Egypt, without heſitation complied with the requeſt. Shirakuk, called Syracon, or Shiracou, by the Chriſtian writers, and his nephew Salah-el-din, or Saladin, were ſent with a powerful army to reinſtate Shawur; but after ſuceeeding in the defeat of his opponent, the baſe and ungenerous Shiracon ſeized on the government of Noureddin, obtained an order from the weak and ſenſeleſs Aded for the deeapitation of Shawur, with the gift of the robe and firman of vizir for himſelf. For a while the Turk was eontent with the offiee he had gained at the expence of the blood of the unfortunate Shawur; but the fall of the Fatimites was the principal objeet in view, whieh was at length accompliſhed by a mere meſſage and a word. The caliphs had been degraded by their own weakneſs, and by the tyranny and oppreſſion of their viziers; their ſubjects bluſhed at the monſtrous frauds of the magiſtracy, and were ripe for revolt. Noureddin, therefore, aſſumed the ſupreme authority in the perſon of his general Shiraeou, and commanded the names of Abubeker, Omar, and Othman, of the Abbaſſide dynaſty, to be ſolemnly reſtored, and the caliph Moſthadi of Bagdad, to be acknowledged in the public prayers of the Egyptians, as the truc ſucceſſors of Mahomet, inſtead of the ſons of Ali. Thc laſt of his race, the caliph Aded, ſurvived this political treaſon only ten days, expiring in happy ignorance of his fate, on the 13th of September 1171; and in him terminated the dynaſty of thc Fatimites, and the caliphate of Egypt and Syria, after it had preſided over the Mohammedan provinces of Africa two hundred and ſeventy-one years.

The empire of the caliphs had been for a conſiderable time on the decline. After becoming the greateſt monarchs in the world, their mutual jealouſies, animoſities, and party views, ſplit them into three factions, which deſolated Arabia, and ſpilt more of its native blood, than was loſt in all the ſanguinary conteſts of the Holy War. In this viſible ſeparation of parties, they were to be diſtinguiſhed by the colour of their turbans and ſtandards: the *green* was conſecrated to the Fatimites; the Ommiades were diſtinguiſhed by the *white*; and the *black*, as moſt adverſe, was choſen by the Abbaſſides. From the Indus to the Euphrates, the whole country was convulſed by the quarrel of theſe factions; whieh had ſeated themſelves in Damaſeus, Egypt, Bagdad, Cairoan, Cordova, and Mehedie. In the tenth eentury, the three caliphs who reigned at Bagdad, Cairoan, and Cordova, excommunicated each other, and entered into a mutual vow of eternal diſcord; the effect of exceſſive luxury, luſt, and unbounded proſperity. In the eity of Bagdad, amidſt the riehes of the eaſt, the Abbaſſides ſoon diſdained the abſtinence and frugality of the firſt caliphs, and aſpired to emulate the magnificence of the Perſian kings. After his wars and buildings, Almanſor left behind him in gold and ſilver about thirty millions ſterling; and this treaſure was exhauſted in a few years by the vices or virtues of his children. His ſon Mahadi, in a ſingle pilgrimage to Mecca, expended ſix millions of dinars of gold. A pious and charitable motive may ſanctify the foundation of ciſterns and caravanſeras, which he diſtributed along a meaſured road of ſeven hundred miles; but his train of camels, laden with ice, could ſerve only to aſtoniſh the natives of Arabia, and to refreſh the fruits and liquors of the royal banquet. The courtiers would ſurely praiſe the liberality of his grandſon Almamon, who gave away four-fifths of the income of a province, a ſum of two millions four hundred thouſand gold dinars, before he

he drew his foot from the ſtirrup. At the nuptials of the ſame prince, a thouſand pearls of the largeſt ſize were ſhowered on the head of the bride, and a lottery of lands and houſes diſplayed the capricious bounty of fortune. The glories of the court were brightened, rather than impaired, even in the decline of the empire; and a Greek ambaſſador might admire or pity the magnificence of the feeble Moktader. "The caliph's whole army, (ſays the hiſtorian Abulfeda,) both horſe and foot, was under arms, which together made a body of one hundred and ſixty thouſand men. His ſtate-officers, the favourite ſlaves, ſtood near him in ſplendid apparel, their belts glittering with gold and gems. Near them were ſeven thouſand eunuchs, four thouſand of them white, the remainder black. The porters or door-keepers were in number ſeven hundred. Barges and boats, with the moſt ſuperb decorations, were ſeen ſwimming upon the Tigris. Nor was the palace itſelf leſs ſplendid, in which were hung up thirty-eight thouſand pieces of tapeſtry, twelve thouſand five hundred of which were of ſilk embroidered with gold. The carpets on the floor were twenty-two thouſand. An hundred lions were brought out, with a keeper to each lion. Among the other ſpectacles of rare and ſtupendous luxury, was a tree of gold and ſilver ſpreading into eighteen large branches, on which, and on the leſſer boughs, ſat a variety of birds made of the ſame precious metals, as well as the leaves of the tree. While the machinery affected ſpontaneous motions, the ſeveral birds warbled their natural harmony. Through this ſcene of magnificence, the Greek ambaſſador was led by the vizir to the foot of the caliph's throne." In the weſt, the Ommiades of Spain ſupported, with equal pomp, the title of caliph, or commander of the faithful. Three miles from Cordova, in honour of his favourite ſultana, the third and greateſt of the Abdalrahmans conſtructed the city, palace, and gardens, of Zehra. Twenty-five years, and above three millions ſterling, were employed by the founder: his liberal taſte invited the artiſts of Conſtantinople, the moſt ſkilful ſculptors and architects of the age; and the buildings were ſuſtained or adorned by twelve hundred columns of Spaniſh and African, of Greek and Italian, marble. The hall of audience was encruſted with gold and pearls, and a great baſon in the center, was ſurrounded with the curious and coſtly figures of birds and quadrupeds. In a lofty pavilion of the gardens, one of theſe baſons and fountains, ſo delightful in a ſultry climate, was repleniſhed not with water, but with the pureſt quickſilver. The ſeraglio of Abdalrahman, his wives, concubines, and black eunuchs, amounted to ſix thouſand three hundred perſons; and he was attended to the field by a guard of twelve thouſand horſe, whoſe belts and ſcymetars were ſtudded with gold. His royal city of Cordova contained ſix hundred moſques, nine hundred baths, and two hundred thouſand houſes: he gave laws to eighty cities of the firſt, to three hundred of the ſecond and third, order; and the fertile banks of the Guadalquiver were adorned with twelve thouſand villages and hamlets.

In a private condition, our deſires are perpetually repreſſed by poverty and ſubordination; but the lives and labours of millions are devoted to the ſervice of a deſpotic prince, whoſe laws are blindly obeyed, and whoſe wiſhes are inſtantly gratified. Our imagination is dazzled by the ſplendid picture; and whatever may be the cool dictates of reaſon, there are few among us who would obſtinately refuſe a trial of the comforts and the cares of royalty. It may, therefore, be of ſome uſe to borrow the experience of the ſame Abdalrahman, whoſe magnificence has perhaps excited our admiration and envy, and to tranſcribe an authentic memorial which was found in the cloſet of the deceaſed caliph. "I have now reigned above fifty years in victory or peace; beloved by my ſubjects, dreaded by my enemies, and reſpected by my allies. Riches and honours, power and pleaſure, have waited on my call, nor does any earthly bleſſing appear to have been wanting to my felicity. In this ſituation I have diligently numbered the days of pure and genuine happineſs which have fallen to my lot; *they amount to fourteen:* O man! place not thy confidence in this preſent world." The luxury of the caliphs, ſo uſeleſs to their private happineſs, relaxed the nerves, and terminated the progreſs of their arms. Under the laſt of the Ommiades, the Arabian empire extended two hundred days journey from eaſt to weſt, from the confines of Tartary and India to the ſhores of the Atlantic ocean. And if we retrench the ſleeve of the robe, as it is ſtyled by their writers, the long and narrow province of Africa, the ſolid and compact dominion from Fargana to Aden, from Tarſus to Surat, will ſpread on every ſide to the meaſure of four or five months journey of a caravan.

Temporal and ſpiritual conqueſt, in this vaſt acquiſition of territory, had been the ſole occupation of the firſt ſucceſſors of Mahomet; and after ſupplying themſelves with the neceſſaries of life, the whole revenue was ſcrupulouſly devoted to that ſalutary work. The Abbaſſides were impoveriſhed by the multitude of their wants and their contempt of economy. Inſtead of purſuing the great object of ambition, their leiſure, their affections, the powers of their mind, were diverted by pomp and pleaſure: the rewards of valour were embezzled by women and eunuchs, and the royal camp was encumbered by the luxury of the palace. A ſimilar temper was diffuſed among the ſubjects of the caliph. Their ſtern enthuſiaſm was ſoftened by time and proſperity: they ſought riches in the occupations of induſtry, fame in the purſuits of literature, and happineſs in the tranquillity of domeſtic life. War was no longer the paſſion of the Saracens; and the increaſe of pay, the repetition of donatives, were inſufficient to allure the poſterity of thoſe voluntary champions who had crowded to the ſtandard of Abubekir and Omar for the hopes of ſpoil and of paradiſe. This exuberance of effeminacy and refinement gradually made way for the revolutions that were to follow.

From the USURPATION of the SULTANS to the COMMENCEMENT of the NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Soon after the deceaſe of the caliph Al Aded, the views of Noureddin in acquiring the ſovereignty of Egypt, were fruſtrated by the ſudden death of Shiracou, and the ſuperior addreſs of his nephew Saladin. This celebrated hero was a native of the hilly country beyond the Tigris, occupied by the paſtoral tribes of the Curds; a people hardy, ſtrong, ſavage, impatient of the yoke, addicted to rapine, and tenacious of the government of their national chiefs. The reſemblance of name, ſituation, and manners, ſeem to identify them with the Carduchians of the Grecks; and they ſtill defend, againſt the Ottoman Porte, the antique freedom which they aſſerted againſt the ſucceſſors of Cyrus. Poverty and ambition prompted them to embrace the profeſſion of mercenary ſoldiers; and the ſervices of his father and uncle unſuſpectedly prepared the reign of the ſultan or ſoldan Saladin. His father Ayub, or Job, was a ſimple Curd, but of great prudence and foreſight; and from his name *Ayub*, was denominated the Aiubite dynaſty, which uſurped the throne of Egypt in the perſon of Saladin, A. D. 1174. So unconſcious was Noureddin of the impending ruin of his houſe, that he had conſtrained the reluctant youth to follow his uncle Shiracou into Egypt. On the death of Shiracou, the office of grand vizier was beſtowed on Saladin, as the youngeſt and leaſt dangerous of the emirs of Damaſcus; but, with the help of his father, whom he had invited to Cairo, his genius obtained the aſcendant over his equals, and attached the army to his perſon and intereſt. While Noureddin lived, theſe ambitious Curds were the moſt humble of his ſlaves; and the jealous murmurs of the divan were ſilenced by the prudent Ayub, who loudly proteſted that, at the command of Noureddin, he himſelf would lead his ſon in chains to the foot

of the throne. "Such language (he added in private to his ſon) was prudent and proper in an aſſembly of your rivals; but we are now above fear and obedience; and the threats of Noureddin ſhall not extort a tribute from us." Noureddin's death relieved them from the doubtful conflict; and his ſon, a minor of eleven years of age, was left to the care of the emirs of Damaſcus: meanwhile the new ſultan of Egypt was decorated with every title that could ſanctify his uſurpation in the eyes of the people. Nor was the aſpiring Saladin long content with the poſſeſſion of Egypt; he deſpoiled the Chriſtians of Jeruſalem, and the Atabeks of Damaſcus, Aleppo, and Diarbekir: Mecca and Medina ſoon acknowledged him for their temporal protector; his brother ſubdued the diſtant regions of Yemen, or Arabia Felix; and, at the hour of his death, his empire was ſpread from the African Tripoli to the Tigris, and from the Indian ocean to the mountains of Armenia. In the judgment of his character, the reproaches of treaſon and ingratitude ſtrike forcibly on our minds, impreſſed, as they are, with the principle and experience of law and loyalty. But his ambition may in ſome meaſure be excuſed by the revolutions of Aſia, which had eraſed every notion of legitimate ſucceſſion; and by his humane and generous behaviour to the collateral branches of the dethroned caliphs. In his virtues, and in thoſe of his patron, they admired the ſingular union of the hero and the ſaint; for both Noureddin and Saladin are ranked among the Mahometan ſaints; and the conſtant meditation of the Holy War appears to have ſhed a ſober colour over their lives and actions. The early youth of Saladin was addicted to wine and women; but his ambitious ſpirit ſoon renounced the temptations of pleaſure, for the graver follies of fame and dominion: the garment of Saladin was of coarſe woollen; and water was his only drink; ſo that, while he emulated the temperance, he ſurpaſſed the chaſtity, of his Arabian prophet; and thus held in ſovereign contempt the gilded trappings, luxury, and voluptuouſneſs, of the degenerate caliphs. Both in faith and practice he was a rigid Muſſulman; he ever deplored that the defence of religion had not allowed him to accompliſh the pilgrimage of Mecca; but, at the ſtated hours, five times each day, the ſultan devoutly prayed with his brethren: the involuntary omiſſion of faſting was ſcrupuloufly repaid; and his peruſal of the Koran on horſeback between the approaching armies, may be quoted as a proof, however oſtentatious, of piety and courage. The juſtice of his divan was acceſſible to the meaneſt ſuppliant in Egypt againſt himſelf and his miniſters; and it was only for a kingdom that Saladin would deviate from the rule of equity. While the deſcendants of Seljuk and Zenghi held his ſtirrup and ſmoothed his garments, he was affable and patient with the meaneſt of his ſervants. So boundleſs was his liberality, that he diſtributed twelve thouſand horſes at the ſiege of Acre; and, at the time of his death, no more than forty-ſeven drams of ſilver and one piece of gold coin were found in the treaſury; yet, in his reign, the tributes were diminiſhed, and the wealthy citizens enjoyed, without fear or danger, the fruits of their induſtry. Egypt, Syria, and Arabia, were adorned by the royal foundations of hoſpitals, colleges, and moſques; and Cairo was fortified with a wall and citadel: all his works were conſecrated to public uſe; nor did the ſultan indulge himſelf in a garden or palace of private luxury. In a fanatic age, himſelf a fanatic, the genuine virtues of Saladin commanded the eſteem of the Chriſtians: the emperor of Germany gloried in his friendſhip; the Greek emperor ſolicited his alliance; and the conqueſt of Jeruſalem diffuſed, and perhaps magnified, his fame both in the eaſt and weſt.

During its ſhort exiſtence, the kingdom of Jeruſalem was ſupported in the hands of the Franks, by the diſcord of the Turks and Saracens. The common appellation of *Franks*, was firſt applied by the Greeks and Arabians, to the Chriſtians of the Latin church; and afterwards to all the nations of Europe, who united in the Holy War, or croiſades; becauſe all of them profeſſed the doctrine of the Latins. The powers of Egypt, Syria, and Arabia, were now united by an hero, whom the chance of war had armed againſt the Franks. All without, now bore the moſt threatening aſpect; and all was feeble in the internal ſtate of Jeruſalem. After the two firſt Baldwins, the brother and couſin of Godfrey of Bouillon, the ſceptre devolved by female ſucceſſion to Meliſendâ, daughter of the ſecond Baldwin, and her huſband Fulk, count of Anjou, the father, by a former marriage, of our Engliſh Plantagenets. Their two ſons, Baldwin the Third, and Amaury, waged a ſtrenuous war againſt the infidels; but the ſon of Amaury, Baldwin the Fourth, was deprived, by the leproſy, of the faculties both of mind and body. His ſiſter Sybilla, the mother of Baldwin the Fifth, was his natural heireſs: after the ſuſpicious death of her child, ſhe crowned her ſecond huſband, Guy of Luſignan, a prince of a handſome perſon, but of baſe character. Such were the guardians of the holy city of Jeruſalem; but its fate was delayed twelve years by ſome ſupplies from Europe, by the valour of the military orders, and by the diſtant or domeſtic avocations of their great enemy. At length, on every ſide, the ſinking ſtate was encircled and preſſed by an hoſtile line; yet the truce was violated by the Franks, whoſe exiſtence it protected. A ſoldier of fortune, Reginald of Chatillon, had ſeized a fortreſs on the edge of the deſert, from whence he pillaged the caravans and threatened the cities of Mecca and Medina. Saladin rejoiced in the denial of juſtice; and at the head of fourſcore thouſand horſe and foot invaded the Holy Land. The choice of Tiberias for his firſt ſiege was ſuggeſted by the count of Tripoli, to whom it belonged; and the king of Jeruſalem was perſuaded to drain his garriſons, and to arm his people, for the relief of that important place. By the advice of the perfidious Raymond, the Chriſtians were betrayed into a camp deſtitute of water; he fled on the firſt onſet, with the curſes of both nations: Luſignan was overthrown, with the loſs of thirty thouſand men; and the wood of the true croſs, the moſt valuable of the relics, was left in the power of the infidels. The royal captive was conducted to the tent of Saladin; and, as he fainted with thirſt and terror, the generous victor preſented him with a cup of ſherbet cooled in ice, without ſuffering his companion, Reginald of Chatillon, to partake of this pledge of hoſpitality. On the refuſal of Reginald to turn Mahometan, Saladin ſtruck him on the head with his ſcymetar, and he was diſpatched by the guards. The trembling Luſignan was ſent to Damaſcus to an honourable and ſpeedy ranſom; but the victory was ſtained by the execution of two hundred and thirty knights of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, the intrepid champions and martyrs of their faith. The kingdom was left without a head; and of the two grand maſters of the military orders, the one was ſlain, and the other was a priſoner. From all the cities, both of the ſea-coaſt and the inland country, the garriſons had been drawn away for this fatal field. Tyre and Tripoli alone could eſcape the rapid inroad of Saladin; and three months after the battle of Tiberias, he appeared in arms before the gates of Jeruſalem.

He might naturally expect, that the ſiege of a city ſo venerable, would rekindle the laſt ſparks of enthuſiaſm; and that, of ſixty thouſand Chriſtians, every man would be a ſoldier, and every ſoldier a candidate for martyrdom. But queen Sybilla trembled for herſelf and her captive huſband. Some feeble efforts were made for the defence of Jeruſalem; but in the ſpace of fourteen days, the victorious army drove back the ſallies of the beſieged, planted their engines, applied their ſcaling-ladders, took the city, A. D. 1187, October 2, and erected on the walls twelve banners of the prophet and the ſultan. It was in vain that the queen, the women, and the monks, implored the mercy of the conqueror; to their firſt ſuppliant deputation that mercy was ſternly denied: "He had

had ſworn to avenge the patience and long-ſuffering of the Moſlems; the hour of forgiveneſs was elapſed, and the moment was now arrived to expiate in blood, the innocent blood, which had been ſpilt by Godfrey and the firſt cruſaders." But a deſperate and ſucceſsful ſtruggle of the Franks admoniſhed the ſultan that his triumph was not yet ſecure; he liſtened with reverence to a ſolemn abjuration in the name of the common Father of mankind; and a ſentiment of human ſympathy mollified the rigour of fanaticiſm and conqueſt. He conſented to accept the city, and to ſpare the inhabitants. The Greek and oriental Chriſtians were permitted to live under his dominion; but it was ſtipulated, that in forty days all the Franks and Latins ſhould evacuate Jeruſalem, and be ſafely conducted to the ſea-ports of Syria and Egypt; that ten pieces of gold ſhould be paid for each man, five for each woman, and one for every child; and that thoſe who were unable to purchaſe their freedom, ſhould be detained in perpetual ſlavery. Of ſome writers it is a favourite theme to compare the humanity of Saladin with the maſſacre of the firſt cruſade. The difference would be merely perſonal; but we ſhould not forget that the Chriſtians had offered to capitulate, and that the Mahomedans of Jeruſalem ſuſtained the laſt extremities of an aſſault and ſtorm. Juſtice is, indeed, due to the fidelity with which Saladin fulfilled the conditions of the treaty; and he may be deſervedly praiſed for the glance of pity which he caſt on the miſery of the vanquiſhed. Inſtead of a rigorous exaction of his debt, he accepted a ſum of thirty thouſand byzants, for the ranſom of ſeven thouſand poor; two or three thouſand more were diſmiſſed by his gratuitous clemency; and the number of ſlaves was reduced to eleven or fourteen thouſand perſons. In his interview with the queen, his words, and even his tears, ſuggeſted the kindeſt conſolations; his liberal alms were diſtributed among thoſe who had been made orphans or widows by the fortune of war; and, while the knights of the hoſpital of St. John were in arms againſt him, he allowed their more pious brethren to continue, during the term of a year, the care and ſervice of the ſick. In theſe acts of mercy, the virtue of the ſultan of Egypt deſerves our admiration: he was above the neceſſity of diſſimulation; and his ſtern fanaticiſm would have prompted him to diſſemble, rather than to affect, this generous compaſſion for the enemies of the Koran. After Jeruſalem had been delivered from the preſence of the ſtrangers, the ſultan made his triumphant entry, his banners waving in the wind, and to the harmony of martial muſic. The great moſque of Omar, which had been converted into a church, was again conſecrated to God and to Mahomet; the walls and pavement were purified with roſe-water; and a pulpit, the labour of the deceaſed Noureddin, was erected in the ſanctuary. The golden croſs that glittered on the dome, was caſt down amidſt the ſhouts of the Moſlems. In four ivory cheſts the patriarch had collected the croſſes, the images, the vaſes, and the relics, of the holy place: they were ſeized by the conqueror, who was deſirous of preſenting the caliph with theſe trophies of popiſh idolatry. He was, perſuaded, however, to entruſt them to the patriarch and prince of Antioch; and they were redeemed by Richard of England, at the expence of fifty-two thouſand byzants of gold.

In this event, the world might have expected the final expulſion of the Franks from Syria; yet the croiſades were continued till above a century after the death of Saladin. In the career of victory, the ſultan of Egypt was firſt checked by the reſiſtance of Tyre; the troops and garriſons, which had capitulated, were imprudently conducted to the ſame port: their numbers were adequate to the defence of the place; and the arrival of Conrad of Montferrat inſpired the crowd with confidence and union. His father, a venerable pilgrim, had been made priſoner in the battle of Tiberias; but that diſaſter was unknown in Italy and Greece, when the ſon was urged by ambition and piety to viſit Jeruſalem, the inheritance of his royal nephew, the infant Baldwin. The view of the Mohammedan banners warned him from the hoſtile coaſt of Jaffa; and Conrad was unanimouſly hailed as the prince and champion of Tyre, which was already beſieged by the conqueror of Jeruſalem. The firmneſs of his zeal enabled him to brave the threats of the ſultan, and to declare, that ſhould his aged parent be expoſed before the walls, he himſelf would diſcharge the firſt arrow, and glory in his deſcent from a Chriſtian martyr. The Egyptian fleet was allowed to enter the harbour of Tyre; when the chain was ſuddenly drawn, and five galleys were either ſunk or taken: a thouſand of the ſultan's beſt troops were ſlain in a ſally; and Saladin, after burning his engines, made a diſgraceful retreat to Damaſcus. He was ſoon aſſailed by a more formidable tempeſt. The pathetic narratives, and even the pictures, that repreſented in lively colours the ſervitude and profanation of Jeruſalem, awakened the torpid ſenſibility of Europe: the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa, and the kings of France and of England, aſſumed the Holy War; and the tardy magnitude of their armaments was anticipated by the maritime ſtates of the Mediterranean and the ocean. The ſkilful and provident Italians firſt embarked in the ſhips of Genoa, Piſa, and Venice. They were ſpeedily followed by the moſt eager pilgrims of France, Normandy, and the weſtern iſles. The powerful ſuccour of Flanders, Friſe, and Denmark, filled near a hundred veſſels; and theſe northern warriors were diſtinguiſhed in the field by a lofty ſtature and a ponderous battle-axe. Their increaſing multitudes could no longer be confined within the walls of Tyre, or remain obedient to the voice of Conrad. They pitied the misfortunes, and revered the dignity, of Luſignan, who was releaſed from priſon, perhaps, to divide the army of the Franks. He propoſed the recovery of Ptolemais, or Acre, thirty miles to the ſouth of Tyre; and the place was firſt inveſted by two thouſand horſe and thirty thouſand foot under his nominal command. This memorable ſiege laſted near two years, and conſumed, in a narrow ſpace, the forces of Europe and Aſia. Never did the flame of enthuſiaſm burn with fiercer and more deſtructive rage; nor could the true believers, who conſecrated their own martyrs, refuſe ſome applauſe to the miſtaken zeal and courage of their adverſaries. At the ſound of the brazen trumpet, the Moſlems of Egypt, Syria, Arabia, and the oriental provinces, aſſembled under the ſultan Saladin; his camp was pitched within a few miles of Acre; and he laboured, night and day, for the ſucceſs of his army, and the annoyance of the Franks. Nine battles were fought in the neighbourhood of Mount Carmel, with ſuch viciſſitude of fortune, that, in one attack, the ſultan forced his way into the city; that, in one ſally, the Chriſtians penetrated to the Egyptian tent. By the means of divers and pigeons, a regular correſpondence was maintained with the beſieged: and, as often as the ſea was left open, the exhauſted garriſon was withdrawn, and a freſh ſupply was poured into the place. The Latin camp was thinned by famine, the ſword, and the climate; but the tents of the dead were repleniſhed with new pilgrims, who exaggerated the ſtrength and ſpeed of their approaching countrymen. The vulgar was aſtoniſhed by the report, that the pope himſelf, with an innumerable cruſade, was advanced as far as Conſtantinople. The march of the emperor filled the eaſt with more ſerious alarms; the obſtacles which he encountered in Aſia, and, perhaps, in Greece, were raiſed by the policy of Saladin; his joy, on the death of Barbaroſſa, was meaſured by his eſteem; and the Chriſtians were rather diſmayed than encouraged at the ſight of the duke of Suabia, and his way-worn remnant of only five thouſand Germans. At length, in the ſpring of the ſecond year, the royal fleets of France and England majeſtically caſt anchor in the bay of Acre; and the ſiege was more vigorouſly proſecuted by the youthful emulation of the two kings, Phi-

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lip Auguſtus, and Richard Plantagenet. After every reſource had been tried, and every hope was exhauſted, the Saracen defenders of Acre ſubmitted to their fate; a capitulation was granted, but their lives and liberties were taxed at a ranſom of two hundred thouſand pieces of gold, the deliverance of one hundred nobles, and fifteen hundred inferior captives, and the reſtoration of the wood of the holy croſs. Some doubts in the agreement, and ſome delay in the execution, rekindled the fury of the Franks, and three thouſand Moſlems, almoſt in the ſultan's view, were beheaded by the command of our Engliſh Richard. By the conqueſt of Acre, the Latin powers acquired a ſtrong town and a convenient harbour; but the advantage was moſt dearly purchaſed. The hiſtorian of the ſultan of Egypt computes, from the report of the enemy, that their numbers, at different periods, amounted to five or ſix hundred thouſand; that more than one hundred thouſand Chriſtians were ſlain; that a far greater number was loſt by diſeaſe or ſhipwreck; and that only a ſmall portion of this mighty hoſt could return in ſafety to their native countries.

Philip Auguſtus, and Richard the Firſt, are the only kings of France and England, who have fought under the ſame banners; but the holy ſervice in which they were enliſted, was, as uſual, inceſſantly diſturbed by their national jealouſy; and the two factions, which they protected in Paleſtine, were more averſe to each other than to the common enemy. In the eyes of the Orientals, the French monarch was ſuperior in dignity and power; and in the emperor's abſence, the Latins revered him as their temporal chief. Yet his exploits were not adequate to his fame. Philip was brave, but the ſtateſman predominated in his character; he was ſoon weary of ſacrificing his health and intereſt on a barren coaſt; the ſurrender of Acre became the ſignal of his departure; nor could he juſtify this unpopular deſertion, by leaving the duke of Burgundy, with five hundred knights and ten thouſand foot for the ſervice of the Holy Land. The king of England, though inferior in dignity, ſurpaſſed his rival in wealth and military renown; and if heroiſm be confined to ferocious valour, Richard Plantagenet will ever ſtand high among the heroes of the age. The memory of Cœur de Lion, or the lion-hearted prince, was long dear and glorious to his Engliſh ſubjects; and, at the diſtance of ſixty years, it was celebrated in proverbial ſayings by the grandſons of the Egyptians and Saracens, againſt whom he had fought: his tremendous name was employed by the Syrian mothers to ſilence their infants; and, if an horſe ſuddenly ſtarted from the way, his rider was wont to exclaim, "Doſt thou think king Richard is in the buſh?" His cruelty to the Mahomedans was the effect of zeal; but we cannot believe that a ſoldier, ſo free and fearleſs in the uſe of his lance, would have deſcended to whet a dagger againſt his valiant brother Conrad of Montferrat, who was ſlain at Tyre by ſome ſecret aſſaſſins. After the ſurrender of Acre, and the departure of Philip, the king of England led the cruſaders to the recovery of the ſea-coaſt; and the cities of Cæſaria and Jaffa were quickly added to the kingdom of Luſignan. A march of one hundred miles from Acre to Aſcalon, was a great and perpetual battle of eleven days. In the diſorder of his troops, the ſultan of Egypt remained on the field with ſeventeen guards, without lowering his ſtandard, or ſuſpending the ſound of his brazen kettle-drum: he again rallied and renewed the charge; and his preachers, or heralds, called aloud on the Unitarians manfully to ſtand up againſt the Chriſtians. But the progreſs of Richard was irreſiſtible: and it was only by demoliſhing the walls and buildings of Aſcalon, that the ſultan could prevent him from occupying an important fortreſs on the confines of Egypt. During a ſevere winter, the armies ſlept; but, in the ſpring, the Franks advanced within a day's march of Jeruſalem, under the victorious ſtandard of the Engliſh king; and his active ſpirit intercepted a convoy, or caravan, of ſeven thouſand camels. Saladin had fixed his ſtation in the holy city; but the city was ſtruck with conſternation and diſcord: he faſted; he prayed; he preached; he offered to ſhare the dangers of the ſiege; but his ſoldiers, who remembered the fate of their companions at Acre, preſſed the ſultan with loyal or ſeditious clamours, to reſerve his perſon, and their courage, for the future defence of their religion and empire. The Moſlems were all at once delivered by the ſudden, or, as they deemed, the miraculous, retreat of the Chriſtians; and the laurels of Richard were blaſted by the prudence or envy of his companions. The hero, aſcending an hill, and veiling his face, exclaimed with an indignant voice, "Thoſe who are unwilling to reſcue, are unworthy to view, the ſepulchre of Chriſt!" After his return to Acre, on the news that Jaffa was ſurpriſed by the ſultan, he ſailed with ſome merchant veſſels, and leaped foremoſt on the beach; the caſtle was relieved by his preſence; and ſixty thouſand Saracens fled before his arms. The diſcovery of his weakneſs provoked them to return in the morning; and they found him careleſsly encamped before the gates with only ſeventeen knights and three hundred archers. Without counting their numbers, he ſuſtained their charge; and we learn from the evidence of his enemies, that the king of England, graſping his lance, rode furiouſly along their front, from the right to the left wing, without meeting an adverſary who dared to encounter his career.

During theſe hoſtilities, a languid and tedious negociation between the Franks and Moſlems was ſtarted, and continued, and broken, and again reſumed, and again broken. Some acts of royal courteſy, the gift of ice and fruit, the exchange of Norway hawks and Arabian horſes, ſoftened the aſperity of religious war: from the viciſſitude of ſucceſs, the monarchs might learn to ſuſpect that heaven was neutral in the quarrel; nor, after the ſtubborn trial of each other, could either hope for a deciſive victory. The health both of Richard and Saladin appeared to be in a declining ſtate; and they reſpectively ſuffered the evils of diſtant and domeſtic warfare: Plantagenet was impatient to puniſh a perfidious rival who had invaded Normandy in his abſence; and the ſultan of Egypt was ſubdued by the cries of the people, who was the victim, and of the ſoldiers, who were the inſtruments, of his martial zeal. The firſt demands of the king of England were the reſtitution of Jeruſalem, Paleſtine, and the true croſs; and he firmly declared, that himſelf and his brother pilgrims would end their lives in the pious labour, rather than return to Europe with ignominy and remorſe. But the conſcience of Saladin refuſed, without ſome weighty compenſation: he aſſerted, with equal firmneſs, his religious and civil claim to the ſovereignty of Paleſtine; deſcanted on the importance and ſanctity of Jeruſalem, and rejected all terms of the eſtabliſhment, or partition, of the Latins. The marriage which Richard propoſed, of his ſiſter with the ſultan's brother, was defeated by the difference of faith: the princeſs abhorred the embraces of an infidel; and Adel, or Saphadin, would not renounce a plurality of wives. A perſonal interview was declined by Saladin, who alleged their mutual ignorance of each other's language; and the negociation was managed with much art and delay by their interpreters and envoys. The final agreement was equally diſapproved by the zealots of both parties, by the Roman pontiff, and the caliph of Bagdad. It was ſtipulated that Jeruſalem and the holy ſepulchre ſhould be open, without tribute or vexation, to the pilgrimage of the Latin Chriſtians; that, after the demolition of Aſcalon, they ſhould incluſively poſſeſs the ſea-coaſt from Jaffa to Tyre; that the count of Tripoli and the prince of Antioch ſhould be compriſed in the truce; and that, during three years and three months, all hoſtilities ſhould ceaſe. The principal chiefs of the two armies ſwore to the obſervance of the treaty; but the monarchs were ſatisfied with giving their word and their right-hand; and the royal majeſty was excuſed from an oath, which always implies ſome

ſuſpicion of falſehood and diſhonour. Richard embarked for Europe to ſeek a premature grave; and the ſpace of a few months concluded the life and glories of Saladin. The orientals deſcribe his death, which happened at Damaſcus, March 4, 1193; but they ſeem ignorant of the equal diſtribution of his alms among the three religions, or of the diſplay of a ſhroud, inſtead of a ſtandard, to admoniſh the eaſt of the inſtability of human greatneſs. The unity of empire was diſſolved by his death; his ſons were oppreſſed by the ſtronger arm of their uncle Saphadin; the hoſtile intereſts of the ſultans of Egypt, Damaſcus, and Aleppo, were revived; and the Franks or Latins gained ſtrength in their fortreſſes along the Syrian coaſt.

The nobleſt monument of the ſultan's fame, and of the terror which he inſpired, is the Saladine tenth, a general tax which was firſt impoſed on the laity, and even the clergy, of the Latin church for the ſervice of the Holy War. The practice was too lucrative to expire with the occaſion; and this tribute became the foundation of all the tithes and tenths on eccleſiaſtical benefices, which have been granted by the Roman pontiffs to catholic ſovereigns, or reſerved for the immediate uſe of the apoſtolic ſee. This pecuniary emolument muſt have tended to increaſe the intereſt of the popes in the recovery of Paleſtine; ſo that after the death of Saladin they preached the neceſſity of the cruſades by their epiſtles, their legates, and their miſſionaries.

The ſultan Saladin was only fifty-ſeven years old when he died, leaving ſixteen ſons and a daughter. His extenſive dominions were divided among his children, and ſplit into various petty ſtates and principalities; but none of the ſons were found to poſſeſs either the genius or virtues of their father. Afdhal, the eldeſt, inherited the kingdom of Damaſcus and Samoſata; and Malek-el-Aziz, the ſecond, became ſoldan or ſultan of Egypt. But no ſooner had the young Egyptian monarch ſeated himſelf firmly on the throne, than he began to wage war with his elder brother, reduced him to the narrow limits of Samoſata, and ſeized on Damaſcus for himſelf. The unwarlike Afdhal made little oppoſition, but quietly retired to the principality allowed him. Aziz reigned only five years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Malek-el-Manſur, A. D. 1198; who being but nine years of age, his uncle Afdhal, prince of Samoſata, was deputed by the emirs to rule the empire during the minority, by the title of *Atabek* of Egypt and Damaſcus; but from the ſupineneſs of Afdhal, and the want of authority in the young ſultan, the ſovereign authority was uſurped, A. D. 1200, by Adel-Seif, brother to Manſur; who at the head of the Arabs, ſeized upon Peluſium, and, advancing to Cairo, ſeated himſelf on the Egyptian throne without difficulty or oppoſition. During the reign of Adel-Seif, the Franks penetrated into Egypt; but were quickly obliged to retire, though not without laying waſte part of the country, and carrying off conſiderable booty. In the year 1218, Malek-el-Kamel, the ſon of Adel-Seif, ſucceeded to the throne of the Egyptian ſultans, and maintained a vigorous war againſt the Franks. The fourth cruſade was diverted from Syria and Paleſtine, by being ſent againſt Conſtantinople. In the fifth, two hundred thouſand Franks were landed at the eaſtern mouth of the Nile. They reaſonably hoped, from the diſorders of the Moſlems, that Paleſtine would be ſubdued in Egypt, the ſeat and ſtorehouſe of the ſultan; and, after a ſiege of ſixteen months, the Moſlems had to deplore the loſs of Damietta. But the Chriſtian army was ruined by the pride and inſolence of the legate Pelagius, who, in the pope's name, aſſumed the character of general: the ſickly Franks were encompaſſed by the waters of the Nile and the Oriental forces; and it was by the evacuation of Damietta, after a conflict of three years, from A. D. 1218 to 1221, that they obtained a ſafe retreat, ſome conceſſions for the pilgrims, and the reſtitution of the relic of the true croſs. The failure of the Chriſtians may in ſome meaſure be aſcribed to the abuſe and multiplication of the cruſades, which were preached at the ſame time not only againſt the Saracens and Turks, but againſt the Pagans of Livonia, the Moors of Spain, the Albigeois of France, and the kings of Sicily of the imperial family.

In 1228, another army of cruſaders arrived, under the command of Frederic the Second, emperor of Germany; who, after various ſucceſſes, finally obtained from the ſultan the reſtitution of Jeruſalem, of Bethlem and Nazareth, of Tyre and Sidon: the Latins were alſo allowed to inhabit and fortify the city; an equal code of civil and religious freedom was ratified for the ſectaries of Chriſt, and thoſe of Mahomet; and, while the former worſhipped at the holy ſepulchre, the latter might pray and preach in the moſque of the temple. The Chriſtian clergy deplored this ſcandalous toleration; and the weaker Moſlems were gradually expelled; but every rational object of the cruſades was by this mode accompliſhed without bloodſhed; the churches were reſtored, the monaſteries were repleniſhed; and in the ſpace of fifteen years, the Latins of Jeruſalem exceeded the number of ſix thouſand. This peace and proſperity was interrupted by the irruptions of the ſavage hords of Carizmians. Flying from the arms of the Moguls, thoſe ſhepherds of the Caſpian rolled headlong on Syria; and the union of the Franks with the ſultans of Aleppo, Hems, and Damaſcus, was inſufficient to ſtem the violence of the torrent. Whatever ſtood againſt them, was cut off by the ſword, or dragged into captivity; the military orders were almoſt exterminated in a ſingle battle; and in the pillage of the city, in the profanation of the holy ſepulchre, the Latins confeſs the greater modeſty of the Turks and Saracens.

In the year 1239, Malek-el-Kamel died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Malek-Adel; but after reigning only one ſingle year, this prince was ſupplanted by his brother Malek-Salah, who entered Egypt with a conſiderable force, and driving out Adel, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed ſultan, in Cairo and Alexandria, A. D. 1240. He reigned nine years; in the latter part of which, Egypt was again invaded by the Franks. The two laſt cruſades were undertaken by Louis IX. of France; who loſt his liberty in Egypt, and his life on the coaſt of Africa. In him was united the virtues of a king, an hero, and a man; his martial ſpirit was tempered by the love of private and public juſtice; and he was at once the father of his people, the friend of the Chriſtians, and the terror of the infidels. For the invaſion of Egypt, Louis covered the ſea of Cyprus with eighteen hundred ſails, and fifty thouſand men; and, if we might truſt his own confeſſion, he diſembarked nine thouſand five hundred horſe, and one hundred and thirty thouſand foot, who performed their pilgrimage under the ſhadow of his power.

In complete armour, A. D. 1249, Louis, emulating Richard Plantagenet of England, leaped foremoſt on the beach; and the ſtrong city of Damietta, which had coſt his predeceſſor a ſiege of ſixteen months, was abandoned on the firſt aſſault, by the trembling Egyptians. But Damietta was the firſt and the laſt of his conqueſts; and in the fifth and ſixth cruſades, the ſame cauſes, almoſt on the ſame ground, were productive of ſimilar calamities. After a ruinous delay, which introduced into the camp the ſeeds of an epidemical diſeaſe, the Franks began to advance from the ſea-coaſt towards the capital of Egypt, and ſtrove to ſurmount the unbounded inundation of the Nile, which oppoſed their progreſs. In this interval the ſultan Malek Salah died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Touran Shah, who loſt no time in providing for the ſafety of Cairo, by oppoſing a numerous army to the front of the approaching Chriſtian troops. But under the eye of their intrepid monarch, the barons and knights of France diſplayed their invincible contempt of danger and diſcipline: his brother, the count Artois, ſtormed the town of Maſſoura; and the carrier pigeons announced to the native inhabitants of Cairo, that all was loſt. But

a ſoldier, who afterwards uſurped the ſceptre, rallied the flying Egyptian troops: the main body of the Chriſtians was far behind their vanguard; and count Artois was overpowered and ſlain. A ſhower of Greek fire was inceſſantly poured on the invaders; the Nile was commanded by the Egyptian galleys, the open country by the Arabs; all proviſions were intercepted; each day aggravated the ſickneſs and famine; and about the ſame time a retreat was found to be neceſſary and impracticable. The Oriental writers confeſs, that Louis might have eſcaped, if he would have deſerted his ſubjects: he was made priſoner, with the greateſt part of his nobles; all who could not redeem their lives by ſervice or ranſom, were inhumanly maſſacred; and the walls of Cairo were ſurmounted with innumerable heads of the vanquiſhed Chriſtians. The king of France was loaded with chains; but the generous victor, Touran, great grandſon of the brother of Saladin, ſent a robe of honour to his royal captive; and his deliverance, with that of his ſoldiers, was decreed, by the reſtitution of Damietta, and the payment of four hundred thouſand pieces of gold. The king of France was made priſoner by the ſultan of Egypt, on the 5th of April, 1250; and it was not until a month after this fatal conflict, that Louis, and his captured nobles, were permitted to leave Cairo. For amid the exultations of victory and the tumult of ſavage war, a moſt unforeſeen and degrading revolution was to take place in the imperial city of Egypt: it was now that the dynaſty of the fugitive race of Mamalukes was to be founded in blood and rapine; an event that at once aſtoniſhed and ſhocked mankind, and which, for upwards of five centuries, hath ſubjected the rich and fertile province of Egypt to the dominion of its own ſlaves. In a ſoft and luxurious climate, the degenerate children of Saladin were incapable of reſiſting the flower of European chivalry: they triumphed chiefly by the arms of their ſlaves or mamalukes; for in the language of the country, *mamaluke* means *ſlave*. Theſe were the hardy natives of Tartary, who at an early age were purchaſed of the Syrian merchants, and educated in the camp and palace of the ſultan. Thus Egypt afforded a new example of the danger of introducing prætorian bands; the rage of theſe ferocious animals, who had been let looſe on the Franks, was finally provoked to devour their benefactor. In the midſt of victory, Touran Shah was murdered by his mamalukes, on the 1ſt of May, 1250; and the moſt daring of the aſſaſſins entered the chamber of the captive king of France, with drawn ſcymetars, and their hands imbrued in the blood of their ſultan. The firmneſs of Louis, however, commanded their reſpect; their avarice prevailed over cruelty and zeal; the treaty was accompliſhed; and the king of France, with the relics of his army, was permitted to embark for Paleſtine, on the 6th day of the ſame month. He then waſted four years within the walls of Acre, unable to viſit Jeruſalem, and unwilling to return without ſome noble exploit to welcome him to his native country.

The affairs of Egypt, in the mean while, were in the utmoſt confuſion. The aſpiring mamalukes, as if overcome for the moment with ſhame and remorſe, knew not on whom to confer the ſupreme authority. In this interval of dread and conſternation, they haſtily aſſigned the ſceptre to an intriguing female, the ſtep-mother of Touran Shah, the murdered ſultan; but feeling aſhamed of being governed by a woman, a ſlave of the haram, they proclaimed a child of ſix years old to be their ſultan, the only deſcendant they could find of the Ajubite family, and in him cloſed the domination of the race of Saladin in Egypt. Ezzed-din Moaz Ibegh, the mamaluke who had rallied the flying Egyptians in the conteſt with the French count Artois, married the ſtep-mother of Touran Shah; ſoon after which he found means to dethrone the infant ſultan, and aſſumed to himſelf the regal authority. This enterpriſing ſlave was at the head of the *Baharite* Mamalukes, who were ſo ſtiled from having been originally employed as *mariners*, which that word implies, on board the ſhips of the ſultans of Egypt: they were Tartars. Ezzed-din Moaz began to reign, as the founder of the Baharite mamalukes, A. D. 1254; but he was aſſaſſinated the firſt year, and his ſon Nureddin Ali ſucceeded as ſultan of Egypt in 1255. The celebrated Bondocdar, or Bibars, ſupplanted Nureddin, and was proclaimed ſultan of Egypt and Syria, A. D. 1260. In his reign Louis the Ninth undertook the laſt of the cruſades. After ſixteen years of repoſe, the French king embarked with freſh confidence at the head of ſix thouſand horſe and thirty thouſand foot. The loſs of Antioch had provoked the enterpriſe: a wild hope of baptiſing the king of Tunis, tempted him to ſteer for the African coaſt; and the report of an immenſe treaſure reconciled his troops to the delay of their voyage to the Holy Land. But inſtead of a proſelyte, he found a ſiege; the French panted and died on the burning ſands; Louis expired in his tent; and no ſooner had he cloſed his eyes, than his ſon and ſucceſſor gave the ſignal of the retreat. "It is thus," ſays Voltaire, "that a Chriſtian king died near the ruins of Carthage, waging war againſt the ſectaries of Mahomet, in a land to which Dido had introduced the deities of Syria."

A more abſurd conſtitution cannot be deviſed, than that which condemned the Egyptians to perpetual ſervitude, under the arbitrary dominion of ſtrangers and ſlaves. Yet in this ſtate of Egypt the Franks were finally overthrown. With ſome breathing intervals of peace and order, the mamaluke dynaſties are marked as a period of rapine and bloodſhed: but their throne, however ſhaken, repoſed on the two pillars of diſcipline and valour; their ſway extended over Egypt, Nubia, Arabia, and Syria; their cavalry was multiplied to twenty-five thouſand; with one hundred and ſeven thouſand foot, and the occaſional aid of ſixty-ſix thouſand Arabs. Men of ſuch power and ſavage ſpirit would not long endure on their coaſt an hoſtile and independent nation; and if the ruin of the Franks had been poſtponed, they were indebted to the cares of an unſettled reign, to the invaſion of the Moguls, and to the occaſional aid of ſome warlike pilgrims. Among theſe, the Engliſh reader will recollect the name of our firſt Edward, who aſſumed the croſs in the life-time of his father Henry. At the head of a thouſand ſoldiers, the future conqueror of Wales and Scotland delivered Acre from a ſiege; marched as far as Nazareth with an army of nine thouſand men; emulated the fame of his uncle Richard; extorted by his valour a ten years truce; and eſcaped, with a dangerous wound, from the dagger of an aſſaſſin. Antioch, whoſe ſituation had been leſs expoſed to the calamities of the holy war, was finally occupied and ruined by the ſultan Bibars, on the 12th of June, 1268; the Latin principality was extinguiſhed; and the firſt ſeat of the Chriſtian name was diſpeopled by the ſlaughter of ſeventeen, and the captivity of one hundred thouſand of her inhabitants. The maritime towns of Laodicea, Gabala, Tripoli, Berytus, Sidon, Tyre, and Jaffa, and the ſtronger caſtles of the Hoſpitalers and Templars, ſucceſſively fell; and the whole exiſtence of the Franks was confined to the city and colony of St. John of Acre, then deſcribed by the more claſſic title of Ptolemais.

The power and proweſs of Bibars, his frequent victories over the Moguls, and ſtrict adminiſtration of juſtice, were the probable cauſes of his long reign without any attempt of aſſaſſination, or domeſtic feud. He was ſucceeded as ſultan of Egypt and Syria by Kalil Aſcraf, who aſcended the throne in 1290, and who, the next year, wholly exterminated the power of the Chriſtians in Paleſtine. After the loſs of Jeruſalem, Acre or Ptolemais, which is about ſeventy miles diſtant from the holy city, became the metropolis of the Latin Chriſtians, and was adorned with ſtrong and ſtately buildings, with aqueducts, an artificial port, and a double wall. The population was increaſed by the inceſſant ſtreams of pilgrims and fugitives: in the pauſes of hoſtility, the trade of the eaſt

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and weſt was attracted to this convenient ſtation; and the market could offer the produce of every clime and the interpreters of every tongue. But in this conflux of nations, every vice was propagated and practiſed: of all the diſciples of Jeſus and Mahomet, the male and female inhabitants of Acre were eſteemed the moſt corrupt; nor could the abuſe of religion be corrected by the diſcipline of law. The city had many ſovereigns, and no government. The kings of Jeruſalem and Cyprus, of the houſe of Luſignan, the princes of Antioch, the counts of Tripoli and Sidon, the great maſters of the hoſpital, the temple, and the Teutonic order, the republics of Venice, Genoa, and Piſa, the pope's legate, the kings of France and England, aſſumed an independent command; ſeventeen tribunals exerciſed the power of life and death; every criminal was protected in the adjacent quarter; and the perpetual jealouſy of the nations often burſt forth in acts of violence and blood. Some adventurers, who diſgraced the enſign of the croſs, compenſated their want of pay by the plunder of the Mahometan villages: nineteen Syrian merchants, who traded under the public faith, were deſpoiled and hanged by the Chriſtians; and the denial of ſatisfaction enraged and juſtified the arms of the ſultan Kalil. He marched againſt Acre, at the head of ſixty thouſand horſe and one hundred and forty thouſand foot: his antique train of artillery was numerous and weighty; the ſeparate timbers of a ſingle engine were tranſported in one hundred waggons; and the royal hiſtorian Abulfeda, who ſerved with the troops of Hamah, was himſelf a ſpectator of the holy war. Whatever might be the vices of the Franks, their courage was rekindled by enthuſiaſm and deſpair; but they were torn by the diſcord of ſeventeen chiefs, and overwhelmed on all ſides by the powers of the ſultan. After a ſiege of thirty-three days, the double wall was forced by the Moſlems; the principal tower yielded to their engines; the mamalukes made a general aſſault; the city was ſtormed on the 18th of May, 1291; and death or ſlavery was the lot of ſixty thouſand Chriſtians. The convent, or rather fortreſs, of the Templars reſiſted three days longer; but the great maſter was pierced with an arrow; and, of five hundred knights, only ten were left alive, leſs happy than the victims of the ſword, if they lived to ſuffer on a ſcaffold in the unjuſt and cruel proſcription of the whole order. The king of Jeruſalem, the patriarch, and the great maſter of the hoſpital, effected their retreat to the ſhore: but the ſea was rough; the veſſels were inſufficient; and great numbers of the fugitives were drowned before they could reach the iſle of Cyprus, which conſoled Luſignan for the loſs of Paleſtine. By the command of the ſultan, the churches and fortifications of the Latin cities were demoliſhed: a motive of avarice or fear ſtill opened the holy ſepulchre to ſome devout and defenceleſs pilgrims; and a mournful and ſolitary ſilence has almoſt ever ſince prevailed along the coaſt which for ſo many years reſounded with the DEBATE OF ARMS!

Thus fell the laſt heroes of the Holy War; and Kalil returned in triumph to Cairo; but his reign was diſturbed by the frequent inroads of the Moguls, who ſtill contended for the poſſeſſion of Syria. The arms of the ſultan were finally victorious; and gave to Nazr Mahomet, his ſucceſſor, a long and peaceful reign, in which he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the encouragement he gave to agriculture and the arts. This prince died in 1341, after which the throne was filled by the ſhort reigns of various mamalukes, moſt of whom fell by retaliated aſſaſſination. In 1348, a moſt deſtructive peſtilence appeared in Egypt, brought originally from Syria; and which ſpread over a great part of Europe. In 1365, Shaban Aſcraff was the reigning ſultan, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by iſſuing a decree, that the real deſcendants of Mahomet only, ſhould be allowed to wear the green turban. In his reign Peter de Luſignan, king of Cyprus, is ſaid to have beſieged Alexandria, which he was obliged to abandon for want of proviſions; but this event appears to remain in conſiderable obſcurity. Shaban was ſucceeded by his ſon Hadgi Salah, who was a minor, and the laſt of the Baharite dynaſty, which gave place to the Circaſſian mamalukes, in the year 1382.

The origin of this race of ſlaves was briefly as follows: after the Baharite dynaſty had ſeated itſelf upon the throne, the Tartar ſultans were in the habit of purchaſing vaſt numbers of ſlaves, which they obtained principally from Circaſſia, where the people, though they profeſſed Chriſtianity, were, and ſtill are, accuſtomed to ſell their children. Theſe Circaſſian ſlaves were educated for the army, in the ſame way that the Tartar mamalukes had formerly been. As their numbers increaſed, they were diſpoſed of in fortreſſes erected throughout the country, in order to keep a check upon the native Egyptians; and becauſe in their language ſuch a fort is called *borge*, they acquired the name of *Borgite mamalukes*. In the era above-mentioned, they were become extremely numerous and powerful; and the young Hadgi Salah having been placed under the guardianſhip of Barkuk-Dahar, a borgite of conſiderable eminence, who was made atabek or governor during the minority; he perfidiouſly depoſed his pupil, and calling in the aid of the Circaſſian tribes, ſeized upon the ſupreme authority before any reſiſtance could be made to his ambitious views. In him therefore commenced the dynaſty of Borgite Mamalukes, A. D. 1382.

In the reign of Barkuk, Timur invaded Syria at the head of a numerous army of Moguls; but the new Circaſſian ſultan obtained two deciſive victories over him, and obliged his ſhattered forces haſtily to withdraw. In 1399, Faradj, ſon of Barkuk, ſucceeded to the Egyptian throne; but himſelf, and few of the ſultans who followed, reigned above a year, being either aſſaſſinated or dethroned, until the year 1442, when Burſbai began to reign. It was this ſultan who ſent a fleet againſt Cyprus, which took Lymiſſos and Nicoſia, and brought king John II. and moſt of his nobility, captives to Cairo. Syria alſo remained a conſtant appanage to Egypt. Burſbai reigned ſixteen years, and in 1461 was ſucceeded by Abul-Fathe-Achmed. This ſultan laid an annual tribute upon the kingdom of Cyprus, and aſſigned the crown to James, natural ſon of John III. Of the ſucceeding ſultans we find nothing remarkable; and the mamaluke ariſtocracy began to render their ſtation more and more precarious. Whoever aſpired to be ſultan, formed a party; and after having murdered his rival, waited for a favourable opportunity to ſeize the reins of government. Whoever aſſaſſinated the ſultan was generally proclaimed in his place; and ſometimes two or three reigned at the ſame time in Syria, Upper Egypt, and Cairo, who were continually at war, till the moſt daring and enterpriſing had deſtroyed the others. In 1501, Kanſu-Elghuri was raiſed to the throne; and in 1516, Selim II. emperor of the Turks, having declared war againſt him, defeated and ſlew him near Aleppo, and ſeized upon all Syria. The mamalukes immediately raiſed Toman Bey to the vacant throne, and made every preparation for oppoſing the victorious arms of Selim. A moſt obſtinate and ſanguinary battle was fought between the Ottoman troops and the mamalukes, on the 24th of January, 1517, at Rodania near Cairo, in which Selim at length prevailed. After another obſtinate conflict, Toman Bey was again defeated by Selim, taken priſoner, and hanged at one of the gates of Cairo, on the 13th of April the ſame year. Thus fell the dynaſty of Borgite mamalukes; and Egypt, thus conquered, became ſubject to the Turks of Conſtantinople.

Selim, finding it impoſſible to compel his new ſubjects to ſubmit to a deſpotic government, did not attempt to give them new laws, but delegated the chief power, under his own authority, to an apoſtate bey, who, by baſely betraying Toman, his former maſter, had been the chief cauſe of his defeat. In this manner Selim II. quitted the country, ſix months after his firſt entry into Cairo, leaving little order or regulation, and the mamalukes

were ſtill maſters of Egypt. It was left for Solyman, ſurnamed the Legiſlator, the ſucceſſor of Selim, to give a new conſtitution, not only to Egypt, but to all the different provinces which compoſed that heterogeneous maſs of empire. He found it in the firſt place neceſſary to eſtabliſh a counterpoiſe for the power and influence of the mamalukes; to effect which, he eſtabliſhed the corps of *cajacklis* or militia, conſiſting of the natives of Egypt, into which a mamaluke was on no account to be admitted. To theſe corps he gave great powers; to the mamalukes he left nothing but a ſubordinate military authority, and a few villages for their principal officers or chiefs, who were to be in number twenty-four, diſtinguiſhed by the honorary title of *beys*. He eſtabliſhed a pacha as his own immediate repreſentative, who was to be the captain or head of the government; thence called, by different writers, the *capitan* or *capoutan pacha*; and who had the nomination of the different officers of the ſtate. The beys had alſo the choice of a ſucceſſor, to fill up any vacancies among themſelves, but they were obliged to preſent the perſon ſo choſen to the pacha in a full divan, to be inveſted with the dignity, and approved, by him. Hence the office of pacha of Egypt was often the road to the Turkiſh vizirate, and was ſometimes an honourable retreat for a diſgraced vizier. He could be formally depoſed by the corps of militia in the divan, and made to ſettle his accounts before he left the country. The reaſons for his being ſo diſmiſſed were previouſly tranſmitted to Conſtantinople, where he was always replaced; and indeed it rarely happened that a pacha died in this ſituation, they were ſo frequently changed.

The divan, which aſſembled twice a week to deliberate on all the affairs of ſtate, was compoſed of the twenty-four beys, the principal officers of the militia, and the great lawyers. The pacha, as ſupreme, was the preſident of the aſſembly. The tribute annually paid to the Porte was to be twelve hundred purſes of piaſtres, (about fifty thouſand pounds,) beſide conſiderable quantities of rice, corn, &c. In this manner the government went on, without any event of importance, at leaſt with nothing more than the uſual intrigues, ſometimes between the mamalukes and militia to depoſe the pacha; ſometimes between the pacha and militia, to check the daring attempts often made by the mamalukes to regain their ancient influence; and ſometimes between the mamalukes and the pacha, to repreſs the aſpiring ambition of ſome chiefs of the militia. This conſtitution laſted till the middle of the eighteenth century, when a variety of cauſes conſpired to overturn it. The beys were then beginning to take the lead in all political affairs, and the pachas were reduced to mere ciphers, ſcarcely poſſeſſing the ſhadow of their original authority.

About the year 1748, a pacha of a more determined caſt was appointed, who, finding it impoſſible to aſſert his ſuperiority, without ſtriking ſome deciſive blow, took a reſolution to deſtroy the beys at once by aſſaſſination. Accordingly, as they were coming to take their places at the divan, ſeventeen of them were murdered; the reſt eſcaped. Such a daring and open violation of juſtice and humanity had not the intended effect; for the indignation of all claſſes againſt the pacha ran ſo high, that he was obliged to quit his ſituation, and ſave his life by eſcaping to Conſtantinople. At that period Ibrahim Caya Bey, a determined and ambitious mamaluke, had got by intrigue into the corps of militia, in which he held a very high ſituation. He aſpired to be elected Shiek-el-Belled, or chief of the mamalukes, and to reſtore them to their former authority; and he managed ſo well, that in a few years he had inſinuated all the mamalukes of his party into the militia, which gave him ſuch an aſcendancy, that he eaſily kept the remainder quiet. Had he lived, he would in all probability have ſucceeded in making himſelf a ſultan of Egypt independent of the Porte; but he was poiſoned by an emiſſary of the court of Conſtantinople, who hoped, by deſtroying this aſpiring chief, to regain their authority in Egypt, which was ſo completely ſhaken.

Ali Bey the Great, a man of more talents, with equal ambition and intrepidity, ſucceeded Ibrahim, A. D. 1766. He was the firſt mamaluke who openly declared the bold deſign of freeing Egypt for ever from the nominal ſovereignty of the court of Conſtantinople. Throwing off the maſk entirely, he aſſumed perfect independence; expelled the pacha, refuſed the tribute, and coined money in his own name. Iſmael Bey and Mahomed Bey conſpired againſt him, and drove him into Syria, where he took refuge with the celebrated Daher, who had rendered himſelf maſter of Syria, and laughed at all the feeble efforts of the Porte to reduce him. Ali Bey, having received ſome ſmall aſſiſtance from the Ruſſians, as well as from Daher, croſſed the deſert to meet his adverſaries. A battle was fought near Salahieh, in which Ali was wounded by one of his own party, ſuppoſed to have been Mourad Bey, and was in conſequence taken priſoner. He was treated with great reſpect, and carried to Cairo, where he died a few days after: ſome ſay by poiſon. This aſpiring ſlave was born in Anatolia, or rather Natolia, a province of the Turkiſh empire. He was brought young into Egypt, where he was purchaſed in the ſame manner as the other mamalukes, and raiſed himſelf by his enterpriſing and ambitious ſpirit to that ſituation, which made the Porte tremble for the remains of its power in Egypt. Mourad Bey, as chief of the faction of Ali, ſoon ſet up for himſelf, and drove his opponents, Iſmael and Mahomed, from Cairo for ſome time; but they regained poſſeſſion of the capital, and kept it, till they both died natural deaths. Mahomed Bey died firſt, at Aere, after having taken the town. At the death of Iſmael, Mourad Bey again aſſumed the government; but it was ſoon after agreed to be conjointly ſhared between Mourad and Ibrahim Bey, who reſtored the Turkiſh pacha, and ſent the arrears of tribute to Conſtantinople, which had not been paid for ſix years, and which was thus made the olive-branch of peace.

There was never a Shiek-el-Belled, or chief of the mamalukes, whoſe reign was of longer duration than that of Ibrahim Bey. From the year 1776 to 1803, a few interruptions excepted, he has retained poſſeſſion of the ſupreme power. For this continuance in the exerciſe of the ſovereignty, in a country where authority ſeldom remains long in the ſame hands, he was indebted to his unbounded liberality and great courage. It is remarkable, that during all the revolutions among the mamalukes for the laſt ſixty years, the pacha has been nothing more than an empty repreſentative of the authority which the court of Conſtantinople claimed to exerciſe in Egypt; the whole power having been uſurped by the Shiek-el-Belled, ſupported by the reſt of the beys. The functions of the pacha, during this period, were merely confined to receiving and tranſmitting the miri or tribute to the grand ſeignor, whenever the beys thought proper to pay any. It was uſeleſs for him to diſpute the will of the all-powerful beys, and accordingly he never made any heſitation at obeying their orders. Without troops, and without any means of enforeing his authority, he could not do otherwiſe. It may here be proper to mention the moſt celebrated beys who bore the ſway in Egypt at the cloſe of the eighteenth century. Ibrahim, as the elder, being then upwards of ſixty years of age, and at the head of a ſtrong party, was eſteemed the chief; though it is the uniform cuſtom for all the beys to take precedence from the ſtrength or number of their mamalukes: of theſe mercenaries Ibrahim maintained upwards of a thouſand. Mourad Bey, his colleague in the government, and once his ſuperior, was originally a ſlave of Mohammed Bey: about fifty years of age; bold and intrepid, yet deliberate and ſagacious; maintaining ſeventeen hundred mamalukes. Next in power was Mohammed Bey *Elfi*, about thirty-five years of age; his name imports that he was bought for a thouſand ſequins. His maſter was

Mourad

Mourad Bey, above-mentioned. He poſſeſſed eight hundred mamalukes, who were daily increaſing; and he had the character of great ſagacity, courage, and intrepidity in action. Ibrahim Bey *Uali*, a name derived from having been the ſlave to the ſecond magiſtracy in the city. He married the daughter of the elder Ibrahim; about thirty-ſix years old; of a ſedate, firm, and reſolute character; with ſeven hundred mamalukes. Aiub Bey *Zogheir*, or junior; eſteemed a cool and courageous leader; eminent in ſagacity and diſcernment; near forty years old; with five hundred mamalukes. Oſman Bey *Tambergi*, ſo named as having been a mamaluke drummer: intrepid, bold, and vigilant, he was greatly eſteemed by Mourad. Other beys were the Black Caya Bey, Oſman Bey Aſcar, Mahomet Bey Mafice, Iſaak Bey, called the French Bey, from his long reſidence in France; he ſpoke ſeveral languages, and was interpreter to the other beys. Oſman Bey Berdici, Selim Bey, Achmed Bey, Aſſan Bey, &c. to the number of twenty-four, according to the original inſtitution of Solyman the Legiſlator.

Such was the ſtate of the government of Egypt, when general Bonaparte, on the firſt of July, 1798, landed at Alexandria, with an army of 40,000 men. Whether this expedition was undertaken by the French with the ſole deſign of ſubduing that country, or of attempting to direct their arms by the Red Sea, againſt the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India, is not known, though the latter opinion has prevailed. The town of Alexandria appears to have been the firſt object of the French commander, which he took almoſt without reſiſtance, after putting to flight the Arabs and mamalukes who defended it, and of whom he killed about three hundred. The conduct of the invader, however, ſeems highly reprehenſible, ſince it ſavoured more of Saracen barbarity, than of the forbearance and humanity of Chriſtian warfare. The city was taken by ſurpriſe, attacked and ſtormed, and numbers innocently put to death, without even giving the garriſon the option of capitulation; and the ſoldiers were ſuffered to ſack, and raviſh, and plunder, the inhabitants for three hours, as an encouragement for them to proceed with avidity in this unprovoked and rapacious war. Bonaparte then aſſembled the magiſtrates, and with more than Mohammedan diſſimulation, aſſerted "that his only motive for viſiting Egypt, was glorioufly to effect the deliverance of the country, from the tyranny and uſurpation of the beys, who were equally the enemies of the Porte and of the French people." And having required from them an oath that they would neither injure nor betray him, he permitted the greater number to retain the places which they occupied. Having continued three days in Alexandria, to organize the city, of which general Kleber was left in command, the French army commenced a difficult and dangerous march acroſs the deſert to attack Roſetta. Unaccuſtomed to the heat of a tropical climate, unuſed to traverſe barren and ſandy ſoils, and unobſervant of the orders which had been iſſued, the ſoldiers exhauſted their proviſions, or ſuffered them to ſpoil, before they reached two-thirds of their journey. Roſetta, however, which made no reſiſtance, terminated many of their difficulties. Having left a garriſon in this place under the command of general Menou, and another at Rhamanieh, a town farther up the river, at the entrance of the canal of Alexandria, whither a column of the army had been detached at the ſame time with that to Roſetta, Bonaparte continued his march along the banks of the Nile towards Cairo.

Hitherto no obſtacle had preſented itſelf to the French invader; but on the arrival of the army near Gizeh, Bonaparte found that Mourad Bey had aſſembled his forces in the neighbourhood of a village called Embabeh, where he intended to diſpute and oppoſe his farther progreſs. The mamalukes amounted to ten thouſand men, and fought with deſperate courage; but the action, though bloody, was neither long nor doubtful. Part of the army of the mamalukes was either exterminated by the ſword, or drowned in the river; the reſt with Mourad Bey, retreated to Upper Egypt. This action, which was denominated the *battle of the pyramids*, convinced the French, from the obſtinate reſiſtance made by an inferior army, unſkilled in European tactics, that they had no ordinary enemy to combat and overcome; particularly when it was conſidered that the whole country was taken by ſurpriſe, when no one garriſon was in a ſtate of defence, and when no enemy, either foreign or domeſtic, was expected on the Egyptian ſhores. The ſpoils of the ſlain were found extremely valuable, as each mamaluke carries with him in his march the amount of his fortune, or his plunder.

In conſequence of the event of this battle, Bonaparte ſent for, and was waited on, by the magiſtrates of Cairo, which city the army entered in triumph, having nothing to oppoſe them. The French commander now parted his troops into three diviſions, one of which was ſent under the command of general Deſaix, to poſſeſs himſelf of Upper Egypt; the ſecond was left at Cairo; and with the third he followed Ibrahim Bey, who had retired into Syria to recruit his army. The moſt hazardous and embarraſſing part of the whole campaign, was certainly that which was carried into Upper Egypt, under the indefatigable perſeverance of general Deſaix, who had not only to contend with the burning heat of the tropical ſun, and the horrors of a barren deſert, but with the brave and dexterous generalſhip of Mourad Bey. He ſet out on this important expedition on the 26th of Auguſt, 1798, with a flotilla on the Nile to convoy his march. Mourad Bey in the interim collected his forces, and encamped on an eminence in the neighbourhood of Sedinan, where he waited to diſpute the progreſs of the French arms. Deſaix approached, impatient to give him battle; and coming within ſight of the lofty mamaluke camp, which betrayed the utmoſt oriental magnificence, he encouraged his troops with the hope of plunder; pointing out, by the help of his glaſs, or pretending to point out, the perſon of Mourad Bey, reſplendent with gold and precious ſtones, and ſurrounded with all the richly decorated beys and kiachefs under his command. The night was paſſed in feaſting in the camp; while, in the dark, parties were ſent out to menace the advanced poſts of their enemy. At the firſt dawn of the morning the French army formed in a hollow ſquare, in the midſt of a large plain, with two platoons on their flanks. Mourad approached at the head of his formidable mamalukes, and ſeveral thouſand Arabs, who charged with uncommon intrepidity, and quickly ſurrounded the whole body of the French. A dreadful carnage enſued; great numbers fell on both ſides; but the mamalukes could make no ſerious impreſſion on the ſolid ſquare, which rendered their ſcymetars of no avail, and their numbers uſeleſs. The mamalukes fighting on horſeback, chiefly with the ſabre, which they uſe moſt dexterouſly, were received by the French on the point of the bayonet; who thus wounding their horſes, threw them perpetually into confuſion. Diſappointed and enraged, the mamalukes advanced as cloſe as poſſible to the lines, firſt diſcharging their piſtols, and then throwing them violently at the enemy, together with their battle-axes and other weapons, until the ground was covered with their arms. They then retired, not beaten, though leaving the French maſters of the field of battle.

Deſaix now, perceiving the impetuous kind of enemy he had to deal with, procured from Bonaparte a conſiderable reinforcement both of cavalry and infantry, with which he continued to penetrate the interior of Upper Egypt. He paſſed on from poſt to poſt, extirpating all who appeared inimical to the French intereſt; ſeizing their proviſions and effects, violating their women, burning their habitations, and deſolating the country. Thoſe who ſubmitted to their yoke, who were willing to pay a tribute, and provide the army with neceſſaries and proviſions, were protected and ſpared. Yet theſe, in turn, became a ſacrifice to the exaſperated mamalukes, who in revenge fell upon them whenever they recovered the

country, ſparing neither man, woman, nor child. Mourad Bey, aided by his ſuperior knowledge of the roads, and by the expertneſs of his numerous mamaluke cavalry, was conſtantly able to haraſs the rear of the French, and would often ſeize and carry off their ſtragglers and foraging parties, even within fifty yards of the main body. But Mourad now began to act principally on the defenſive, not only by haraſſing the enemy's rear, but alſo by lying in ambuſh, laying waſte the country, driving off the cattle in the line of his march, and weakening his force by ſudden and repeated ſkirmiſhes. In this manner Deſaix purſued the Egyptian Fabius, until he reached the city of Girgeh, the capital of Upper Egypt, ſituated halfway between Cairo and Syene. Mourad now reſolved again to diſpute his further progreſs; and with that intent pitched his camp near Samanhut, a conſiderable village in the neighbourhood of Girgeh. In this city, which ſtands on the Nile, Deſaix waited from the 30th of December to the 20th of January, 1799, for the arrival of their flotilla, which had alſo been haraſſed and attacked by the mamalukes and Arabs, and one of their veſſels taken. On the 21ſt the ſupplies were got on ſhore; and Deſaix quitted Girgeh on the 22d, marching directly to Samanhut. On the 24th the mamalukes appeared, diſcloſing a front of an immenſe extent. Deſaix formed his army in three compact ſquares; two of infantry for the wings, and one of cavalry in the center, with the artillery on the angles. Mourad Bey began the battle with his uſual impetuoſity, and the mamalukes at once aſſailed the whole body of the French, prancing around them with uplifted ſcymeters, making a moſt brilliant diſplay of their glittering accoutrements, and of their ſkill in horſemanſhip, as well as of their contempt of danger, and boldneſs of attack. But the rigid ſeverity of the northern tactics preſented a ſpectacle equally commanding, and more formidable. Numbers of the French fell in the action; but their lines could not be broken. The artillery was likewiſe a bulwark of defence, mowing down the mamalukes and Arabs in all directions. One of their chiefs fell ſo near the French lines, that he could not be recovered by his own people; and while his foot hung in the ſtirrup, the horſe, without abandoning his rider, would not let the French ſoldiers approach him, notwithſtanding all their endeavours to ſeize the rich gold which glittered on the dreſs of this unfortunate chief, who was thus dragged back by his horſe, and made to ſuffer the horrors of death in many forms. Mourad now retreated into the boſom of the deſert, conceiving that this would prove an inſuperable barrier againſt the further purſuit of his enemy, unprepared for, and unaccuſtomed to, ſuch a frightful waſte, which eternally preſents a diſconſolate idea to all who have once beheld it—a boundleſs horizon of barrenneſs, which oppreſſes the mind by immenſity of diſtance, and whoſe appearance, where level, is only a dreary expanſe; and where broken hills intervene, they only ſhew another feature of decay and decrepitude; whilſt the ſtill ſilence of inanimate nature is never broken but in the dead of night, by the fearful howlings of ferocious beaſts. But theſe held out no terrors to the indefatigable Deſaix.

The French army entered the deſert on the 28th of January, 1799, paſſed the ancient cities of Tentyra, Thebes, Eſneh or Latopolis, and Etfu the ancient Hieraconpolis; following as cloſe as poſſible on the heels of Mourad Bey and his mamalukes, until it reached its deſtination at Aſſuan or Syene, the frontier town of Upper Egypt, where the fertile Nile enters the Egyptian territory, by flowing over the laſt of the cataracts at the beautiful iſland of Elephantina. Here the French inſcribed the termination of their march through Egypt upon a rock of granite; and then returned to organize the new government of Syene, which was in no condition to oppoſe theſe novel uſurpers. Deſaix immediately formed a plan of fortifying the town, conſtructed a citadel or fort which commanded all the approaches, and, with the profeſſed vanity of imitating Probus, actually converted his army into artificers, architects, and labourers. In the mean while, general Dahouſt was ſent in queſt of Aſſan Bey, on the right bank of the river oppoſite Etfu, where he was in conſiderable force with ſupplies, ready to co-operate with Mourad. The eagerneſs of the French to get poſſeſſion of the ſtores, expoſed them to a terrible conflict for about half an hour. The field of battle remained with the French; but Aſſan Bey obtained his main point, that of carrying off his baggage and ſtores; ſo that neither party had much to boaſt, though Aſſan was wounded in the leg, and many of the mamalukes killed.

After having thus rapidly advanced through the whole extent of Upper Egypt, and placed the inhabitants of Syene under the temporary controul of the French nation, Deſaix, on the 25th of February, after a campaign of ſix months, commenced his return to Cairo; but this was a work of more difficulty and danger than was at firſt ſuſpected. To ſoften the rigour of the march, as well as to ſcour the country of the mamalukes and Arabs, who now acted in detachments, and were diſperſed in various directions on both ſides the Nile, Deſaix divided his army into two parts: with one diviſion he ſtill purſued the vigilant Mourad Bey; while the other, under the command of general Beliard, was ſent, on the other ſide the river, in queſt of Oſman Bey Aſcar, who having been joined by a numerous body of Meccan ſoldiers, had entrenched themſelves at Benhute, in order to co-operate with Mourad, and way-lay the French troops on their return to Lower Egypt. General Beliard attacked theſe entrenchments, which after a moſt bloody and deſperate conflict of three days, he carried; and in which the moſt heroic achievements appear to have been performed on both ſides, with the conſequent loſs of innumerable lives. On the next day, the 23d of March, general Beliard, perceiving the folly of purſuing theſe people in a country where they had every advantage, haſtened to meet the commander Deſaix at Keneh, where he arrived on the 11th of April. Deſaix in the mean time had compelled Mourad Bey to take ſhelter in the Oaſis, and had detached general Friant to the right bank of the Nile, to preſerve a line parallel to his own, and to clear the country of Elfi Bey and his remnant of mamalukes. After theſe operations the two French generals met at Keneh, which for a time they made their head quarters.

General Deſaix now conceived the plan of blocking up the mamalukes in the deſert, or at leaſt of cutting off their communication with the Nile, and of impeding their movements, by preventing them from ſeparating their forces without the riſk of being cut off, and of finally reducing them by famine. In the valley which leads from Coſſeir to the Nile, there are four wells or fountains, the latter of which is of great importance when the deſert is to be occupied by an invading army, ſince it is ſituated at the confluence of three roads, which are ſo many paſſes from the deſert into Egypt. The firſt of theſe roads, which runs to the ſouth-weſt, leads to Rediſi, where it terminates. The ſecond, which runs almoſt due weſt, terminates at Nagadi; and the third, which takes a north-weſt direction, leads to Birambar. From Biramber three roads lead to Kous, to Coptos, and to Keneh. Deſaix, after having left a garriſon at Keneh, took up his poſition at Birambar; and Beliard was ſent with his diviſion to occupy the paſſage of Nagadi; while that of Rediſi was incautiouſly neglected; for if the ſtrait of Rediſi could have been occupied, all the beys on the right bank of the river muſt have ſurrendered, or ſtarved in the deſert; in which caſe, Mourad Bey, who was in force on the left bank, would have been the only army he could have had to contend with. Beliard repaired to Nagadi, where his troops were compelled to take up their quarters in the ſubterraneous tombs or burial places of the dead, while ſcouting parties were employed to learn the motions of the enemy. Beſides the mamalukes, a conſiderable body of Meccans were in force, with ſome or other of whom the

the patroles were continually falling in, and who were hunted down and deſtroyed like animals obnoxious to ſociety. In this dreary ſituation, however, proviſions were conſtantly brought in to their quarters in the tombs, by the ſhepherds and merchants who were in dread of being plundered by the mamalukes. Theſe movements brought on the battle of Birambar, wherein Dupleſſis, a chief of brigade, and ſeveral French officers loſt their lives, and wherein Aſſan Bey and Oſman Bey Aſear were ſeverely wounded. The French, as uſual, were the victors; and the defeated mamalukes took the unguarded paſs by the ſtrait of Rediſi, and formed a junction with Mourad Bey on the oppoſite bank of the Nile. Theſe beys now concerted the plan of cutting off the communication of the French army with Cairo; and with this view Elfi Bey was deputed to hang upon the flotilla, and ſcour the banks of the Nile; Oſman and Selim Bey were diſpatched to retake and reduce the French fortifications at Syene; and Mourad Bey, with the flower of the mamalukes, hung upon the French army to keep it in check, to watch favourable opportunities of attack, and to overawe the natives, and prevent ſupplies.

Theſe promiſing ſchemes, however, did not ſucceed. Beneadi, a town on the verge of the deſert, containing twelve thouſand inhabitants, where a rich caravan from Fur had juſt arrived, gave every aſſiſtance to Mourad Bey, who had excited them to arms againſt the French. To this town, therefore, Defaix immediately diſpatched general Davouſt with the cavalry, and a ſtrong detachment animated with the hope of plunder, who fell furiouſly upon the town, maſſacred almoſt all the inhabitants, pillaged and burnt the houſes; and then following the few who had eſcaped to join the Meccans at Miniet, they were all put to the ſword in a ſecond encounter. Another detachment was ſent under captain Renaud back to Syene, to diſlodge Oſman and Selim Bey, who had poſſeſſed themſelves of the town. Emboldened by the ſmall number of the enemy, they marched out and attacked the French with their uſual impetuoſity; but in the action Selim Bey was ſeverely wounded, and Oſman ſoon after retreated above the cataracts, leaving Syene once more in the hands of the French. In the mean time Defaix had driven back Mourad Bey to his ſtrong hold in the Oaſis; whilſt Beliard was getting ready a detachment to croſs the deſert, and take poſſeſſion of Coſſir or Coſſeir, on the banks of the Red Sea. This ſervice was performed with conſiderable adroitneſs and expedition. The detachment, all mounted on camels, left the head quarters at Keneh on the 26th of May, 1799, paſſed the ſtrait of Birambar, or *well of wells*, on the edge of the deſert, where they took their ſupply of water, and arrived at Coſſir on the fifth day. The defenceleſs town and barren ſuburbs were inſtantly ſurrendered; and the French, after holding poſſeſſion two days, and erecting the tri-coloured flag, returned back in only four days to Keneh. "To this central ſeat of our conqueſts in Upper Egypt," ſays Denon, "we found a number of merchants of all nations reſort, pleaſed with our new government, and ſoliciting paſſports for their ſafe journey through the deſert. By this intercourſe with the natives of different countries, remote diſtances ſeemed to be contracted, and when we began to reckon the days required for a journey, and the neceſſary means of effecting it, the ſpace to be paſſed over ceaſed to be immenſe; we no ſooner found ourſelves actually engaged, than many difficulties, formidable at firſt, inſenſibly ſeemed to diminiſh, and at length totally diſappeared. The Red Sea, Gidda, Mecca, ſeemed like neighbouring places to the town where we were; and *India itſelf was but a ſhort way beyond them!* In the oppoſite direction the Oaſes were actually no more than three days journey from us, and ceaſed to appear to our imagination as an undiſcovered country. From Oaſis to Oaſis, by eaſy marches of one or two days, we arrive at Sennaar, one of the capitals of Nubia, which ſeparates Egypt from Abyſſinia and Fur, in the road to Tombuctoo, whoſe inhabitants are ſtill the chief object, in Africa, of European curioſity, and whoſe very exiſtence was a ſhort time ago problematical. Many Turkiſh, Meccan, and Mooriſh, merchants, came to exchange their coffee and Indian cotton for our corn; yet notwithſtanding this quiet ſubmiſſion of the ſuperior claſſes, the maſs of the nation, from an error in their religion, and the dread of the beys, were ſtill againſt us."

Whilſt theſe acquiſitions in Upper Egypt were ſecured by the point of the bayonet, the general in chief, Bonaparte, had marched with his diviſion of the main army into Syria and Paleſtine, where he had defeated the mamalukes and Arabs under Ibrahim Bey, and had ſtormed and taken the city of Jaffa, the ancient *Joppa* of our ſcripture hiſtory. Owing to its rocky and ſhelving coaſt, Jaffa is at all times ſecure from an immediate attack by ſea; and being defended on the land ſide by a ſtone wall, provided at certain diſtances with alternate ſquare and round towers, it made a moſt obſtinate reſiſtance to the French troops, obliging them to break ground, and to erect batteries againſt it to the ſouthward; and it was not until a breach had been effected, that the forces under Bonaparte could make any impreſſion; after which he gallantly ſtormed and carried the place. But we are ſorry to record, that the laurels thus nobly acquired, were tarniſhed by a conduct more cruel, baſe, and unmanly, than ever diſgraced the ſavage war of either Indies, or the unrelenting tyranny of Robeſpierre. In cold blood, Bonaparte is ſaid to have cauſed near four thouſand of the wretched inhabitants of Jaffa to be maſſacred, in reſentment of their obſtinate reſiſtance; and becauſe the ſick and wounded of the French army were in ſuch numbers at Jaffa, and dreading the fatal ravages of the plague among his troops, he is ſaid to have cauſed upwards of five hundred of his unfortunate diſeaſed countrymen to be put to death, by poiſon! The French troops held poſſeſſion of Jaffa forty days, during which time it underwent a complete pillage; and the ſoldiers, not content with foreing the women and female children, afterwards robbed them of the trifling ornaments which decorated their heads, necks, and ears; moſtly conſiſting of coins, ſuch as paras, ſequins, piaſtres, &c. Bonaparte had it next in contemplation to attack and ſtorm the city of Jeruſalem, ſituated about twenty miles from Jaffa; and he was heard vauntingly to declare, "that ſhould he obtain poſſeſſion of the holy city, he would plant the tree of liberty on the ſpot on which the croſs of Jeſus ſtood; and would bury the firſt Frenchman who ſhould fall in the attack, in the ſepulchre of our Saviour." But the threatening ravages of the plague, the prevailing ſickneſs of his army, and the want of many neceſſaries, deterred the Corſican hero, for the preſent, from purſuing the conqueſt of Paleſtine. Having returned to Cairo, Bonaparte employed himſelf in arranging the details of the adminiſtration of Lower Egypt; and eſtabliſhed lazarettos to oblige every ſhip that came from infected countries, to perform quarantine. He alſo commanded workſhops to be conſtructed at Gizeh, for furniſhing different materials for the army; formed an adminiſtration for coining money; and publiſhed tables of the relative value of French and Egyptian currency.

Thus did the ſubjugation of all Egypt appear to be complete, though a dreadful deſtiny had befallen the fleet which conveyed thither this ſucceſsful commander. On the 1ſt of Auguſt, the Britiſh admiral, Nelſon, who had received the command of a conſiderable number of ſhips, appeared off the mouth of the Nile, and made diſpoſitions for attacking the enemy. The French fleet, which conſiſted of one ſhip of one hundred and twenty guns, three of eighty, and nine of ſeventy-four, beſides others of ſmaller ſize, was at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. The admiral placed them as near the ſhore as poſſible, in a ſtrong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and many gun-boats, and protected in the van by a battery. By one of thoſe daring and ſkilful

manœuvres, which diſtinguiſh the commanders of the Britiſh navy, the Engliſh admiral having penetrated with the half of his ſquadron between the French fleet and the ſhore, placed the enemy between two fires, and commenced the attack. At ſun-ſet the action began, and ſoon appeared to be in favour of the Engliſh. Both parties fought with great ſpirit and bravery. Bruyes, the French admiral, was deprived of his life by a ball; and, in the ſpace of an hour after, his ſhip, l'Orient, took fire, and blew up with a dreadful exploſion. This event decided the victory. The Engliſh took nine ſail of the line, and another was burnt by order of her commander. This important victory, which will ever appear with luſtre in the annals of hiſtory, deſtroyed the whole naval force of the French in the Mediterranean, inſulated the army of Egypt from their country, and precluded all means of obtaining ſupplies from France.

Thus left to the reſources of his own invention, Bonaparte continued his civil and military operations with wonderful activity. At Belbeis and Salahieh forts and redoubts were conſtructed, which might reſiſt the attacks of the enemy, on the ſide of Syria; and plans were projected for the better defence of Alexandria and the city of Cairo. A national inſtitute was eſtabliſhed, ſome of whoſe objects were the purification of ſalt-petre; the conſtruction of wind and water mills, which ſerved for the purpoſe of raiſing the water into ciſterns, on account of its acquiring a brackiſh taſte by lying on the ground, and alſo for the grinding of corn; the compoſition of bread; and a preparation of fermented liquors, as a ſubſtitute for wine; beſides natural hiſtory, arts, antiquities, and other reſearches of ſcience and literature. The ſhieks of different provinces were alſo convened, who diſcuſſed with calmneſs and dignity certain topics of juriſprudence and political œconomy. As the feſtival of the anniverſary of the French republic happened at this period, theſe Egyptian ſages joined in the celebration, which took place at Cairo with great ſolemnity, notwithſtanding the deſtruction of their fleet. By ſuch courteous manners, Bonaparte endeavoured to obtain the confidence of the native Egyptians, which a continuance of victories over the beys and mamelukes, their oppreſſors, had ſeemed to confirm.

But it being rumoured at Cairo, that the grand ſignior, Selim III. had diſpatched a numerous army againſt the French invaders of Egypt, an inſurrection broke out; in the firſt commotions of which general Dupuis, the commandant of the city, and ſeveral ſoldiers, were maſſacred. The houſe of general Caffarelli was beſieged by the inhabitants, and taken, and all that had defended it were put to death. The French, however, recovering from their ſurprize, made a ſtrong and ſpeedy reſiſtance; their cannon was pointed in every direction; and the Turks and Arabs, who compoſed the maſs of the revolt, were ſoon put to flight, and compelled to ſeek refuge in their moſques and temples. Theſe they conſidered as ſafe and inviolable aſylums, becauſe the French had never preſumed to enter them, from a regard to the religious uſages and opinions of the people, to which the commander in chief had jeſuitically affected to be a convert, as his proclamations evince. Bonaparte ſummoned the inſurgents to deliver up their principals in the revolt; but the Turks refuſing, the moſques were forced, and every ſoul periſhed.

This revolt rather ſerved to confirm the power and influence of Bonaparte. The native Egyptians were not concerned in inſurrection; and the Greeks, who had hitherto remained neuter, joined the French. This was deemed by the general a favourable opportunity for publiſhing the declaration of war, made againſt him by the Ottoman Porte; and, having ſecured the continuance of internal tranquillity, he prepared for extending his conqueſts; or, to uſe his own language, "*for the further deliverance and regeneration of the eaſtern world.*"

England, however, could not endure the eſtabliſhment of a French colony in Egypt, ſo near and hoſtile to her Eaſt India territories, and had therefore combined with Selim III. emperor of the Turks, in a plan of general attack, which was intended to expel the French from their conqueſts and uſurpations. The preparations were made in Syria, and committed to the care of the pacha Djezzar, who was to traverſe Aſia Minor, and to attack Egypt with a powerful army. At the ſame time a ſtrong diverſion was to be made towards the mouths of the Nile, and by the troops of Mourad Bey in Upper Egypt, united to the other hoſtile parties. Whilſt Bonaparte was diſtantly employed with the members of the inſtitute, in making ſurveys of the canal of Suez, of which veſtiges were found ſtill remaining, he was informed of the preparations and movements of Djezzar, whom the grand ſignior had now appointed pacha of Egypt. He reſolved, therefore, to march into Syria, with an army of thirteen thouſand men, and to attack the enemy before they ſhould have time to commence offenſive operations. During this abſence of Bonaparte, general Dugua was charged with the command of Cairo; general Menou was ſtationed at Roſetta; and general Almeyras at Damietta, the fortifications of which he had orders to repair. General Marmont was entruſted with the command of Alexandria, which became daily of more importance, and was threatened both by the Engliſh, and the plague. General Deſaix ſtill continued with his detachment of troops in Upper Egypt, endeavouring, by redoubled diligence and activity, to keep in awe the mamalukes, and to prevent Mourad Bey from taking advantage of the expedition into Syria.

On the 17th of March, 1799, part of the French army croſſed the river, which runs within fifteen hundred yards of the walls of Acre, during the night. A bridge being erected early next morning, the remainder of the troops paſſed over, and aſcending the heights which command the place, beheld the town prepared for a ſiege, and, to their no ſmall chagrin and aſtoniſhment, diſcerned the Engliſh colours flying in the harbour.

St. Jean d'Acre, ſo celebrated during the time of the cruſades, at this moment contained within its walls two ſingular men, who, with the romantic heroiſm of the days of chivalry, united all the knowledge appertaining to the modern art of war. Sir W. Sidney Smith, after attaining the rank of poſt-captain in the Britiſh navy, had offered his ſervices to the king of Sweden, and conducted himſelf with ſuch bravery during an action with the Ruſſian fleet, that the croſs of the order of the Sword was conferred upon him by Guſtavus III. The war with France ſoon after afforded new opportunities of diſtinguiſhing himſelf, and it was to his care that lord Hood had entruſted the deſtruction of the fleet in the port of Toulon. Become a priſoner to the French, in conſequence of an exertion of perſonal bravery, he was immured within the walls of the Temple, and every attempt for his exchange or enlargement rejected; at length, however, the gates were thrown open, his liberty procured, and his return to England facilitated, by means that favour of romance rather than of hiſtory. Appointed to the command of a ſmall ſquadron, the commodore repaired to Conſtantinople; formed a treaty of alliance with the Ottoman Porte, in conjunction with his brother, then ambaſſador there; and after procuring the liberation of a number of French priſoners, repaired to Egypt. While a Turkiſh army was preparing to ſail for the eaſt, he endeavoured to defer the expedition to Syria by bombarding Alexandria; and when he found that the army was preparing to croſs the deſert, Phellippeaux was ſent to the aſſiſtance of the intimidated pacha. This officer, bred in the ſame academy with Bonaparte, and the companion of his ſtudies and his amuſements, had taken a different ſide in politics. Attached to the monarchy from principle, he had emigrated on the annihilation of the throne, and appeared in arms in favour of his prince, but againſt his country. It was he who, at the riſk of his life,

life, had rescued his friend sir Sidney from bondage, and restored him to his liberty. After accompanying him to the Levant, he had been sent into Syria, and had employed all his talents as an engineer in fortifying Acre, so as to resist the efforts of his school-fellow, now become one of the most renowned captains of his age.

The commodore, who had arrived but two days before the French, on perceiving the works in such a formidable state of defence, contributed, along with Phellippeaux, to soothe the fears and encourage the hopes of the pacha, who, perceiving the enemy victorious every where, had determined to abandon his palace, and carry his women and his treasure with him to a place of safety. But no sooner did he perceive that he was so ably supported, than Djezzar determined to stand a siege, and participate in the glory of stopping the career of the conqueror. Nor was he mistaken either in respect to the industry or the talents of his new allies; for the English squadron, in the course of the next day, discovered, in the neighbourhood of mount Carmel, a corvette and nine sail of gun-boats laden with artillery and ammunition, intended to assist in the reduction of Acre. Seven vessels belonging to this flotilla, containing all the battering train, were captured: and this fortunate incident contributed greatly to save the city, as well as to harass the invaders; for the prizes, being manned with British sailors, were anchored near the town, and employed in impeding the enemy's approaches, while the cannon were mounted on the ramparts, so as to annoy that army for which they were intended to ensure a certain triumph.

In the mean time the French had encamped before Acre, and the generals Dommartin and Cafarelli, after carefully reconnoitring the works, were of opinion, that the front of the saliant angle on the east side was the proper point of attack. It soon became evident, however, notwithstanding the acknowledged talents of the commander in chief and the number of able engineers in the army, that but little pains had been taken to ascertain the nature of the works; for in rushing forward it was discovered, that a ditch of fifteen feet was to be passed, while the counterscarp was almost untouched, and the breach, which was not large, had been effected upwards of six feet above the level of the works. Notwithstanding these obstacles, a body of grenadiers, headed by an officer belonging to the staff, descended into the ditch, and attempted to ascend; but their leader was shot, and it being discovered that the only effect produced by the late explosion was a small opening in the glacis, nothing could be achieved. The garrison was at first seized with terror, and many of the besieged ran towards the harbour; however, it was no sooner discovered that the opening in the wall was several feet above the rubbish, than they returned to the charge, and showered down stones, grenades, and combustibles, upon the assailants, who were obliged to retire, after losing two adjutants-general, and a great number of men. This event afforded so much encouragement to the troops of the pacha, that they sallied forth a few days after, April 5, and killed several of the besiegers, among whom was an officer of rank. Djezzar also dispersed his firmans among the Naplousians, as well as the towns in the Saïd, and sent presents at the same time to Damascus, and even as far as Aleppo, requesting the true believers to rise on purpose to overwhelm the infidels, who were destitute of artillery.

In the mean time, the British squadron was forced by the equinoctial gales to abandon the unsheltered anchorage in the bay of Acre, and the French being emboldened, and the Turks dispirited, by its absence, the assailants pushed on their approaches to the counterscarp, part of which they blew up, and even succeeded in making a lodgement in the north-east angle of the town-wall, whence they proceeded to undermine the tower, on purpose to increase the breach. Notwithstanding colonel Phellippeaux had by this time mounted all the prize-guns, and the besiegers were forced to slacken their fire, yet on the return of the squadron it was deemed proper to make another sally on the 7th, in the course of which the British seamen and marines were to force their way into the mine, while the Turks attacked the trenches to the right and left. But although the noise of the latter prevented the possibility of surprise, an English officer, who was desperately wounded upon this occasion, entered the aperture at the head of a body of pikemen, after which the retreat was effected without much loss, in consequence of the fire from the Theseus; while the Mussulmans, according to their usual barbarous practice, were more active in collecting heads than in annoying the enemy.

But it was not only with Acre that Bonaparte had to contend, for all the neighbouring districts were now in arms; and the Samaritan Arabs pushed their audacity so far, as to make incursions even into his camp. On this he was obliged to dispatch, first the general of brigade Junot, and then Kleber, against the enemy, whom he was determined to drive across the Jordan. He accordingly reinforced the former detachment by means of a thousand infantry and a regiment of cavalry under Murat, and soon after set out himself to assume the command. Having repaired through Fouli, along the passes of the mountains, he at length (April 16) perceived Kleber's division, consisting of two thousand Frenchmen, fighting with, and nearly encircled by, upwards of twenty thousand horse. On this he immediately formed his infantry and cavalry into three squares, with a design to annoy the assailants, cut off their retreat towards Jenny, where their magazines were established, and drive them before him in the direction of the river, on the banks of which they would be overwhelmed by Murat. He accordingly detached the adjutant-general Leturq with the cavalry and two pieces of cannon against the Mameluke camp, which he descried at some distance, while general Rampon was ordered to take the enemy in flank, and general Vial to intercept them in their flight. No sooner did Kleber receive intimation by the discharge of a twelve-pounder that he was about to be succoured, than he immediately attacked and carried the village of Fouli with the bayonet; after this he charged the cavalry, which had been already thrown into confusion by the French horse under Rampon, and obliged them, after experiencing much loss, to retire behind mount Tabor. While Bonaparte was burning the Naplousian villages, and killing such of the inhabitants as had appeared in arms against him, general Murat chased the Turks from Jacob's Bridge, and surprised the son of the governor of Damascus; Leturq at the same time seized on the camp of the mamalukes, and brought away five hundred camels, with all their provisions; so that the barbarians, unacquainted with the nature of combined movements, were astonished to find themselves beaten at the same moment along a line of twenty-seven miles by an inferior body of the enemy.

On his return to the army before Acre, the commander in chief pushed on the siege, and at length beheld the completion of the mine destined to destroy the tower, which had so long withstood all his efforts; but, on setting fire to it, the operation was found to be incomplete. Although one of the angles of the wall was carried away, the breach proved to be as impracticable as before; notwithstanding the repeated efforts of the besiegers, a lodgement could not be effected, and some of their best officers were either killed or wounded upon this occasion. The garrison, invigorated by the presence of the English, and defended by the skill of Phellippeaux, who unfortunately perished soon after, had by this time erected cavaliers, and constructed two places of arms, together with batteries, so contrived as to flank the tower, and produce all the advantages arising from a cross fire; a counter-attack was also attempted under ground, on purpose to drive the besiegers from their galleries. At length rear-admiral Pérée having reached Jaffa, disembarked nine pieces of artillery, consisting of twenty-four and eighteen pounders; these having been mounted, were

immediately employed to batter in breach, after which a fourth attempt was made to enter by aſſault; but by this time the Theſeus was moored on one ſide and the Tigre on the other, ſo as to flank the town walls, while two advanced ravelins, occupied by their marines, precluded the advance of the aſſailants, by pouring in ſuch a tremendous fire as to render their deſperate valour unavailing.

Bonaparte now gave orders to change the plan of operations, and effect a new breach in the eaſtern curtain, by means of a ſap and a mine, which was to blow up the counterſcarp; but the enemy not only diſcovered his intentions, but, by making approaches under ground, entered the gallery, deſtroyed the frame-work, and counteracted all the operations. It therefore became neceſſary to direct the attack once more againſt the tower, and a freſh attempt to effect a lodgement in the glacis proved as ineffectual as before. Even gunpowder began to fail, and the troops, hitherto always victorious, began to loſe their confidence and audacity. In the midſt of theſe diſaſters, about forty ſail of Turkiſh veſſels from Rhodes and the neighbouring iſlands, under the command of Haſſan Bey, made their appearance, with a ſupply of proviſions, ammunition, and a reinforcement of ſoldiers. Knowing that the landing of freſh troops would be productive of great diſadvantages to the beſiegers, the French general determined to anticipate that event, by a new and ſtill more deſperate attempt to ſtorm the place. The neceſſary orders were accordingly given, and at ten o'clock at night the two places of arms and the approach to the glacis were carried, and a lodgement completely effected. The generals Bon, Vial, and Rampon, advanced upon this occaſion at the head of their demi-brigades; and ſo great was the number of the ſlain, that the dead ſerved as a cover to the living. A ſupply of gunpowder having arrived at the ſame time from Ghazah, the tower and curtain were battered once more; and the latter having fallen, Bonaparte repaired thither and ordered an aſſault: on which the general of brigade Rambaud, ſupported by general Laſnes, ruſhed forward with the grenadiers, two hundred of whom actually entered the town through the breach. But their progreſs was ſoon arreſted by the fire from the houſes, the barricadoes, and the palace of Djezzar; the ſabre and poniard of the Turks were alſo employed with effect; and ſuch inceſſant diſcharges were poured in upon them in front, flank, and rear, that they were obliged not only to abandon two pieces of cannon and a couple of mortars which they had ſeized, but to withdraw as faſt as poſſible. The conduct of the Engliſh upon this occaſion fully entitled them to the gratitude of their allies. While Djezzar was ſitting in a conſpicuous place, ſurrounded by the mutilated members of the aſſailants, and by turns rewarding ſuch as brought him heads and diſtributing muſket-cartridges, they were buſily employed in preſerving his reſidence and himſelf from deſtruction. One petty officer did great execution with an eighteen-pounder, mounted in the light-houſe caſtle; another ſuperintended a twenty-four-pounder, placed on the north ravelin; and both, by reiterated diſcharges of grape, ſwept away the head of the attacking column, which, like that of the hydra, was renewed only to be cut off again. In the mean time the center was aſſailed by a couple of ſixty-eight-pound carronades, mounted in two gerues near the mole, whence ſhells were thrown with ſuch preciſion, as to annoy the advancing foe, and render a nearer approach fatal. Nor was this all; for ſir Sidney Smith, after haſtening the arrival of the boats, placed himſelf at the head of Haſſan Bey's troops, and ruſhed on with them to the breach; he alſo found means to overcome the moſt ſtubborn maxims of oriental jealouſy, and actually obtained permiſſion to introduce the Chiffilik regiment, diſciplined under ſultan Selim's own eye, into the garden of the ſeraglio, whence they ſallied out and took the aſſailants in flank.

Bonaparte, burning with rage and ſhame, had now placed himſelf on an eminence, called Richard Cœur de Lion's mount, where he was ſeen ſurrounded by his generals, to whom he appeared to indicate by his geſticulations the neceſſity of renewing the attack. Accordingly, a little before ſun-ſet, a maſſive column was deſcried deſcending to the breach, which was now wide enough to admit fifty men abreaſt. On this occaſion a ſtratagem of war, adopted at the inſtance of the pacha, proved eminently ſucceſsful; for a certain number of the enemy having been allowed to approach, they were immediately attacked on their entering Djezzar's garden; and on this occaſion the ſword and dagger of the beſieged appears to have proved more than a match for the ſcrewed bayonet of the aſſailants. It was in vain that general Laſnes attempted to rally the fugitives, for he himſelf was wounded by a muſket-ſhot near the wall; while Rambaud periſhed in the city, of which he vainly imagined that he had obtained poſſeſſion. A few days after this, with a zeal expreſſive of temerity rather than of true courage, the French commander ordered a new aſſault to be given; but the troops ſelected for the occaſion refuſed to mount the fatal breach over the putrid bodies of their unburied countrymen. On hearing this, the grenadiers of the twenty-firſt demi-brigade ſolicited and obtained the honour of ſtorming the place: on advancing for this purpoſe it was diſcovered, however, that the enemy had completed three lines of defence, which it became impoſſible to carry; ſo that after an uſeleſs maſſacre, in the courſe of which general Bon, adjutant-general Fowler, and one of Bonaparte's aides-de-camp, were killed, and ſeveral officers ſeverely wounded, a retreat was beaten, and the diſcomfited volunteers returned to the camp.

In proportion as the troops relaxed in their zeal, and the capture of Acre became dubious, chagrin and deſpair began to be viſible in the face and actions of Bonaparte, who for the firſt time in his life beheld himſelf foiled, and that too by a town ſcarcely defenſible according to the rules of art; while the ſurrounding hills were crowned by a multitude of armed ſpectators, who waited the reſult of the conteſt on purpoſe to declare for the victor. Nor was this all; for the intelligence received from Cairo was far from being conſolatory. Although the capital and the principal cities had remained tranquil, the mamalukes began to give uneaſineſs; and the provinces of Beniſouef, Charkié, and Bahire, had been in a ſtate of inſurrection. A wandering Arabian tribe, from the heart of Africa, had at the ſame time made inroads into Gizeh; the kiaya of Egypt, although elevated by the French to the important ſtation of emir hadjy, or commander of the caravan to Mecca, had declared againſt them; while, to complete the whole, an impoſtor, who gave himſelf out to be the angel El Mahdi, announced in the Koran, had collected a number of followers, and carried ſeveral poſts. The plague, too, had by this time got into the French camp, and ſeven hundred men had already fallen martyrs to that terrible malady: in ſhort, an immediate retreat was now become neceſſary; and Bonaparte, after having beſieged Acre during ſixty days, and ſent notice to Cairo that he would return a conqueror, was forced to evacuate his lines and retire like a fugitive, on the 20th of May.

The laſt moments of his ſtay were dedicated to revenge; for, not content as formerly to direct his artillery againſt the fortifications, he gave orders to deſtroy an aqueduct, bombarded all the principal edifices in the city, and endeavoured to reduce the palace of Djezzar to a heap of ruins. But, on the other hand, Bonaparte, although diſcomfited and overwhelmed with calamities, never appeared greater than upon this critical occaſion. He began by publiſhing a proclamation to his troops, in which he ſtated the exploits performed by them during this ſhort campaign. Having traverſed the deſerts which ſeparate Africa from Aſia with greater rapidity than an Arab tribe, they deſtroyed, he ſaid, on mount Tabor, the army intended for the invaſion of Egypt; while the Turkiſh ſquadron, which ſailed for the defence of the capital of

Djezzar,

Djezzar, had been intended for the ſiege of Alexandria. "After having carried on the war with a handful of men during three months in the heart of Syria, taken forty cannon, fifty ſtand of colours, made ſix thouſand priſoners, and demoliſhed the fortifications of Ghazah, Jaffa, Caiffa, and Acre," adds he, "we are about to return. But a few days more, and you might have ſeized the pacha in the midſt of his palace; however, at this critical ſeaſon the capture of Acre is not worth the time that would have been ſpent before it."

After blowing up the fortifications of Jaffa and Ghazah, and inflicting a terrible vengeance on thoſe who had defended their country againſt the invaders, the French paſſed over the deſert (where it was imagined they would have periſhed), and, inſtead of entering Cairo like a vanquiſhed army, were received as victors by the inhabitants, who, ignorant of recent events, had prepared triumphal arches to celebrate their return. Unabaſhed by his late check, and unintimidated by the ſiniſtrous communications of a ſoldiery who had ſo lately murmured againſt, and even menaced, their chief, Bonaparte diſtributed recompences to ſome, inflicted marks of ignominy on others, and ſo far regained the confidence of all, that in the courſe of a few days they offered to encounter new toils and new dangers in Egypt, under a commander whom they were on the point of ſacrificing to their reſentments in Syria.

Meantime, Seid Muſtapha Pacha aſſembled at Rhodes the Ottoman troops deſtined for the attack of Alexandria; European officers were appointed to direct the details of this enterprize; and the combined Engliſh and Turkiſh fleets failed unoppoſed for the coaſt of Egypt. The movements of the mamalukes and Arabs indicated the projects of the allies, and the approach of their armament. Bonaparte had been called to the aid of general Deſaix in oppoſing Mourad Bey near the pyramids of Gizeh, where he received intelligence from Alexandria, that a Turkiſh fleet of one hundred ſail had anchored in the road of Aboukir, from which the Turks had landed three thouſand men, with artillery, on the ſhore of the peninſula, and carried the fort by ſtorm. All the generals commanding detachments of troops, which were in motion, were now ordered to march towards the place of landing, and to make Rhamanieh the place of rendezvous, where the army ſoon after aſſembled.

Having attacked the French garriſon, and obtained poſſeſſion of Fort Aboukir, the Turks began to entrench themſelves, and to form magazines. Their force, which increaſed daily, was eſtimated at ten thouſand men, and they appeared to be waiting for greater reinforcements, and for the junction of Mourad Bey, in order to inveſt the city of Alexandria. Bonaparte, perceiving that the enemy intended to fortify and maintain themſelves in the peninſula, determined immediately to attack them; and having marched his troops to the wells between Alexandria and Aboukir, and received information reſpecting the poſition of the Turks, he formed his plan of engagement. Muſtapha Pacha defended the entrance of the peninſula by two lines of troops, and by entrenchments, which were ſtill imperfect. The centre of his forces occupied the redoubt, which had been taken from the French at the moment of landing, and ſince converted into an entrenchment. The attack of Bonaparte was deſperate and dreadful. By a ſkilful manœuvre, two thouſand Turks were diſlodged and ſurrounded, and periſhed by the fire of the enemy, or were drowned. After ſuffering various repulſes, the French, ſeizing the moment when the Turkiſh forces ſallied from their entrenchments, attacked the redoubt and carried it. In vain did Muſtapha Pacha endeavour, by every poſſible effort, to rally his troops, which were now forced on every point. The Turks fled on all ſides, and threw themſelves into the ſea; the greater part could not reach the veſſels, which were moored too far off, and they periſhed in the waves; the remainder of the army, with Muſtapha Pacha, was ſurrounded and made priſoners, with the exception only of a few hundred men. The fort of Aboukir, after a bombardment of eight days, again ſurrendered to the French; and the ſon of the pacha, and two thouſand men, threw down their arms, and were made priſoners of war. This victory over the Turks was attended with conſiderable loſs to the French, who had a great number killed and wounded. After this ſanguinary battle, Egypt for a moment became tranquil; the forts and the batteries on the coaſt were well armed and proviſioned; and the mamalukes and beys were in an obvious conſternation. Bonaparte, weighing well this momentary advantage, but foreſeeing the ſpeedy ſubverſion of his plan, left a letter, containing the nomination of Kleber to the chief command in Lower, and of Deſaix to that in Upper Egypt, and ſecretly ſailed for France. In the directions given, however, to general Kleber, he was inſtructed to negociate with the Ottoman court, which Bonaparte had himſelf commenced; and which proves that the commander in chief did not conſider Egypt as tenable, after the deſtruction of his fleet by lord Nelſon, and the abſolute nullity of the French marine.

After various conferences and correſpondence between Kleber and ſir Sidney Smith, at the deſire of the grand ſeignor, it was agreed that the French army ſhould embark with their ſhips, arms, baggage, and effects, and be tranſported to France, as well in its own veſſels, as in others to be furniſhed by the Porte. This treaty was ſigned at El-Ariſch. But the court of London, after the deciſive advantages it had gained, and the freſh levies it had ſent out under ſir Ralph Abercrombie and admiral lord Keith, conſiſting of a well-appointed army of 13,330 effective troops, with a fleet to cover its operations, could not, in compliment to the Ottoman Porte, ſuffer the enemy's ſhips and veſſels to be given up, nor other requiſitions ſubmitted to, which, under ſuch circumſtances, it was unreaſonable for a capitulating army to expect. Theſe reſolutions of the Britiſh court, being forwarded by lord Keith from on-board the Foudroyant to ſir Sidney Smith, were immediately communicated to general Kleber; who feeling indignant at this unexpected turn of affairs, reſolved to fight till the very laſt, for which he prepared his troops by reading to them the new propoſitions of lord Keith, and animadverting on the duplicity of the Turks, who were collected in great force near Heliopolis, for the purpoſe of laying ſiege to Cairo. The French army partook of the indignation of their general; and, without more delay, haſtened to attack the grand vizier, who, expecting peace, was totally unprepared for ſuch an aſſault. Both armies, however, being drawn out in order of battle, a furious and dreadful engagement enſued. The Turks, after long reſiſtance, were ultimately thrown into diſorder, and their whole army, conſiſting of forty thouſand men, as ſtated by the French general Reynier, betook themſelves to flight in all directions; their camp was abandoned; and the rout became general. The Turks had eight thouſand men killed or wounded, whilſt the loſs of the French, whoſe army amounted only to fifteen thouſand, was comparatively ſmall. After the battle, as the French were carleſsly returning into Cairo, elated with the laurels they had juſt acquired, Ibrahim Bey, at the head of three thouſand choſen mamalukes, fell unexpectedly on their rear, and penetrated into the very heart of the city, making great ſlaughter among the French, and expecting to be joined by the diſaffected inhabitants. Here he maintained a long and deſperate conteſt with the victorious Kleber; but at length, overpowered with numbers, he retreated, and rejoined the diſcomfited troops of the grand vizier. Kleber now puniſhed the cruelties which, during his abſence, had been inflicted by the inhabitants on the friends and partizans of the French.

After the battle of Heliopolis, or the Pyramids, the French army ſeemed to be ſurrounded with the moſt brilliant circumſtances. Kleber formed the Greeks and Copts into battalions, whom he trained to the uſe of arms, and

clothed in the uniform of his country. But juſt as the ſuperior abilities of this German commander had thus began to unfold themſelves, he was ſtabbed whilſt walking on his terrace in Cairo, and his blood ſtill marks the railing againſt which he ſtaggered. The aſſaſſination of an officer ſo generally beloved, ſo much reſpected and eſteemed by all parties, enemies as well as friends, appears a myſtery which even time itſelf may never unravel. His body was conveyed to France, with the ſkeleton of the aſſaſſin. This wretched ſlave, Solyman el Aleppi, was impaled alive, and lived in that ſtate for three days. Neither in the cutting off his hand, nor the dreadful operation which humanity and manhood revolt at, did he betray the leaſt fear: his only cry was for water, and occaſionally a bitter curſe againſt thoſe who had perſuaded him into a confeſſion, under the promiſe of a pardon. It has been ſuppoſed that Kleber's aſſaſſination reſulted from the private revenge of ſome of the principal inhabitants, in conſequence of the recent puniſhments he had inflicted.

The chief command of the French army now devolved upon general Menou; who being fully aware of the ſerious attack that was about to be made upon him, adopted every meaſure that prudence and valour could dictate, for the ſafety of his army, and the defence of Egypt. At length the Engliſh fleet appeared making for Aboukir Bay; and on March 2, 1801, it came to anchor exactly where the glorious battle of the Nile was fought in 1798. On the 8th of March, ſir Ralph Abercrombie gave orders for landing the troops, which was effected in flat-bottomed boats, under a ſevere and continued fire from the enemy. The ſoldiers were ordered to ſit down on the bottom, holding their firelocks between their knees. All the boats in the fleet were employed; yet only five thouſand troops could at firſt be landed; and theſe were penned up ſo cloſe as to be unable to move, and expoſed to a galling and deſtructive fire, without the power of returning it, or of taking any meaſures of defence. Numbers of the Engliſh now periſhed, being ſhot in the boats, or bayonetted in the act of ſtepping out; for the enemy lined the water's edge, and diſputed every inch of ground. But a landing could not be effected without ſuch a ſacrifice. The carnage continued for about twenty minutes; when the French finding their exertions ineffectual, they fell back, and retreated along the banks of lake Mahadie, now called the lake of Aboukir. The force that oppoſed conſiſted of about 2500 men, under the command of general Friant, commandant of Alexandria; who loſt upwards of four hundred men in killed, wounded, and taken. The loſs of ſir Ralph Abercrombie was ſix hundred and fifty-two, in killed, wounded, and miſſing; excluſive of thoſe of the navy. The reſidue of the Engliſh army was now landed without moleſtation, and preparations made for offenſive operations. The French, having augmented their force, took a ſtrong poſition at the extremity of an open ſpace, defended by a range of hills, upon which they formed their line; defended by a numerous artillery, and rendered ſtill more formidable by the aid of heavy cannon taken from the works of Alexandria. On the morning of the 13th of March, it was determined to attempt driving the enemy from this ſtrong poſition. As the Engliſh advanced, the French commenced a very deſtructive fire from their artillery, which enfilading the depths of the Britiſh columns, made prodigious havoc. The enemy, taking advantage of this ſucceſs, came down from the heights, and began a cloſe engagement. Their numerous cavalry made a ſpirited and impetuous charge upon the nineteenth regiment, who, with the coolneſs and intrepidity of veterans, received them unbroken on the points of their bayonets. The French were then obliged to retreat, having received a well-directed volley as they wheeled about, which brought numbers to the ground. Their attacks on other parts of the line were attended with no better ſucceſs, being repulſed in every quarter. As the French retreated, the Engliſh ſlowly advanced; and at four o'clock took up the poſition on the heights which the French had occupied in the morning. In this action the Engliſh loſt 1300 men in killed and wounded, and had near 14,000 troops in the field; they took four pieces of cannon, and one howitzer. The French in this affair conſiſted only of between ſix and ſeven thouſand men, commanded by general Lanuſſe, who loſt about ſeven hundred in killed and wounded. Conſidering the advantages poſſeſſed by the French, the victory of this day was highly honourable to the aſſailants, notwithſtanding their ſuperiority of number, and conſequent greater loſs. The French retreated under the works of Alexandria, and loſt no time in fortifying their poſition, and providing againſt a ſiege, which they were convinced was now near at hand. General Menou had not yet arrived from Cairo. He had been obliged to cooperate with the army of Upper Egypt, in an attack upon Mourad Bey, whom Deſaix had now determined finally to conquer, or periſh in the attempt. The French armies had in conſequence ſucceeded in hemming up the mamalukes, and placing Mourad between two fires, whereby his deſtiny became inevitable; yet he made a moſt heroic reſiſtance; ſuch as became a ſuperior politician, and a great general. Finding all was loſt, he offered to capitulate upon terms of amity with the French, provided he might be reinſtated in a part of Upper Egypt. Deſaix, with the generoſity of a true conqueror, met the mamaluke chief on his own terms, admired and praiſed his military prowеſs and ardour, and aſſigned him and his own private mamalukes the diſtrict he ſolicited, under a ſolemn engagement of their becoming friends to the French.

In the mean while ſir Ralph Abercrombie puſhed on the Engliſh army to a choſen poſition nearer Alexandria, and in ſight of the French camp on the heights of Nicopolis. The poſition thus choſen for the Britiſh, croſſed the great road from Alexandria to Aboukir, having their right wing towards the ſea, near what is called the Roman camp, and their left oppoſite the point of the lake Aboukir or Mahadie. This poſition ſir Ralph Abercrombie proceeded to fortify with the utmoſt alacrity. Various and contradictory reports of Menou's movements were circulated; and among others, that he had formed a junction with Lanuſſe, with a reinforcement of eight thouſand men. Very little credit was unfortunately given to this rumour; and ſtill leſs apprehenſion entertained of his attacking the poſition, which was fortified with two redoubts, though not yet finiſhed, for they were ſtill open in the rear, one on the right wing, in front of the old ruins of Kafr Kiaſera, or caſtle of the Cæſars, mounting two twenty-four-pounders; another along the canal on the left, with one twelve-pounder; and ſeveral ſmall flêches, with one or two guns, occaſionally diſpoſed at intervals along the front of the line. Such was the ſtate and poſition of the Engliſh, on the 20th of March. On the 21ſt, at half paſt three in the morning, the troops were getting under arms, when they were alarmed by a ſmart fire of muſquetry proceeding from the fartheſt flêche toward the left wing. This was conceived to be nothing more than a feint; for ſir Ralph Abercrombie was yet ignorant of the junction of all the French forces at Alexandria. However, on the firing continuing for ſome time, with now and then a cannon ſhot, brigadier-general Stuart was actually on his march with his brigade, to ſupport the point attacked, when he was ſtopped by a very heavy fire both of cannon and muſquetry, which haſtily commenced on the right. In this falſe attack on the left, the enemy, rapidly advancing, entered a ſmall flêche at the ſame time with the out centinels. They immediately turned the twelve-pounder, which was mounted in it, upon the Engliſh, and had actually fired one ſhot from it, when a redoubt in the rear of this flêche opening its fire upon them, they quickly retreated, carrying off with them three officers, one ſergeant, and ten rank and file of the fifth brigade. They had one officer and four privates killed in the flêche, but took away their wounded.

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The French, thinking to have drawn every attention to the left, had haſtily advanced with their whole body, after having driven in the picquets. Their object, as it afterward appeared, was firſt by a ſudden and ſpirited attack to turn and overthrow the reſerve, which by its advanced poſition was ſeparated a little from the reſt of the army. This accompliſhed, their next aim was to force the center with their united troops; and, while the attention of the left was fully occupied by the falſe attack, the whole force of their cavalry, in which they were very ſtrong, was to avail itſelf of a favourable opportunity, and, by an impetuous charge, drive all before them into lake Aboukir, thus at one blow deciding the conteſt. For this purpoſe, general Lanuſſe's diviſion, forming their left wing, advanced boldly againſt the right of the Britiſh line; general Sylly's brigade marched ſtraight upon the redoubt; while another, under general Valentin, proceeded along the ſea-ſide, to penetrate between it and the old ruins. General Sylly's brigade took poſſeſſion of a ſmall redan, in which there was a gun; but ſtaggered by the heavy fire from the redoubt, was obliged to fall back. The brigade moving along the ſea was ſtopped in its progreſs by the fire from the old ruins, which were defended by the twenty-third and fifty-eighth regiments, and the flank companies of the fortieth. Still attempting to force its way between them and the redoubt, the ſixty-ninth French demi-brigade was taken in flank by one of the twenty-four-pounders loaded with grape, and nearly exterminated. On this the remainder of the corps refuſed to advance; when general Lanuſſe, uſing his utmoſt efforts to rally them, and bring them to the charge, had his thigh carried off by a cannon ſhot. Complete confuſion then enſued, and a general diſperſion of this column took place. General Sylly's troops, not being able to clear the ditch of the redoubt, attempted to turn it, but were repulſed with great loſs by the ſpirited oppoſition of the twenty-eighth regiment poſted in it.

While this was paſſing on the right of the line, general Rampont's diviſion made an attack on the center, extending as far towards the left as the ninety-ſecond. It attempted to turn the left of the brigade of guards, which was a little advanced; but was received with ſo warm and ſteady a fire from the third regiment of guards, whoſe left was thrown back, and from the royals, as to be forced, after a ſharp conteſt, to retreat with great loſs. General Deſtin, with his diviſion, penetrated through the hollow, leaving the redoubt on his left, and endeavoured to reach the old ruins. He was there warmly received by the forty-ſecond, and attempted to withdraw his troops; but a battalion of the twenty-firſt demi-brigade having advanced too far, was ſurrounded, and obliged to lay down its arms, and ſurrender to the forty-ſecond and fifty-eighth regiments. Repulſed in every quarter with the ſame obſtinate reſolution, and finding it impoſſible to penetrate through any part of the Britiſh line, the French infantry at length gave way, and diſperſed in all directions behind the ſand-hills.

At this juncture the French general in chief, Menou, foiled in all his attempts, determined to make one laſt deſperate effort at carrying the Engliſh camp. For this purpoſe he ordered the main body of the cavalry, under brigadier-general Roize, to charge; and general Regnier, at the head of the diviſions of Lanuſſe, Rampont, Friant, and the eighty-fifth demi-brigade, to ſupport it. General Roize, convinced at once of the inutility and hazard of the attempt, twice remonſtrated; and it was only at the third peremptory order that he obeyed. Accordingly the third and fourteenth French dragoons, under general Bouſſart, came up with all the impetuous fury of men certain of being ſacrificed, and charged through the forty-ſecond regiment, reaching quite up to the tents. Here, however, they were effectually ſtopped; the horſes, entangled in the cords, were, for the moſt part, killed, and many of the men were obliged to ſeek their ſafety on foot. A circumſtance, too, as fortunate as it was unexpected, contributed alſo very materially to the overthrow of the French cavalry. The ground in the rear of the forty-ſecond was full of holes, between three and four feet deep. Theſe excavations had been made by the twenty-eighth regiment, as conveniencies to ſleep in, previous to the landing of the camp equipage. The enemy's cavalry, charging over theſe, was completely broken and routed. At this juncture the Minorca regiment came to ſupport the forty-ſecond, and drew up in the vacant ſpace between the redoubt and the guards. The ſecond line of French cavalry, compoſed of the fifteenth, eighteenth, and twentieth, dragoons, with general Roize at their head, made another deſperate charge upon theſe regiments. As it would have been impoſſible to withſtand the ſhock, they opened a line with the moſt deliberate compoſure to let them paſs; then, facing about, they poured upon them ſuch volleys, as brought numbers, both of men and horſes, to the ground. The cavalry now endeavoured to force its way back, but this they were unable to effect; and the greater part were killed or wounded in the attempt, general Roize himſelf falling on the ſpot. A flag, called the invincible ſtandard, covered with the military exploits of the corps to which it belonged, fell into the hands of the Minorca or Queen's German regiment. It was taken by a private, named Antony Lutz, for which he received a certificate from the adjutant-general, and the ſum of twenty dollars. This man, never having learned to write or read, was incapable of being made a ſergeant, to which poſt he would otherwiſe have been advanced. In the early part of the action, this ſtandard had been wreſted from the French by the forty-ſecond regiment; it was, however, unfortunately retaken from them, at the moment of the impetuous charge of the enemy's cavalry; which Lutz perceiving, cut his way to the officer who was carrying it off, ſhot him dead, and bore it back in triumph! The French infantry, unable to give any aſſiſtance, retired, after loſing a great number of men. General Beaudot was mortally wounded; and, when the broken remains of the cavalry formed again in the rear of their infantry, not one-fourth of thoſe who had charged could be collected.

It muſt have been at this period that the gallant ſir Ralph Abercrombie received the wound, which deprived Great Britain of that diſtinguiſhed and moſt able commander. It is impoſſible to aſcertain the exact moment, becauſe he never complained, or revealed the circumſtance of his being wounded to any one, till it was perceived by thoſe about him. No entreaty could even then prevail on him to leave the field, till convinced by his own eyes of the enemy's retreat, and of the victory gained by the troops he commanded. The loſs of the Engliſh amounted to 1,464 in killed, wounded, and miſſing; which, though very conſiderable, was ſlight when compared with that of the enemy, which, at a moderate calculation, muſt have amounted to four thouſand men, for no leſs than 1,160 were counted by the provoſt-marſhal left dead upon the field of battle, excluſive of thoſe within the French vedettes, which of courſe he could not reckon, and of which there were certainly many; generals Lanuſſe, Roize, and Beaudot, were killed; and generals Deſtin, Sylly, Eppler, and ſeveral other officers of rank, wounded. In the pocket-book of general Roize were found ſome intereſting papers, which proved that nearly the whole of the French army in Egypt was brought together by forced marches, to ſupport this battle, under a confident expectation of ſharing the ſpoils of the Britiſh camp. The whole force of the Engliſh in the field this memorable day, amounted to no more than 11,739 rank and file, whilſt the concentrated forces of the French amounted to upwards of twenty thouſand, as afterwards appeared by the returns of the capitulations of Cairo and Alexandria. In this engagement the Engliſh took 250 priſoners, two pieces of cannon, and one ſtandard. On the ſide of the Engliſh the commander in chief was mortally

tally wounded, and died in the night of the 28th of March; major-general Moore, brigadier-general Hope, adjutant-general to the army, and brigadiers-general Oakes, Lawſon, and ſir Sidney Smith, were likewiſe wounded.

At one time, during the engagement, the Engliſh were in the greateſt diſtreſs imaginable for want of ammunition; ſeveral guns were left with ſcarcely one round, and many regiments were in a ſimilar ſituation. This circumſtance was owing to the want of means of conveyance. Had it not been for this temporary deficiency, the loſs of the enemy would have been much more conſiderable. General Menou built his chief hopes of ſucceſs upon the ſudden overthrow of the right wing of the Britiſh, and the conſequent conſternation of the army; he therefore preferred making his approach while favoured by the night, that he might arrive cloſe and unperceived, and thus avoid the deſtructive fire of the entrenchments and gun-boats. In fact, the attack was as ſudden, as it was unexpected; and certainly put the Engliſh army under a fair trial of its native ſkill, unſhaken courage, and cool intrepidity. The Turks which had been landed from the capitan pacha's ſhips in the bay of Aboukir, remained in the rear during the whole action. When the danger was over, they paraded in front of the Britiſh lines with their numerous flags flying.

When ſir Ralph Abererombie had ſeen the enemy retreat, he attempted to get on horſeback; but his wound, which was probed and dreſſed in the field by an aſſiſtant ſurgeon of the guards, having become extremely ſtiff and painful, he could not mount, and reluctantly ſuffered himſelf to be placed upon a litter, from which he was removed into a boat, and carried on-board the Foudroyant. Here lord Keith received him with all poſſible affection, and every care and attention, which his ſtate required, were early paid him: but it was his enviable lot to die on the bed of honour. The command of the army in conſequence devolved upon major-general Hutchinſon. This able commander, aware of the advantages which muſt accrue from the poſſeſſion of Roſetta, as it would open the Nile, and enſure ſupplies, determined to make himſelf maſter of the place. To carry on the active operations of the army on the Roſetta ſide, it became neceſſary to ſecure the old poſition, as a means of acting on the defenſive, againſt any future attack. For this nothing could be of greater utility, than letting the waters of lake Mahadie or Aboukir, into the ancient bed of the Mareotis; as the left wing would thus be rendered more ſecure, ſince to turn it would become impracticable; and at the ſame time the gun-boats would be enabled to get in and annoy the enemy. The ſite of lake Mareotis had been accurately ſurveyed, and its level found to be nearly ten feet lower than that of Aboukir. It was therefore obvious, that by cutting through the canal of Alexandra, which was the only ſeparation between the two lakes, the water would flow in very copiouſly. Accordingly on the 12th of April, a numerous working party began to cut through the canal; and, on the 13th, the water ruſhed in with impetuoſity through ſeven channels made for the purpoſe, to the great joy of the whole army. The violence of the water, flowing in through the cuts in the canal, was ſo great, as not only to deſtroy every thing in its way, but to unite four cuts of the ſeven. By this the gap was rendered too wide to admit a bridge, and the communication was ſupported by means of boats ſtationed near the opening. This gave wonderful effect to the operations, and, on the 14th, the Britiſh troops entered the town of Roſetta without oppoſition. The French garriſon, compoſed of two battalions, abandoned it, and retreated acroſs the Nile to Fouah.

Rear-admiral ſir John Borlaſe Warren, with ſeven ſail of the line, joined lord Keith on the 22d, off Alexandria, after having chaſed the French ſquadron under Gantheaume, of which he loſt ſight in a fog. The fleet now conſiſted of eighteen ſhips of the line, including three Turkiſh men of war under the Capitan Bey, who landed 5000 troops; and 15,000 more were marching through the deſert from Jaffa, under the immediate command of the grand vizier, to join and co-operate with the Britiſh army.

Major-general Coote was left in command of the troops in the poſition before Alexandria, while general Hutchinſon proceeded with a detachment of the army in purſuit of general Lagrange, who had taken a ſtrong poſition at Elaſt, near El Hamed. On the 3d of May, ſir Sidney Smith arrived in camp from Roſetta. An Arab courier alſo arrived the ſame day with diſpatches from Oſman Bey Tambourgi, announcing the death of the celebrated Mourad Bey. This chief was on his way to join the Engliſh army, when the plague untimely cut him off. He was of an open, ſincere, and generous, character. When compelled to make peace with the French, he avowed that his only reaſon for it was his inability longer to continue the war. In his previous correſpondence he had aſſured the Engliſh general, that if his army ſhould advance towards Cairo, he would join him, but obſerved, that he dare not make a deciſive movement previouſly; and in a letter to ſir Sidney Smith, he wrote, "How can I be attached to the French? Have they not deprived me of my ſovereignty, my honour, and revenue? but it is on the Engliſh faith alone I muſt depend. The Turks have no right to my confidence." Alluding to the hoſtility of the Turks againſt him, and the unnatural inveteracy of people profeſſing the ſame faith, he beautifully expreſſes himſelf, "Melancholy is it to reflect, that the arrow which has ſtuck in the eagle's wing, was an arrow made of an eagle's feather." He was ſeized with the plague, whilſt gradually deſcending the Nile, on the 22d of April, 1801. Twice in the former part of his life he had been cured of this malady, but his conſtitution was latterly impaired by his anxieties. The mamalukes that year had ſuffered ſeverely from the plague; for in Upper Egypt it had raged ſo violently, as to deſtroy ſixty thouſand people, and forty thouſand in Cairo were attacked with it. On his death-bed Mourad charged Oſman Bey Tambourgi, whom he had recommended to Ibrahim Bey as his ſucceſſor, to attach himſelf to the Engliſh. The beys and mamalukes all ſincerely regretted the death of this extraordinary perſonage; and when they buried him at Saouague, near Tahta, they paid the compliment to his valour of breaking his ſabre into his grave, as an expreſſion that none of them was worthy after him to wear his arms. Mourad Bey had fought for his independence as long as there was a proſpect of ſucceſs; but, deſerted by his allies, and preſſed by general Deſaix, he had no other alternative than to be driven from the whole of his government, or compromiſe for a part; and he judiciouſly choſe the moment to treat, when his means ſtill made his alliance deſirable to the French; but he never was, in heart, reconciled to them: his religion and pride forbad the friendſhip, independent of other motives. The following anecdote is related, as the cauſe of his laſt perſonal inveteracy againſt them. Some French officers of rank aſſembled at the houſe of the wife of Mourad Bey, who was the widow of the great Ali Bey, and who entertained them with all the hoſpitality ſhe could poſſibly manifeſt. When they retired, ſhe preſented the young Beauharnois with a ring of conſiderable value. A few days afterwards a contribution was laid on her property, of far greater extent than her proportion had previouſly been fixed at, and much beyond her means to pay. On complaint being made, ſhe received for anſwer, "that as it was underſtood ſhe ſtill poſſeſſed very coſtly ornaments, no mitigation could be pleaded." This exaction appeared to be founded on the preſent ſhe had ſo generouſly, but, as it proved, imprudently, given to the relative of Bonaparte, with the motive of ſhewing honour to that general. As ſuch it was conſidered as the groſſeſt breach of faith and hoſpitality, nor could Mourad Bey ever ſpeak of the tranſaction without the bitterest expreſſions of indignation.

Denon,

Denon, who made the campaign of Upper Egypt with general Deſaix, has given the following portrait of this celebrated mamaluke chief: "Calm amidſt all his misfortunes, this Egyptian Fabius, knowing well how to unite a patient courage with all the reſources of active policy, had calculated his means, and knew how to appreciate juſtly their effects, amidſt the various occurrences of a diſaſterous war. Although he had to oppoſe at the ſame time a foreign enemy, and all the rival pretenſions of his jealous equals, he continued to preſerve a firm authority over his party, by taking his full ſhare of the privations brought upon them by their rapid marches, and their defeats: he was become their only rallying point, the ruler of their deſtiny, and of all their movements; and commanded them as abſolutely as in the times of his greateſt proſperity. By long experience he had learnt the great art of accommodating himſelf to the times; nor did he chooſe by a vain bravado to put all to hazard: he knew that the weaker party ought to make this uſe of their misfortune, and fight only with the ſcythe of time; and when no longer able to command events, that true ſkill conſiſts in ſo far yielding to them, as hence to derive the means of carrying on a more active oppoſition. By this fertility in reſources Mourad Bey ſhewed himſelf an adverſary worthy of Deſaix: nor can it be decided whether the ingenious and reiterated attacks of the one, or the circumſpect reſiſtance of the other, are the moſt to be admired."

On the approach of the detachment of the army under major-general Hutchinſon to Elaft, general Lagrange retired toward Rahmanieh with his corps, conſiſting of nearly 4500 men, 900 of which were the flower of the French cavalry.

The inundation of the Mareotis having nearly reached its proper level, and the force of the current at the cut being much diminiſhed, major-general Coote, anxious both to ſecure his own poſition, and to annoy that of the enemy, got ſix gun-boats into this new lake. Alexandria was thus cut off from all communication with the interior, except through the deſert on the weſt.

On the 9th, major-general Hutchinſon moved forward from Elaft toward the enemy, who were poſted near the fort of Rahmanieh, behind the canal of Alexandria, which ran entirely along their front. Their cavalry was on the right, near the Nile, and their left was covered by a low fort mounting four guns. A detachment under colonel Stewart marched at five in the morning to attack the French at Deſſoug, while the main army was to attack them at Rahmanieh. A ſkirmiſh enſued, which ending greatly in favour of the Engliſh, Lagrange quitted the place, and retreated with all poſſible expedition toward Cairo. One hundred men, who were left in the fort of Rahmanieh, together with a number of ſick and invalids, ſurrendered the next day. A convoy of ſeventy germes, with proviſion, ammunition, and clothing, for the French troops, and about five thouſand pounds in money, alſo fell into the hands of the Engliſh. This convoy had come down the Nile from Cairo, paſſed through the canal of Menouf, and was proceeding to Rahmanieh, ignorant of the capture of the place. A ſmall detachment of French cavalry, conſiſting of three officers and forty men, going from Alexandria to Rahmanieh, were likewiſe made priſoners by a party of dragoons. They were going from Alexandria to Cairo, as an eſcort to one of general Beliard's aides-de-camp, charged with diſpatches from Menou. This party had ſlept at Demanhour the night before, and knew nothing of the capture of Rahmanieh.

On the 17th, an Arab arrived in general Hutchinſon's camp at Algam, with the intelligence, that a body of the enemy were moving on his right through the deſert, with the ſuppoſed intention of puſhing from Alexandria to join Lagrange, who had reached Cairo. In conſequence of this information, major-general Hutchinſon ordered brigadier-general Doyle to follow them into the deſert with the cavalry, and his own brigade; and major-general Cradock was directed to be prepared to give his ſupport in caſe of neceſſity. At one o'clock, brigadier-general Doyle, with the cavalry, not 250 in number, came up with the enemy, after a purſuit of ten miles through the heavy ſands; and the whole convoy, after ſome demur, ſurrendered without reſiſtance. This corps, which had been ſent to collect proviſion and forage in the province of Bahireh, conſiſted of two hundred of the French dromedary corps, ſixty-nine artillery men, 330 infantry, with one piece of cannon, and a ſtand of colours, and eſcorted a train of 460 camels. It left Alexandria on the 13th of May; but, finding moſt of the villages abandoned, and deſtitute of proviſion, the chief of brigade, Cavalier, determined to puſh for Cairo; not ſuſpecting that general Hutchinſon had yet left Rahmanieh, and was on his way for that place, when he perceived the Engliſh flotilla upon the Nile. Cavalier then attempted to penetrate into the deſert, where he was ſoon overtaken by general Doyle. The regiment of dromedaries had been a very uſeful corps to the French. It was compoſed of picked men, choſen from the whole army, who, mounted upon theſe ſwift animals, were employed in purſuing the Arabs through the deſert, and overtaking them where it would have been impoſſible for any other troops. Tribes of Arabs retiring into the deepeſt parts of the deſert, where they thought themſelves ſecure, were ſoon diſperſed by them, and their numerous flocks of ſheep, ſometimes as many as two or three thouſand, became the property of the captors, among whom the value was afterwards divided. By theſe means, ſeveral individuals of this corps had accumulated to the amount of forty or fifty thouſand livres, (ſixteen or twenty hundred guineas,) with which they were anxious to return to France. When attacked by a ſuperior force of Arabs, the men uſually diſmounted from their dromedaries, and making them lie down, placed themſelves behind them, the animal thus ſerving as a parapet to his rider, over which he fired in ſecurity. Since the period of general Hutchinſon's departure from before Alexandria, nearly one thouſand of the enemy had fallen into his hands, with the loſs only of four men killed, and eighteen wounded.

On the 19th of May a Turkiſh officer arrived at Algam, with the agreeable intelligence of a victory gained by the grand vizier over the French at El-Hanka, a village about ſix miles from Cairo. The Turkiſh chief had marched from Jaffa on the 25th of February, where the plague had carried off ſeveral thouſand of his troops. At Yabna he was reinforced by five hundred of Djezzar Pacha's troops, well armed and appointed, ſent as a proof of the Pacha's ſincerity and attachment to the Porte. After unavoidable delays attendant upon ſo ill-organized an army, the vizier advanced on the 12th of March, and on the 15th reached Gaza. On the 22d, Tahir Pacha, with a choſen corps of three thouſand cavalry, proceeded to El-Ariſh; and, on the 28th, the vizier moved forward for that place with his army, where he arrived on the 30th. On the 2d of April, the diviſion under Tahir Pacha, accompanied by captain Leake of the royal artillery, left El-Ariſh, and advanced toward Katieh and Tinieh. On the 5th he was followed by the ſecond diviſion, commanded by Mohammed Pacha, which was accompanied by captain Lacy of the engineers. The grand vizier, with the remaining part of his army, and the military miſſion under lieutenant-colonel Holloway, moved forward on the 19th; and, after a very arduous and haraſſing march of four days acroſs ſeventy miles of deſert, ill ſupplied with proviſions, water, and the neceſſary means of conveyance, arrived at Katieh. The road was ſtrewed with the dead bodies of men and cattle, and the average heat was from 105 to 112 degrees in the tents.

On the 8th of May the Turkiſh army reached Belbeis, where the grand vizier began to form magazines, of which he was in the utmoſt want, to put his diſorganized army into ſome kind of order; and to increaſe it with

Bedouine Arabs, mamalukes, and inhabitants of the country, allured to his ſtandard by the hope of plunder. In this poſition he entrenched himſelf, and avowed his fixed determination of waiting for the French under general Beliard, who, it was ſuppoſed, would march out of Cairo, to force him back into the deſert, before the arrival of the Britiſh forces to ſupport him. On the 30th, the vizier boldly ſent major Hope of the Britiſh artillery to ſummon the town of Cairo to ſurrender, previous to which ſome mamalukes and Turkiſh cavalry, forming his advanced patroles, had been ſlightly engaged in a ſkirmiſh with a party of French dragoons, near the village of Menayer.

General Beliard had been reinforced ſucceſſively at Cairo by general Donzelot from Upper Egypt, the garriſons of Salahieh, Belbeis, and Birket-el-Hadge, and general Lagrange's diviſion, which joined him on the 12th of May. Theſe troops, united with his own garriſon, made a body of upwards of eight thouſand men, excluſive of Greeks and Copts. With this force general Beliard determined to proceed to Belbeis, there to attack the grand vizier, and drive him back to Salahieh, before general Hutchinſon ſhould approach nearer Cairo. For this purpoſe he marched out on the 15th, with four thouſand infantry, one thouſand cavalry, and near thirty pieces of cannon. At night he halted at El-Menayer, after having repulſed the advanced patroles of the Turks. The grand vizier, informed of his approach, and wiſhing to anticipate his attack, ſent the Tahir Pacha, with about two thouſand cavalry, and a few pieces of cannon, to obſerve the enemy's motions. Before daybreak the Tahir Pacha's troops came up with the French advanced guard in a wood of date-trees. Both parties halted, and remained on their arms till daylight, when the Turks kept the French at bay till the main body of the vizier's army came up. A ſharp firing then enſued, the Turks firmly maintained their ground, and after an action, which laſted near eight hours, and during which the Ottoman cavalry greatly annoyed the French, general Beliard thought proper to retreat, but was not purſued. Such was the battle of El-Hanka, in which the loſs of the French did not amount to more than fifty killed and left on the ground; with perhaps two or three hundred wounded. That of the Turks muſt have been more conſiderable, on account of the great ſuperiority of the enemy in artillery. This victory, trifling as it may appear, was of great conſequence to future proſpects; it was the firſt the Turks had gained over the French; and it happened to be on the very ſpot where the ſame grand vizier had been defeated by general Kleber, in conſequence of reſcinding the treaty of El-Ariſh. On the 20th of May, the vizier's army was reinforced by the thirtieth and eighty-ninth regiments, and detachments of cavalry and artillery.

On the 21ſt of May, major-general Coote eſtabliſhed a poſt of two hundred infantry, twenty cavalry, and two field pieces, upon the canal of Alexandria, near Bedah. The brigade of guards furniſhed the detachment, which was commanded by colonel Turner of the third regiment The object of this poſt was to maintain an uninterrupted communication with Rahmanieh, Demanhour, and the interior of the country. By theſe means the camp-market was extremely well ſupplied; and the operations went on proſperouſly before Alexandria.

On the 24th, major-general Hutchinſon, with the capitan pacha, proceeded to wait on the grand vizier. At the diſtance of about five miles from Birchamps, he paſſed the Nile on a bridge of pontoons, thrown acroſs for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing an eaſy communication between the two armies. Five miles further north brought him to the advanced Turkiſh camp, commanded by Tahir Pacha, who ſo gallantly oppoſed the French in the wood of date-trees at the battle of El-Hanka. They proceeded in a long proceſſion to the vizier's tent. Here, in the midſt of oriental magnificence, and ſeated upon the moſt beautiful embroidered cuſhions, they found his highneſs. Around him were all the principal commanders of his army. The venerable mamaluke chief, Ibrahim Bey, the Reis Effendi, Mahomet Pacha of Jeruſalem, Tahir Pacha, and the Beer Bachis, were preſent. Chairs were provided for the Engliſh officers, who alone were permitted to ſit in the preſence of the grand vizier. After the uſual routine of civility and ſalutations, coffee, ſweetmeats, the never-omitted pipes, &c. the general took his leave, and retired to a very ſuperb tent provided for him; and a guard of honour, compoſed of janiſſaries, and one of the vizier's chief men, were ſtationed about his perſon. This was followed by a grand dinner, in the Turkiſh ſtile, at which the principal characters of the Ottoman empire were aſſembled. The vizier, about ſixty-ſix years of age, had the misfortune to loſe an eye, but has retained his ſituation ever ſince the year 1799, notwithſtanding the unfortunate battle of Heliopolis. The capitan Pacha diſplayed high military qualifications, which obtained him great renown in this campaign. The Reis Effendi, or principal ſecretary of the Turkiſh empire, is well known in England, where he was ſecretary to the Turkiſh embaſſy. His knowledge of European manners and politeneſs procured him the greateſt advantages in the intercourſe with the Engliſh army. The reaſon of the chief officers of the Ottoman empire, civil as well as military, accompanying the army, is, that the Porte, or court, is always ſuppoſed to be with it; and all orders of the ſultan are deemed to be iſſued by him from his ſtirrup. Such was the caſe in former wars, when the high-ſpirited ſultans commanded their armies in perſon.

On the 25th of May, major-general Hutchinſon attended a meeting of the divan, or council, in the vizier's tent; and, on June the 1ſt, Oſman Bey Tambourgi arrived with his mamalukes, and joined the main army. They appeared to be about twelve hundred in number; every individual ſuperbly mounted, and richly dreſſed. But the magnificence of the beys, and kiachefs or officers, was beyond any thing that can be conceived. They were lodged in ſpacious tents, divided in ſeveral apartments, the inſides lined with rich ſtuffs, and the floors covered with beautiful Turkey carpets.

On the 6th of June, a French veſſel, mounting ten guns, having on-board general Damas, and the chief of ordnance Daure, was brought into Aboukir bay. In the night of the 3d of May, generals Reynier and Damas, the chef Daure, with ſeveral other officers of rank, had been ſeized by force in their houſes at Alexandria, and conducted on-board two veſſels in the harbour. They ſailed on the 19th of that month; general Reynier, in the faſt ſailing brig Lodi, eluded the vigilance of the Engliſh cruizers; but the Good Union, having on-board the other officers above-named, was taken near Candia. What might have been general Menou's reaſon for this violent meaſure was not known, but it was ſuppoſed to have originated in a diſunion between him and thoſe officers, in conſequence of ſome circumſtances which took place in the battle of the 21ſt of March. The French ſquadron under Gantheaume, conſiſting of four ſail of the line, one frigate, one corvette, and five tranſports, had been off the coaſt for ſome days. The men of war had between three and four thouſand troops on-board, all very ſickly. This fleet had anchored, by miſtake, in Lacuſte bay, greatly to the weſtward of Alexandria; but Gantheaume, fearing the approach of lord Keith's fleet, which was in ſearch of him, cut his cables, and again ſtood off to ſea. The five tranſports were taken on the 7th, and brought into Aboukir bay. They had no troops on-board, but artiſts of all kinds, beſides floriſts, gardeners, ſeedſmen, &c. in a word, quite a ſmall colony. There was alſo a company of comedians for the Cairo theatre. The tranſports ſaid they had parted with the fleet at the diſtance of near eighty leagues from Alexandria, and came under convoy of the corvette l'Heliopolis. This ſhip ſucceeded in getting into the harbour of Alexandria.

andria. She carried no troops, but brought a ſupply of arms and ammunition, and the intelligence of an intended reinforcement in Gantheaume's ſquadron. Rear-admiral ſir Richard Bickerton, with three ſail of the line, beſide one Turkiſh man of war, went in purſuit of Gantheaume, while lord Keith, with the remainder of the fleet, erniized off the port of Alexandria.

Major-general Hutchinſon having now determined upon the ſiege of Cairo, in conjunction with the grand vizier, he marched his army to the ſouthward of the point of the Delta, and took up his ground near the village of Burtos on the 8th of June. In this poſition the whole force deſtined to act againſt Cairo was conſolidated. A free and eaſy communication was eſtabliſhed with the grand vizier's army, encamped at Charlahan, on the oppoſite bank of the Nile, by a bridge of pontoons. The Capitan Pacha's troops were in front of the Britiſh, and the mamalukes, under Oſman Bey Tambourgi, were in their rear. On the 10th, two hundred men of the eighty-ſixth regiment, under the command of colonel Lloyd, joined colonel Stewart's corps, which was attached to the vizier's army. Theſe men were the forerunners of a long-expected reinforcement from India. Lieutenant-colonel Lloyd had commenced his march from Suez on the 7th of June, having received orders from general Hutchinſon to that effect. On the 14th, major-general Hutchinſon moved about three miles in front to the village of Saael; and on the 16th advanced with his army to a poſition juſt out of reach of the ſhot of the enemy's works. The ſame day he was joined by the twenty-eighth and forty-ſecond regiments, who had marched from the camp before Alexandria in twelve days. The grand vizier alſo moved forward on the right bank of the Nile, to a parallel poſition, a little below the village of Demanhour. General Hutchinſon made another movement on the 21ſt, and inveſted the town of Gizeh, oppoſite to Grand Cairo. The vizier, following his motions, encamped cloſe to the enemy's advanced works on the other ſide of the river. Some ſlight ſkirmiſhing took place in the evening on both banks of the Nile, wherein the mamalukes greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. On the 22d of June, general Beliard, who commanded the French troops at Cairo, finding himſelf ſurrounded on all ſides, his communication with the interior part of the country entirely cut off, and without hopes of relief, ſent a flag of truce to general Hutchinſon, requeſting that he would agree to a conference between a French and an Engliſh officer, to treat for the evacuation of Cairo, and its dependencies. To this requeſt general Hutchinſon aſſented.

The conference continued till the 28th, when a convention was ſigned for the ſurrender of Cairo. By this convention the French were allowed ſeventeen days for the final evacuation of Cairo, and its dependencies. They were then to march down to Roſetta, with their arms, baggage, field artillery, &c. to be there embarked as ſoon as poſſible, but at the lateſt in fifty days from the ratification, on-board veſſels, to be furniſhed at the entire expence of the allied powers for ſending them to ſome French port. On the evening of the 28th, the combined powers took poſſeſſion of Gizeh and Cairo, where the Britiſh and Turkiſh colours were conjointly hoiſted. The French army which ſurrendered, amounted to 10,856 fighting men.

The ſiege of Alexandria next occupied the mind of general Hutchinſon, who very ſoon gave the neceſſary orders to the allied army to march on that ſervice. Rear-admiral ſir Richard Bickerton had returned on the 13th of June, and joined the fleet off Alexandria, without having ſeen or heard any thing of Gantheaume's ſquadron: it was ſuppoſed, therefore, to have gone back to Toulon. About this time the Monmouth man of war, with the Leda and Active frigates, arrived in Aboukir bay from England, with reinforcements of men and money; alſo a convoy of troops arrived from Malta, who had volunteered their ſervices for Egypt. On the 16th of July, diſpatches likewiſe arrived for general Hutchinſon, from major-general Baird, commander of the Indian troops, with the long-expected intelligence of his having reached Keneh on the Nile, (which the French had lately made their capital in Upper Egypt,) with a part of his army. The project of tranſporting a formidable body of troops from India to Egypt, through the Red Sea, was well conceived; and, in caſe of a more ſerious reſiſtance on the part of the enemy, would have proved extremely beneficial. We have mentioned the arrival of a ſmall portion of that force at Suez, under lieutenant-colonel Lloyd of the eighty-ſixth regiment. This corps had ſailed with rear-admiral Blanket to Suez, at an earlier period, from the coaſt of Malabar. The army from India, under the command of major-general Baird, did not all come from the ſame part, every preſidency furniſhing a certain quota; and had the whole of the intended force arrived in Egypt, it would have amounted to nearly ten thouſand men. This army was landed at Coſſir, and marched acroſs the deſert to Keneh, the former track of the French; and from the exceſſive heat, Mr. Dudley Rider, paymaſter-general, periſhed in the deſert, as did many of the troops. This army did not join until after the ſurrender of Alexandria.

On the 12th of Auguſt, orders were given for the inveſture of that city. The diviſion of troops to be employed on the weſt of Alexandria, was to be under the command of major-general Coote. The flotilla of gun-boats, conſiſting of twenty-four, ſailed up the inundation on the morning of the 13th, and anchored in a line abreaſt of that of the French. This poſition rendered the enemy's boats uſeleſs, and gave the Engliſh the entire command of the inundation. The reſerve under major-general Moore marched into the camp before Alexandria on the ſame day; but no regular plan of encampment was to take place, till major-general Coote's corps had gained their ſtation to the weſtward. The whole French line was under arms, and very vigilant, during the night of the 13th, as, from the ſailing of the gun-boats, arrival of troops, and other movements, general Menou was apprehenſive of an attack. When the troops had taken their ſtation to the weſtward of Alexandria, general Hutchinſon ordered an attack to be made along the whole of the enemy's front to the eaſtward of the town. This movement took place about four in the morning, and was intended not only to gain ground, but as a diverſion in favour of major-general Coote. The attack of a green hill, a little advanced on the right of the enemy's poſition, was confided to major-general Cradock; and the brigade under general Doyle was deſtined to carry it into execution. The thirtieth regiment was to march up to a ſmall redoubt on the right, and the fiftieth to another on the left; the ninety-ſecond remaining in a central poſition in the rear, to ſupport either, if neceſſary. The two battalions of the twentieth were alſo placed in ſuch a manner, as to be in readineſs to move up to any point required. On the left of the enemy there was a ſmall hill of ſand, called the Sugarloaf-hill; of this major-general Moore took poſſeſſion with very little reſiſtance; and thence he was enabled to reconnoitre the enemy's works. This poſition, however, it was not poſſible to retain, as it lay completely expoſed to the enemy's croſs fires, and from its ſize afforded little or no ſhelter. During theſe movements the French kept up a very warm and ſevere cannonade from their works. The manner in which their guns croſſed each other in every direction was truly wonderful, and gave an ample idea of the ſtrength and judicious plan of their extenſive lines.

Colonel Spencer, of the fortieth regiment, had volunteered his ſervices, and was actively employed with part of general Doyle's brigade. At five in the evening of the 18th, major-general Coote moved forward about two miles, without any other oppoſition than a few ſhots exchanged between his advanced guard and the enemy. He then took up his poſition in the following manner:

the guards extending acroſs the quarries in two lines, with their right to the inundation; and majors-general Ludlow and Finch's brigades, both formed fronting the ſea. At day-break on the 19th, major-general Coote opened a battery of two twelve-pounders, and two eight-inch howitzers, againſt the fort of Marabout. The Turks, under the Capitan Pacha, had formed a junction with general Hutchinſon, and encamped near the depôt on the 20th. On the 22d, major-general Coote determined immediately to move forward to attack the enemy, and take as advanced a poſition near the town of Alexandria, as prudence and ſecurity would permit. Accordingly, at break of day, all the troops were under arms, with the addition of 150 of the Lowenſtein riflemen, who had landed late at night from the eaſtward. The troops advanced at half after ſix, and the ſhips of war in the harbour, and the numerous gun-boats on the inundation, under captain Stevenſon of the royal navy, got under way at the ſame moment. The troops marched to meet the enemy, who was very ſtrongly poſted on a ridge of high rocky hills, having his right ſecured by the ſea, and by two heavy guns; and his left by the inundation, and two batteries containing three more guns of the ſame calibre. Beſide theſe, numerous pieces of flying artillery were placed in the intervals of his line. The Engliſh moved through the ground in three columns; the guards forming two upon the right, under major-general lord Cavan, near the inundation; and major-general Ludlow's brigade forming the third, upon the left, cloſe to the ſea, having the firſt battalion of the twenty-ſeventh regiment in advance. Major-general Finch's brigade compoſed a reſerve, and was deſtined to give ſupport wherever it might be required. In this manner the troops continued to move with the greateſt coolneſs and regularity, under a heavy fire of muſketry and cannon. As the Engliſh advanced, the French retreated; till cloſe under the works of the town. Here was a general halt, and the enemy gave no further diſturbance during the remainder of the day. The loſs of the Engliſh was trifling, when compared to the advantages gained. The loſs of the French, from the conſtant fire of the ſhips and gun-boats on both their flanks, added to that of the advancing troops, was evidently very conſiderable.

Information having been received that general Menou was preparing to attack major-general Coote in force, before the troops ordered to join him could arrive, the commander in chief directed a diverſion to be made in general Coote's favour along the eaſtern front of the enemy's line. Accordingly, at four in the morning of the 23d, the troops appeared in the plain at day-break; while the Turks, on the right, advanced and took poſſeſſion of the Sugarloaf-hill. The French immediately opened all their guns, by which five or ſix of the Britiſh were killed. Early in the morning colonel Spencer landed to the weſtward, with brigadier-general Blake's brigade, ſupported by a body of mamalukes. General Hutchinſon, with major-general Cradock, and the chief engineer, went round by the inundation to reconnoitre general Coote's, and the various other poſitions, which they highly approved. Ten or twelve ſhips of war, under the command of captain Stephenſon of the Diane, now entered the harbour, and formed in a line a-head, protecting general Coote's left flank. Thus every thing was completely ready for a general aſſault on the city of Alexandria, and every advantageous poſition ſecured, with the interruption only of ſome ſlight ſkirmiſhes, in which a few of the troops had been killed and wounded. The greateſt loſs was Achmed Bey, who was killed in reconnoitring the fort of Marabout.

The enemy was not inſenſible of theſe advantages gained; and at half after four in the evening of the 26th, an aid-de-camp of general Menou preſented himſelf with a letter, requeſting a ceſſation of hoſtilities, to give time for a capitulation. This was granted by general Hutchinſon; and, on the 2d of September, 1801, at twelve o'clock, the Engliſh army took poſſeſſion of the French lines. The Britiſh and Turkiſh flags were immediately hoiſted together, and the whole was conducted with the greateſt preciſion and regularity. The terms granted to the enemy were the ſame as had been extended to the garriſon of Cairo, and the number of effective troops which now ſurrendered, amounted to 10,508. In the harbour of Alexandria was taken one ſhip of ſixty-four guns, three frigates, two ſloops of war, and two hundred ſail of merchantmen.

It is a remarkable circumſtance, that, on the ſurrender of Alexandria, the French frigate la Juſtice fell into our hands; and that the capture of this ſhip completed the total annihilation of the fleet of admiral Brueys. Of the four ſail, which eſcaped under admiral Gantheaume, on the morning of the 2d of Auguſt, the Genereux, Guillaume Tell, and la Diane frigate, had been at different periods captured by the Britiſh cruizers; la Juſtice alone had, till this capitulation, ſurvived the defeat in Aboukir bay.

The following is an official return of the diſpoſal of the French army in Egypt, by the Britiſh forces:

	Military.	*Civil.*
Killed in the different actions, and dead of wounds	3,000	
Priſoners taken in battle, in the different convoys, and the garriſons of the forts	3,500	
The garriſon of Cairo, to which is to be added 500 deſerters, whom nothing could reſtrain from ſelling themſelves to become mamalukes, and excluded 760 auxiliaries embarked	13,672	82
The garriſon of Alexandria, including the marines doing duty, and about 200 auxiliaries	10,508	686
Soldiers dead by the plague and other maladies ſince the landing of the Engliſh	1,500	
Total	32,180	768

Thus ended the European war in Egypt, and thus terminated a campaign, which will for ever reflect the brighteſt glory on the army and navy of Great Britain, whoſe united exertions in ſo ſhort a period, annihilated an uſurpation as dangerous as it was unjuſt and unprecedented, and reſtored the ſovereignty of Egypt to its ancient conſtitution and government. That the policy of Bonaparte had led him to ſeize upon this rich and extenſive domain, with a view to reduce it to the ſtate of a French colony, there can no longer be a doubt; becauſe we have ſeen that a civil eſtabliſhment, with all the ſubordinate characters neceſſary for ſuch a purpoſe, was abſolutely aſſigned. The great object of this policy was not only the acquiſition of a rich territory "flowing with milk and honey," but it had in view a competitorſhip with Great Britain in her Eaſt-Indian commerce, and finally, perhaps, the ſeizure of Hindooſtan.

Weak minds are ſtruck with admiration and aſtoniſhment at the rapid progreſs of the French arms, and the blaze of glory attributed to Bonaparte, in having made a complete conqueſt of the whole territory of Upper and Lower Egypt, in the ſhort compaſs of only fourteen months! But this blaze will ſubſide, and all wonder vaniſh, the moment it is recollected that this vaſt conqueſt was made againſt an almoſt defenceleſs people, who were taken by ſurpriſe, who every where withdrew from the ſavage ſword of a northern depredator, who were worn down by inteſtine broils, and who had neither fortifications, nor troops, nor artillery, to oppoſe to the attacks and inroads of ſuch an unlooked-for enemy. The only ſtand that could be made, was heroically made by the undiſciplined mamalukes; and we have ſeen, that had their exertions been ſupported by an army of infantry verſed in European tactics, and put on an equal footing in point of ordnance, this conqueſt perhaps had never been

been attempted; or if it had, its completion would have been impoſſible. That we might reſt on this concluſion as the abſolute fact, will become evident on reflecting upon the complete reduction of theſe invincible French, who, though abſolute maſters of the country, and fortified up to the chin, were in a ſhort time compelled to ſubmi, and yield up all their conqueſts, to an army of little more than half their number, but as well diſciplined, and as invincible in courage. To prove likewiſe, beyond the power of contradiction, the defenceleſs ſtate of Egypt, and the facility with which this prey might have fallen to the lot of any deſcription of freebooters, we need only repeat, from the elegant and elaborate work of Vivant Denon, the friend and companion of Bonaparte, his deſcription of the eaſy acquiſition of Alexandria, the ſtate of its fortifications, and the panic of its inhabitants, to eſtabliſh the fact: "On the *fourth* day after our landing, (ſays Denon,) the commander in chief gave a ſupper, to which the members of the newly-conſtituted authorities were invited. They ſaw with equal ſurpriſe and admiration the martial elegance of our generals and the aſſemblage of officers, on whoſe countenances beamed health and vigour, glory and hope. They were ſtruck by the noble phyſiognomy of the commander in chief, the expreſſion of which ſeemed to augment his ſtature. The commotions which had taken place in the city on our arrival, had occaſioned the ſhutting up of the coffee-houſes, and other places of public amuſement. The more reſpectable inhabitants, not yet recovered from their aſtoniſhment at the ſudden events which had taken place, kept themſelves within doors; while our ſoldiers, heated by wine and by the climate, inſpired ſo much terror among the tradeſpeople and the lower claſſes, that they ſhut up their ſhops, and hid their females. This fine city, *where we ſaw no one but ourſelves*, appeared dull to us. The ſtate of the forts, baſtions, and fortifications, ſeemed to announce to the army that nothing could impede its progreſs, and that *it had only to march to victory*."

Caught by the flow of words in the declaration of the Firſt Conſul, "that his motive for the conqueſt of Egypt was *the deliverance and regeneration of the eaſtern world*," too many have been led to admire his unbounded philanthropy, and dignity of mind. But in what noble or moral act, are either of theſe to be found? Are we to look into the preſcriptive *right*, which ought to have been the firſt foundation, whereon to ſeek his excluſive claim to the ſovereignty and ſoil of Egypt? Does he found it upon any ancient plea of conqueſt gained by St. Louis, and attached to the throne of thoſe princes, whoſe power he has uſurped in France? or, by turning muſſulman, has he proved the conſanguinity exiſting between his race and that of the great Saladin? But were either or all of theſe points to be admitted, ſtill his ſeizure of Egypt would only be raiſing a modern uſurpation upon the ruins of an ancient one, without eſtabliſhing any better claim to the territory, than one buccaneer would have by driving out another, and thus converting the property of the rightful owner to his own uſe. In perfect uniſon with ſuch a right, has been the philanthropic conduct of Bonaparte. Where ever the affrighted Egyptians would pay the *miri*, or tribute, and raiſe contributions of ſupplies for the army, they were permitted to live; but where they dared to aſſume the common right of man, that of defending his own indefeaſible property, they were, in the words of Denon, "hunted down like wild beaſts inimical to ſociety." The ſame French author alſo recounts, but not without ſentiments of extreme horror, that thouſands of the defenceleſs inhabitants of various towns and villages were from time to time extirpated from the face of the earth, their houſes plundered, and their lands laid waſte! At Beneadi alone, twelve thouſand ſouls periſhed at once by the relentleſs ſwords of this regenerating army, merely becauſe Beneadi was conſidered as a "dangerous volcano, that was inceſſantly threatening them." The iſland of Philoë, at the extremity of Upper Egypt, ſhared a ſimilar fate. The peaceful inhabitants offered their ſupplies, but refuſed admiſſion to the French troops on their iſland, contending that Philoë was an Ethiopian territory, and not under the mamalukes of Egypt. "Theſe obſtinate people (ſays Denon) ſignified to us, that if we were to come there every day for two months ſucceſſively, they would never ſuffer us to land. But as it would have given a bad example to ſuffer them to brave us with ſuch inſolence ſo contiguous to our new eſtabliſhments, we reſolved the next day to make them change their tone. Accordingly the army, early in the morning, excited by the certainty of plunder, croſſed the channel, began the attack under cover of the artillery loaded with grape-ſhot, and quickly made a dreadful havoc among them. Terror and diſmay were ſeen on every ſide; men, women, and children, plunged promiſcuouſly into the river to eſcape by ſwimming, but where moſt of them periſhed: and ſtill preſerving their ferocious character, we ſaw mothers drowning their children whom they could not carry away, and mutilating the girls, to prevent their being enjoyed by the victors. I found one girl ſo brutally cut, as to prevent her from performing the moſt preſſing neceſſity of nature. In a word, the whole iſland was at once depopulated, and the miſerable inhabitants ſuffered by their obſtinacy a moſt ſerious and irreparable loſs, which a long ſucceſſion of years cannot retrieve. Our ſoldiers were now employed in ranſacking the houſes and emptying the ſtores, which afforded a ſeaſonable ſupply to the troops." Yet Denon has theſe ſingular exclamations: "O man! from what ſource do you draw your virtues, if ſuch ignoble paſſions lurk in the moſt honourable of all profeſſions, that of WARFARE! O war! thou art brilliant in hiſtory, but frightful when viewed with all thy attending horrors, naked, and undiſguiſed!" In ſhort it is manifeſt, from the facts ſtated by Denon himſelf, that the lives of no leſs than forty thouſand defenceleſs people were thus ſported with, and periſhed under the regenerating auſpices of the French army in Upper Egypt alone!

In Lower Egypt, the wanton waſte of human blood was immenſe! In none of the battles, dignified by the fine and emphatic titles beſtowed on them, were the French troops reſtrained from blood and carnage, though the wretched fugitives threw down their arms and implored for mercy. Does this conduct, this regard for moral obligation, favour of philanthropy and dignity of mind? And yet theſe are facts gloried in by the French hiſtorians, general Regnier, and Vivant Denon. But if ſuch relentleſs cruelties, exerciſed perhaps in the heat of action, and during the exultations of conſequent victory, are inglorious and brutal, in what light muſt we regard the man, or in what indignant words expreſs his baſeneſs, who could direct the horrid maſſacre of the innocent inhabitants of Jaffa, or the premeditated murder of his own ſick and diſeaſed countrymen? Yet ſuch a man is the invincible Bonaparte, the Firſt Conſul of France, the triumphant conqueror of Egypt, whoſe "countenance beamed with glory and hope, and whoſe noble phyſiognomy appeared to exalt his ſtature!" Unwilling as the mind of man may be to credit ſuch unheard-of acts of ſavage barbarity in a civilized and Chriſtian age, ſtill the evidence of truth is forced upon our ſenſes in ſo incontrovertible a manner, that in the ſame moment that our feelings would lead us to hope ſo ſhocking a report might be founded in malice and miſrepreſentation, we are conſtrained to admit the fact, becauſe not a doubt occurs to impeach the charge. Would we pauſe, and yet hope that this heavy charge might eventually be refuted, ſtill there is no defence—no denial of the fact—nor one friendly advocate to palliate or ſoften this deliberate act of human ſlaughter—the genuine offſpring of muſſulman ſtratagem, and ſavage policy. That unbiaſſed poſterity might be enabled to judge impartially of theſe facts, we ſhall here ſtate the particulars, as given by two moſt reſpectable writers; and in their own words.

Lieutenant.

Lieutenant-colonel Wilſon, in his Hiſtory of the Britiſh Expedition to Egypt, publiſhed in 1802, ſtates as follows: "Bonaparte having carried the town of Jaffa by aſſault, many of the garriſon were put to the ſword; but the greater part flying into the moſques, and imploring mercy from their purſuers, were granted their lives; and let it be well remembered, that an exaſperated army in the moment of revenge, when the laws of war juſtified the rage, yet heard the voice of pity, received its impreſſion and proudly refuſed to be any longer the executioners of an unreſiſting enemy. Soldiers of the Italian army, this is a laurel wreath worthy of your fame, a trophy of which the ſubſequent treaſon of an individual ſhall not deprive you!

"Three days afterwards, Bonaparte, who had expreſſed much reſentment at the compaſſion manifeſted by his troops, and determined to relieve himſelf from the maintenance and care of 3800 priſoners, ordered them to be marched to a riſing ground near Jaffa; where a diviſion of French infantry was formed againſt this defenceleſs multitude. When the Turks had entered into their fatal alignement, and the mournful preparations were completed, the ſignal-gun fired. Vollies of muſquetry and grape inſtantly played againſt them; and Bonaparte, who had been regarding the ſcene through a teleſcope, when he ſaw the ſmoke aſcending, could not reſtrain his joy, but broke out into exclamations of approval; indeed, he had juſt reaſon to dread the refuſal of his troops thus to diſhonour themſelves. Kleber had remonſtrated in the moſt ſtrenuous manner, and the officer who commanded (for the general to whom the diviſion belonged was abſent) even refuſed to execute the order without a written inſtruction; but Bonaparte was too cautious, and ſent Berthier to enforce obedience.

"When the Turks had all fallen, the French troops humanely endeavoured to put a period to the ſufferings of the wounded, but ſome time elapſed before the bayonet could finiſh what the fire had not deſtroyed, and probably many languiſhed days in agony. Several French officers, by whom theſe details are partly furniſhed, declared, that this was a ſcene, the retroſpect of which tormented their recollection, and that they could not reflect on it without horror, accuſtomed as they had been to ſights of cruelty.

"Theſe were the priſoners whom Aſſalini, in his very able work on the Plague, alludes to, when he ſays that for three days the Turks ſhewed no ſymptoms of that diſeaſe, and it was their putrifying remains which contributed to produce the peſtilential malady which he deſcribes as afterwards making ſuch ravages in the French army.

"Their bones ſtill lie in heaps, and are ſhewn to every traveller who arrives; nor can they be confounded with thoſe who periſhed in the aſſault, ſince this field of butchery lies more than a mile from the town.

"Such a fact ſhould not, however, be alleged without ſome proof, or leading circumſtance ſtronger than aſſertion, being produced to ſupport it; but there would be a want of generoſity in naming individuals, and branding them to the lateſt poſterity with infamy for obeying a command when their ſubmiſſion became an act of neceſſity, ſince the whole army did not mutiny againſt the execution; therefore to eſtabliſh further the authenticity of the relation, this only can at preſent be mentioned, that it was *Bonn's diviſion* which fired, and thus every one is afforded the opportunity of ſatisfying themſelves reſpecting the truth, by enquiring of officers ſerving in the different brigades compoſing this diviſion.

"The next circumſtance is of a nature which requires, indeed, the moſt particular details to eſtabliſh, ſince the idea can ſcarce be entertained that the commander of an army ſhould order his own countrymen (or if not immediately ſuch, thoſe amongſt whom he had been naturalized) to be deprived of exiſtence, when in a ſtate which required the kindeſt conſideration. But the annals of France record the frightful crimes of a Robeſpierre, a Carriere; and hiſtorical truth muſt now recite one equal to any which has blackened its page.

"Bonaparte, finding that his hoſpitals at Jaffa were crowded with ſick, ſent for a phyſician, whoſe name ſhould be inſcribed in letters of gold, but which, from important reaſons, cannot be here inſerted; on his arrival he entered into a long converſation with him reſpecting the danger of contagion, concluding at laſt with the remark, 'that ſomething muſt be done to remedy the evil, and that the deſtruction of the ſick at preſent in the hoſpital, was the only meaſure which could be adopted." The phyſician, alarmed at the propoſal, bold in the confidence of virtue and the cauſe of humanity, remonſtrated vehemently, repreſenting the cruelty as well as the atrocity of ſuch a murder; but, finding that Bonaparte perſevered and menaced, he indignantly left the tent, with this memorable obſervation: 'Neither my principles, nor the character of my profeſſion, will allow me to become a murderer; and, general, if ſuch qualities as you inſinuate are neceſſary to form a great man, I thank my God that I do not poſſeſs them.'

"Bonaparte was not to be diverted from his object by moral conſiderations; he perſevered, and found an apothecary, who (dreading the weight of power, but who ſince has made ſome atonement to his mind by unequivocally confeſſing the fact) conſented to become his agent, and to adminiſter poiſon to the ſick. Opium at night was diſtributed in gratifying food; the wretched unſuſpecting victims banqueted; and, in a few hours, five hundred and eighty ſoldiers, who had ſuffered ſo much for their country, periſhed, thus miſerably by the order of its idol.

"If a doubt ſhould ſtill exiſt as to the veracity of this ſtatement, let the members of the inſtitute at Cairo be aſked what paſſed in their ſitting after the return of Bonaparte from Syria; they will relate, that the ſame virtuous phyſician who refuſed to become the deſtroyer of thoſe committed to his protection, accuſed Bonaparte of high treaſon, in the full aſſembly, againſt the honour of France, her children, and humanity; that he entered into the full details of the poiſoning of the ſick, and the maſſacre of the garriſon, aggravating theſe crimes by charging Bonaparte with ſtrangling, previouſly at Roſetta, a number of French and Copts, who were ill of the plague; thus proving that this diſpoſal of his ſick was a premeditated plan, which he wiſhed to introduce into general practice. In vain Bonaparte attempted to juſtify himſelf; the members ſat petrified with terror, and almoſt doubted whether the ſcene paſſing before their eyes was not alluſion. Bonaparte pleaded that he ordered the garriſon to be deſtroyed, becauſe he had not proviſions to maintain them, or ſtrength enough to guard them; and that it was evident if they eſcaped, they would act againſt the French, ſince amongſt the priſoners were five hundred of the garriſon of El-Ariſh, who had promiſed not to ſerve again; and that he deſtroyed the ſick to prevent contagion, and ſave themſelves from falling into the hands of the Turks!"

"To thoſe who may imagine that my repreſentations of general Bonaparte's conduct, are improper at this moment to be brought forward, I muſt premiſe, that if they are concerned only for the character of that general, I am happy to afford them an occaſion to be better acquainted with this celebrated man, who, by his great fortune and uninterrupted career of victory, (with one exception of Acre, that glorious monument of Britiſh conduct,) has dazzled the underſtandings of the maſs of mankind, and prevented the reſults of thoſe enquiries having proper influence, which thoſe, with whom the opinions of the day do not paſs current, have inſtituted on his pretenſions to the admiration of poſterity.

"To thoſe whoſe motives of diſapprobation proceed from a regard for tranquillity, exciting the wiſh that a general amneſty of oblivion might be extended to the paſt, firſt I will ſay, that the diſſemination of this principle

ciple would tend to produce more wickedneſs in the world than has ever been yet committed; for what is there to intimidate ambition, in full poſſeſſion of power, but the pen of the hiſtorian? What can guarantee mankind from the atrocities of a liceutious deſpotiſm, but an aſſurance that the memory of great crimes is perpetuated in the records of hiſtory?

"If the charges are not founded, the man yet lives to exonerate his injured character. If he cannot refute them, then muſt he ſink into his grave loaded with the heavy weight of ſuch offences, and the miſerable preſcience that execration ſhall attach to his memory, inſtead of the fame he coveted."—Thus far lieutenant-colonel Wilſon, p. 74, &c.

Doctor William Wittman, phyſician to the royal artillery, in his Travels in Turkey, Syria, and Egypt, publiſhed in 1803, ſtates as follows: "It was probably owing to the obſtinate defence made by the Turks at Jaffa, that the French commander in chief was induced to give orders for the horrid maſſacre which ſucceeded. Four thouſand of the wretched inhabitants who had ſurrendered, and who had in vain implored the mercy of the conqueror, were, together with a part of the late Turkiſh garriſon of El-Ariſh, (amounting, it has been ſaid, to five or ſix hundred,) dragged out in cold blood, *four days after the French had obtained poſſeſſion of Jaffa*, to the ſand-hills, about a league diſtant, in the way to Gaza, and there moſt inhumanly put to death. I have ſeen the ſkeletons of theſe unfortunate victims, which lie ſcattered over the hills, a modern Golgotha, which remains a laſting diſgrace to a nation calling itſelf civilized. It would give pleaſure to the author of this work, as well as to every liberal mind, to hear theſe facts contradicted on ſubſtantial evidence. Indeed, I am ſorry to add, that the charge of cruelty againſt the French general does not reſt here. It having been reported that, previouſly to the retreat of the French army from Syria, their commander in chief had ordered all the French ſick at Jaffa to be poiſoned, I was led to make the enquiry, to which every one who ſhould have viſited the ſpot would naturally have been directed, reſpecting an act of ſuch ſingular, and it ſhould ſeem wanton, inhumanity. It concerns me to have to ſtate, not only that ſuch a circumſtance was poſitively aſcerted to have happened; but that, while in Egypt, an individual was pointed out to me, as having been the executioner of theſe diabolical commands."—See Dr. Wittman's Travels, 4to ed. p. 128.

In alluſion to this ſhocking event, the following paſſage might be aſcribed, taken from the work of the philoſophic Denon: "In marching we muſt abandon our wounded, *and give them up to certain deſtruction*—a moſt diſtreſſing circumſtance in all wars, and eſpecially in the ſavage conteſt in which we were now engaged!"

The reader will perhaps be leſs ſurprized at theſe atrocities, when he reflects that they were decreed by a man who had apoſtatized from the mild doctrines of the Chriſtian diſpenſation, to embrace the tenets of Mahomet. His own official documents eſtabliſh this fact: and having adopted the ideas, the ferocious character naturally follows. Read but the hiſtory of the Caliphate or Moſlem empire, and the maxims of the modern conqueror of Egypt will be found exemplified in almoſt every reign of the Saracen tyrants. And it may here be proper to remark, that the indecent treatment of lord Whitworth, the late Engliſh ambaſſador at Paris, probably aroſe from a ſpirit of revenge in the firſt conſul, who complained of the charges contained in lieutenant-colonel Wilſon's book, calling the work a *libel* on the French nation, and meanly requiring that the author ſhould be puniſhed, and the charges publicly retracted; without offering the ſmalleſt evidence to diſprove the fact. Thoſe, therefore, who have believed that the Maltanean war aroſe in great meaſure out of the reſentment of the firſt conſul on this occaſion, might not have adopted an entirely unfounded creed. The natural ferocity of the muſſulman character, may, in ſome meaſure, be appreciated from the following baſe and cruel tranſaction:

After the reſtoration of peace to the deſolated province of Egypt, it was the wiſh of general Hutchinſon to reſtore its civil government, and call back to their reſpective ſtations all thoſe under whoſe official departments it had been conducted. The extreme jealouſy of the Porte, however, in its anxious care once more to get firm hold of Egypt, had ſecretly determined on the extirpation of the preſent race of beys; the only men in the country who had made head againſt the common enemy. This political but ſanguinary meaſure was confided to the management of the grand vizier. On the 21ſt of October 1801, all the beys then in Alexandria, with the capitan pacha, were invited to dine on-board ſir Richard Bickerton's ſhip, then lying in the harbour. With this intention they were taken into the capitan pacha's barge; but while they were ſailing through the lake Mareotis, a cawouaſh, or meſſenger of ſtate, appeared on the ſhore, and hailing them, informed the capitan pacha that he had brought diſpatches of the utmoſt conſequence for him from Conſtantinople. Upon this the capitan pacha left the beys, and went away in a boat; after which, as they were paſſing under the ſtern of a Turkiſh gun-boat at anchor, a volley of muſketry was fired at them, and ſeveral boats full of men aſſailed them on every ſide. After a gallant and deſperate reſiſtance, rendered more furious by the idea of being treacherouſly ſacrificed, they were overpowered by numbers, and made priſoners. In the conteſt, Oſman Bey Tambourgi, Oſman Bey Aſcar, Mahomet Bey Maſice, and the black Caya Bey, were killed in the barge. Oſman Bey Berdici, and Solyman Aga, were very ſeverely wounded, but fortunately recovered. The ſurvivors were then taken and confined on-board the capitan pacha's ſhip, the Sultan Selim. Immediately upon the above tranſaction being made known to general Hutchinſon, he ordered brigadier-general Stuart, at the head of his regiment, and with guns and lighted matches, to proceed to the Turkiſh camp on the eaſtward of Alexandria, and to inſiſt upon the bodies of the beys being given up to the Britiſh. This, after ſome heſitation, was acceded to by the capitan pacha, and the remaining beys were liberated the next day, and ſent to Alexandria, where the bodies of thoſe who had been ſlain were buried by the Britiſh army, with all poſſible military honours. While theſe things were paſſing at Alexandria, the grand vizier, by preſents, and other demonſtrations of friendſhip, having lulled the mamaluke beys at Cairo into perfect ſecurity, he made, on the 20th of October, an attempt to ſeize them. Several of them thus fell treacherouſly into his hands; but Selim Bey, and a party of his officers and men, effected their eſcape. After innumerable hardſhips and difficulties, they arrived at Gizeh, where they were received and kindly treated by the commandant, colonel Ramſay. As ſoon as general Hutchinſon was made acquainted with this tranſaction, he diſpatched brigadier-general Stuart to the grand vizier, with a peremptory letter, inſiſting on the unconditional delivery of the beys, whom he kept priſoners in Cairo. This demand was, after ſome heſitation, complied with; and on the 16th of November the beys came into Gizeh, where they were placed under the protection of the Britiſh army. General Hutchinſon, after this ſcandalous behaviour of the grand vizier, determined to bring back the government to the ſtrict regulations formed for it by Solyman the Legiſlator, in 1521. He directed that the number of beys ſhould be augmented to their full complement of twenty-four; that the capitan pacha ſhould be the ſupreme preſident in the divan; that the new-elected beys ſhould be ſubject to his approval; and that he ſhould no longer remain a cypher in the ſtate, but have an army under his command, ſufficient to enforce his legal authority. Thus, at the commencement of the year 1802, the ſovereignty of Egypt was reſtored by the valour of the Britiſh arms, to its ancient privileges and

conſtitution, under the nominal dominion of the grand ſeignor.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.

It is generally agreed, that the remoteſt ſubjects of antiquity now exiſting in the world, are to be found in Upper Egypt, among the auguſt remains of the ſtupendous works of its primitive kings and prieſts; the firſt, perhaps, that were greatly eminent for civilization and an elegant expanſion of the human mind, from the days of Noah. That this country ſhould have been choſen as the primitive ſeat of the earlieſt monarchy of the earth, is no way ſurprizing, when we conſider its eligible ſituation: a luxuriant and extenſive vale, annually inundated by the fineſt river in the world, by which the moſt abundant harveſts are produced, almoſt without the labour of man. This land of plenty, eternally bleſſed with a clear and clement ſky, fell to the lot of the children of Ham, whoſe race were eſteemed a wiſe and learned people; Acts vii, 22: and ſo powerful and populous were they in the days of Amaſis, that this monarch is ſaid to have reigned over no leſs than thirty thouſand cities. Lower Egypt, from its ſituation on the coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea, having been from time to time expoſed to the deſolating hand of numberleſs invaders, affords but few objects of antiquity of a higher date than the eras of the Greek and Roman conqueſts. Our enquiries will, therefore, be primarily directed to the principal ſubjects of curioſity and reſearch in Upper Egypt. With this view, we have choſen to follow the perſevering ſteps of the ingenious Vivant Denon, an eminent artiſt, and a man of learning and intelligence; and who, diveſted of his natural partiality towards his countrymen, and the light and airy notions inſeparable from the conſtitution of a Frenchman, appears to be confeſſedly the moſt able, and indeed the only, hiſtorian of Upper Egypt, who has written from actual ſurvey and perſonal obſervation; delineating every part as he went, with the correct and faithful pencil of a connoiſſeur; whence his book is become of peculiar value, the fine paper copies and firſt impreſſions of which ſell in London for no leſs than thirty guineas each.

This enterpriſing traveller had firſt intended to accompany the Arabian caravan in its return from Cairo, with a view to explore the route of Tor, the ancient journey of the Iſraelites, in order to gain further information of the wonderful part of the expedition of Moſes, from the time of his departure from Memphis, the capital city of Pharoah, to his arrival at the deſert of Pharan. "Thus (ſays Denon) I ſhould have been able to viſit Mount Sinai, without a reſidence of forty years, and croſs a part of the world, the annals of which amount to the higheſt antiquity, the cradle of three religions, and the native country of three legiſlators, all deſcended from the family of Abraham, who have governed the opinions of the world. But ſo ſoon as I made my wiſhes known to the chief of the Arabs, he told me, that for all the gold in Egypt he would not undertake the care of me; that it would be riſking my life, and that of all the monks in Mount Sinai, and of every individual of his caravan; ſince two powerful tribes, the Ovatis and the Ayaidis, had vowed vengeance againſt the French, becauſe they had been aſſured that they devoured Arabs."

After this, general Deſaix being charged with the conqueſt of Upper Egypt, (ſee p. 329,) it afforded Denon a ſeaſonable opportunity of examining the claſſical documents of the ancient civilization and magnificence of the country, under the protection of a military eſcort, and with that ſafety and unity of plan, which had hitherto been denied to others, on account of the danger perpetually ariſing from thoſe everlaſting enemies to civilized man, the ferocious hords of the deſert. The army marched on this deſtination in the month of Auguſt 1798, and, after ſubduing the fertile territory of Feyyum, ſoon arrived at the height of Manſurah, on the frontier of the deſert. Here, quitting that incloſed and fruitful province, it came up with the enemy at Sedinam; and, having obtained its firſt victory, ſat down for a time at Beneſuef. On the left bank of the Nile, oppoſite Beneſeuf, the Arabian chain of mountains lowers, retires further off, and forms the valley of Araba, or the *chariots*, terminated by Mount Kolſun, rendered famous by the grottoes of two cenobite patriarchs, St. Anthony and St. Paul, the founders of the monaſtic order, and creators of this contemplative ſyſtem, ſo uſeleſs to mankind, but which has been ſo long reſpected by credulous people. On the ſoil which covers the two grottos, which theſe two hermit ſaints inhabited, two monaſteries ſtill exiſt, from one of which it is ſaid Mount Sinai, beyond the Red Sea, may be diſcerned. The mouth of this valley, towards the Nile, exhibits nothing but a dreary plain, the only cultivated part of which is a narrow ſlip of land on the bank of the river: ſome veſtiges of villages overwhelmed by the ſand may be diſcovered, and they preſent the afflicting ſight of daily devaſtation, produced by the continual encroachment of the deſert on the ſoil, inundated with ſand. Nothing can be more melancholy to the feelings, than to march over theſe ruined villages, to tread under foot the roofs of the houſes, and the tops of minarets; and to think that theſe were once cultivated fields, flouriſhing trees, and the habitations of man—every thing living has diſappeared, ſilence is within and around every wall, and the deſerted villages are like the dead, whoſe ſkeletons ſtrike with terror.

From hence we croſſed the canal, and arrived at Davalta, a fine village ſurrounded by a moſt beautiful country; for in Egypt, when nature is charming, it is ſo in ſpite of all that man can add to it, or of the detractors of Savary, who have quarrelled ſo much with his luxurious deſcriptions. Nature here, in the fertile parts, produces ſpontaneouſly groves of palms, under which flouriſh the orange-tree, the ſycamore, opuntia, banana, acacia, and pomegranate; and theſe trees form groups of the fineſt mixture of foliage and verdure; and, when theſe delightful thickets are ſurrounded, as far as the eye can reach, with fields covered with ripe dourra, with mature ſugar-canes, with fields of wheat, flax, and trefoil, which ſpread a downy carpet over the land, as the inundation retires; when, in the months of our European winter, we have before our eyes this rich proſpect of ſpring, which promiſes the abundance of ſummer, we may well ſay with Savary, that "nature has organiſed Egypt in a moſt aſtoniſhing manner, and that there only want woody hills, with brooks flowing down their declivities, and a government which would render the people induſtrious, and prevent the incurſion of the Bedouin robbers, to render it the beſt and moſt beautiful country on the face of the earth."—"Theſe reflections (ſays Denon) led me to conſider that the moſt intereſting of my travels were now to begin. I was going to break up, as it were, a new country; to be the firſt to ſee, and to ſee without prejudice; to make reſearches in a part of the earth hitherto covered with the veil of myſtery, and for two thouſand years ſhut out from the curioſity of Europeans. From the time of Herodotus to the preſent, every traveller in Egypt, following the ſteps of his predeceſſor, had only rapidly aſcended the Nile, not daring to loſe ſight of his boat, and only quitting the ſhore for a few hours to hurry a hundred yards off, and viſit with anxiety the neareſt objects. For every thing beyond the vicinity of the river, the oriental hiſtories alone had hitherto been conſulted. Eager, therefore, to aſcertain whether the arts had had an epoch and a chronology in this country, it was my anxious wiſh to haſten to Thebes."

If the priſtine arts were brought to maturity in Egypt, their remains were certainly to be ſought at Thebes, which had been the principal reſidence of its early kings; and if there were in reality epochs in the arts, the reſult of the firſt eſſays and rudiments muſt ſtill have their ſtrongeſt features in that city; luxury and magnificence having departed progreſſively from this firſt point of ſimplicity,

plicity, merely through the opulence and ſuperfluity by which they were accompanied. From a projecting ſpot on the ſide of the contiguous mountain, we all at once diſcover the ſite of this ancient metropolis in its whole extent: the famous city which Homer has characterized by the ſingle expreſſion of,—*with a hundred gates*; alike celebrated for the number of its kings whoſe wiſdom raiſed them to the rank of demi-gods; for laws which have been ever revered without being promulgated; by ſcience, involved in pompous hieroglyphical inſcriptions, the firſt monuments of ancient learning, which are ſtill ſpared by the hand of time; this once ſacred and renowned city, now ſurrounded with barbariſm, and made common again with the deſert, from which, in part, it had been firſt drawn forth; enveloped in the veil of myſtery, and the obſcurity of ages, whereby even its own coloſſal monuments are magnified to the imagination, and ſtill impreſs the mind with ſuch gigantic phantoms, that the French army, ſuddenly and with one accord, ſtood in amazement at the ſight of its ſcattered ruins, and clapped their hands with delight, as if the end and object of their march, and the complete conqueſt of Egypt, were accompliſhed and ſecured by taking poſſeſſion of the ſplendid remains of this ancient metropolis.

The ſcite and ſituation of the city of Thebes, the great Dioſpolis, is as fine as can well be imagined; and the immenſe extent of its ruins convinces the aſtoniſhed ſpectator that fame has not at all magnified its ſize; for the diameter of the vale of Egypt not being ſufficient to contain it on both ſides of the Nile, its monuments reſt upon the two chains of mountains which are its oppoſite boundaries; whilſt its tombs occupy the vallies towards the weſt, far on into the deſert.

Browne, who viſited this deſolated country in 1792, obſerves that "ancient Thebes, the capital of Egypt, the city of Jove, *the city with a hundred gates*, muſt inſpire every intelligent ſpectator with awe and admiration. Diffuſed in an extent of nine miles on each ſide the Nile, which is here three hundred yards wide, and reaching to the mountains on the eaſt and weſt, its circumference muſt have been at leaſt twenty-ſeven miles." Wiſhing to examine the Necropolis, or city of the dead, he applied to Mohammed Bey Elfi at Cairo for an authority ſo to do; but Elfi Bey informed him it would require a guard of twenty men to protect him from the wild Arabs, who inhabit thoſe ſubterranean abodes in common with the dead. "They are indeed a ferocious clan, (ſays this author,) differing in perſon from other Egyptians. They ſtand at the mouth of theſe tombs or dens, with ſpears twelve or fourteen feet in length, which are deadly weapons in their hands." Denon, aſſiſted by a detachment of French troops, ſeriouſly invaded theſe dark and diſmal caves, making large ſulphureous fires within the mouths of the tombs to force out the fugitives, or ſuffocate them on the ſpot.

"That the paſſage in Homer (ſays Mr. Browne) referred not to the gates of the city, muſt readily be allowed; yet it appears to me that Thebes was walled. From the ſituation of remains evidently of this nature, ſeen with a teleſcope at great diſtances in the directions of weſt and north, and another of equal diſtance to the ſouth, occupying exactly thoſe three cardinal points, led me to believe that theſe may have been three gates." Volney, in his Ruins of Empires, accounts ſtill more reaſonably for the appellation of Homer. He calls the city, "*Thebes with its hundred palaces*;" and adds the following note. "The idea of a city with a hundred gates, in the common acceptation of the word, is ſo abſurd, that I am aſtoniſhed the equivoque has not been before felt. It has ever been the cuſtom of the Eaſt to call palaces and houſes of the great by the name of *gates*, becauſe the principal luxury of theſe buildings conſiſts in the ſingular gate leading from the ſtreet into the court, at the fartheſt extremity of which the palace is ſituated; under the veſtibule of this gate, converſation is held with paſſengers, and a ſort of audience and hoſpitality given. All this was doubtleſs known to Homer; but poets make no commentaries, and readers love the marvellous.

The ſpace occupied by the ruins of this incomprehenſible town, now infolds eight large villages or hamlets; namely, Luxor, Karnak, Theba, and Guedime, on the right of the Nile; and Hermontes, Medinet-Abu, Memnonium, and Kernu, on the left bank; beſides the ancient Necropolis, or repoſitory of the dead; ſo that the river, by the ſinuoſity of its courſe, ſeems ſtill proud of flowing through its center. Luxor, the principal village in theſe environs, is formed on the ſcite of the ruins of a temple of prodigious magnitude, and in a tolerable ſtate of preſervation, the maſſes not having as yet fallen through time. The moſt coloſſal parts conſiſt of fourteen columns of nearly eleven feet in diameter, and of two ſtatues in granite, at the outer gate, buried up to the middle of the arms, and having in front of them the two largeſt and beſt-preſerved obeliſks in the world. It is, without doubt, flattering to the pomp of Thebes, that the richeſt and moſt powerful republic in the world ſhould have deemed its means inſufficient to hew out theſe two monuments, which are no more than a fragment of only one of the numerous edifices of that aſtoniſhing city. This gate was the grand entrance into the city, which is now become the common road into the village of Luxor. Nothing can be more grand, and at the ſame time more ſimple, than the number of ſmall objects of which this entrance is compoſed. No city now exiſting makes ſo proud a diſplay at its entrance as this obſcure village, which contains about three thouſand ſouls, who have taken up their abodes on the roofs and beneath the galleries of this temple, which has nevertheleſs the air of being uninhabited.

A peculiarity belonging to the temple of Luxor, is, that a quay, provided with an epaulment, ſecured the eaſtern part, which was near the river, from the damages the inundations might otherwiſe have occaſioned. The epaulment, which ſince its original ſtructure has been repaired and augmented in brick-work, proves that the river has not changed its bed; and its preſervation is an evidence that the Nile has never been banked by other quays, ſince no traces of ſimilar conſtructions are elſewhere to be met with. "The entrance (ſays Denon) of the village of Luxor, affords a ſtriking mixture of beggary and magnificence. What a gradation of ages in Egypt is offered by this ſingle ſcene! What grandeur and ſimplicity in the bare inſpection of this one ruin! It appears to me to be at the ſame time the moſt picturеſque group, and the moſt ſpeaking repreſentation of the hiſtory of thoſe times: never were my eyes and my imagination ſo forcibly ſtruck as by the ſight of this monument. I often came to meditate on this ſpot, to enjoy the paſt and the preſent, to compare the ſucceſſive generations of inhabitants by their reſpective works which were before my eye, and to ſtore in mind volumes of materials for future meditations. One day the ſheik of the village accoſted me, and aſked if it was the French or the Engliſh who had erected theſe monuments; and this queſtion completed my reflections." Here were found ſome fine medals of Auguſtus, Adrian, and Trajan, with a crocodile on the reverſe, ſtruck in Egypt in fine bronze with Greek inſcriptions; and a great number of medals of Conſtantine.

The two obeliſks are of roſe-coloured granite, and are ſtill ſeventy feet above the ground; and to judge by the depth to which the figures ſeem to be covered, we may reckon about thirty feet more concealed from the eye, making in all one hundred feet for the height of theſe monuments. Their preſervation is perfect, the hieroglyphics with which they are covered are cut deep, and in relief at the bottom, and ſhew the bold hand of a maſter, and a beautiful finiſh: what an admirable temper muſt the gravers be that could touch ſuch hard materials! what time required for the labour! what machines to drag ſuch enormous blocks out of the quarries, to

tranſport

tranſport them hither, and to ſet them upright! The two coloſſi of the ſame material are worn and decayed, but the parts that remain ſhew, that they had been completed in the moſt laboured and finiſhed manner. The two large maſſes which formed the gate are covered with ſculpture, partly effaced, repreſenting battles between chariots drawn by two horſes, and a ſingle conductor. The annexed engraving exhibits a correct view of this grand ruin, as given by Denon.

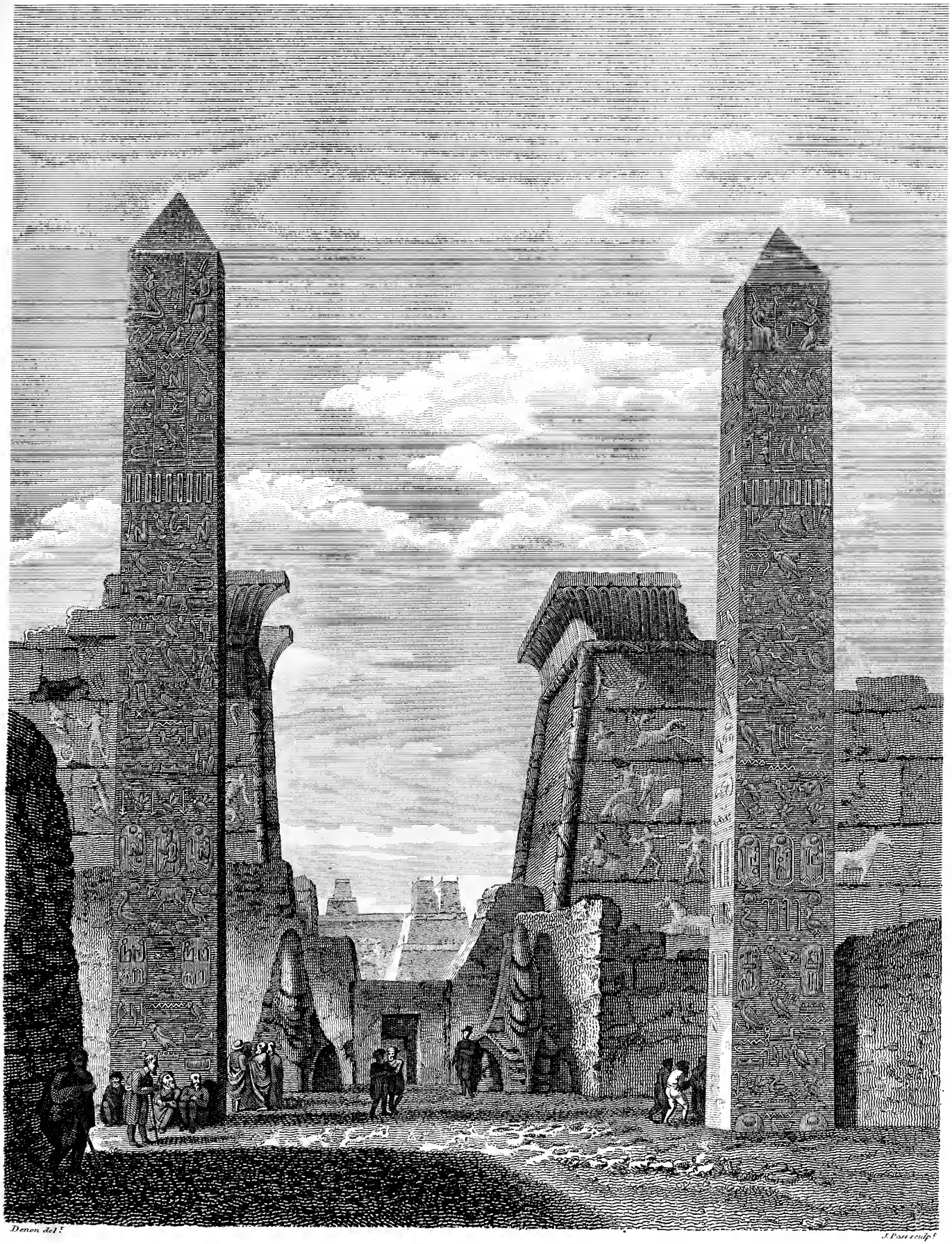
Karnak, the next diſtrict of Thebes, is a village built on a ſmall part of the ſite of a ſingle temple, the circumference of which would require half an hour to walk round. Herodotus, by whom it was not viſited, has, notwithſtanding, given a correct idea of its grandeur and magnificence. Diodorus and Strabo, who examined it in its ruinous ſtate, appear to have given the deſcription of its preſent condition; and all the travellers by whom they have been copied, have here miſtaken a great extent of maſſes, for the meaſure of beauty. It is probable that the temples of Karnac and Luxor were built in the time of Seſoſtris, when the flouriſhing condition of the Egyptians gave birth to the arts among them, and when theſe arts were, perhaps, diſplayed to the world for the firſt time. The vanity of erecting coloſſal edifices, was the firſt conſideration of opulence; and it was not as yet known, that a perfection in the arts beſtows on their productions a grandeur which is independent of their magnitudes. It is the ſumptuouſneſs alone of the Egyptians which is to be ſeen at Karnak, where not only quarries, but mountains are piled together, and hewn out into maſſive proportions, the ornaments of which are as feebly executed, as the parts are clumſily connected; and theſe maſſes are loaded with uncouth bas-reliefs, and taſteleſs hieroglyphics, by which the art of ſculpture is diſgraced. The only objects here which are ſublime, both with regard to their dimenſions, and the ſkill which their workmanſhip diſplays, are the obeliſks, and a few of the ornaments of the outer gates, the ſtile of which is admirably chaſte. If, in the other parts of this edifice, the Egyptians appear to us to be giants, in theſe latter productions they are geniuſes. It would therefore appear that theſe ſublime embelliſhments were poſteriorly added to the coloſſal monuments of Karnak; though it muſt be granted, that the plan of the temple is noble and truly grand. To the known deſcriptions of this great edifice ſhould be added, that it was but a temple, and could be nothing elſe. All that exiſts at preſent in a ſomewhat entire ſtate relates to a ſmall ſanctuary, and had been diſpoſed in this way to inſpire a due degree of veneration, and to become a kind of tabernacle. On examining the enſemble of theſe ruins, the imagination is wearied with the idea of deſcribing them. Of the hundred columns of the portico alone of this temple, the ſmalleſt are ſeven feet and an half in diameter, and the largeſt twelve. The ſpace occupied by its circumvallation contains lakes and mountains. In ſhort, to be enabled to form a competent idea of ſo much magnificence, it is neceſſary that the reader ſhould fancy what is before him to be a dream, as he who views the objects themſelves rubs his eyes to know whether he is awake. With reſpect to the preſent ſtate of this edifice, it is, however, neceſſary at the ſame time to obſerve, that a great part of the effect is loſt by its very degraded ſtate. The ſphinxes have been wantonly mutilated, with a few exceptions, which barbariſm, wearied with deſtroying, has ſpared, and on examining which, it is eaſy to diſtinguiſh that ſome of them had a woman's head, others that of a lion, a ram, a bull, &c. The avenue which leads from Karnac to Luxor was of this latter deſcription; and this ſpace, which is nearly half a league in extent, contains a conſtant ſucceſſion of theſe chimerical figures to the right and left, together with fragments of ſtone-walls, of ſmall columns, and of ſtatues. This point lying in the center of the city, the part which was the moſt advantageouſly placed, there is ſome reaſon to ſuppoſe that the palace of the kings was ſituated here. The paſſage through the circumvallation or exterior wall is by ſix gates that yet remain, three of which are preceded by avenues of ſphinxes: within the circuit was contained not only the great temple, but three others entirely diſtinct from it, having each its own gates, porticoes, courts, avenues, and boundary-wall. What could be their uſe? Were they temples, or palaces? Were their ſovereigns lodged in the porticoes of the temples, or were their palaces ſimilar in conſtruction to the ſacred edifices; or, perhaps, from their ſuperior lightneſs, unable to reſiſt the injuries of time? It is at leaſt obvious, that if they did really inhabit theſe buildings, which from their diſtribution may be regarded as dependencies of the great temple, their accommodations here were only of a temporary nature. Another objection is, that moſt of theſe chambers contained little tabernacles, in which, no doubt, were incloſed either the figure of the divinity, or the particular animal emblematical of it, or the ſacred treaſure; and to any of theſe none but the prieſts would be admitted. Probably, therefore, the vaſt circuit of theſe buildings was occupied by numerous colleges of prieſts, the depoſitaries of the ſcience, the power, and the influence, of the country.

What monotony! what melancholy wiſdom! what auſtere gravity of manners! We might ſtill admire with awe the organization of ſuch a government; its ſtupendous remains yet excite the mingled ſenſations of reſpect and dread. The divinity, in ſacerdotal habits, pourtrayed in the ſculptures, holds in one hand a hook, and in the other a flail; the former, no doubt, to reſtrain, and the latter to puniſh: every thing is meaſured by the law, and enchained by it. The fine arts, ſubject to the ſame ſevere reſtrictions, bend under the weight of fetters, and their ſoaring genius is pinioned to the earth. The unveiled emblem of generation traced even in the ſanctuary of the temples, announces, that to deſtroy pleaſure it was converted into a duty: not a ſingle circus, not a ſingle theatre, not a ſingle edifice for public recreation; but temples, nothing but temples, myſteries, initiations, prieſts, ſacrifices: ceremonies were uſed for pleaſures; for luxury, ſepulchres.

The temple of Theba, we are told by Dr. Bryant, was no leſs than 280 cubits in length; built in commemoration, and after the form, of the ark. Its ſhrine, he ſays, was inlaid and plated with gold and ſilver. It was a temple ſacred to Oſiris at Theba; or, to ſay the truth, the temple itſelf was called Theba: and both the city of Thebes, as well as the province, was undoubtedly denominated from it: το αρχαιον η Αιγυπτος Θηβαι καλουμενη. Now Theba, תבה, is the very word uſed for the ark by the ſacred writer, Gen. vi. 15: ſo that we may be aſſured of the prototype after which this temple was faſhioned; but the remains of it are undefined.

There is a conſiderable ruin on the ſcite of Thebes to the north-eaſt, at the village of Guedime, half a league in the rear, which in this direction makes the whole length of the monuments and other remains of this ancient city equal to about eight miles, on the right bank of the Nile. This ruin conſiſts of four columns, ſtill ſurmounted by three maſſy ſtones of the entablature, in front of which are viſible the foundations of two buttreſſes, at preſent a ſhapeleſs maſs of fragments. Theſe are the only remnants of a vaſt pile of building, whoſe chief merit at preſent is to ſerve as a fixed point from which to compute the original extent of the monuments and temples of Thebes on this ſide the river.

Croſſing the Nile from Luxor, we approach Hermontes, celebrated for the temple dedicated to Typhon, or Anubis. Beſides this temple, there remain the features of ſeveral ruins in this ancient quarter, highly ornamented with hieroglyphics. To the eaſt of this temple is a large reſervoir lined with fine ſtone, with four ladders for deſcending into it. Four hundred yards further, in the ſame direction, are the ruins of a Chriſtian church, built



The Grand Entrance of ancient Thebes.

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in the fifth century, out of the ruins of the fineſt Egyptian antiquities: the nave was decorated with ſplendid columns of granite, but the whole is overthrown, and nothing is left ſtanding but a few fragments of the choir, and the arches of the outer encloſure: this deſtruction is by the hand of man, for the church was too well built not to have reſiſted the wear of time to the preſent day.

From Hermontes we enter the village of Medinet-Abu, in which is a vaſt palace, built and enlarged at different periods. The lower part of this palace, which abuts againſt the foot of the Lybian mountain, is the moſt ancient in its conſtruction, and is covered with hieroglyphics, cut very deep, and without any relief. In the fourth century the Chriſtians made a church of it, adding two rows of pillars to ſupport a covered roof. The church itſelf had only occupied the ſecond portico of the temple; but from the teſtimony of a number of little doors, decorated with flowered croſſes, it appears evident, that the body of the edifice, which is two hundred feet long, had to all appearance ſerved as a convent for ſome orders of monks of the earlier ages of Chriſtianity. In the portico, where the church had been ſituated, the ſculptures on the inner wall ſtill repreſent the exploits and the triumph of Seſoſtris, who had carried his arms into foreign countries, and had obtained victories in India, as all theſe bas-reliefs ſeem to point out. Here is the figure of a hero alone purſuing a whole army, who are flying before him, and, to eſcape from his blows, throwing themſelves into ſome river, perhaps the Indus. This hero, who is mounted on a ſmall chariot, in which there is only room for himſelf, drives two horſes, holding the reins on a level with his girdle: bucklers and heaps of arms are hung all about him, and around his car; his ſtature is gigantic, and he holds an immenſe bow, from which he is ſhooting arrows upon a bearded and long-haired enemy, who have not the leaſt reſemblance with the known forms of Egyptian heads. Further on, he is repreſented ſitting on the back of his car, the horſes of which are held by pages, and one perſon is counting out before him an immenſe group of hands cut off from the enemy killed in battle, whilſt another is inſcribing the number, and a third appears to be proclaiming the ſum. Some travellers have deſcribed a ſecond heap of mutilations of an indecent kind, which ſhew that the hero has not been fighting againſt Amazons. Priſoners are alſo brought to him, confined in different ways; they are all clothed with flowing and ſtriped robes, their hair is long and matted, and tables of hieroglyphics follow, fifty feet in diameter, which, could we read them, would unqueſtionably explain the meaning of the figures that precede them. Returning to the left by another ſide of theſe galleries, a long bas-relief is ſeen, that repreſents, in two lines, a triumphal march: it is probably the ſame hero returning from his conqueſts; ſome ſoldiers covered with armour prove that the triumph is military, though a little further on nothing is to be ſeen but prieſts, or perſons of the claſs of the initiated, without arms, and with long and tranſparent tunics: the arms of the hero are covered with theſe garments; he is borne on the ſhoulders of men, on a palanquin, with all the attendants of a divinity; before and behind him march prieſts, bearing palm-branches and calumets, and incenſe is preſented to him. He arrives in this ſtate at the temple of the tutelar deity of Thebes, and offers to the god a ſacrifice, in which he officiates as prieſt; the march continues, and the god is borne by twenty-four prieſts; the bull Apis, with the attributes of divinity, marches before the hero, and a long train of perſonages follow, holding each a banner, on the greater number of which are the repreſentations of different deities. When arrived at the altar, a child appears with his hands tied behind his back, who is about to be immolated before the conqueror, who has ſtopped to receive this horrible ſacrifice, or to aſſiſt at this execrable holocauſt; beſide them ſtands a prieſt who is breaking the ſtem of a flower, and birds who are flying away, emblems of the ſeparation of the ſoul from the body. The account which Longus and Apuleius, in their romances of Theagenes and the Golden Aſs, have tranſmitted to us of human ſacrifices among the Egyptians, is therefore not a fable, and theſe poliſhed people ſtill retained ſome reſemblance to barbarians. Next the hero himſelf makes a ſacrifice to the god Apis, of a ſheaf of wheat; a protecting genius accompanies him throughout; he changes his dreſs in the different parts of the ceremony, which perhaps marks his various dignities or degrees of initiation, but the ſame phyſiognomy is conſtantly preſerved, which ſhews, that it is a portrait; his air is noble, auguſt, and mild. In one picture he is holding nine perſons confined by the ſame chain. Are theſe the paſſions perſonified? or, do they repreſent nine conquered nations? Incenſe is offered to him in honour of theſe victories: a prieſt writes his annals, and conſigns them to ſacred memorial. It is therefore proved, that the ancient Egyptians had written books; the famous *Toth* was then a book, and not inſcribed tablets ſculptured on walls, as has been often ſuppoſed. While ſurveying theſe curious remains of antiquity, Denon had the good fortune to obtain poſſeſſion of a manuſcript found in the hand of a mutilated mummy. It conſiſted of a roll of papyrus, on which the ſacred manuſcript was inſcribed, perhaps the oldeſt of all manuſcripts in the known world. What were its contents, has not yet been made known.

Deep under the foundations of the moſt ancient part of the temple at Medinet-Abu, at the baſe of one of the principal pillars of the edifice, we diſcover foundation ſtones, on which are ſculptured numerous hieroglyphics, as finely executed as thoſe that decorate the outer part of the building. From this circumſtance, how great muſt we ſuppoſe the antiquity to be of edifices ſo decorated? and how many preceding ages of civilization would it require to be able to erect ſuch buildings? The annals of this wonderful country are ſtill myſterious, obſcure, and infinite.

In the quarter extending to the village of Kurnu, we are preſented with a temple of the higheſt antiquity, as is manifeſt from its ruinous appearance, its thorough antique hue, its conſtruction, which is leſs perfect than the reſt, the extreme ſimplicity of its ornaments, the irregularity of its outline, and eſpecially the coarſeneſs of its ſculpture. At a ſmall diſtance are the remains of another ancient edifice, much more conſiderable, and in a better ſtate of preſervation; oppoſite to which is a ſtatue of black granite or baſalt, which is the material of the magnificent Egyptian lions which ſtand at the foot of the flight of ſteps leading to the Roman capitol. At the entrance of this temple two ſquare mounds flank an immenſe gate, and againſt the inner wall are engraved, in two bas-reliefs, the victorious combats of ſome Egyptian hero. This piece of primitive ſculpture is in the moſt irregular ſtyle of compoſition, without perſpective, plan, or diſtribution, like the firſt conceptions of the unimproved human mind. Here the hero is gigantic, and the enemies whom he is overthrowing are twenty-five times ſmaller than himſelf; if this early ſtage of hieroglyphic delineation could be meant for a piece of flattery in the arts, it was certainly ill-contrived, ſince the hero ought to gain no honour by fighting pygmies. At ſome paces from this gate are the remains of an enormous coloſſal figure. It has been wantonly ſhattered; for the parts which are left have ſo well preſerved their poliſh, and the fractures their edges, that it is evident, if the ſpirit of devaſtation in mankind had truſted to time alone to ruin this monument, we ſhould ſtill ſee it entire and unimpaired. Suffice it to ſay, to give an idea of its dimenſions, that the breadth of the ſhoulders is twenty-five feet, which would give about ſeventy-five for the entire height: the figure is exact in its proportions, and the execution perfect; when overſet, it fell upon its face, which hides this intereſting part; the drapery being broken, we can no longer judge by its attributes whether

it is the figure of a king, or a divinity. Is it the ſtatue of Memnon, or that of Oſymandyas?—the deſcriptions hitherto given of this monument throw more confuſion than light upon this queſtion. If it be the ſtatue of Memnon, which is the decided opinion of Denon, every traveller for two thouſand years muſt have miſtaken the object of their curioſity. One foot of this ſtatue remains, which is broken off, and in good preſervation; and it may give to us in Europe a ſcale of compariſon of the monuments of this ſpecies, and may ſerve as a companion to the coloſſal feet which are in the court of the capitol at Rome. The ſpot where this figure ſtood might be either a temple or a palace, or both at the ſame time; for, if the bas-relief would belong more properly to a royal reſidence, the figures of eight prieſts, which are in the front of two porticoes in the inner part, would peculiarly indicate a temple, except indeed they were introduced to remind the ſovereign that, conformably to the law of the times, the prieſts ought always to ſerve and aſſiſt in the exerciſe of monarchical power. This ruin, which is ſituated on the ſlope of the mountain, and has never been inhabited in later times, is ſo well preſerved in the parts that are ſtill ſtanding, that it appears more like a new and unfiniſhed building: ſeveral columns are ſeen here to their very baſes; their proportions are grand, but the ſtile, though purer than that of the firſt-mentioned temple, is, however, not comparable to one of a ſimilar kind at Tentyra, neither for the majeſty of the general deſign, nor for the delicacy in the execution of particular parts.

In the adjacent plain, is the Memnonium, and its two coloſſal ſtatues, in a ſitting poſture; between which, according to Herodotus, Strabo, and thoſe who have copied the relation of theſe writers, ſtood the famous ſtatue of Oſymandyas, the largeſt of all the coloſſal figures in Egypt. Oſymandyas had prided himſelf ſo much on the execution of this bold deſign, that he had cauſed an inſcription to be engraven on the pedeſtal of the ſtatue, in which he defied the power of man to deſtroy this monument, as well as that of his tomb; the pompous deſcription of which now appears only a fantaſtic dream. The two outermoſt ſtatues ſtill left ſtanding, are doubtleſs thoſe of the wife and the daughter of this prince; mentioned by Herodotus as the mother and ſon; but that of the king himſelf has diſappeared: the ſcythe of time, and the corroding tooth of envy, appear to have united in compaſſing its deſtruction. Nothing of it now remains but a ſhapeleſs rock of granite; ſo that it requires the perſevering ſcrutiny of the amateur, accuſtomed to this kind of examination, to diſtinguiſh any portions of the figure which have eſcaped deſtruction; and even thoſe are ſo inſignificant, that they can throw but little light on its original dimenſions. The two ſtatues ſtill exiſting are in the proportion of from fifty to ſixty-five feet in height, ſeated, as they are, with their two hands on their knees; all that remains of them ſhews a ſeverity of ſtile, and a ſtraightneſs of poſition. The bas-reliefs, and the ſmall figures cluſtered round the ſeat of the ſouthernmoſt of theſe ſtatues, are not deſtitute of elegance and delicacy in the execution. On the leg of the ſtatue the moſt to the north, the names of the many illuſtrious and ancient travellers who came to hear the myſtical ſound of the ſtatue of Memnon, are written in Greek. We may here ſee the great influence which celebrity exerciſes over the minds of men, ſince, when the ancient Egyptian government and the jealouſy of the prieſts no longer forbade ſtrangers to touch theſe monuments, the love of the marvellous retained its empire over the minds of thoſe that came hither as viſitors. Thus, in the age of Adrian, which was enlightened by philoſophy, Sabina, the wife of this emperor, and herſelf a literary woman, condeſcended, along with the learned men who accompanied her, to acknowledge that ſhe had heard ſounds which no phyſical cauſe could have produced. "But the vanity of inſcribing one's name on ſuch antiquities, (ſays Denon,) might very eaſily have produced the firſt on the liſt, and the natural deſire of becoming an aſſociate in this kind of glory might have added the reſt, and this is doubtleſs the reaſon of the numberleſs inſcriptions of names which we find here, with ſo many dates, and in ſo many languages."

Theſe coloſſal figures have nothing of expreſſion or action to ſeduce the judgment; but yet their proportions are faultleſs, and their ſimplicity of attitude have ſomething of majeſty and ſerioufneſs, which cannot fail to ſtrike the beholder. If the limbs of theſe figures had been diſtorted in order to expreſs ſome violent paſſion, the harmony of their outline would have been loſt, and they would be leſs conſpicuous at the diſtance at which they begin to ſtrike the eye, and produce their effect on the mind of the ſpectator; for they may be diſtinguiſhed at the diſtance of four leagues. To pronounce upon the character of theſe ſtatues, it is neceſſary to have ſeen them at ſeveral intervals, and to have long reflected on them; and after this it often happens, that what is at firſt conſidered as the work of the infancy of art, becomes aſſigned to its maturer age. If the group of the Laocoon, which ſpeaks to the ſoul as well as to the eyes, were executed in a proportion of ſixty feet, it would loſe all its beauty, and would not preſent ſo ſtriking a maſs of workmanſhip as this; in ſhort, if theſe ſtatues were more agreeable, they would be leſs beautiful, as they would then ceaſe to be, what they now are eminently *monumental*; a character which ſhould belong peculiarly to that outdoor ſculpture, which is intended to harmonize with architecture, a ſtile of ſculpture which the Egyptians have carried to the higheſt ſtate of perfection. "I again examined (ſays Denon) the block of granite, which lies between theſe two ſtatues, and I am convinced that it is the ruins of the famous coloſſal ſtatue of Oſymandyas, who, on the inſcription, braved both the ravages of time, and the pride of men. I am likewiſe perſuaded, that in a much later period, travellers have choſen to imagine one of the yet remaining ſtatues to be that of Memnon, that they might not be ſuppoſed to have come away from Egypt without ſeeing it, and, according to the uſual progreſs of enthuſiaſm, that they have *fancied* they heard the ſound which it was famed for uttering *at the riſing of the ſun*."

In this part of the territory of ancient Thebes, and at the diſtance of three quarters of a league from the river, are the ruins of a large temple, which has not been noticed by any traveller; and which may give an idea of the immenſity of that city on the left ſide of the Nile, ſince, if we ſuppoſe that it was the laſt edifice towards the eaſt, it is more than two leagues and an half diſtant from Medinet-Abu, where the moſt weſtern temple is ſituated.

In the ancient Necropolis, or City of the Dead, are innumerable ſubterranean habitations, once the burial places of the Theban commonalty. Strong in theſe dreary retreats, the preſent lawleſs inhabitants come out, like ſpectres, only to alarm men; culpable by their many other crimes, they conceal and fortify their depredations in the obſcurity of theſe excavations, which are ſo numerous as of themſelves to atteſt the immenſe population of ancient Thebes. It was acroſs theſe humbler ſepulchres, that the magnificent ſovereigns of Egypt were carried, two leagues from the palace, into the ſilent valley that was to become for the future their peaceful abode; and which is ſtill dignified by the name of "the tombs of the Theban kings." This valley to the northweſt of Thebes becomes inſenſibly narrower, and flanked as it is with perpendicular rocks, whole ages have been able to produce only very ſlight alterations of its ancient form. Towards the extremity, the opening between the rocks even now offers ſcarcely ſpace enough to paſs by the tombs, ſo that the ſumptuous proceſſions which no doubt accompanied the ceremony of royal interment, muſt have produced a ſtriking contraſt with the frowning aſperity of theſe arid rocks: if, however, they went by this

this road, it was probably only for the purpoſe of obtaining a longer ſpace, in which to roll the ſolemn tide of funereal pomp; for the valley even from its commencement tending towards the ſouth, the ſpot where the tombs are, cannot be a great diſtance from the Memnonium. Far advanced in this deſert valley, and in the midſt of the rocks, we firſt obſerve ſome obſcure openings parallel to the ground: theſe openings diſplay no other architectural ornaments than a door in a ſimple ſquare frame, with a flattened oval in the center of the upper part, on which are inſcribed in hieroglyphics a beetle, the figure of a man with a hawk's head, and beyond the circle, two figures on their knees in the act of adoration. As ſoon as the threſhold of the firſt entrance is paſſed, we diſcover long galleries twelve feet wide and twenty in height, caſed with ſtucco ſculptured and painted; the arches of an elegant elliptical figure, long erroneouſly attributed to a more modern date, are covered with innumerable hieroglyphics, diſpoſed with ſo much taſte, that notwithſtanding the ſingular groteſqueneſs of the forms, and the total abſence of demi-tint, or aerial perſpective, the ceilings make an agreeable whole, and a rich and harmonious aſſociation of colours. Paſſing from one tomb to another, at the end of the galleries are the ſarcophagi unconnected with each other, compoſed of a ſingle block of granite, twelve feet long by eight in breadth, ornamented with hieroglyphics both within and without; at one end they are rounded, and at the other ſquared, like that in the moſque of St. Athanaſius at Alexandria: the tombs are covered by a lid of the ſame material, and of an enormous maſs, ſhutting with a groove; but neither this precaution, nor theſe vaſt blocks of ſtone, brought from an immenſe diſtance, and at a vaſt expence, have been able to preſerve the relics of the ſovereigns from the attempts of avarice; all the tombs are violated, plundered, and robbed: not a ſingle mummy is to be found perfect! On the lid of the firſt ſarcophagus that we meet with, the figure of a king, or of ſome protecting divinity, is ſculptured; but the figure itſelf is ſo worn, that it is impoſſible to diſtinguiſh by the dreſs whether it is a king, a prieſt, or a divinity. In other tombs the ſepulchral chamber is ſurrounded by a pilaſtered portico, whoſe galleries bordered with receſſes ſupported in the ſame manner, and lateral chambers hollowed into the rock, are covered with a white and fine ſtucco, on which are coloured hieroglyphics in a moſt wonderful ſtate of preſervation: the colours of the ceilings, exhibiting yellow figures on a blue ground, are executed with a taſte that might decorate our moſt ſplendid ſaloons.

On the walls of ſome of the chambers are repreſented all kinds of arms, ſuch as panoplies, coats of mail, tyger's ſkins, bows, arrows, quivers, pikes, javelins, ſabres, caſques, and whips: in others there appear innumerable houſehold utenſils, ſuch as caſkets, cheſts of drawers, chairs, ſofas, and beds, all of exquiſite forms, and ſuch as might well grace the apartments of modern luxury: as theſe were probably accurate repreſentations of the objects themſelves, it is almoſt a proof that the ancient Egyptians employed for their furniture Indian woods, carved and gilt, which they covered with embroidery. Beſides theſe, there are repreſented various ſmaller articles, as vaſes, coffee-pots, ewers with their baſons, a tea-pot and baſket, &c. Other chambers are conſecrated to agriculture, in which are repreſented all its various inſtruments, a ſledge ſimilar to thoſe in uſe at preſent, a man ſowing grain by the ſide of a canal, from the borders of which the inundation is beginning to retire, a field of corn reaped with a ſickle, fields of rice with men watching them. In another chamber is a figure clothed in white, playing on a harp with eleven cords: the figure is repreſented with ornaments, and was made of the ſame kind of wood as modern ones. Many figures appear without heads, or as having the head cut off; theſe all repreſent black men; but thoſe who had cut the heads off, and were ſtill holding the ſword, the inſtrument of puniſhment, are coloured red. Could theſe be human ſacrifices? Was it the cuſtom to immolate ſlaves on the tombs; or was it the repreſentation of an act of juſtice, and the puniſhment of the guilty? Here are alſo ſome figures of divinities, cut in ſycamore-wood with uncommon elegance, and a ſmall foot of a mummy, which does no leſs honour to nature, than the other fragments do to art. It was, no doubt, the foot of a young princeſs, the perfect form of which had never been cramped by the abſurdity of faſhion. The myſtery and magnificence obſervable within theſe excavations, in incalculable labour, and the number of doors by which they are protected, convince us that the religious worſhip which had ſcooped out and decorated theſe ſubterraneous royal ſepulchres, was the ſame as that which had raiſed the pyramids.

The burial-places of the commonalty, above-mentioned, are alſo conſtructed with order and magnificence, conſiſting of a regular double gallery ſupported by pillars, behind which is a row of chambers, often double, and highly ornamented. Were it not for the tombs, and ſome remains of mummies, we might be tempted to believe that theſe were the dwellings of the primitive inhabitants of Egypt; or rather that, after having firſt ſerved for this purpoſe, theſe ſubterranean caves, had become the abode of the dead, and had, at laſt, been reſtored by the preſent ferocious occupiers to their original deſtination. In proportion as the height of theſe grottos increaſes, they become more richly decorated; and, by the magnificence both of the paintings and ſculptures, and of the ſubjects which they repreſent, they are many of them obviouſly the tombs of great men or heroes. Thoſe which are believed to belong to the ancient kings in the vale of rocks above deſcribed, are only diſtinguiſhed from theſe by the magnificence of the ſarcophagi, and the myſterious ſolitude of their ſituation. The ſculpture in all is incomparably more laboured and higher finiſhed than any we find in the temples; it is the work of the chiſel itſelf; and we might ſtand in aſtoniſhment at the high perfection of the art, and of its ſingular deſtiny, to be fixed in places devoted to eternal ſilence and darkneſs, and obſcurity. In the working of the galleries, beds of a very fine-grained calcareous clay have occaſionally been croſſed; and here the lines of the hieroglyphics have been cut with a firmneſs of touch, and a preciſion, of which marble offers but few examples; the figures have an elegance and correctneſs of contour, which modern improvement can ſcarcely exceed.

Denon continually ranſacked theſe tombs, in the hope of finding an unrifled mummy, as well as to diſcover the manner in which they were laid within the ſepulchres; and which the inhabitants had always obſtinately concealed, as the ſituation of their village had given them almoſt an excluſive trade in this ſingular article of commerce. After many painful and fruitleſs reſearches, he at laſt arrived at a hole, before which were ſcattered numerous fragments of mummies: the opening was narrow, and there was riſk in going down. Determined to perſevere, he ſtruck a light, and entered the narrow paſſage, groping on his hands and knees. Having crawled along nearly a hundred paces over a heap of dead and half decayed bodies, the vault became loftier, more ſpacious, and decorated with a conſiderable degree of care. He now found that this tomb had already been ſearched; that thoſe who had firſt entered it, not having torches, had uſed bruſhes to give them light, and that theſe had ſet fire firſt to the linen and afterwards to the gum or reſin of the mummies, which had cauſed ſuch a combuſtion as to ſplit ſome of the ſtones, melt the gums and reſins, and blacken all the ſides of the cave. He could obſerve, however, that this vault had been intended for the burial place of two conſiderable perſons, whoſe figures were ſculptured in emboſſment, ſeven feet in height, holding each other by the hand. Above their heads was a baſ-relief, repreſenting two dogs in a leaſh lying on an altar; and kneeling, two figures had the appearance of worſhipping,

ping, which makes it probable that two friends were buried here, who were unwilling to part even in death. Beſides this, there were lateral chambers unornamented, and fitted with corpſes that had been embalmed with more or leſs care; ſhewing that though the tombs had been conſtructed and decorated by perſons of conſequence, they received not only the corpſes of the founders, but of their children, friends, relations, and perhaps all the ſervants of their houſe. Several bodies ſwathed up, but without any coffin, were lying on the ground, and there were as many of theſe as could be laid in a regular order. From a number of bodies which were not ſwathed up, it appeared that circumciſion was a conſtant rite among them, that depilation was not practiſed among the women, that their hair was long and flexible, and the character of the head was in a fine ſtyle. He next deſcended with ſome inconvenience into ſeveral deep pits, where he found fragments of more mummies, and large long pots of baked earth, with covers repreſenting human heads; they contained nothing but a kind of reſin, the ſubſtance with which the mummies appeared to have been embalmed.

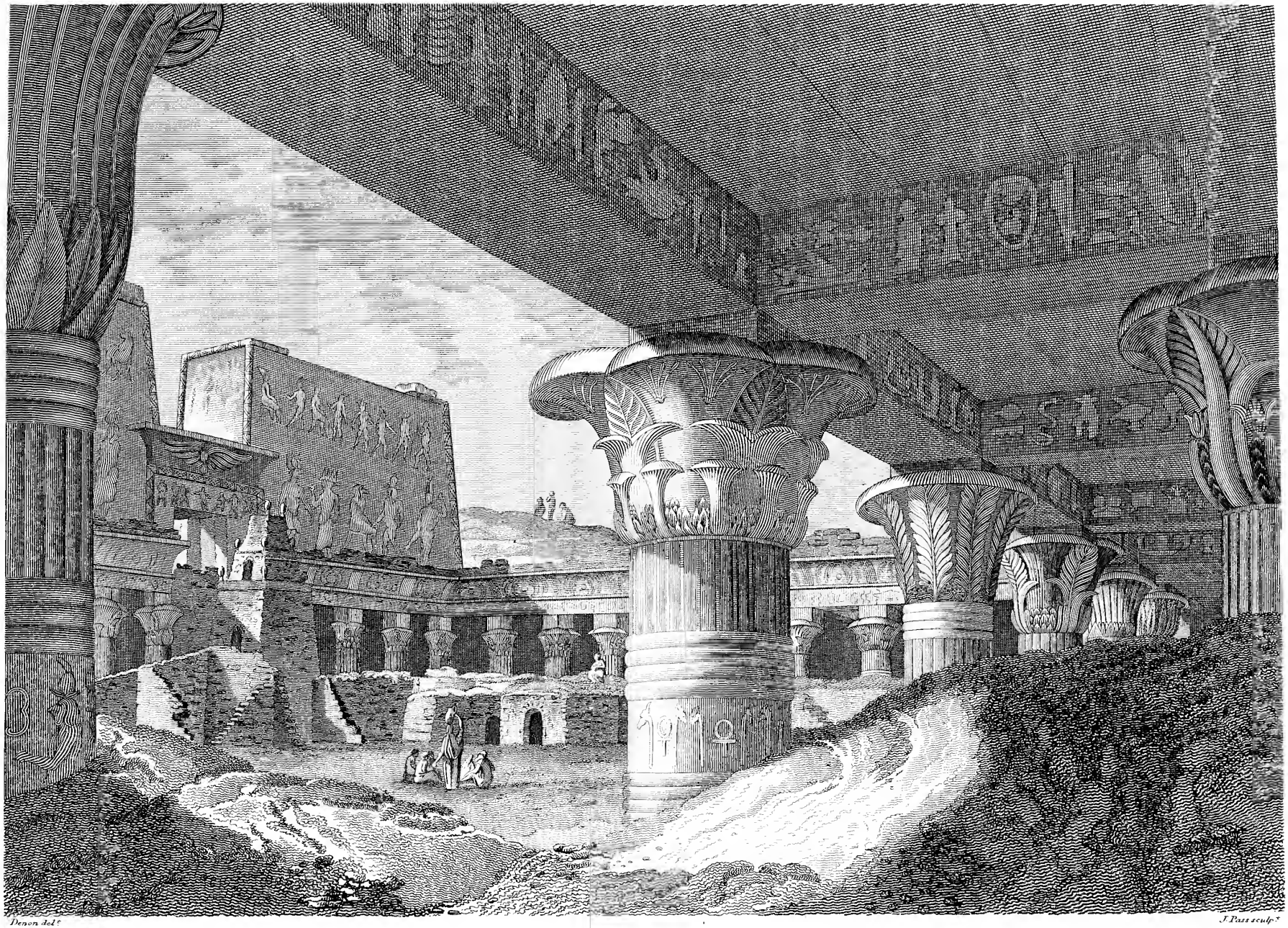
The plan of theſe excavations is wholly inexplicable. There are ſome which are ſo vaſt and complicated, that one would take them for labyrinths, or ſubterranean temples. After paſſing many apartments, adorned in an elegant ſtyle, we enter long and gloomy galleries, which wind backwards and forwards in numerous angles, and ſeem to ocupy a great extent of ground; they are melancholy, repulſive, and without any decoration; but from time to time open into other chambers covered with hieroglyphics, and branch out into narrow paths that lead to deep perpendicular pits, which we deſcend by reſting our arms againſt the ſides, and fixing our feet into ſteps that are cut in the rock. At the bottom of theſe pits are other adorned chambers; and lower ſtill, a freſh ſeries of perpendicular pits, and horizontal chambers. It would require ſeveral days to form an idea of the diſtribution of theſe ſubterranean works, and to take plans of ſuch intricate labyrinths; if the magnificence diſplayed in the houſes of the living was at all equal to that of theſe ultimate habitations, as we have ſome reaſon to ſuppoſe, from the ſumptuous pieces of furniture painted in the tombs of the kings, how much muſt we regret that no veſtige of them remains! What can have become of palaces that contained ſuch opulence? how can they have diſappeared? they cannot be buried under the mud of the Nile, ſince the quay which is before Luxor ſhews, that the elevation which the ſoil has undergone is very inconſiderable. Were they built of unbaked, and therefore periſhable, earth? or did the great men, as well as the prieſts, inhabit the temples, and the people only huts?

The interior of all theſe ſepulchral chambers is coated over with a ſmooth ſtucco, on which are painted, in every colour, ſubjects of funereal proceſſions, much leſs laboured indeed than the bas-reliefs, but equally intereſting, from the ſubjects which are repreſented; the remains of which are ſtill perfect, and atteſt their extreme magnificence. The painted figures of the gods are here carried by prieſts upon litters, with banners waving over their heads, and followed by perſonages bearing golden vaſes of ſeveral forms, calumets, arms, loaves of bread, victuals of different kinds, and coffers of various conſtructions.

Fragments of mummies are here in plenty. Denon offered an unlimited reward to any who ſhould procure him one whole and untouched; but the cupidity of the Arabs deprived him of ſuch a curioſity; for they ſell at Cairo the reſin which they find in the belly and ſkull of theſe mummies, and there is no preventing them from committing this violence on the dead; and beſides, the fear of ſelling one that might contain ſome treaſures, makes them always break the outer wooden covering, and tear that of painted cloth, which wraps round the whole body, wherever much coſt and pains have been taken in the embalming.

The art of embalming the dead, was the peculiar province of the phyſicians; and of which there were three modes of preparation. One was truly exquiſite, appropriated to the kings and nobles, and coſt a talent of ſilver, or 258l. 6s. 8d. ſterling; the ſecond was for inferior perſons, and only amounted to twenty minæ, or a fourth part of the former ſum; and the third, being for the lower orders of the community, coſt but a trifle. To prepare the mummies according to the firſt or ſuperior method, the embalmers took the corpſe, and with a crooked iron inſtrument drew the brains through the noſtrils, and filled up the vacuity with a variety of rich perfumes. A perſon, called the paraſchiſtis, then cut open the left ſide of the belly, and drew out all the inteſtines; another cleanſed the entrails, waſhing them with wine of palms, and perfuming them with ſeveral aromatic drugs; the cavities were then filled with pounded myrrh, caſſia, &c. The inciſion being ſewed up, the corpſe was carefully anointed for thirty days with a balm calculated to ſtop up all the pores. At the expiration of this term, every part was covered with fillets of fine linen, overſpread with gum, and incruſted with the moſt exquiſite perfumes; and this was done ſo curiouſly, that the very hairs on the brows and eye-lids remained uninjured, and the countenance was preſerved ſo admirably as to be eaſily recogniſed. The embalmers having thus prepared the body, delivered it to the relations, who put it in a wooden coffin, and placed it in an upright poſition, either in a ſepulchre or in one of their own apartments; for many of the Egyptians kept their dead at home, eſteeming it a great comfort to behold the lineaments of their anceſtors, in this ſtate of preſervation. The ſecond mode of preparation was effected by ſyringing oil of cedar the common way, without inciſion, and by laying the body in nitre for the ſpace of ſeventy days, at the expiration of which the entrails came away, ſhrunk and putrified, the nitre having conſumed the fleſh, and left nothing but the ſkin and bones: the corpſe was then delivered to the relations without farther ceremony. The third method, uſed for the lower claſs, was performed by cleanſing the belly with injected lotions, and laying the corpſe in ſalt for ſeventy days, after which it was carried to the ſepulchre. The method of embalming uſed by the modern Egyptians, according to Maillet, is to waſh the body ſeveral times with roſe-water; which, he obſerves, is more fragrant in that country than with us; they afterwards perfume it with incenſe, aloes, and a quantity of other odours, of which they are by no means ſparing; they then bury the body in a winding-ſheet, made partly of ſilk and partly of cotton, and moiſtened, as is ſuppoſed, with ſome ſweet-ſcented water or liquid perfume, though Maillet uſes only the term *moiſtened*; this they cover with another cloth of unmixed cotton, to which they add one of the richeſt ſuits of clothes of the deceaſed.

Denon, purſuing his rout to the extremity of Upper Egypt, viſited Eſneh and Etfu. The modern Eſneh is the ancient Latopolis. Some remains are ſtill viſible of its port or quay on the bank of the Nile, which has been often repaired, but, notwithſtanding all that has been done for it, ſtill it remains in a very miſerable condition. This town contains the portico of a temple, which appears to be one of the moſt perfect monuments of ancient architecture. It is ſituated near the bazar in the great ſquare, and would make an incomparable ornament to the ſpot, if the inhabitants had any idea of its merit; but inſtead of this they have deformed it by the moſt miſerable ruined hovels, and have devoted it to the vileſt purpoſes. The portico is well preſerved, and poſſeſſes a great richneſs of ſculpture: it is compoſed of eighteen columns, with broad capitals; all of which are noble and elegant. The hieroglyphics in relief, with which it is



Denon del.t

J. Pass sculp.t

Ruins of the Temple at Apollinopolis Magna or Etfu.

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covered within and without, are executed with great care; they contain, among other fubjects, a zodiac, and large figures of men with crocodiles' heads: the capitals, though all different, have a very fine effect; and, as a proof that the Egyptians borrowed nothing from other people, we may remark that they have taken all the ornaments, of which thefe capitals are compofed, from the productions of their own country. It is fingular, however, that in this ruin we find no repreſentation of the fifh *latus*, from which the town was named Latopolis.

On the oppofite fide of the Nile is the precinct of Contra-Latopolis; where we find a temple in a very ruinous ſtate, but very picturefque and fingular in its plan, as well as in ſeveral of its parts. It conſiſts of a portico with four columns in front, two pilaſters, and two columns in the depth, with a ſanctuary in the middle, and two lateral apartments, one of which, on the right hand, is ſcarcely to be traced. Within the portico is a door cut out of the lateral wall to the right, which muſt have been the entrance of a ſmall ſanctuary in which the offerings were made. Another ſingularity in the elevation of this edifice is, that the capitals of the two columns in the middle of the portico are in relief at their ſummit, while thoſe of the columns at each extremity are guttered. This building is in a more ruinous ſtate than almoſt any other in Egypt; and the decay has undoubtedly arifen from the nature of the free-ſtone with which it was built. The circumvallation of the temple, within which were contained the lodgings of the prieſts, may be pretty diſtinctly made out; and the whole of this enclofure is ſomewhat elevated above the ſmall city of Contra-Latopolis, which was built round the compaſs of this monument. It would appear to have been the practice that all the great cities on the bank of the Nile ſhould have a ſmall city or port on the oppoſite bank, which was probably placed there for the convenience of commerce.

In the road from hence to Etfu, we paſs Aſfun, about two leagues and a half from Eſneh. This village is built over vaſt heaps of rubbiſh, among which it appears more natural to look for the ruins of Aphroditopolis, Aſphinis, or Aſphunis, than among thoſe of the temple above deſcribed. What Strabo ſays of this town agrees better with its diſtance from Latopolis; and the reſemblance of the name Aſfun to Aſphunis, of which there are many ſimilar examples in Egypt, ſtrengthens this opinion. Sofinis, indeed, half a league further on, has alſo eminences of decayed ruins, though leſs conſiderable; but as neither village is poſſeſſed of any monuments above the graſs, we muſt wait for ſome excavations to be made, before it can be decided to which belongs the honour of having been the city of Venus.

Etfu is the ancient city of Apollo; and here are the ruins of the once celebrated Hieraconpolis, which conſiſt of the remains of a gate belonging to an edifice of very conſiderable magnitude; as appears alſo from the ſize of the ſtones, the extent of ground occupied by the fragments, and the diameter of the defaced capitals, which lie ſcattered on every ſide. The ſtone of which this temple is built, is of ſo friable a quality, that the form of the edifice is entirely loſt, and none of the plan can be made out. Some yards further, the ruins of another immenſe building is with difficulty diſtinguiſhed, owing to the great decay; the other remains of the town are only a few heaps of highly-burnt bricks and ſome blocks of granite.

Apollinopolis Magna, once ſo celebrious, ſtill enjoys its unique ſituation, commanding in its ſcite the river, and the whole vale of Egypt; where its magnificent temple towered over the reſt like a large citadel, which keeps the adjacent country in awe. This compariſon is, indeed, ſo naturally ſuggeſted by the ſituation of this immenſe fabric, that it is only now known to the natives by the name of the *fortreſs*. This edifice, in extent, majeſty, magnificence, and high preſervation, ſurpaſſes almoſt every thing elſe in Egypt, or elſewhere. The building compriſes a long ſuite of pyramidal gates, of courts decorated with galleries, of porticoes, and of covered naves, conſtructed, not with common ſtones, but entire rocks. The excellent preſervation of this ancient edifice forms a wonderful contraſt with the grey ruins of modern habitations built within its vaſt inclofure; a part of the population of the village is contained in huts built in the courts, and around the fragments of the temple; which, like ſwallows neſts under the eaves of our houſes, deſile them without concealing or injuring their general appearance. This ſublime temple of Apollinopolis Magna, was built at a period when the arts and ſciences had acquired all their ſplendour in Egypt; the workmanſhip of every part is equally beautiful, the hieroglyphics are admirably executed, the figures more varied, and the architecture of a higher order, than in the edifices at Thebes; the building of which muſt be referred to an earlier age. A correct view of this ſuperb ruin is given in the annexed engraving.

Still aſcending the left bank of the Nile, on which Eſneh and Etfu are ſituated, Denon, with eager ſteps, at length reached Syene, and the iſland of Elephantina. Aſſuan, or Syene, is ſituated at the extremity of Upper Egypt, on the confines of Ethiopia. Here the convent of St. Lawrence, once ſo celebrious, is now a ruin. Above it is a watch-tower, from the lofty ſummit of which a moſt ſingular view preſents itſelf of the beautiful iſland of Elephantina, and the chaotic rocks, over which the Nile flows in all its majeſtic grandeur, to poſſeſs the rich and fertile vale of Egypt, from the cataracts to the Delta. The firſt effects of its bounties are ſeen around the granite rocks, in the hollows of which the ſand and ſlime brought down by the waters are depoſited, forming a baſis for vegetation, which continues to increaſe, and to embrace a larger and wider field. At Elephantina, the cultivation, the trees, and the habitations, exhibit ſuch a picture of perfection in the gifts of nature, that it has received the Arabian name of *Kezirat-el-Sag*, or the Flowery Iſland, in the midſt of the Nile. The entrance of this prolific river into Egypt, after flowing through the granite blocks which defend the iſland of Elephantina, ſeems to triumph over ruins of the higheſt antiquity. Syene muſt have been once a very conſiderable city, if the edifices on the right and left of the Nile, and thoſe of Elephantina in the middle, formed but one town; which may be preſumed, ſince they are only ſeparated by a channel that in this place is deep but not broad; the Arabic ruins are grouped on a rock to the eaſtward; below are Roman remains, which are alſo found in ſeveral of the monuments at Elephantina. On the Syene ſide of the river there are no other remains of the original Egyptian towns, than the ruins of a ſquare temple ſurrounded with a gallery, but ſo ſhattered and ſhapeleſs, that nothing can be ſeen but the embraſure between two pillars, with the capitals and a ſmall part of the entablature; this fragment is what Savary, who confeſſes that he never was at Syene, relates on hear-ſay to be probably the remains of the ancient obſervatory, in which, according to him, the nilometer, or gauge of the annual increaſe or inundation of the Nile, ſhould be ſought for. But it is here proper to deſtroy the error; of which, however, this elegant writer is not the author; for he has only copied, and thus related every thing, pointed out every thing, and painted in a ſurpriſing manner, *what he had never ſeen*.

It was at the ſouthern extremity of the iſland of Elephantina, that the Egyptian town and the Roman habitations were ſituated, and the Arabian buildings which ſucceeded them. The part occupied by the Romans can only now be made out by the bricks, the teſſellated pavements, and the ſmall images of porcelain and bronze, which are ſtill found; the Arab quarter is only diſtinguiſhed by the dunghills, with which they have covered the ſoil, a common feature to all the ruins of the ſuperb edifices of this country! Every thing poſterior has diſappeared, ſo as to leave ſcarcely the leaſt trace of its

exiſtence; whilſt the original Egyptian monuments remain, devoted to poſterity, having reſiſted equally the ravages of man and of time. In the midſt of this field of ruins, a very ancient temple is ſtill left ſtanding, ſurrounded with a pilaſtered gallery, and two columns in the portico. It is covered both within and without with hieroglyphics in relief, very neatly cut, and in good preſervation. This is ſuppoſed to be the temple of Cneph, the benevolent genius among the Egyptian gods, who approaches the neareſt to our ideas of the Supreme Being. There is alſo a temple of this deity about ſix hundred paces more to the north, of the ſame form and ſize, though more in ruins, all the ornaments of which are accompanied by the ſerpent, the emblem of wiſdom and eternity, peculiar to the god Cneph.

In the middle of the iſland there are two frames of a large outer door, made of blocks of granite, and ornamented with hieroglyphics. Theſe remains certainly indicate monuments of great magnificence. At the eaſt is another fragment of a very highly-finiſhed edifice; and the hieroglyphics that remain are perfectly well ſculptured. This temple obviouſly communicated with a narrow paſſage, which, to judge by the traces of a number of ſucceſſive buildings, terminated on a gallery open to the Nile, and reſting on a large embanked facing, which defended the eaſtern part of the iſland from being worn away by the current of the river. Three porticoes of this gallery ſtill remain, and a flight of granite ſtairs, which dip into the river. "May not this gallery, (aſks Denon,) and this ſtair-caſe, be the obſervatory and the nilometer which travellers have in vain fought for at Syene?" Strabo, however, who had obſerved Syene with care, and has deſcribed it minutely, ſays, that this nilometer was a well which received the Nile waters, and that the marks by which the height of the inundation was eſtimated, were engraved on the ſides of this well.

All theſe buildings are founded upon maſſes of rock, covered with hieroglyphics, engraved with more or leſs care. Further on, turning towards the north, are two portions of parapet, which leave between them an opening, through which one may deſcend to the river: on the inner ſide of the right parapet is a bas-relief in marble, repreſenting the figure of the Nile four feet in height, in the ſame attitude with a coloſſal ſtatue of the ſame ſubject which is at Rome. This copy of the ſame idea proves both that the edifice is Roman, and that this people, in their eſtabliſhment at Syene, having had opportunity of adding the ornaments of luxury and ſuperfluity to works of the firſt neceſſity, had eſtabliſhed rather a powerful colony there than a mere military poſt: the baths and valuable bronze utenſils, which are daily found there, ſupport this opinion of the richneſs and permanency of this colony, which extended above the cataracts.

The quarries of the cataracts above Syene conſiſt of granite rocks, whence the blocks ſeem to have been taken which formed the material of the coloſſal ſtatues, that have been the object of admiration to ſo many ages, and the ruins of which ſtill ſtrike us with aſtoniſhment. It ſeemed as if the framers wiſhed to preſerve the memorial of the maſſes that have produced theſe blocks, by leaving on the place hieroglyphical inſcriptions, intended, perhaps, to record the event. The texture of this granite is ſo hard and compact, that the rocks which are met with in the current, inſtead of becoming worn and ſhattered by decompoſition, have acquired a poliſh by the daſhing of the waves. The fineſt and moſt abundant of this kind of ſtone, is the roſe-coloured granite; the grey is often too micaceous; between theſe blocks are found veins of very brilliant quartz, ſtrata of a red ſtone, which partakes of the nature and the hardneſs of porphyry, and maſſes of that black and hard ſtone, which has been ſo long taken for baſalt, and which the Egyptians have often employed for ſtatues of moderate ſize.

After paſſing the cataracts, the rocks grow loftier, and on their ſummit rocks of granite are heaped up, appearing to cluſter together, and to hang in equipoiſe, purpoſely to produce the moſt pictureſque effects. Through theſe rough and rugged forms the eye all at once diſcovers the magnificent monuments of the iſland of Philoë, which form a brilliant contraſt, and one of the moſt ſingular ſurprizes that the traveller can meet with. The Nile here makes a bend, as if purpoſely to form this enchanting iſland, where the monuments are only ſeparated by tufts of palm-trees, or rocks that appear to be left merely to contraſt the forms of nature with the magnificence of art, and to collect, in one rich ſpot, every thing that is moſt beautiful and ſublime. The enthuſiaſm which the traveller ſo conſtantly experiences at the ſight of the monuments of Upper Egypt, may appear to the reader a perpetual and monotonous exaggeration; it is, however, only the ſimple expreſſion of feeling which the ſublimity of their character excites; and which raiſes involuntary expreſſions of ſurprize and admiration, every time they impreſs the aſtoniſhed beholder. The road leading towards Philoë acroſs the deſert, has one peculiarity, which is, that there are evident remains of its having been tracked out, and raiſed as a cauſey, and that there was much traffic on it in former times. This is the only part of Egypt in which a high road is abſolutely neceſſary; for the Nile here ceaſing to be navigable on account of the cataracts, all the merchandize of the Ethiopian trade which is landed at Philoe, muſt be conveyed by land to Syene, to be there re-embarked. All the large blocks of ſtone on the road ſide are covered with hieroglyphics, as if intended for the amuſement of the paſſengers. One of the moſt ſingular of them preſents the form of a ſeat cut out of the ſolid rock, with a flight of ſteps to climb up to it; and the whole ornamented with hieroglyphics executed with great care. Another ſingular object, is the ruins of military lines made of bricks baked in the ſun, the baſe of which is from fifteen to twenty feet in thickneſs. This entrenchment extended along the valley by the road-ſide, and terminated at rocks and forts near three leagues from Syene. Though the materials of which theſe walls were built were cheap, yet the expence of putting them together muſt have been very great, and ſhews the importance attached to the defence of this point. Theſe are ſuppoſed to be the remains of the famous wall raiſed by a queen of Egypt, named Zuleikha, daughter of Ziba, one of the Pharaohs, which extended from the ancient Syene to the place where El-Ariſh is now ſituated, the fragments of which the Arabs call *Haiſ-el-adjowz*, or the old woman's wall.

It is imagined that it was to produce a ſtriking effect upon ſtrangers entering their territory, that the Egyptians had raiſed upon their frontier ſuch a ſplendid group of monuments. Philoë was the *entrepôt* of a commerce of barter between Ethiopia and Egypt; and wiſhing to give the Ethiopians a high idea of their reſources and their magnificence, the Egyptians erected ſo many ſumptuous edifices on the confines and natural frontier of their empire. The ruins in Philoë conſiſt of a ſanctuary, faced by a portico of four columns with very elegant capitals, to which had been added at a later period another portico, which doubtleſs was attached to the circumvallation of the temple. The moſt ancient part, which was alſo conſtructed with more care, was ornamented in a higher degree than the reſt; the uſe ſince made of it in the rites of the Chriſtian religion has impaired the original character, by adding ſquare arched door-ways. In the ſanctuary, cloſe to the figures of Iſis and Oſiris, may ſtill be ſeen the miraculous impreſſion of the feet of St. Anthony, or St. Paul the hermit. Here are other convincing proofs that theſe buildings had been conſtructed at different periods, by ſeveral nations, and had belonged to different forms of religious worſhip; and the union of theſe various edifices, each of them in itſelf regular, and crouded together in a narrow ſpace, forms an irregular group of moſt pictureſque and magnificent objects.

jects. We might here diſtinguiſh eight ſanctuaries or ſeparate temples, of different dimenſions; yet avoiding, with great dexterity, falſe angles and general irregularities. This kind of confuſion of the architectural lines, which appear like errors in the plan, produce in the elevation a picturesque effect, which geometrical rectitude cannot give; it multiplies objects, forms elegant groups, and offers to the eye more richneſs than cold ſymmetry can ever command. The mode of building with the ancient Egyptians was, firſt to erect large maſſes, on which they afterwards beſtowed the labour of ages, in the particulars of the decoration, beginning their work with ſhaping the architectural lines, proceeding next to the ſculpture of the hieroglyphics, and concluding with the ſtucco and the painting. All theſe diſtinct periods of work are very obvious here, where nothing is finiſhed but what belongs to the higheſt antiquity: whereas a part of the ſubordinate buildings, which ſerved to connect the various monuments, had been left in many particulars without finiſh, without ſculpture, and even incomplete in the building.

This ſingularly magnificent pile exhibits the whole of theſe different periods of workmanſhip; and it would be difficult to aſſign any uſe to this edifice, if the preſence of certain ornaments, repreſenting offerings, had not pointed it out to be a temple. Yet it has neither the form of a portico, nor of a temple; the columns which compoſe its outer circumference, and which are engaged in the wall only half their height, ſupport nothing but an entablature and a cornice, without roof or platform: it only opened by two oppoſite doors without lintels, which made a ſtraight paſſage through in the longitudinal direction. As it was doubtleſs built in the later period of the Egyptian power, it ſhews the perfection of their art in the higheſt purity; the capitals are admirable in beauty and execution, the volutes and the foliage are as gracefully waved as the fineſt Greek architecture.

The innermoſt temples contain ſtill more myſterious ſanctuaries, ſuch as monolithic temples, or tabernacles of a ſingle ſtone, intended perhaps as the repoſitories of what was moſt precious and moſt ſacred to the worſhippers; perhaps even the ſacred bird, which repreſented the preſiding deity of the temple; the hawk, for example, the emblem of the ſun, to whom the building, according to Dr. Bryant, was conſecrated. On the ceilings of the ſame portico are painted aſtronomical pictures, the theories of the elements; on the walls, religious ceremonies, images, prieſts, and gods; by the ſide of the gates gigantic portraits of victorious ſovereigns, or emblematical figures of ſtrength or power threatening a group of ſuppliant figures, which they hold with one hand by the hair of the head. Here are alſo the remains of a domeſtic ſcene, which appears to be that of Joſeph and Mary, in their flight into Egypt; done in a ſtyle of the utmoſt truth and intereſt. This building altogether affords a high proof of the noble ſimplicity of Egyptian architecture; and would ſhew, in a ſtriking manner, that it is character, and not extent alone, which gives dignity to an edifice.

Beſides the Egyptian monuments, Greek and Roman ruins are found at the ſouth-eaſt of the iſland of Philoë, which appear to be the remains of a ſmall port, and a cuſtom-houſe, of which the wall of the façade is decorated with pilaſters and arcades of the doric order: ſome ſtanding fragments of columns ſhew an open gallery, or a kind of portico in front; between theſe ruins and the Egyptian monuments, the ſurbaſe of a Chriſtian church may be remarked, which is built of antique fragments, mixed with croſſes and Greek ornaments of the later ages; for in theſe countries catholiciſm has been too feeble to remove entirely her own worſhip from the pomp of idolatrous temples. After having eſtabliſhed her ſaints in the face of the Egyptian deities, ſhe has often painted a St. John, or St. Paul, by the ſide of the goddeſs Iſis, and diſguiſed Oſiris into St. Athanaſius; or elſe, quitting the heathen temples altogether, ſhe has dilapidated them, and taken the ready-made materials to conſtruct her own edifices of religious worſhip.

The quarries, of which Pocock ſpeaks, terminated the march of the French army in its conqueſt of Upper Egypt; which event general Deſaix carefully inſcribed on one of the granite rocks near the ancient monaſtery of cenobites. This original ſeat of the community is ſituated in a ſmall valley, ſurrounded with ſhattered rocks, and with ſands produced by their decompoſition. The cells of the monks are mere receſſes, about ſeven feet ſquare, enlightened only by a diſmal window, ſix feet from the ground: this refinement of auſterity, however, only concealed from the eye of the recluſe the view of the vaſt expanſe of heaven, an equally boundleſs horizon of ſand, and a bright uninterrupted light, varied neither by clouds nor rain; hence more melancholy than night, more waſting to the corporeal frame, and perhaps more impreſſive of the gloomy picture of their ſolitude. In this dungeon a bed of bricks, and a receſs ſerving as a cloſet, were all the conveniences which had been added to this ſpace between four walls; and a tower placed by the ſide of the gate, ſhews alſo that even the auſtere repaſt of theſe cenobites was taken in ſolitude. Nothing now indicates the remains of the habitation of man, but ſome ſhort ſentences written on the walls; and an extenſive court or area, with lofty embattled walls, covert ways, and embraſures for cannon; which ſeem to announce that the ſtorms of war had ſucceeded the horrors of ſilence in this retired place; and that this edifice, torn from the cenobites, who had raiſed it with ſo much zeal and perſeverance, had at different periods ſerved as a retreat to the vanquiſhed, or as an advanced poſt to ſome victorious army.

Returning from Aſſuan by the right bank of the Nile, Denon firſt reached the ancient Ombos, where the crocodile was ſaid to be worſhipped, and which is ſtill called Com-Ombos, *the mountain Ombos*; and it is ſituated on an eminence, which commands the country, and projects out to the very margin of the river. If all the fragments which are here ſeen belonged to a ſingle edifice, it muſt have been immenſe. In the center is a grand portico of columns with wide capitals, in very large proportion; on the ſouth, one gate is preſerved entire; it joined a wall of circumvallation, which is deſtroyed; at the weſt, and on the bank of the Nile, an enormous mole was raiſed, which is at preſent in ruins at its upper part; the inundations of the river have laid bare its foundations for ſixty feet in depth, they were conſtructed with the ſame ſolidity and magnificence as the ornamental part. Towards the north, in the ſame direction, the remains of a temple or gallery may be ſeen, in ſmaller proportion, with columns and capitals. In the open ſpace between theſe two laſt edifices, was a parapet made of hewn ſtone, which opened to the view the grand temple in the middle, and muſt have produced a theatrical and magnificent effect. Whatever compoſed the remainder of the ancient town of Ombos, it could not but offer a very majeſtic view when entire; ſince, dilapidated as it is, and encumbered with vile huts, the forms of beauty which it diſplays produce a moſt magic picture of ſplendid antiquity.

The rocks or quarries of Gebel Silſilis, are ſituated between Eſne and Ombos. The ſtone of theſe quarries being of an equal grain and uniform texture, blocks may be cut out of them as large as can be deſired; and it is doubtleſs to the beauty and unalterability of this material, that we owe the vaſt ſize and fine preſervation of the Egyptian buildings, which are our admiration at the preſent time, ſo many centuries after the date of their conſtruction. From the immenſe excavations, and the quantity of fragments which may ſtill be ſeen in theſe quarries, we may ſuppoſe that they were worked for ſome thouſands of years; and they alone might have ſupplied the materials employed for the greater part of the temples of Egypt. The diſtance would, in fact, prove no obſtacle,

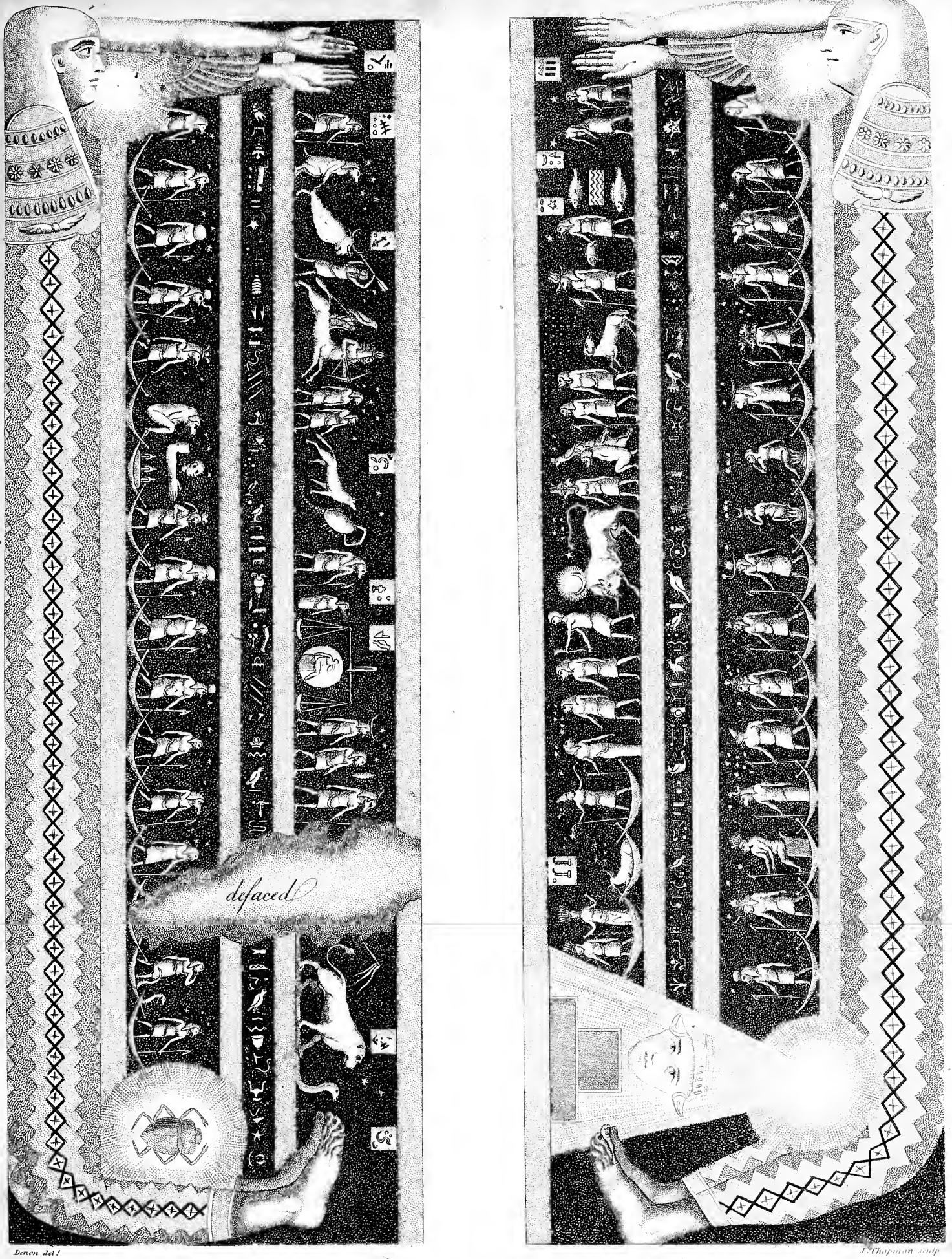
ſince the Nile, during its inundation, would conſtantly convey theſe materials to the places of their deſtination. The mania of erecting monuments among the Egyptians, ſhews itſelf on every ſide in theſe quarries; which, after having furniſhed materials for the erection of temples, were themſelves conſecrated by monuments, and decorated with religious edifices. On the ſhore of the Nile may be ſeen portieoes with columns, entablatures, and cornices, covered with hieroglyphics, all cut out of the ſolid roek; and likewiſe a large number of tombs, alſo hollowed out of the mountain. Theſe tombs are ſtill very curious, though they are diſfigured with trenches and rubbiſh. In ſeveral of them ſmall private chambers are found, many of which contain large ſealed figures; theſe chambers are adorned with hieroglyphies traced on the rock, and terminated with coloured ſtucco, repreſenting offerings of bread, fruits, liquors, fowls, &c. The ceilings, alſo of ſtucco, are ornamented with painted ſcrolls in an exquiſite taſte; the floor is inlaid with a number of tombs of the ſame dimenſions and form as are given to the caſes of mummies, and equal in number to the ſculptured figures: thoſe that repreſent men have ſmall ſquare beards, with a head-dreſs hanging behind over the ſhoulders; the women have the ſame dreſſes, but falling down in front over their naked necks. Theſe latter are commonly repreſented with one arm paſſing within the arm of the figure beſide them, and the other holding a lotus flower, a plant of Acheron, the emblem of death. The tombs that contain but a ſingle figure are probably thoſe of men who have died in celibaey; where three are contained, they repreſent perhaps a huſband who had two wives, either at one time or ſueceſſively. The doors are all deeorated with jambs covered with hieroglyphics, and ſurmounted with a coping, which forms a eornice, and an entablature on which a winged globe is always ſculptured. The choice of this ſituation for the habitations of the dead, ſhews, that at all times in Egypt, the ſilenee of the defert has been the aſylum of death, ſince even now the Egyptians carry their dead into the deſert three leagues from their habitations, that the dryneſs of the ſands may preſerve them from eorruption; and they go thither every week to pray over their remains.

The banks of the Nile from Ombos to Tentyra are greatly infeſted with crocodiles; but they ſeem to prefer certain reaches of the river, and abound moſt of all near Hermontes, called alſo *Crocodilopolis*. At the laſt-mentioned place Denon ſaw three of them; one, much larger than the reſt, was nearly twenty-five feet long; they were all aſleep, ſo that he could approach them within twenty paces, and had time to diſtinguiſh all the peculiarites which give them ſuch a hideous aſpect: he ſays they reſembled diſmounted cannon. He fired on one with a heavy muſquet; the ball ſtruek him and rebounded from his ſcales; he made a leap of ten feet, and dived into the river. They are not to be ſeen about Syene; but re-appear above the cataracts.

From Ombos and Siſilis the road leads to Chenubis. Within a quarter of a league of this city are two tombs hewn out of the rock, and a ſmall ſanctuary ſurrounded by a gallery, having a portico in front. Of profound antiquity are the temples of Chenubis, the ruins of which, as well as thoſe of the city itſelf, are in ſo diſjointed a ſtate, and ſo varied in their proportions, that it is very difficult to form any correct idea of their plan. The moſt conſiderable and moſt elevated parts conſiſt of ſix columns, the capitals of three of which belly out, while thoſe of the three others, which are parallel to them, are guttered, and united by an entablature. In the front of this fragment of ruins, to the ſouth, are the baſes of a portico, which appears not to have been finiſhed; and, in the ſame direction, is a block of granite which ſeems to have belonged to a coloſſal ſtatue. In an eaſtern direction is a fine baſin of water, the circumferenee of which is lined and decorated by a gallery formed of columns. In the weſtern part of the city the gate of a ſanctuary preſents itſelf, together with two very minute fragments. In the front is a lining in the form of a quay on the Nile. Among theſe architectural remains are ſeveral ruins of ſculpture; among others a group of two figures coupled together, three feet in height, the heads of which have been broken off. What is moſt curious at Chenubis, is an incloſure, the walls of which are built of unbaked bricks, and are of a conical ſhape, having at their baſe a thickneſs of upwards of twenty-ſeven feet. This extraordinary work, of which hiſtory makes no mention, is in many parts in an entire ſtate. It has been ſuppoſed that it was of Arabie conſtruction; but as there are no traces of Arabic edifices on the ſcite of Chenubis, it is preſumable that it is a work of high antiquity, and in this caſe there can never be occaſion to conſtruct fortifieations of any other deſcription in Egypt, with the exceptions of the jambs and embraſures, together with ſuch other parts as are expoſed to friction. In this inſtanee all the great maſſes have completely reſiſted the ravages of time, and may ſtill be employed in any defenſive meaſures. At a conſiderable diſtanee are the remains of two temples, the plans of which could not be traced. Theſe ruins ſeemed to be depoſited there merely to point out the ſcite of the city of Juno Lucina, which the infallible d'Anville has laid down in this latitude.

Repaſſing Thebes on the right ſide of the river, we approaeh Kous, which is the ancient Apollinopolis Parva. It is ſituated at the entranee of the opening of the deſert which leads to Berenice and Coſſir, and is ſtill beautiful on the ſouth ſide. Its immenſe plantations of melons, and its numerous and abundant gardens, muſt for ever make it delicious to the inhabitants of the ſhores of the Red Sea, and to the thirſty travellers who croſs the deſert. It has ſucceeded to the commerce and Chriſtian eſtabliſhment of Coptos; for the Copts are its moſt numerous inhabitants. Here is the top of a gate, the only remnant that is left of the ancient Apollinopolis Parva. This ſingle fragment appears larger than all the reſt of the town, and offers a ſtriking picture of the eternity that characterizes the Egyptian architecture. The other parts of the edifiee are doubtleſs buried under the mountain of rubbiſh that is occupied by the modern town. This gate bears an inſcription greatly poſterior to the original monument, and affords a curious example of ſkilful flattery in a preſect of Upper Egypt, in the time of the Ptolemies, and who, on account of ſome repairs twenty or thirty centuries after the firſt building of the temple, ventured to dedicate it to his maſters, to inſcribe the gate with their names, in order to tranſmit them to poſterity. Thus the glory of kings can only reſiſt the flood of time by being exalted on the monuments raiſed by the arts; deprived of this ſupport, they are buried in the overwhelming ſtream, leaving behind them only empty names that hiſtory repeats in vain. What would become of Achilles without his immortal monument, the Iliad of Homer; or of Seſoſtris, without the remains of theſe his coeval temples? The names of Pericles, of Auguſtus, of the Medicæan Lorenzo, are illuminated by the torch of literature and the arts; while the tombs of Genſeric, Attila, Tamerlane, and the other barbarian deſtroyers, are loſt among the common ruins of time!

The ruins of Keft or Coptos, once ſo famous for its commerce with the eaſt, are ſeen at a little diſtance from Kous. Nothing of its ancient ſplendour can now be diſtinguiſhed; but the extent of the heaps of ruins with which it is ſurrounded, points out the ſcite of the ancient city. The old town is as deſolate as the deſert, on the border of which it ſtands. It remains in nearly the ſame ſtate in which it was left by the conflagration which terminated the long ſiege that deſtroyed it in the third century, under the perſecutions of Diocletian. The old limits of the city have been abandoned, and to this has ſucceeded an Arab town, with a boundary wall of unbaked



Denon del.

T. Chapman sculp.

The Egyptian Zodiac in the Temple of Tentyra.

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baked bricks; beyond which, verging to the weſt, is the hamlet of Keft, which ſtill exiſts. Was Coptos the original name of this town? (See the article COPTOS, vol. v, p. 179.) And did the ancient Copts take their name from that of Coptos; where zeal collected their numbers, and made them ſuſtain ſo obſtinate and diſaſtrous a ſiege in the time of Diocletian? One may evidently diſtinguiſh the different ruins of two temples of high antiquity, and thoſe of a Chriſtian church, in which, taſte and art in the conſtruction were certainly leſs remarkable than the magnificence and richneſs of the materials employed: the fragments of porphyry and granite columns and pilaſters, ſcattered over a vaſt ſpace of ground, remain to atteſt the opulence and luxury of the firſt believers; but the ſculpture on the doric friezes, ſome fragments of which are ſtill viſible, ſhew that at this period the efforts at embelliſhment, which art could command, only impoveriſhed the ſumptuous magnificence of the materials. All theſe monuments lie without form and order on the ground, a very few portions of which are left ſtanding.

From Coptos we are led to Keneh, or Kenneh, which the French had intended to make the centre of commerce in Upper Egypt. Keneh has ſucceeded Kous, as Kous had ſucceeded Coptos. Its ſituation has this advantage, that it is immediately at the entrance of the deſert on the eaſtern bank of the Nile. It has never been ſo flouriſhing as the above-mentioned cities, becauſe its exiſtence is dated after the commerce of India had been diverted, and in a manner annihilated, either by the diſcovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, or by the tyranny of the Egyptian government. Its commerce, being confined to the paſſage of the pilgrims, is very inconſiderable, unleſs at the time when the great caravan is on its route. It is here that the pilgrims of the Oaſis on the ſide of Lybia, together with thoſe of Upper Egypt, and a few Nubians, take in their ſupplies, providing not only what is neceſſary for the paſſage acroſs the deſert to Coſſir, but alſo for the journey to Gidda, Medina, and Mecca, as well as for their return from thence. They are under the neceſſity of doing this, becauſe, the above cities being ſituated on a flinty deſert, the inhabitants have no other reſource except the gold they amaſs, inſomuch, that if, thanks to fanaticiſm, Mecca has continued to be a point of contact between India, Africa, and Europe, it has likewiſe become an abyſs, in which a population of an 120,000 ſouls abſorbs the gold of India, of Aſia Minor, and of every part of Africa.

Nearly oppoſite to Keneh, acroſs the river, ſtands Dendera, once the magnificent city of Tentyra, whoſe ſuperb remains ſtill aggrandize the weſtern ſhore of the Nile. To this ancient ſeat of Egyptian literature we muſt now conduct the reader; where, on the ceilings of their colleges or temples are beautiful zodiacs, planetary ſyſtems, and celeſtial planiſpheres, emblems of the conſtellations of the heavens, diſplayed in a curious and taſteful arrangement; the walls are covered with groups of hieroglyphical pictures, exhibiting the religious rites of this once learned people, their labours in agriculture and the arts, and their moral precepts. Here the Supreme Being, the firſt cauſe, ſeems every where depicted by the emblems of his attributes. Every part and member of theſe immenſe ſtructures appear equally important, and ſeem to have coſt the labour of ages to conceive, to put together, and to decorate. Throughout the whole is ſhewn equal care, and equal aſſiduity; which would lead us to believe that theſe edifices were not the works of their kings, but that they were conſtructed at the expence, and for the uſe, of the nation, under the direction of colleges of literati, and by artiſts whoſe labours were circumſcribed by invariable rules. From the modern Dendera to the remains of this grand temple or college, the diſtance is nearly two miles; and this is the only quarter that now bears the name of Tentyra, and which is called by the Arabs, *Berbeh*. After comparing this ſtructure with all the other Egyptian monuments, it confeſſedly appears to be the moſt perfect in its execution, and conſtructed at the happieſt period of the arts and ſciences in Egypt. No ornament has been here aſſumed without ſome end in view, without contributing in a greater or leſs degree to the perfection and harmony of the whole. The greateſt curioſity of this temple is certainly the zodiac, which decorates the two oppoſite plat-bands of the portico or grand entrance; and the celeſtial planiſphere, which occupies part of the ceiling of a moſt elegant apartment or chamber, built over the nave of the great temple. Denon profeſſes to have copied theſe ſuperb embelliſhments with the utmoſt correctneſs. The ceiling is divided into two compartments, by a large figure that ſeems to be an Iſis: her feet reſt upon the earth, her arms are extended towards heaven, and ſhe appears to occupy all the ſpace between. In another part of the ceiling is a large figure, probably repreſenting the year, with its hands and feet on the ſame level, and enfolding with the curvature of the body fourteen globes, placed on as many boats, diſtributed over ſeven bands or zones, ſeparated from each other by numberleſs hieroglyphics, but too much covered with ſtalactites and ſmoke to allow of being copied. Behind this firſt chamber is a ſecond, which receives light only through the door: this alſo is covered with moſt intereſting and admirably-executed hieroglyphical pictures. It is difficult to imagine what could be the uſe of this part of the edifice, ſo carefully finiſhed and ornamented with pictures ſo evidently ſcientific: thoſe on the ceilings appear to relate to the motions of the heavenly bodies, and thoſe on the walls have probably ſome reference to the earth, and the influences of the air and water. The earth is univerſally repreſented by the attribute or figure of Iſis, who was the preſiding divinity in all the temples of Tentyra, and whoſe emblem is found in every part. Her head is ſeen forming the capital of the columns belonging to the portico, and the firſt chamber of the great temple: it is alſo in the centre of the aſtragal, and ſculptured in gigantic proportions, on the outſide of the foundation wall: it is the diſtinguiſhing object in the ornaments of the frieze and the cornice, and is conſpicuous in all the pictures with her proper attributes. It is Iſis to whom all the offerings are made, when they are not preſented by herſelf to her huſband Oſiris: her figure is inſcribed on the outer gates of the encloſure, and to her are dedicated the little temples that are there repreſented; in that on the right hand of the entrance, ſhe is triumphing over two evil genii; in that which is behind the great temple, ſhe is variouſly deſcribed as holding Horus in her arms, defending him from every hoſtile attempt, entruſting him only to figures like cows, and ſuckling him at every age, from infancy to puberty. There are now neither doors nor even hinges to the gates, which formerly ſecluded from prophane eyes thoſe myſteries of which the prieſts were ſo jealous, and alſo, perhaps, concealed the treaſures of the ſtate. The chambers conſecrated to eternal night, the myſterioufneſs of the worſhip, obſcure as the temples themſelves, the ſecret initiations, ſo difficult to be obtained, and for ever ſhut againſt ſtrangers, and the ſudden overthrow, both of the government and religion, as ſoon as Cambyſes had violated the ſanctuaries, overthrown the divinities, and carried off the treaſures, all combine in announcing, that within theſe temples was contained the eſſence of all; and that hence emanated all the national learning, civil doctrine, and religious authority, of the ſtate.

Although the race of human beings which we now find in Egypt are wrapt in profound ignorance, it is nevertheleſs apparent, from the maſterly ſculptures and exquiſite workmanſhip diſplayed in the ſtructure of this temple, that not only the arts, but the ſublimer ſciences muſt have flouriſhed among its earlier inhabitants, who appear to have diffuſed their knowledge over all parts of the civilized globe. The ſtile and conſtruction of their

zodiac is an irrefragable proof of their deep knowledge in aſtronomy. It is enveloped by two large human figures, which are ſuppoſed to repreſent the year. A winged emblem placed before their mouth, may repreſent eternity, or elſe the paſſage of the ſun to the ſolſtices; the diſk at the joining of the thighs of the figure, is the ſun, whence proceeds a beam of light that falls on the head of a crowned Iſis, which repreſents either the earth, or the moon; the ſun, ſituated in the ſign cancer, which is depicted and crowned at the joining of the thighs of the oppoſite figure, may perhaps ſhew the period of the erection of the temple; the figures joined to, or between the reſpective ſigns, may mean the fixed ſtars; and thoſe ſtanding in the boats below the revolving heavenly bodies, the planets, and comets. The figures are all ſculptured and painted in a large ſize, completely filling the broad plat-bands of the portico; and the characters are repreſented of their natural colour, on a blue ground, ſtudded with yellow ſtars. One ſmall part is entirely defaced.

The apartment which contains the planiſphere, if we may judge by the ſubjects which are there ſculptured, muſt have been devoted to aſtronomy, and was probably attached to an obſervatory, where the ſcience was taught. The entrance to this building was through a ſmall ornamented door; the firſt room has no roof, and appears to be a ſmall cloſed court, but decorated with the ſame care as the other apartments; againſt the ſide wall on the right is repreſented a mummy reclined, under which is a long inſcription: from this open court a door leads into the aſtronomical room, which receives light through two large caſements; and on the ceiling of this apartment is ſculptured the planiſphere of the heavenly bodies, together with another ſubject, apparently aſtronomical, which is ſeparated from the firſt by the tall figure of Iſis abovementioned. The innermoſt room is almoſt entirely dark, receiving neither air nor light from any quarter, except the ſmall door; its ceiling is decorated with two appropriate bas-reliefs, one of which repreſents an altar, upon which ſeems to reſt the ark of the covenant, over which are two doves, with their wings united. Theſe ingenious decorations plainly indicate that the Egyptians had a planetary ſyſtem, and that their knowledge of the heavens was reduced to fixed principles. The exact ſimilarity between the ſigns here depicted, and thoſe of our zodiac, ſhew how the Greeks have firſt borrowed them from Egypt, and the Romans from Greece, whence they have reached our own times: and the more the importance of theſe curious figures is conſidered, the more will it influence the learned in Europe to inveſtigate and explain them.

At Tentyra is to be ſeen an inſcription in large and beautiful Greek characters, placed on the liſtels to the right and left of the top of one of the outer gates, to the ſouth of the great temple. The following is the inſcription, with a tranſlation:

Υπερ αυτοκρατορος Καισαρος Θεϋ υιϋ Διος ελευθεριϋ σωτηριας ὁτ επι Ποπλιϋ Οκταϋιϋ ηγεμονος και Μαρκϋ Κλωδϊϋ Ποσθμε επιστρατηγϋ Τρυφωνος στρατηγεντος οι απο της μετροπολεως ιερωσαν εκ νομϋ το προπυλος Ισιδι Θεαι μεγιστη και τοις συνναοις Θεοις ετϋς λα Καισαρος Θωυθ σεβαστη.

"On account of the emperor Cæſar, God, the ſon of Jupiter the Deliverer, when Publius Octavius being governor, Marcus Claudius Poſtumus commander in chief, and Tryphon general, the deputies of the metropolis conſecrated, in virtue of the law, the propylæum to Iſis, the greateſt of the goddeſſes, and to the aſſociated gods of the temple, in the thirty-firſt year of Cæſar." Theſe few Greek characters, in the midſt of innumerable Egyptian inſcriptions and hieroglyphics, form an extraordinary and ſtriking contraſt.

Haw, or Dioſpolis Parva, is ſeated a few miles below Tentyra, and on the ſame ſide of the river. It is a fine military ſituation, but it poſſeſſes no antiquities.

Between Dioſpolis Parva, and Girgeh, is the ancient Abydus, where Oſymandyas had erected a temple, and where Memnon had a palace: but the ruins are now proſtrate, and the whole an immenſe heap of rubbiſh.

Nagadi, an ancient town on the contrary ſide of the Nile, is ſituated at the entrance of the deſert, on one of the roads which lead to Coſſir. Here is a large ruin, which had been converted into an entrenched convent inhabited by Copts, and afterward became a moſque; but a greater part conſiſts of an ancient vaulted burial place, containing the tombs of the dead; and which ſerved for ſome time as miſerable quarters to the French army in Upper Egypt; and where the merchants and Arabs taken in the deſert were brought as priſoners, to undergo examination. Nagadi is a place of importance, and will eventually become the moſt frequented route of the deſert, ſince it is the ſhorteſt by a journey of one whole day. This road alſo leads by the Kittah, a very ſingular fountain, ſince it is ſituated on a higher level than all the ſurrounding ground. This fountain conſiſts of three wells ſix feet in depth; the ſtrata of which are, firſt, a bed of ſand, and beneath, a free-ſtone rock, through which the water filtrates, and ſlowly fills the holes that are dug. Here is a ſmall moſque, or caravanſary, which ſerves for ſhelter to the way-worn traveller deſtined to traverſe the dry and dreary deſert. And here we may be convinced of the great importance of thoſe wells ſo often mentioned in the Old Teſtament, as abſolutely neceſſary to ſatisfy the moſt preſſing of all wants in this burning climate, thirſt.

In deſcending the Nile, we next approach Girge or Girgeh, the nominal capital of Upper Egypt: it is a modern town that contains nothing remarkable. The name of Girgeh, or Djergeh, is derived from a large monaſtery built previouſly to the town, and dedicated to St. George, which is pronounced *Girgeh* in the language of the country. The Nile razes its walls, and is conſtantly waſhing away a part of them; and it would require a conſiderable expence to make here but an indifferent harbour for boats. This town is therefore intereſting only as being ſituated half way between Cairo and Syene, and in a very rich territory.

Small and inſignificant are now the remains of Aphroditopolis, and Ptolemais, cities which once populated and enriched this diſtrict; and of which we are furniſhed with very unſatisfactory accounts. Herodotus himſelf has only deſcribed their ruins from the falſe repreſentations which were given to him, and which modern travellers have only been able to notice ſuperficially, ſurrounded by every cauſe of anxiety, without daring to loſe ſight of the river, plundered on every pretence by the reis, by their interpreter, by every ſheik, baſha, kiachef, and wandering Bedouine, into whoſe hands they might happen to fall. Theſe travellers, under ſuch circumſtances, cannot be blamed in tranſmitting very imperfect accounts of countries ſo curious, but at the ſame time ſo dangerous to viſit. Aphroditopolis is but little better than a mountainous ruin of bricks; and Minchieh, the ancient Ptolemais, is quite annihilated. The only remains of this large Greek city is a quay, in but an indifferent ſtate of preſervation, though of a better conſtruction than the Egyptian works of this kind: of the ruins is built a large village, inhabited chiefly by Chriſtians. Ptolemais was the port of Arſinoe, which concurred to form the Nomos Heracleotes. The Ptolemais deſcribed by Strabo, is the preſent *Ptolometa*, built by the Greek prince Ptolemy Philadelphus, where are the remains of an Ionic temple, ſuppoſed to be done in the moſt ancient manner of executing that order, and which was delineated and deſcribed by Bruce. The Ptolemais which is now called Acca, or Acre, in Syria, and which was twice rendered celebrious by the glory of the Britiſh arms, in the time of the croiſades under Richard I. and in the late Egyptian war, under the ſuperior generalſhip of ſir Sidney Smith, was not *founded* by any of the Ptolemies, but was ſo named

in

Denon del.t J. Chapman sc.

Planisphere taken from the Temple of Tentyra.

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in honour of one of them, who fortified and improved it. The original name of this place was *Accho*, mentioned in the book of Judges, i, 31.

Three miles lower down on the right bank of the river, are the remains of Chemmis or Panopolis, now called Achmin: there ſtill is to be ſeen a building buried up to the very roof, which, no doubt, is the temple formerly dedicated to Pan, and conſecrated to proſtitution: a number of almees and women of the town ſtill ſubſiſt there, as at Metubis; if not under the ſpecial protection, yet at leaſt acknowledged and tolerated by the government. It is ſaid that on a particular day in every week, they aſſemble in a moſque near the tomb of the ſheik Harridi, where, mingling the ſacred and profane, they commit all kinds of indecencies. Achmin is large and well ſituated on a tongue of land projecting into the Nile, and ſhouldered up by the chain of the Mokatam mountains, which, bending round in this place, forms a deep and difficult paſs.

Siut is the modern town built on the ſcite of the ancient *Lycopolis*, or City of the Wolves. No antiquities are now to be found in Siut; but the Lybian chain, at the foot of which it ſtands, exhibits ſuch a vaſt number of tombs, that without doubt it muſt have been a very ancient and flouriſhing city. The Lybian chain of mountains appears like an immenſe ruin of nature, formed of horizontal and regular ſtrata of calcarcous ſtones more or leſs crumbling, and of different ſhades of whiteneſs, divided at intervals with large mammillated and concentric flints, which appear to be the nuclei, or, as it were, the bones, of this vaſt chain, and ſeem to prevent its total annihilation. Yet its decompoſition is daily happening by the impreſſion of the ſalt air, which penetrates every part of the calcareous ſurface, decompoſes it, and makes it, as it were, diſſolve down in ſtreams of ſand, which at firſt collect in heaps at the foot of the rock, and are then carried away by the winds, and, encroaching gradually on the cultivated plain and the villages below, change them into barrenneſs and deſolation. The rocks are excavated by a vaſt number of tombs of different dimenſions, and decorated with more or leſs magnificence. If one of theſe excavations was a ſingle operation, as the uniform regularity of the plan of each would ſeem to indicate, it muſt be an immenſe labour to conſtruct a tomb; but we may ſuppoſe that ſuch a one, when once finiſhed, would ſerve for ever for the ſepulture of a whole family, or even race, and that ſome religious worſhip was regularly paid to the dead; elſe where would have been the uſe of ſuch finiſhed ornaments of inſcriptions never read, and of a ruinous, ſecret, and buried, ſplendour? At different periods or annual feſtivals, or when ſome new inhabitant was added to the tombs, funereal rites were doubtleſs performed, in which the pomp of ceremony might vie with the magnificence of the place; which is the more probable, as the richneſs of decoration in the interior part forms a moſt ſtriking contraſt with the outer walls, which are only the rough native unembelliſhed rock. Further on to the ſouth, are remains of large quarries, the cavities of which are ſupported by pilaſters: ſome of theſe quarries have been the abode of the cenobites, who, among theſe vaſt retreats, united the auſtere aſpect of an inhabitant of the deſert to the gentle majeſty of one who partakes of the bounties beſtowed by a river, which diſpenſes to its banks plenty and fertility. This was the emblem of their life; before their retreat, cares, wealth, agitation; afterwards, calm and contemplative enjoyments; the ſilence of nature, too, imitated the reſerve to which they were compelled: in theſe regions, the unchanging and auguſt ſplendour of the ſky forcibly impels to conſtant but chaſtened admiration; the dawn of day is not enlivened by the cries of joy, or the bounding of animals; the ſong of no bird proclaims the return of morn; even the lark, which in our climates enlivens and animates our fields, in theſe burning regions only calls to his mate, but never chants his happineſs; the grave dignity of nature ſeems to inſpire with the deep ſenſe of humble acknowledgment, ſo that the grotto of the cenobite ſeems to have been placed here by the order and choice of the Deity himſelf; and every animated being partakes with him in his grave and ſilent meditation.

Hermopolis Magna is ſeated on the ſame ſide of the Nile as Siut, conſiderably below Beneadi. In approaching the eminence on which the portico of the great temple was built, we are ſtruck with its outline in the horizon, and its gigantic features. A peaſant who ſhould be drawn out from his cottage, and placed before ſuch a building as this, would believe that there muſt exiſt a wide difference between himſelf and the beings who were able to conſtruct it; and, without having any idea of architecture, he would ſay, "This is the work of a god, a man could not dare to inhabit it." If a drawing can ſometimes give an air of greatneſs to little things, it always diminiſhes the effects of great objects: ſo, in this inſtance, the capitals, which appear too heavy in proportion to the baſes, have, in reality, ſomething in their maſſiveneſs which ſtrikes with wonder, and diſarms criticiſm: but what is truly admirable, is, the beauty of the principal outlines, the perfection in the general conſtruction, and in the uſe of ornaments, which are ſufficient to give a rich effect without injuring the noble ſimplicity of the whole. The immenſe number of hieroglyphics which cover every part of this edifice, not only have no relief, but entrench upon no part of the outline, ſo that they diſappear at twenty paces diſtance, and leave the building all its uniformity. Among the hillocks, within three or four hundred yards of the portico, enormous blocks of ſtone may be ſeen half buried in ſand, and regular architecture beneath them, which appear to form an edifice containing columns of granite, juſt riſing above the preſent level of the ſoil. Further on, but ſtill connected with the ſcattered fragments of the great temple of Hermopolis, is built a moſque, in which are a number of columns of cipoline marble, retouched by the Arabs; then comes the large village of Achmunin, peopled by about five thouſand inhabitants.

On the oppoſite ſide of the river, beyond Malui, are ſeen, on the eaſtern bank, near the village of Shek-Abade, the ruins of Antinoe, built by Adrian, in honour of his favourite Antinous, who ſacrificed his own life in Egypt to ſave that of his ſovereign. It is unfortunate that ſuch ſublime heroiſm ſhould be found in alliance with infamous morals, ſo as to authorize a great man, under the ſacred title of gratitude, to publiſh his regrets, which have been long ago conſigned by nature to myſtery and ſhame. It is not eaſy to imagine what could have decided the choice of a ſituation for the town of Antinoe, at the foot of the melancholy Mokatam, in a ſtrait between two deſerts; except that Beſa, a more ancient town than Antinoe, and upon the ruins of which this latter had been built, was the place where the emperor was ſtopped by the diſorder that menaced his life; and the prieſts of this city, at that time in high repute, declared, upon being conſulted, that the patient would die, except ſome one devoted himſelf in his place! By the ſide of the river appears one of the city gates, reſembling a triumphal arch. It is decorated with eight Corinthian pillars, between which are three arches ſpringing from a buttreſs, ornamented with pilaſters: this group of ruins is the moſt conſiderable of all that now remain at Antinoe. From this point there ſeems to have been a ſtreet paſſing in a ſtraight line acroſs the town to the oppoſite gate: both ſides of this ſtreet appear to have been adorned with a colonade of Doric pillars, under which one might walk in the ſhade. There are ſtill viſible ſome of the ſhafts, and a few capitals, very much worn, on account of the friable nature of the lime-ſtone uſed in their conſtruction. The houſes were built of brick. The circuit of Antinoe was very great, if the ruins of Beſa, by being mixed with its own, have not increaſed its extent.

But

But after contemplating the remains of the great Diospolis, Latopolis, Apollinopolis, and Tentyra, and the other glories of Egyptian architecture, the ruins of Antinoe appear mean and paltry.

Again croſſing the Nile, and paſſing the town of Miniet, or Minyeh, we come to Behneſe, or Beneſech, the ancient Oxyrinchus, the capital of the thirty-third *nome*, or province, of Egypt. Nothing, however, remains of this city but ſome fragments of ſtone pillars, marble columns in the moſques, and a ſingle column left ſtanding, along with its capital; and part of the entablature, which ſhew that it is the fragment of a portico of the compoſite order. This ſolitary monument brings a melancholy ſenſation to the mind; Oxyrinchus, once a metropolis ſurrounded by a fertile plain, two leagues off the Lybian range of hills, has diſappeared beneath the ſand; and the new town has been obliged to retreat from this deſolating invaſion, leaving to its ravages houſe after houſe, and the inhabitants will at laſt be driven beyond the canal Juſef, on the border of which they will ſtill be menaced. In this diſtrict are valleys, and petrified wood; there have therefore been rivers and foreſts; theſe laſt have been deſtroyed, and after this have diſappeared the dew, the miſt, the rain, the rivers, and with them all the animated beings. In the moſque of Beneſech are a number of columns of different marbles, which are doubtleſs the ſpoils of the ancient Oxyrinchus, but which were not of the ſtile of ancient Egypt.

Quitting Oxyrinchus, we again reach Beneſuef, and Sedinan; and then paſſing Arſinoe or Feyyum, we enter the plain of the pyramids, or Saccarah, the ſcite of the ancient Memphis. The pyramids of Saccarah mark out that immenſe number of monuments which decorated the field of death, the necropolis of Memphis, and bounded that city on the ſouth, as the pyramids of Gizeh did on the north. This place is now called the *plain of the mummies*. We might ſtill be ſeeking in vain the ſcite of that ſuperb city, which exceeded the metropolitan dignity of Thebes, and even eclipſed its grandeur, if theſe ſumptuous tombs did not atteſt its exiſtence, and aſcertain indubitably the extent of ground it once occupied. Moſt of the diſcuſſions publiſhed on this ſubject, and which render its ſituation uncertain, have been written by learned men, who never viſited Egypt, and were therefore incapable of judging how ſcrupulouſly exact are the deſcriptions of it given by Herodotus and Strabo. If the ſcite of Memphis, as Denon ſuggeſts, extended from the pyramids of Gizeh to thoſe of Saccarah, its magnitude muſt indeed have been immenſe, allowing for its eaſtern and weſtern boundaries. The pyramids are in number about twenty, diſperſed over this border of the Lydian deſert; but the three largeſt, which have ſo long excited the curioſity of travellers, are ſituated near Gizeh, almoſt in a line acroſs the river to the weſtward of Cairo. It is in the rich territory which ſurrounds them that fable has placed the Elyſian fields: the canals which interſect them being the fancied Lethe, and the Styx. The largeſt of theſe pyramids might well have been conſidered as one of the wonders of the world. The north ſide of the ſtructure, being meaſured by a radius of ten feet in length, taking two ſeveral ſections, was found by Mr. Greaves to be 693 Engliſh feet. The other ſides were examined by a line for want of an even level, and a convenient diſtance to place the inſtruments. The altitude, if meaſured by its perpendicular, is 481 feet; but if it be taken as the pyramid aſcends inclining, then it is equal, in reſpect of the lines ſubtending the ſeveral angles, to the latitude of the baſis. If we picture to ourſelves four equilateral triangles on the ſides of the ſquare baſis, mutually inclining till they terminate in a point, (for ſuch is the appearance of the top to thoſe who ſtand below,) we ſhall obtain an accurate idea of the true figure and dimenſions of this pyramid, the area of whoſe baſis contains 480,249 ſquare feet, or ſomething more than eleven Engliſh acres of ground, a proportion ſufficiently monſtrous to ſtagger our belief, if the fact were not eſtabliſhed beyond diſpute. The meaſurement taken by the French engineer Groſbert, in the year 1800, agrees very nearly with that of Mr. Greaves.

The aſcent to the ſummit of this pyramid is contrived by a ſucceſſion of ſteps, which running about the building in a level, made a narrow walk, when the ſtones were entire on every ſide. Theſe ſteps are made of maſſy poliſhed ſtones. The lowermoſt is about four feet deep, and three broad, but they diminiſh in ſize towards the top, and they end not in a point as mathematical pyramids do, but in a little flat or ſquare conſiſting of nine ſtones, beſides two which have fallen from the corners. The entrance into this wonderful monument of human induſtry is by a narrow paſſage, which opens on the ſixteenth ſtep, in the midſt of the north ſide. It goes declining with an angle of twenty-ſix degrees, and is in breadth exactly $3\frac{4}{6\,3}$ Engliſh feet, and in length ninety-two feet ſix inches. At the end of this paſſage there is another, ſimilar in appearance but a little riſing, where the lowermoſt ſtone of the roof forms a ſharp ridge, beneath which there is ſometimes ſo ſmall a ſpace that a man muſt proſtrate himſelf on the ground in order to paſs through. This difficulty, however, is chiefly owing to the ſand which is blown in by the wind, as the paſſage, when cleared, is of the ſame dimenſions with the entrance. Beyond this ſtraight is a ſteep maſſy ſtone, by which the curious traveller may aſcend to the lower end of the firſt gallery. This has been deſcribed as five feet broad, five feet high, and 110 feet long; the pavement, conſiſting of white poliſhed marble, riſes with a gentle acclivity; and the ſides and roof are conſtructed of unpoliſhed ſtone, leſs compact than that of the pavement. At the end of this gallery are two paſſages, one low and horizontal, and the other high and riſing. At the commencement of the lower paſſage, on the right hand, is a circular well, lined with white marble, and meaſuring ſomewhat more than three feet diameter. Pliny aſſerted that this well was eighty cubits deep, but it is now almoſt filled up with rubbiſh, and does not poſſeſs a depth of more than twenty feet. About fifteen feet diſtant from this well is another paſſage of exquiſite workmanſhip, which runs in a level 110 feet, and then terminates in an arched vault or chamber, ſtanding due eaſt and weſt, called the Queen's Chamber. The length of this room is nearly twenty feet, its breadth about ſeventeen, and its height rather leſs than fifteen; the walls are coated over with white cement, and the roof is covered with large ſmooth ſtones, which are placed in a ſhelving poſition, and meet above in an angle.

The ſecond gallery, divided from the firſt by the wall in which is the entrance to the laſt-mentioned paſſage, is by no means inferior either in curioſity of art or richneſs of materials to the moſt ſplendid buildings; it riſes with an angle of twenty-ſix degrees, and is 154 feet in length from the well beneath, but if meaſured on the pavement it is ſomething leſs, on account of a vacuity of about fifteen feet. The height of it is twenty-ſix feet, and the breadth ſix feet ſix inches, in which muſt be included two parapets, each nineteen inches in diameter, pierced with holes wherein to faſten ſome machines for raiſing the ſarcophagus. The ſtone of which this gallery is conſtructed is white marble, very evenly cut in large tables, and finely poliſhed. Beyond this admirable gallery is a ſquare hole, which leads into two cloſets or ſmall anti-chambers lined with a rich and ſpeckled kind of Thebaic marble. The firſt of theſe is almoſt equal to the ſecond, and of an oblong figure, one ſide containing ſeven feet, and the other three feet ſix inches: the height is about ten feet, and the floor is perfectly level. The inner anti-chamber is ſeparated from the former by a ſtone of red granite, about two feet lower than the roof, and three feet above the pavement. This ſecond cloſet leads to another ſquare paſſage, formed entirely of granite, and opening to a ſumptuous and well-proportioned room, ſituated in the center of the pyramid, equi-diſtant from all the ſides, and

almoſt in the midſt between the baſis and the top. The floor, the ſides, and the roof, conſiſt exclufively of fine marble. The ſtones which cover this room are of a furpriſing length, and actually reſemble a number of large beams deſigned to ſuſtain the enormous weight of the pyramid above. The length of the chamber on the ſouth ſide, where the firſt and ſecond row of ſtones meet, is $34\frac{3}{80}$ Engliſh feet; the breadth of the weſt ſide, meaſured in the ſame manner, is $17\frac{1}{10}$; and the height is about 19 feet 6 inches. It is curious to remark, that at the top of the laſt-mentioned gallery is a ſmall platform, in which is a thick block of granite, like an immenſe cheſt imbedded in the ſolid building, and hollowed out ſo as to leave alternate projections and retirings, into which, blocks of the ſame material, with correſponding grooves and projections, are let in, which were intended for ever to conceal and protect the entrance to the principal chamber which is behind them. It muſt have required immenſe labour to conſtruct this part of the edifice, and not leſs to have broken an opening through; ſo that the zeal of ſuperſtition has here been oppoſed to the eagerneſs of avarice, and the latter has prevailed. After mining through thirteen feet of ſolid granite, a door, three feet three inches ſquare was diſcovered, which is the entrance to the principal chamber. This magnificent chamber contains the ſarcophagus of Cheops, or Chemmis, whoſe body, however, was not depoſited in the pyramid. It conſiſts of one piece of fine ſpeckled marble, cut ſmooth and plain, without any ſculpture or inſcription; its figure is that of an altar, or of two cubes finely ſet together; its poſition is exactly in the meridian, and almoſt at an equal diſtance from all ſides of the room, except the eaſt, from which it is twice as remote as any of the reſt. A hollow ſpace is obſervable beneath it; and a large ſtone has been removed from the pavement at the angle next adjoining it. In the ſouth and north ſides of the chamber are two inlets evenly cut in the walls oppoſite to each other, which ſeem to have been deſigned for the reception of lamps. The tomb is ſix feet eleven inches long, three feet wide, and three feet one inch and a half in depth: it is empty and open, and no traces of any cover can be perceived. Here terminates the interior of this immenſe edifice, in which the work of the hand of man appears to rival the gigantic forms of nature; and for no other purpoſe than to incloſe in the center of it the ſmall ſarcophagus above deſcribed, which was intended to receive the mummy of its projector, Cheops; but the Almighty Diſpoſer of human events permitted not the pride and vanity of the founder to be thus gratified. Plutarch has noticed a curious echo in this pyramid, as anſwering four or five times, and which M. Lucas aſſerts will repeat ten or twelve times diſtinctly. We are, however, at no loſs to account for this effect, when we contemplate the narrow entrance, the long galleries which lie in one continued line, and the termination of thoſe paſſages in the center of the pyramid.

The ſecond pyramid, ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from the former, has been but imperfectly deſcribed either by ancient or modern writers. Herodotus merely aſſerts, that its magnitude falls ſhort of the other, though its altitude is equal, and that it contains no ſubterraneous chambers. Diodorus informs us, that its architecture reſembles the former, but that the dimenſions are leſs by one hundred Grecian feet; and Pliny makes the difference to be ſtill greater by forty-ſix feet: yet Strabo has ventured to affirm that both theſe pyramids are equal; and Mr. Greaves, on the credit of a perſon who meaſured the ſecond with a line, aſſures us that the baſes of both are alike, and that the height is not inferior to that of the firſt. This ſtructure has no entrance; the ſtones of which it is built are much ſmaller than thoſe of the firſt; the ſides, inſtead of riſing by degrees, are ſmooth and equal; and the whole fabric, except on the ſouth ſide, is quite entire. This is the pyramid of Cephrenes.

The third pyramid, erected on an advantageous acclivity, at the diſtance of a furlong from the ſecond, is mentioned by Herodotus as meaſuring three hundred feet on every ſide, and as being built to the center with Ethiopic marble. Diodorus, who gives the ſame dimenſions of the baſis, aſſerts, that the walls were raiſed fifteen ſtories with black ſtone like Thebaïc marble; and that this piece of workmanſhip, on which the name of Mycerinus, the founder, was engraved, far exceeds the other pyramids in its architecture and the richneſs of its materials.

Why the Egyptian monarchs ſhould have burdened themſelves or their people with ſuch an enormous expence, as muſt of neceſſity have been attached to the building theſe pyramids, is an enquiry not eaſily ſolved. Ariſtotle has ſuppoſed them the work of tyranny, and Pliny imagines that they were built partly from oſtentation, and partly out of ſtate policy. But the true deſign might have ſprung from the Egyptian theology, which taught its votaries that ſo long as the body was preſerved from decay, the ſoul continued with it; and hence we may obſerve the great pains and curious precautions of the Egyptians to preſerve the bodies of their deceaſed friends. The reaſon why a pyramidal figure was generally choſen for the monuments ſeems to have been, becauſe it is the moſt permanent form of ſtructure; for, by reaſon of the gradual conſtruction towards the top, it is neither overburdened with its own weight, nor ſubject to the ſoaking of rain, as other buildings are. But it may be proper to obſerve that all the Egyptian pyramids are not of the ſame form, ſome being round and almoſt conical, and others riſing with a leſs inclination, and not ſo pointed at the top. Pliny and Diodorus agree in the aſſertion that no leſs than three hundred and ſixty thouſand men were employed in erecting the firſt pyramid; and it is ſaid that twenty years were ſpent in the work. Such is the aſtoniſhing bulk of theſe pyramids, that engravings of them have ever tended to miſlead the mind in forming due conceptions of their immenſe magnitude; for as it is impoſſible to repreſent their relative bulk on paper, ſo all drawings made to ſhew their form, naturally diminiſh the idea of their ſize in the imagination of the obſerver. The utmoſt uncertainty alſo exiſts as to the time in which theſe pyramids were firſt violated, as does even that of their conſtruction; the latter, which is loſt in the night of ages, gives an immenſe period to the annals of art; and in this view we cannot too much admire the accuracy of the pyramidal ſtructure, the permanency ſecured by their form and conſtruction, and by ſuch immenſe proportions, that theſe gigantic monuments may be conſidered as the laſt link in the chain of the coloſſi of art and nature.

Near theſe pyramids ſtands the gigantic monument of the ſphinx; and near Sacarrah are the caves of the Egyptian ibis, with thouſands of mummies of that venerated bird; which ſeems now almoſt loſt to Egypt, ſince few modern travellers have been able to deſcribe it from a living ſubject. Theſe caves are on the ſouth of the Necropolis, or city of the dead, of ancient Memphis, and where the tombs and ſepulchres have been highly ornamented and filled with mummies, exactly ſimilar to thoſe deſcribed at Thebes.

By what is related of the celebrated ſtructure, ſituate in the Heracleotic nome, near Arſinoe, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Labyrinth*, it ſeems to have been deſigned as a pantheon of all the Egyptian deities that were worſhipped in the provinces, and as a place for the accommodation of the general aſſembly of magiſtracy of the whole nation. For this reaſon every nome had a hall or palace appropriated to itſelf: the whole edifice, according to Herodotus, containing twelve. Theſe halls were vaulted, and had an equal number of doors oppoſite to one another, and encompaſſed with the ſame wall. This truly magnificent building contained no leſs than three thouſand chambers, fifteen hundred of which were ſubterraneous, and ſet apart either for the ſepulchre of the kings who built the labyrinth, or for the abodes of the ſacred crocodiles. Theſe were never ſhown to ſtrangers;

ers; but Herodotus informs us that he viewed every room in the upper part, in which he found ſufficient to engage his attention and to fill him with aſtoniſhment. Innumerable exits by different paſſages and infinite returns, afforded a thouſand occaſions of wonder, while his conductor led him from a ſpacious hall to a chamber, from thence to a private cabinet, and then through other paſſages that led to the more ſumptuous rooms, where the roofs and walls were completely incruſted with fine marble, and adorned with exquiſite ſculptures. The halls were ſurrounded with beautiful poliſhed columns, and at the termination of the labyrinth ſtood a pyramid of two hundred and forty feet high, decorated with large figures of various animals. Other writers have aſſerted that this edifice was ſituate in the midſt of an immenſe ſquare, and completely ſurrounded with buildings; that the porch was of Parian marble, the floors paved with vaſt flags, and the roof appearing like a canopy of ſtone; that the interior conſiſted of the temples of ſeveral deities, and galleries that were adorned with a profuſion of exquiſite pillars, images of the gods, and coloſſal ſtatues of the kings; that the paſſages were ſo numerous and intricate as to render a guide indiſpenſably neceſſary, and that ſeveral of the rooms were ſo conſtructed, that a noiſe like that of thunder reverberated through them on opening the doors. Such is the general deſcription of this wonderful ſtructure; a conſiderable part of the ruins of which, it is ſaid, may yet be ſeen at the ſouthern extremity of the lake Mœris, and thirty miles diſtant from the ruins of Arſinoe. M. Pauw, however, is of opinion, that there is no *certainty* of thoſe being the remains of it.

The lake Mœris or Bathen, called by the Turks Birket-el-Kerun, is a vaſt lake inland, in the province of Feyyum or Arſinoe. Herodotus pronounces this lake the nobleſt and moſt wonderful of all the works of the Egyptian kings. The ancients deſcribed it as meaſuring 3600 ſtadia in circumference; but modern travellers agree that its breadth does not exceed half a league; that it is about a day's journey in length, and that its circumference is about twelve or fifteen leagues, which will be found ſufficiently prodigious, when we conſider that it was formed by human labour, as appeared from two pyramids, which, in the time of Herodotus, raiſed their heads to the height of three hundred feet above water in the centre of the lake. This lake in the deepeſt part has fifty fathom water: it ſtretches from north to ſouth, and is fed by water from the Nile by means of a channel cut for that purpoſe. Its conſtruction is attributed to a king of Egypt called Mœris, who formed his great deſign for the purpoſe of correcting the irregularities of the Nile, either by preventing the ſtagnation of the water in other places to the detriment of the lands, or by preſerving an ample ſupply when the river failed in its uſual prolific inundations. An iſle, of about one league in circumference, may be ſtill ſeen in the middle of this lake; but no veſtiges are diſcernible of the two pyramids which formerly ſtood here; though ſeveral ruins of tombs and temples have been diſcovered, with large figures of men and animals.

Gizeh, which is conſidered as part of the ſcite of ancient Memphis, is a large ſtraggling town, where Bonaparte erected founderies and manufactories of arms, ammunition, &c. It has little of antiquity about it, except the pyramids. Here is a palace, which was the reſidence of Mourad Bey, elegantly furniſhed, and ſituated at the extremity of an orange grove, by which all its apartments are richly perfumed. Here the oriental luxuries exhibit their charms, and fill the ſenſes with voluptuous pleaſure. We do not here find, indeed, thoſe long alleys which are the pride of the French gardens, nor the taſteful ſerpentine walks of the Engliſh, where health and appetite are the reward of the exerciſe required to ſurvey them; but in the eaſt, where indolent repoſe forms one of the chief luxuries, the tents or kioſks are pitched under the thick branches of a cluſter of ſycamores, and open at pleaſure upon a fine lawn and fragrant underwood of orange and jeſſamine. To this is added the voluptuous pleaſure of enjoyments ſtill but imperfectly known to us, but which we may eaſily conceive; ſuch, for inſtance, as to be attended by young ſlaves, who unite to elegance of form gentle and careſſing manners; to be indolently ſtretched on vaſt and downy carpets, ſtrewed with cuſhions, in company with ſome favourite beauty, breathing perfumes, and intoxicated with deſires; to receive ſherbet from the hands of a young damſel, whoſe languiſhing eyes expreſs the contentment of willing obedience, and not the conſtraint of ſervitude. Surrounded with theſe delights, the burning African need not envy the inhabitant of Europe; and man may find happineſs wherever there is beauty and grace, whether in the gardens of Trianon, or repoſed on the banks of the Nile. Gizeh is ſituated on the weſtern ſide of this river, and nearly oppoſite Cairo, having the iſland of Rhoda, or Roudah, almoſt in the center between both. The communication is by a bridge of pontoons on each ſide the iſland, one of which communicates with Gizeh, the other with Cairo, at fort Ibrahim. The old town of Kahira, Forſtah, or Forſtat, is ſituated a little above, and more in a line with Gizeh.

Modern Cairo, or the City of Victory, falls much below the expectation of every European traveller, who has read of "the ſuperb town, the holy city, the delight of the imagination, greateſt among the great, whoſe ſplendour and opulence made the prophet ſmile;"—for thus the eaſtern people deſcribe it. We indeed ſee a numerous population, and a vaſt extent of buildings, but not a ſingle handſome ſtreet, nor one fine monument. The palaces of the beys, &c. in this town, are all ſurrounded by walls, which render the ſtreets gloomy inſtead of enlivening them; and the miſerable habitations of the poor add to the afflicting view of extreme poverty. However, within theſe fortified places much of convenience and luxury is to be found; they are adorned with handſome marble baths, and fragrant vapour-ſtoves, with moſaic ſaloons, in the middle of which are baſons and fountains of water, large divans compoſed of tufted carpets, raiſed beds covered with rich ſilks, and ſurrounded with magnificent cuſhions, which generally fill three ſides of each room. The windows, however, when there are any, never open; and the light principally comes in through a dome in the center of the ceiling.

There are ſome remarkable edifices at Cairo, ſuch as the palace of Joſeph, the well of Joſeph, the granaries of Joſeph; all of which have been promiſcuouſly referred to the high antiquity of the patriarch Joſeph, the ſteward or miniſter of Pharoah. Were this the caſe, Cairo ſhould be as ancient as Memphis; whereas the ſtructures of that city are built of ruins more ancient than the edifices themſelves; and they all bear the general marks of the muſſulman architecture of theſe regions. Dr. White, profeſſor of Arabic in the univerſity of Oxford, in his tranſlation of the celebrated Arab hiſtorian Abdollatiph, publiſhed in 1800, has been enabled ſatisfactorily to correct the above errors, into which travellers of conſiderable eminence have fallen. "Abdollatiph informs us that, in the reign of Saladin, (whoſe proper title was *Salah-el-din Joſeph Ebn Job,*) Caracuſh, one of his officers, built the wall which ſurrounds Foſtat and Cairo, and the ſpace between them, together with the caſtle; and that he alſo formed two wells within the caſtle, of wonderful conſtruction. Though Abdollatiph here uſes the dual number, yet there is in fact but one well, divided into *two* diſtinct parts; there being a reſting place at the depth of 146 feet, to which the water is firſt drawn up by a wheel, which is there fixed, and worked by buffaloes; and it is afterwards raiſed to the ſurface by the operation of a ſecond wheel of a ſimilar nature. This well has always been known under the name of Joſeph's Well; and the appellation has miſled Paul Lucas, and almoſt all our modern hiſtorians, to attribute the work to the patriarch

Joſeph. De Maillett, and biſhop Pococke, indeed, have aſſigned it to a grand vizier of ſultan Mahomet, the ſon of Calaun, whoſe name was Joſeph; and Shaw, from conjecture merely, ſuppoſes it to have been effected by the Babylonians. The exact date of the work, and the reaſon of the name, are here clearly aſcertained; and both are evidently to be referred to that Saladin Joſeph Ebn Job, who was cotemporary with, and the patron of, Abdollatiph."

The aqueduct which brings water from old Cairo to the caſtle, by a route of 160 fathoms, would be a work of art worth celebrating, if in its courſe it was not rendered faulty by many imperfections. The caſtle is built without plan, or any real ſtrength; the only remarkable room in it is the hall of the divan, in which the beys aſſemble, and which is often the ſcene of angry debates and bloody ſtrife in this contentious government. Joſeph's palace, *i. e.* the palace of Saladin, is planned in a fine ſtile; and we here ſee with admiration the uſe which the Arabian architects have made of the antique fragments, which they have incorporated in their own works, and the ingenuity which they have ſhewn in occaſionally mixing with them ornaments of their own invention. The minarets and the tombs are the only buildings which preſerve the Arabian ſtile in any degree of purity; and if they do not preſent that appearance of full ſecurity, which is the perfection of architecture, at leaſt they gratify the eye by a richneſs of ornament, which does not degenerate into heavineſs, and a ſymmetry of parts combined with ſo much elegance, as to remove all idea of meanneſs and poverty of ſtile. The cemetery, or burying-place, of the mamalukes, is an example of this: in quitting the rubbiſh of Cairo, the ſtranger is aſtoniſhed to ſee a diſtrict all built of white marble, where edifices raiſed on columns, and terminated by domes, or by painted, carved, and gilt, palanquins, form a cheerful and inviting picture; trees alone are wanting to render this funereal retreat a delightful ſpot; ſo that it would ſeem as if the muſſulmans, who baniſh gaiety from their houſes when alive, wiſhed to bury it with them in the tomb.

Bulak, or Boulac, is the port of Cairo, which forms a ſuburb extending a mile below the city. Here all the merchandize from Lower Egypt, and the proviſions from Upper Egypt, are diſcharged. In the corn-market, the grain is expoſed to ſale in large heaps, as unladen from the barks. Oppoſite is the village of Embabey, which acquired celebrity from being the ſcene of the battle of the pyramids. The iſle of Rhoda, or Gardens, ſtands oppoſite the caſtle, and is a moſt delightful ſpot. At the extreme point is the mekkias or nilometer, which is a graduated column erected for the purpoſe of ſhewing the degrees of the increaſe of the Nile. Looking down from the diſtant hills upon the various appendages of Gizeh, Old Cairo, Bulak, Rhoda, the cemetery of the caliphs, and the moſques and minarets proceeding from the gardens on the banks of the river, the whole gives to Grand Cairo a noble and magnificent appearance; but, as we approach, the illuſion vaniſhes and diſappointment enſues. See the article CAIRO, vol. iii. p. 600.

A few miles below Cairo, leaving the ruins of the ancient Heliopolis, or city of the ſun, to the eaſtward, the Nile divides itſelf into two principal branches; the one leading to Damietta, called the Peluſian branch, on the right; the other to Roſetta and Alexandria, called the Canopic branch, on the left; thus forming the elevation or point of the Delta. In this advantageous and delightful ſituation, the French had projected to build a new city, as the grand metropolis and depôt of Lower Egypt. Damietta is the ancient Thamiatis, whoſe bay or road is now the great eaſtern mouth of the Nile, contiguous to the north-weſtern extremity of Lake Menzaleh, and about ſeventy miles from the point of the Delta. (See the article DAMIETTA, vol. v. p. 575.) At the other extremity of Lake Menzaleh, within an ample bay of the Mediterranean, ſtood the ancient Peluſium or key of Egypt, now in ruins. On or near its ſcite is built the modern Tineh, about fifty miles from Cairo. The Canopic branch, which diſembogues at Roſetta, to the weſtward of Lake Brulos, or Bourlos, forms the great weſtern mouth of the Nile; and from it runs the canal of Alexandria. On the coaſt, between theſe two laſt-mentioned towns, is ſituated the port and bay of Aboukir. The whole country embraced by theſe two great arms of the Nile, preſenting an elongated triangle ſimilar to the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet, is thence called *Delta*; but this name cannot be of higher antiquity than the era of the Grecian ſovereignty.

The ancients divided Lower Egypt into three provinces; theſe were, Phacuſa or Arabia; Bubaſtus; and Heliopolis, whoſe capital was the On of the ſcriptures, ſo famous for its temple and religious rites, and whoſe inhabitants are reported to have been the wiſeſt of the Egyptians. The temple is ſaid to have been very magnificent: and its original name was Ain Shems, or Beth-Shemeſh, 'the fountain of the ſun:' from whence the whole province received its name, being called at different periods Ain, Aven, and On. Bubaſtus was ſituated to the eaſt of this, and renowned alſo for its magnificent temple, which was dedicated to the goddeſs Beſheh or Beſhet, the Αρτεμις αγρια, or Diana agreſtis, of the Greeks and Romans. This nome and the chief city of it are the Phibeſeth of the ſcriptures: and they are often mentioned in conjunction with On or Heliopolis, which was next in ſituation. The third great province was the nome of Arabia; ſo called, not becauſe it was in Arabia, which it was not, but from the Arabian ſhepherds, who had formerly ſettled in theſe parts, and held them for many years. The true Arabian nome was the land of Goſhen, of the ſcriptures, called by the Seventy Γεσσεμ της Αραβιας. This diviſion was probably anterior to the complete formation of the Delta.

Roſetta is the ancient Raſchid; and the branch of the Nile on which it ſtands is alſo called the Bolbitine branch, from the city of Bolbitinum, the ruins of which are near its mouth, and have ſince formed the tower and convent of Abu-Mandur. Leo Africanus ſays, that Raſchid was built by a governor of Egypt, during the empire of the caliphs. He does not mention, however, the name of the caliph in whoſe reign it was built, nor the time of its foundation. Roſetta is a place of conſiderable commerce, but contains nothing curious. Its ancient circumvallation implies, that it was once larger than it is at preſent. Its original compaſs is aſcertained by the ſand-banks by which it is covered from weſt to ſouth.

A few leagues to the weſtward of Roſetta, is Lake Mahadie, called alſo Lake Aboukir, which ſeparates the plain of the deſert from the peninſula, at the extremity of which Aboukir is built. This deep and extenſive lake was only a remnant of the ancient Canopic branch, which the Nile has abandoned; but in the year 1778, the ſtone pier which had been erected before its mouth, was ſuddenly broken down by the fury of the waves, and the water ruſhing in with impetuoſity, deſtroyed ſeveral villages, and thus recently formed the lake Mahadie. This encroachment, ſtill daily gaining ground, threatens eventually to deſtroy the iſthmus which attaches Aboukir to the main land. The Arabian princes began to ſtrengthen the pier or mound, but it was never finiſhed; and therefore yielded to the efforts of the waves, impelled during a part of the year by the northerly winds. At preſent there are no other remains of their work than two piers, one on each bank.

But lake Edko, ſeparated from lake Mahadie only by a narrow ſpace of ground towards the eaſt, is of ſtill more recent date, having been formed during the overflowing of the Nile in 1800. The dam of the canal of Derout having been broken down, the waters of the river found already paſſage, flowed copiouſly into the low grounds, and opened themſelves a communication with the ſea into the bay of Aboukir. When the Nile retired to its bed, the

ſea

ſea entered through the opening which had been thus made, and gave permanency to the lake. It is very ſhallow, yet aſtoniſhingly abundant in fiſh.

At the upper part of the lake Mahadie is a raiſed cauſeway, behind which paſſes the canal which carries the water of the Nile to Alexandria; the ſame which the Engliſh cut through after the battle of Alexandria, in 1801; and thus made an entire iſland of the peninſula of Aboukir, inundated the whole territory of Alexandria, and reſtored the ancient lake Mareotis, which had for ages been dry. This lake is now ſaid to extend fifteen leagues from eaſt to weſt, and about ten from north to ſouth, and from one to two fathoms deep.

After croſſing the mouth of the lake Mahadie, we arrive at the ſuburb of Aboukir. The fortreſs is founded upon a rock, which there is every reaſon to ſuppoſe was the fort or caſtle of Canopus, or of Heraclea, which Strabo places at or near this ſpot. Contiguous are ſeveral mounds of ruins, and fragments of earthen pots, blended with the ſand of the deſert which the wind has carried thither. It has been ſuſpected that Arabic towers had been ſunk on this ſpot, or, perhaps, that it had been the ſcite of a manufactory of pottery, or that theſe were the ruins of Heraclea. Some fragments of granite on the moſt elevated part of the ground certainly countenance this latter opinion; particularly as at no great diſtance are the fragments of a ſtatue thirty-ſix feet in height; the unperiſhable granite, workmanſhip, and ſtile of which, pronounce it to have been an Iſis holding a nilometer. Near it are ſeveral fragments of architecture, the dimenſions of which evince that they once belonged to a capacious and noble edifice, perhaps the temple of Serapis. Theſe ruins have for ſeveral centuries been waſhed by the waves, without having been deſtroyed; inſomuch that it would appear to be the lot of Egyptian monuments of every deſcription to reſiſt alike the ravages of time and of man. Nearer to the ſea-ſide, and ſurrounded by the fragments of this coloſſal monument, is the ſtatue of a ſphinx, fourteen feet high, the head and fore-legs of which are mutilated. Farther on are a great number of fragments of columns of roſe-coloured granite, fluted, and all of them of the ſame ſize, of the ſame ſubſtance, and wrought with the ſame care, being inconteſtably the ruins of a large and ſuperb temple of the Doric order. From the accounts which Strabo has tranſmitted to us relative to this part of Egypt, there is not the ſmalleſt doubt but theſe are the ruins of Canopus, and thoſe of its temple, built by the Greeks, the worſhip of which vied with that of Lampſacus: of that miraculous temple in which old men recovered their youth, and the ſick their health. A ſpacious bath, the ruins of which are contiguous, was, perhaps, one of the means the prieſts employed to work theſe wonders.

The ſoil has preſerved none of the luxurioufneſs of the ſcite of ancient Canopus. A few hillocks of ſand and ruins in brick, large ſquare blocks of granite, without hieroglyphics, and without any determinate ſhape to atteſt to what kind of edifices and to what age they belonged; and, laſtly, a few ſmall valleys, as barren as the heights by which they are formed, are all that remain of a city, once ſo delightful, the ſcite of which has now a wild and diſmal aſpect. It is true that the canal of which Strabo ſpeaks, which extended from Alexandria to Eleuſina, and a branch of which reached and beſtowed a refreſhing coolneſs on Canopus, has ſo entirely diſappeared, that the traces of it cannot be diſtinguiſhed, nor the poſſibility of its exiſtence at preſent conceived. There are no longer any remains of water in its environs, unleſs in a few wells or ciſterns, which contain an inconſiderable quantity, and which are ſo narrow and dark, that neither their dimenſions nor depth can be meaſured. In ſhort, that city, the ſeat of voluptuous delights, to which the votaries of pleaſure reſorted, is now become a deſert, frequented by nothing but jackals and the Bedouin Arabs, though at no greater diſtance than twelve miles from Alexandria.

We are now to approach a city, long celebrated in the page of hiſtory, which has undergone many revolutions, and even removed from its original ſeat of ſplendour. But the account of Alexandria already given by Volney, ſuperſedes the neceſſity of much detail from us. Every thing in that city is repreſented by him with ſuch a degree of truth, that, had he deſcribed all Egypt in the ſame way, no one could ever have thought it neceſſary to undertake any further inveſtigation. See alſo our article ALEXANDRIA, vol. i. p. 272.

The exterior walls of Old Alexandria, flanked with numerous mouldering towers, form beautiful ruins, pleaſing to the eye of the antiquarian, even amidſt the melancholy ſcenes of cruel deſolation. The circumference of this wall, its maſſive pillars of granite, and venerable aſpect, prove it to have been a city extremely ancient, and moſt probably the magnificent Alexandria, founded by Alexander the Great, a city then without a rival in the world. Within the wall are the extenſive ruins of the Temple of the Sun; where many gigantic pillars of granite remain, which impreſs the mind with the higheſt idea of its former grandeur. The gate which leads from hence to Roſetta, is an elegant ſpecimen of the Saracen taſte in architecture. On the ſpace between the walls and the ſea are lying innumerable blocks and pillars of granite, porphyry, and marble, the ruins, probably, of the ancient Alexandria, and which ſeem to have been made uſe of by the Turks as monumental ſtones, ſince this ground formed their burial place.

Subterraneous reſearches might ſtill more correctly aſcertain the ſcite of the ancient city, when its commerce and ſplendour rendered it immenſe. That of the caliphs, which is the preſent town, was but a diminution of the former city, notwithſtanding it comprehends within its lines what may be termed plains and deſerts. This circumvallation being built almoſt wholly of ruins, the edifices bring unceaſingly to the remembrance deſtruction and ravage. The jambs and lintels of the doors of the dwelling-houſes and fortreſſes conſiſt entirely of columns of granite, which the workmen have not taken the pains to ſhape to the uſe to which they have applied them. They appear to have been left merely with a view to atteſt the grandeur and magnificence of thoſe buildings, the ruins of which they are. In other places, a great number of columns have been applied to the conſtruction of the walls, to ſupport and level them; and theſe columns, having reſiſted the ravages of time, now reſemble batteries. In ſhort, theſe Arabian and Turkiſh edifices, the productions of the neceſſities of war, diſplay a confuſion of epochs, and of various induſtries, more ſtriking and more approximated examples of which are no where elſe to be found. The Turks, more eſpecially, adding abſurdity to profanation, have not only blended with the granite, bricks and calcareous ſtones, but even logs and planks; and from theſe different elements, which have ſo little analogy to each other, and are ſo ſtrangely united, have preſented a monſtrous aſſemblage of the ſplendour of human induſtry, and its degradation.

The quarter of the Arabs, or rather the part which was encompaſſed by their walls, appears almoſt a deſert; containing, indeed, a few incloſures, which, during the months of the inundation, are gardens, and which at other times afford nouriſhment to a greater or ſmaller number of trees and vegetables, in proportion to the ſize of the ciſtern with which each is provided. This ciſtern is the ſource and principle of their exiſtence: when it fails, the gardens are once more converted into ſand and rubbiſh. At the gate of each of theſe gardens are to be ſeen monuments of a benevolent and charitable feeling. Theſe are reſervoirs into which water is pumped as often as it is neceſſary, and which preſent to men and cattle a moſt gratifying beverage in the ſcorching heat of ſummer.

The

The great pool, or conſervatory of water, at Alexandria, is one of the principal antiquities of the middle age of Egypt, and one of the fineſt monuments of that deſcription, whether its ſize be conſidered, or the intelligence which its conſtruction diſplays. Notwithſtanding one part of it is in a very ruinous ſtate, and the other in need of repairs, it contains a quantity of water which ſuffices for the conſumption of men and animals during two years.

Towards the harbour we obſerve the capitals of many connected columns, of the Doric order, the ſhafts of which, though ſunk below the level of the ſea, are ſtill to be ſeen. Strabo has obſerved, that the baſe of the palace of Ptolemy was waſhed by the ſea. Theſe ruins may at one and the ſame time prove the veracity of Strabo's relation, and aſcertain the ſcite of that palace. In the lower part of the harbour by the ſea-ſhore, ruins of edifices of different ages are to be found, having ſuffered alike from time and from the waves. Veſtiges of baths are here to be diſtinguiſhed, ſeveral apartments of which ſtill exiſt, having been poſteriorly fabricated in walls of more remote antiquity. Theſe edifices appear to be of Arabic conſtruction; and, for their preſervation, a kind of pile-work in columns has been made, which has now the reſemblance of floating-batteries. Their immenſe number evinces the magnificence of the palaces they once decorated. After having paſſed the extremity of the harbour, large Saracen buildings are met with, having an air of grandeur, and a mixture of ſtile, by which the obſerver is perplexed. Friezes ornamented with Doric triglyphs, and ſurmounted by arched vaults, would lead one to imagine that theſe edifices were conſtructed from antique fragments, which the Saracens blended to adapt them to the ſtile of their architecture. The doors of theſe edifices may give an idea of the indeſtructible quality of the ſycamore wood, which has remained unaltered, while the iron-work of the doors has yielded to time, and entirely diſappeared. Behind this kind of fortreſs are Arabian baths, moſt magnificently decorated.

In the middle of the court-yard of the principal moſque is a ſmall octagonal temple, which contains a bowl of Egyptian black marble, with white and yellow ſpots, of incomparable beauty, both on account of the ſubſtance of which it is formed, and of the innumerable hieroglyphical figures with which it is covered, both within-ſide and without. This monument, which is, without doubt, a ſarcophagus of ancient Egypt, is a very valuable antique, and juſtly eſteemed as one of the greateſt curioſities of Lower Egypt. In ſhort, Alexandria is a city of great local curioſity, where the monuments of every epoch, and the wrecks of the arts of ſo many nations, are heaped together confuſedly; and where the ravages of wars, ages, and of a humid climate, impregnated with ſea-ſalt, have been productive of greater changes, and have wrought more miſchief, than in any other part of Egypt.

The great harbour of Alexandria, the Magnus Portus, lies between the ſmaller light-houſe to the left, and the ruins of the palace of the Ptolemies to the right. The port of entrance from Roſetta, is the Porta Canopica. The Pharos of the port of Alexandria is apparently a Turkiſh caſtle, and in its preſent ſtate it is of more ſervice to lodge a garriſon, than to defend the town. The rock before it is called the *Diamond*. It is ſuppoſed that this rock was the ſcite of the famous Pharos, one of the wonders of the world; no veſtige of which now remains. At preſent it is only a ſhattered rock, worn by the waves, which beat over it from every quarter. Here are two caſtles, of the great and little Pharos, which terminate in the two horns of the ſemi-circle.

Two principal objects of curioſity at Alexandria are, Pompey's pillar, and Cleopatra's Needle. Pompey's pillar is in the predicament of almoſt every thing famous, which loſes on a near ſcrutiny. It was named Pompey's pillar in the fifteenth century, when learning began to recover itſelf from the torpid ſtate into which it had ſo long languiſhed. At that epoch, men of ſcience, but not obſervers, beſtowed names on all the monuments; and theſe names have been handed down by tradition, without being diſputed, from century to century. A monument had been raiſed to Pompey at Alexandria: it had diſappeared, and was thought to be recovered in this pillar or column; which has ſince, with as little foundation, been converted into a trophy erected to the memory of Septimius Severus. It is, however, placed on the ruins of the ancient city; and, in the time of Septimius Severus, the city of the Ptolemies was not in a ruinous ſtate. Theſe abſurdities have been rectified, and the light of truth at length caſt upon this long-ſtanding monument of error, by the indefatigable reſearch of captains Dundas and Leake, lieutenants Deſade and Squire, and Mr. William Hamilton, all attached to the Engliſh garriſon at Alexandria. Theſe gentlemen, by viſiting the pillar repeatedly during the few moments when the ſun ſhone in ſuch a direction upon the pedeſtal as to mark the letters by their ſhade, were enabled to diſcriminate them one after another. Thus they executed a taſk in ſix weeks, which none of the French literati appear even to have attempted during their long ſtay in the country; and thus they have corrected a popular error, which appears to have exiſted for upwards of five hundred years. We ſhall give the inſcription as it was made out by theſe officers, and ſubjoin an Engliſh tranſlation.

ΤΟΝ ΤΙΜΙΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚΛΗΤΙΑΝΟΝ ΤΟΝ CΕΒΑCΤΟΝ
ΠΟΝΤΙΟΣ ΕΠΑΡΧΟΣ ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ.
"ΗΡΟCΚΥΝΕΙ."

TO DIOCLETIANUS AUGUSTUS
MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,
THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA,
PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,
CONSECRATES THIS.

This celebrated column ſtrikes with its vaſt magnitude. It is of the Corinthian order, eighty-eight feet ſix inches in height; the ſhaft is formed of one entire block of red granite, retaining the fineſt poliſh: this is ſixty-four feet in height, and eight feet four inches in diameter; the pedeſtal is ten feet, the baſe five feet ſix inches, and the capital nine feet. The pedeſtal is conſidered to be deficient in height, and the column leans a little to the ſouth-weſt. The ſhaft is ſtill in a high ſtate of preſervation, except on the north-weſt quarter, which has ſuffered from the conſtant winds blowing from that point the greater part of the year. The Greek inſcription is on the weſtern face of the pedeſtal. The French repaired the foundation of the pedeſtal, which had been deſtroyed in part by the rapacity of an Arab; who, imagining ſome treaſure lay concealed under it, attempted in vain to blow it up. A cap of liberty had been erected upon a pole on the top of it, placed there by the French, a ſhort time after their arrival in the country; but it was brought down by one of the Engliſh officers, by means of a paper kite. The day after the ſurrender, a centinel was placed over this pillar, ſome officers having unthinkingly broken off ſmall pieces from the pedeſtal, as curioſities for their friends in Europe.

Cloſe to the ſea-ſide, ſouth-by-eaſt of the Pharos, ſtands Cleopatra's Needle. Near it lies its fellow obeliſk, which had always been ſuppoſed to be broken, part of it being buried in the ſand; but the French cleared away the rubbiſh all round it, and found it to be perfectly whole. It is preciſely the ſame as the one now ſtanding, both as to ſize, and the hieroglyphics with which it is covered. Thoſe on the north and weſt faces of the erect obeliſk, are in a very good ſtate of preſervation; thoſe on the other ſides are nearly obliterated. Both theſe obeliſks are ſuppoſed to have ſtood at the entrance of ſome origi-

nal Egyptian temple. Each is of one entire piece of red granite, ſixty-five feet high. The French having erected trophies and inſcriptions of their conqueſt, in moſt of the principal towns in Egypt; major-general the earl of Cavan, for the more impartial information of poſterity, erected the following inſcription on the pedeſtal of Cleopatra's Needle:

In the Year of the Chriſtian Æra, 1798,
The Republic of France
Landed on the Shores of Egypt an Army of 40,000 Men,
Commanded by their moſt able and ſucceſsful General
Bonaparte.
The Conduct of the General, and the Valour of the Troops,
Effected the entire Subjection of that Country;
But under Divine Providence it was reſerved for the
Britiſh Nation
To annihilate their ambitious Deſigns:
Their Fleet was attacked, defeated, and deſtroyed,
In Aboukir Bay,
By a Britiſh Fleet of equal Force,
Commanded by Admiral Lord Nelſon.
Their intended Conqueſt of Syria
Was counteracted at Acre
By a moſt gallant Reſiſtance
Under Commodore Sir Sidney Smith;
And Egypt was reſcued from their Dominion
By a Britiſh Army, inferior in Numbers, but
Commanded by General Sir Ralph Abercrombie,
Who landed at Aboukir on the 8th of March 1801,
Defeated the French on ſeveral Occaſions,
Particularly in a moſt deciſive Action near Alexandria,
On the 21ſt of that Month,
When they were driven from the Field,
And forced to ſhelter themſelves
In their Garriſons of Cairo and Alexandria,
Which Places ſubſequently ſurrendered
By Capitulation.
To record to future Ages theſe Events;
And to commemorate the Loſs ſuſtained
By the Death of
Sir Ralph Abercrombie,
Who was mortally wounded
On that memorable Day,
Is the deſign of this Inſcription,
Which was depoſited here in the Year of Chriſt 1802,
By the Britiſh Army on their evacuating this Country,
And reſtoring it to the Turkiſh Empire.

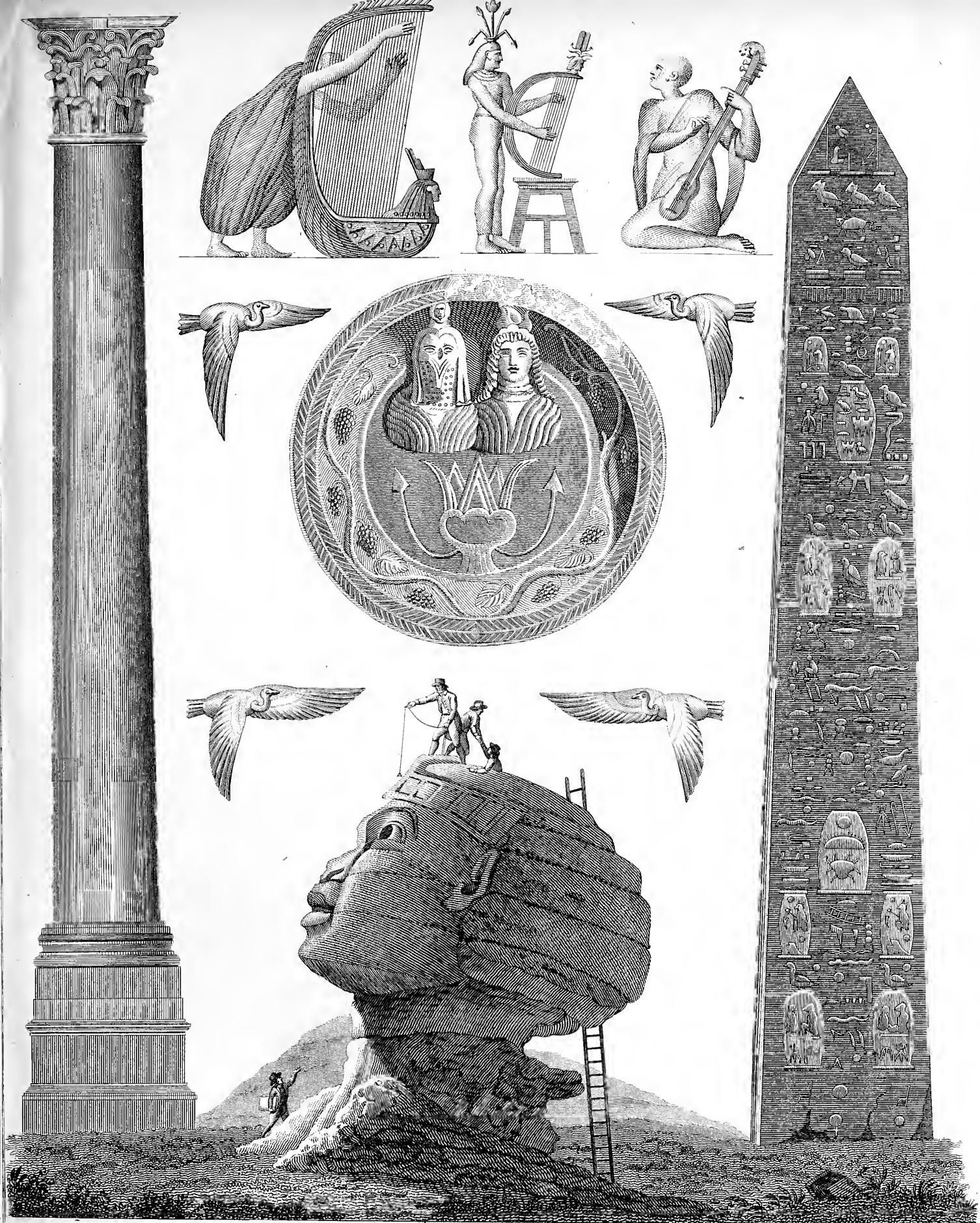
The formation of the Delta, or iſland incloſed by the eaſtern and weſtern branches of the Nile, is the moſt curious phenomenon in the hiſtory of Lower Egypt. The Nile is ſaid originally to have conſiſted but of one ſtream at its mouth, and to have emptied itſelf into the ſea as high up as the ancient Heliopolis. That the repulſion of the waters of the ocean, almoſt conſtantly, but particularly at the time of the inundation, driving back the ſand and ſoil perpetually brought down by the current of the Nile, produced a ſediment of ſolid land now ninety leagues in circumference, which has been the work of ages; and which, at firſt choking up the mouth of the river, divided its rivers into many leſſer channels, almoſt all of which now unite in the two branches that diſembogue at Damietta and Roſetta. This phenomenon is denied by Bruce, and ſome others; but the fact is incontrovertible, and is exactly of the ſame feature with the diviſion of the mouths of the Rhine, whoſe waters forced down the new ſoil which formed the Belgic coaſt, and eventually gave exiſtence to the whole territory of Holland. For a ſatisfactory explication of this operation of Nature, ſee the article EARTH, p. 197, and 201, of this volume.

The cauſes and effects of this phenomenon ſeem alſo to have been very ingeniouſly ſimplified by Vivant Denon. "The Delta, (ſays this writer,) appears to have been formed by the efforts made by the weight of the waters of the Nile againſt the waves of the ſea, which, at a certain ſeaſon of the year, are impelled twelve hours daily by the north wind, in a direction oppoſite to that of the courſe of the river. From this conflict of contending waters there reſults a ſand-bank, which, gradually augmenting, becomes an iſland, and divides the current of the river, forming two branches, each of which has its diſtinct ſhelf. The eddy of theſe ſhelves throws on the beach a part of the ſand which the current had ſwept along, and by this heaping up of ſand the two branches narrow by degrees, until, one of them gaining an aſcendancy over the other, the weakeſt of them is choked up, and the iſland becomes main land. The branch which remains ſoon forms another ſank-bank, an iſland, two ſmall branches, and ſo on. In this way, it appears to me, the moſt natural explanation may be given of the ancient geography of the branches of the Nile, as well as of the voyage of Menelaus in Homer, and of the various changes of the Delta, the ſcite of which might in the firſt inſtance have been a gulf, then a ſandy beach, and, laſtly, a cultivated country, covered with towns, villages, and abundant crops, and interſected by canals, which, the ſoil having been either drained or watered with ſkill, might have diſpenſed abundance over the whole of the ſurface of this new country. Afterwards, in the lapſe of time, and in conſequence of the calamities inſeparable from revolutions, ſome of the parts of this territory, thus gained from the ſea, may have been deſerted, while others may have become ſalt ſprings; and lakes may have been formed, next deſtroyed, and, finally, reproduced under a new modification of matter. Canals, choked up, may have changed their courſe, and have been loſt. If this be granted, why, in our uncertain reſearches, need we enquire where the Bolbitine and Canopic branches of the Nile, the branch of Berenice, &c. were ſituated?

"The plants which are produced in the firſt place on the new land, are three or four kinds of ſea-weeds, round which the ſand throws itſelf up in heaps. From its ſurface they ſpring up afreſh; and their ſubſequent decay furniſhes a manure which favours the vegetation of reeds. Theſe reeds give a greater elevation and a greater ſolidity to the ſoil. The date-tree now appears, and by its ſhade prevents the ſudden evaporation of the moiſture, and renders the ſoil fruitful and productive, as may be ſeen in the environs of the fortreſs of Roſetta, from whence, in the time of the emperor Selim I. the guns had a full command of the ſea, and which is now a league from the ſea-ſhore, ſurrounded by foreſts of palm-trees, beneath the ſhade of which other fruit-trees flouriſh, together with all the vegetables that are produced in the beſt cultivated gardens.

"If a conjecture may be hazarded, we might ſay, that, before the moſt ancient times of which we have any knowledge, the whole Delta was only a large gulf which received the waves of the Mediterranean; that the Nile came as far as the opening of the valley which enters the province of Fayyum; that by what is now called the *dry river*, it went to form the Mareotis, which was one of its eſtuaries to the ſea, as the *lac Madie* was that of the Canopic branch, and as the lakes of Berelos and Menzaleh are ſtill the eſtuaries of the Sebenitic, Mendeſian, Tanitic, and Peluſiac, mouths; that the lake Bahr-Belame, (or without water,) is the remain of the ancient courſe of this river, wherein are found petrifactions, vegetations, and human labours, ſhewing that the ſoil has been raiſed by the courſe of the river, and by the perpetual fluctuation of the ſands from weſt to eaſt; that the Nile, having at a certain period acquired more direction to the north than to the north-weſt as before, precipitated itſelf into the gulf which we have juſt ſuppoſed, there forming marſhes, and at laſt, the Delta. From this hypotheſis it would follow, that the firſt labours of the ancient Egyptians, ſuch as the lake Mœris, now lake Bathen, and the firſt dykes, were only made to retain part of the waters of the inundation, in order to irrigate thereby the province of Arſinoë, which threatened to become barren; and that poſteriorly, the lake Mœris, or Bathen, no longer receiving water enough, nor being able from its ſituation to

water



Denon dd.

I. Pass sculp.

A View of the Sphinx at the Pyramids at Gizeh; a Patera, charged with the Portraits of Osiris and Isis, and Sculptures of Egyptian Musicians. Pompey's or Diocletian's Pillar; and Cleopatra's Needle.

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water the province of Fayyum, the river was obliged to be taken higher up, and the canal Juſef was dug, which doubtleſs bears the name of the caliph who ordered this noble work: but at the ſame time, fearing that Fayyum would remain permanently inundated, this prince raiſed, from time to time, new dykes upon the old, ſuch as we now ſee, and dug the two canals of Boneke and Zaoyeh, to return the ſuperfluity of the flood back into the river.

"When the French enjoy quiet poſſeſſion of the country, (continues Denon,) we ſhall probably make obſervations on all the different levels, and on the labours of the Egyptians at different periods; we may thus aſcertain facts, inſtead of forming conjectures, and ſhew how much the Egyptians have at all times attended to the diſtribution of the waters, and how, even in times of barbariſm, they have preſerved ſome of their ancient ſagacity. After this, if the Nile ſhould ſtill continue to lean to the right, and to increaſe, as it has already done, the branch of Damietta at the expence of that of Roſetta; if it at leaſt ſhould abandon the latter, as it has ſucceſſively left the channels of the *dry river* and the branch of Canopus; if it ſhould leave the lake of Berelos and empty itſelf entirely into that of Menzaleh, or form new branches and new lakes at the eaſtern part of Peluſium; in fine, if nature, always more powerful in the end than the reſiſtance of man, has condemned the Delta to become an arid ſoil, the inhabitants will ſtill follow the Nile in its courſe, and will always find on its banks that abundance which is produced by its beneficent waters."

The Delta is a ground which has been rarely explored by any European, and, indeed, but imperfectly by any other perſons, the inhabitants excepted; even the mamalukes themſelves have ſeldom penetrated to the center of the Delta, in collecting the tributes, and regulating the avanies or fines. Denon, and his fellow *ſavans*, paſſed through it for the purpoſe of inveſtigation. From its uncommon fertility, it is covered with an immenſity of villages, which have communication by a number of canals. The principal town is Manſura; but here are no ruins which can give the ſemblance of vaſt antiquity to the ſoil. *Bathen-el-Baccara*, or the Cow's Belly, the ſouth point of the triangle of the Delta, where the French propoſed to erect the new metropolis, is one of the moſt beautiful ſituations in Egypt. Belbeis is ſituated without the Delta, under the Mokattam mountain.

The ancient Egyptians ſpeak of the encroachment of the ſands and ſoil, under the ſymbol of the myſterious entrance of Typhon into the bed of his ſiſter-in-law Iſis; an inceſt which, according to their tradition, is to change Egypt into a deſert as frightful as thoſe by which it is encompaſſed; and this great event is to happen when the Nile finds a lower level, through ſome one of the ſurrounding valleys, than the bed in which it now flows, and which is conſtantly getting higher. This idea, which at firſt appears extraordinary, may be thought more probable, when we conſider the local ſituation. The elevation of the Nile, and the riſe of its banks, have made of it an artificial canal, which would by this time have put Fayyum under water, if the caliph Juſef, as above noticed, had not raiſed new dykes upon the old ones, and dug a collateral canal below Beneſeuf, to reſtore to the river a part of the water which is every year poured by the overflowing into this vaſt baſon. If it were not for the cauſeways which ſtop the inundation, the great ſwells would ſoon convert this whole province into a large lake, which actually threatened to happen about twenty-five years ago by an extraordinary inundation, in which the river had riſen over the banks of Hilaon, and it was much feared either that the province would remain under water, or that the ſtream would reſume the old and dry channel, which it was evident it had occupied in remote ages.

All the bleſſings of Egypt appear to have been conſtantly derived from the waters of the Nile;—well, therefore, might the indefatigable Bruce have volunteered his ſervices to detect its ſource. Without this river, Egypt, ſurrounded on every ſide with natural obſtacles, ſeparated on the eaſt from Syria by moving ſands, ſkirted on the ſouth and weſt by immenſe tracts of deſerts, and where it ſcarcely ever rains, would be as uninhabitable as the dreary waſtes of Lybia. It is navigable for boats of conſiderable burden as far as the cataracts, and is a very convenient mode of communication from one extremity of the country to the other. The prevailing winds generally ſerve to ſail up; and in coming down, the current is of the greateſt advantage, eſpecially during the overflowing, when a large germe or bark will go down from Cairo to Roſetta, a diſtance of one hundred and ſixty miles, in leſs than forty hours, without ſail or oar to aſſiſt its way. This noble river is therefore the great, and indeed the only, ſource of wealth to the country; and is the moſt pleaſant and expeditious manner of travelling, particularly when it is conſidered, that there are no inns in the country, except a few miſerable caravanſeras, diſguſting to an European, where they muſt ſleep upon dirty carpets, covered with vermin, lying promiſcuouſly among Turks, Arabs, &c. Only that part of the country, which the Nile overflows, is inhabited; as is clearly perceptible by the ſpace of cultivation on each border, and by the numerous villages built only along its banks.

The annual riſing and falling of this river, and their cauſes, have been for ages conſidered as a myſtery, and as one of the greateſt wonders of Egypt. Many ſubtle reaſons have been invented to account for this phenomenon; but it is now univerſally acknowledged to be entirely owing to the heavy rains which fall in Ethiopia, the extenſive elevated country above. With reſpect to the time of its increaſe, it firſt commences in May, yet no public notice is taken of it till the latter end of June, when it has uſually riſen to the height of nine or twelve feet. The public criers then begin to proclaim it through all the Egyptian cities, and continue to publiſh its daily augmentation till it riſes to the height of twenty-four feet, when the dam of the great canal at Boulac is opened with the utmoſt ſolemnity, and the day is devoted to feaſtings, fire-works, and other demonſtrations of public rejoicing, by all the people of Cairo, and its ſeveral fauxbourgs. That the people might have an accurate knowledge of the daily progreſs of the water, and of the very hour when its increaſe has attained the height of twenty-four feet, the public nilometer was erected at the ſouth extremity of the iſle of Rhoda. If the river wants but one inch of this height, the Egyptians will not cut the dam, becauſe in that caſe no tribute is due to the Turkiſh emperor for the lands which ſhould have been watered, but which then will ſcarcely maintain the cultivators. And upon this account the pacha is ſolely reſponſible for the conſequence, if he cuts his dam before the water riſes to the proper mark. The nilometer conſiſts of a large ſquare reſervoir, into which the water of the river enters at pleaſure, and is encompaſſed with a handſome gallery. In the midſt of the baſon is an octagonal pillar of white marble, divided into twenty-two equal parts, the firſt of which is ſubdivided into twenty-four inches, and the others are all marked to the top of the column. This nilometer or mekkias was repaired by the French; and over the entrance to the gallery is placed the following inſcription in French, with an Arabic tranſlation, and another in Perſian underneath it.—"In the year 9 of the French republic, and of the hegira 1215, thirty months after the conqueſt of Egypt by Bonaparte, Menou, commander in chief, repaired the mekkias. The Nile, when at the loweſt, was at the height of three cubits ten digits of the meaſure of the pillar, the 10th day after the ſolſtice, in the year 8. On the 16th day after the ſame ſolſtice, it began to riſe at Cairo: on the 107th day after the ſolſtice it was two cubits three digits above the ſhaft of the pillar: and on the 115th day after the ſolſtice it began to decreaſe."

As

As the Nile could not of itself cover every part of the country in a due proportion, the Egyptians have, with great labour, cut a vaſt number of canals to facilitate the overflowing of their lands. The villages that ſtand on eminences on the banks of the Nile have their reſpective khalidges or canals, and the more diſtant villages have theirs alſo, even to the extremities of the kingdom, by which means the waters are ſucceſſively conveyed to the moſt remote places. It is not lawful to cut the trenches for the reception of the water till the river has attained its proper height; neither muſt all the trenches be opened together, as in that caſe ſome lands would be injured by the inundation, while others would be almoſt totally deprived of their needful refreſhment. The trenches are therefore opened with the greateſt precaution, firſt in the Upper, and afterwards in Lower Egypt; and the natives, who ſtrictly attend to the rules preſcribed in a roll or book, contrive to diſpoſe the fertiliſing flood ſo judiciouſly, that all parts of the country are plentifully watered, and the cultivators are enabled to rejoice in the anticipation of great and abundant harveſts.

But as the Egyptians ſo much depend on the Nile's increaſe for all the fruits of the earth which Nature ſends; ſo, whenever theſe waters chance to fail, the utmoſt diſtreſs is ſure to follow; and hence the deplorable famines and peſtilences of Egypt are readily accounted for. The Arabian author Abdollatiph, mentioned above as having been recently tranſlated by Dr. White, treats alſo of the riſe of the Nile, the cauſes of its increaſe, and the laws by which it appears to be regulated. The momentous importance of this ſubject to the welfare of Egypt clearly appears from his ſecond and third chapters; in which Abdollatiph details with great minuteneſs the melancholy hiſtory of a famine, occaſioned by a failure in the uſual increaſe of the waters, which occurred during his own reſidence in Egypt. The ſame cauſe, indeed, in this extraordinary country, has often produced ſimilar effects; and the narrative of Abdollatiph cannot fail to recal the attention of the ſerious reader to that famine recorded in the book of Geneſis, which, under the direction of Divine Providence, prepared the way for ſuch ſtupendous events, by inducing the patriarch Jacob and his ſons to take up their abode in Egypt. When we recollect that the produce of the land is here always proportioned to the overflowing of the Nile, we cannot but remark with what matchleſs ſimplicity, and at the ſame time with what ſtrict propriety and truth, the ſcene of Pharaoh's dream is laid by the river, while both the fat and lean kine are emphatically repreſented as coming up out of it, and feeding on its banks. See *Gen.* chap. xli.

The famine, and the peſtilence which enſued, of which Abdollatiph has ſo forcibly deſcribed the direful effects, were accompanied with peculiar horrors; and hiſtory, whether ſacred or profane, no where exhibits to our view a more dreadful picture of calamities and crimes. The narrative of the preſent author bears every internal mark and character of truth; and the judicious critic will not heſitate a moment in admitting its authenticity, though the facts which it records were before altogether unknown to the European world. Fortunately, we have it in our power to adduce a ſtrong teſtimony in ſupport of the narrative of Abdollatiph, from Elmacin, in his Univerſal Hiſtory; a part only of which was publiſhed by Erpenius, under the title of *Hiſtoria Saracenica*. "In the ſame year (597) there was a great dearth over the land of Egypt, ſo that a meaſure of wheat called an *irdab* was ſold for five Egyptian dinárs. And this diſtreſs continued nearly three years; and men were ſo deſtitute of ſuſtenance, that they were compelled to eat each other, and even their own children, and to feed on animals that periſhed. Great multitudes, therefore, of people, with their children and ſervants, emigrated to Syria, and the coaſts of the ſea."

We ſhall here ſtate a few paſſages from Abdollatiph, as given in the Monthly Review for April 1802; not merely with the view of gratifying curioſity, but becauſe it has a moſt powerful tendency to humble the pride of man, by demonſtrating his conſtant dependence on the bounty of Providence; by teaching that even the gifts of nature, as they are called, are not more permanent than thoſe of fortune; and, by reminding us that what has happened to others, may poſſibly happen to ourſelves. Page 212: "When firſt the poor Egyptians began to feed upon human fleſh, ſtories of this kind went abroad, and formed the univerſal ſubject of diſcourſe; while every one expreſſed the utmoſt horror and averſion at the crime, and aſtoniſhment at its novelty. Theſe ſenſations were afterward worn out by the force of example, and the calls of hunger: the practice became familiar; and human fleſh was fought not only as a neceſſary ſupport, but as one of the greateſt luxuries of life. It was reckoned among the firſt delicacies of the table, and was dreſſed in many different ways. Afterward, when the practice became more general, and had extended through every part of Egypt, the aſtoniſhment and abhorrence which it had formerly excited ceaſed; and to expreſs or liſten to ſuch ſentiments was no longer diſgraceful. I ſaw a woman dragged and mangled by ruffians in the market-place. They took from her a roaſted child which ſhe had provided for her ſuſtenance. The people in the market ſeemed entirely to diſregard this horrid ſpectacle, and purſued their own buſineſs and employment with the utmoſt unconcern. I obſerved no ſurpriſe, nor even diſapprobation, in their countenances; while I was ſtruck with the deepeſt aſtoniſhment at the ſight, and the inſenſibility with which they beheld it. So powerful is the effect of cuſtom, which can diveſt the moſt unnatural and prodigious crimes of their horror, by preſenting them repeatedly to the ſenſes, and reducing them to the level of the moſt common objects and trivial occurrences!"

Again, page 233. "Of the number of the poor who periſhed with hunger, it is impoſſible to form any probable eſtimate: but I will give the reader ſome information on this ſubject, whence he may form a faint idea of the mortality with which Egypt was then afflicted. In Meſr and Cairo, and their confines, wherever a perſon turned, he could not avoid ſeeing or ſtumbling over ſome ſtarved object, either already dead, or in the agonies of death. From Cairo alone nearly five hundred were daily carried out to the burying-ground; and ſo great was the mortality in Meſr, that the dead were thrown without the walls, where they remained unburied. But afterward, when the ſurvivors were no longer able to throw out the dead bodies, they were left wherever they expired, in the houſes, ſhops, and ſtreets. The limbs of the dead were even cut in pieces, and uſed for food; and, inſtead of receiving the laſt offices from their friends, and being decently interred, their remains were attended by perſons who were employed in roaſting and baking them. In all the diſtant provinces and towns, the inhabitants became entirely extinct; except in the principal cities, and ſome of the larger towns, ſuch as Kous, Aſhmunein, Mahalla, &c. and even there but a few ſurvived. In theſe days, a traveller might paſs through a city, without finding in it one human creature alive; he ſaw the houſes open, and the inhabitants lying dead on their faces, ſome grown putrid, and others who had recently expired. If he entered into the houſes, he found them full of goods, but no one to make uſe of them; and he ſaw nothing wherever he turned, but a dreadful ſolitude, and univerſal deſolation. This account reſts not on the information and authority of a ſingle perſon, but of many, whoſe ſeveral aſſertions mutually confirmed each other. One of them gave me his relation in the following words: 'We entered a city, where no living creature was to be found; we went into the houſes, and there we ſaw the inhabitants proſtrate and dead; all lying in a wretched group on the ground, the huſband, the wife, and the children. Hence we paſſed into another city, which contained,

tained, as we had heard, four hundred ſhops of weavers. It was now a deſert, like the former: the artificer had expired in his ſhop, and his family lay dead around him. A third city, which we afterward viſited, appeared like the former, a ſcene of death and deſolation. Being obliged to reſide ſome time in this place for the purpoſe of agriculture, we hired perſons to throw the bodies of the dead into the Nile, at the rate of ten for a *dirhem*. Wolves and hyenas reſorted hither in great numbers, to feed on the corpſes." Here is a proof of wolves being found in Egypt, by a perſon who reſided in the country, in contradiction to Denon.

It is highly creditable to Abdollatiph, that, though the crimes which he deſcribes were ſo extremely common, and the temptations to commit, as well as the opportunities of committing them, ſo extremely powerful and inviting, yet he never loſt ſight, even for a moment, of thoſe virtuous principles which appear to have regulated his conduct; nor does he ever ſpeak of theſe offences, without the moſt pointed abhorrence and deteſtation. Page 239. "The ſelling of free perſons had now become a common practice; and a beautiful girl might be purchaſed for a few dirhems. Two young girls were offered to me for a dinar; and I ſaw two girls, one of whom was a virgin, expoſed to ſale for eleven dirhems. For five dirhems, a woman offered to ſell me her daughter, who was beautiful beyond deſcription; and, when I upbraided her with the heinous nature of the crime, ſhe bade me take her as a preſent. Women, who had any ſhare of beauty, frequently proſtrated themſelves before men, and intreated them to purchaſe or diſpoſe of them. Many, who thought theſe practices lawful, ſent their purchaſed ſlaves into Erak, Chorafan, and other parts. What appears to me moſt unaccountable of all the wonders which I have related, is that, notwithſtanding the Koran frequently reproves mankind for their impenitence, and for plunging themſelves without remorſe into ſin, they ſhould perſiſt in their wickedneſs, as if they were entirely exempt from the common lot of humanity."

In this valuable work, Abdollatiph is led to trace conciſely, but clearly, many other principal revolutions of Egypt. Among theſe, he records particularly the conqueſt and deſolation of that country, by Nabuchodonoſor, for the ſpace of forty years; and thus moſt unexpectedly do we find in a Mohammedan hiſtorian, who certainly had no ſuperſtitious reverence for the Jewiſh or Chriſtian prophecies, and, indeed, probably no knowledge whatever of their contents, a new and unequivocal teſtimony to the exact accompliſhment of the prediction of Ezekiel, chap. xxix, ver. 9, 10, 11, 12. 19. *And I will make the land of Egypt deſolate in the midſt of the countries that are deſolate, and her cities, among the cities that are laid waſte, ſhall be deſolate* FORTY YEARS, &c. So deſolate, ſays Dr. Bryant, that not a prince of its own people could be found to reign over it, for the ſpace of upwards of two thouſand years!

ANCIENT INHABITANTS, RELIGION, LAWS, LANGUAGE, ARTS, &c.

Of the firſt inhabitants of Egypt, we appear to have the beſt accounts in the Mythology of the learned Dr. Bryant; who remarks that the antiquity of this kingdom may be ſeen from its founders Ham and Mizraim, by whoſe names the country was of old called. He adds, that they were of a collateral line with the people of Canaan; for the father of the Mizraim and the Canaanites were brothers. Egypt is therefore called *Mizraim*, in the ſcriptures; which name is perpetuated to this day by the Turks, who ſtill call the country *Miſſir*. Some conſider Mizraim as a people, not as a perſon; and the head of their family is imagined to have been Miſor, or Metzor. Stephanus Byzantinus, among other names, ſtiled Egypt Μυσαρα, the land of Muſar, or Myſar. Joſephus called Egypt, Meſtra; Euſebius and Suidas, Meſtraia; by which is meant the land of Metzor, a different rendering of Myſor. Sanchoniathon alludes to this perſon under the name of Μισωρ; and joins him with Sydic: both which he makes the ſons of the ſhepherds Amunus and Magus. Amunus is the ſame with Amun or Ham, the real father of Myſor, from whom the Mizraim are ſuppoſed to be deſcended.

The Mizraim who thus ſettled in Egypt, were branched out into ſeven families. Of theſe the Caphtorim were one; who ſeem to have reſided between Peluſium in Lower Egypt, and mount Caſius, upon the ſea-coaſt. Caphtor, from whence the people were denominated, ſignifies a tower upon a promontory; and was probably the ſame as Migdol, and the original reſidence of the Caphtorim. This people made an early migration into Canaan, where they were called Paleſtines, the Philiſtim of the Hebrews; and the country where they ſettled, was named Paleſtina. Whether the whole of their family, or only a part, are included in this migration, is uncertain. Be it as it may, they ſeem to have come up by divine commiſſion, and to have been entitled to immunities, which to the Canaanites were denied. *Amos*, ix. 7. In conſequence of this, upon the coming of the Iſraelites into Canaan, they ſeem to have been unmoleſted for years. They certainly knew from the beginning that the land was deſtined for the Iſraelites, and that they only dwelt there by permiſſion. *Gen.* xx. 15. xxi. 23. xxvi. 27. *Joſhua*, xiii. 2.

The other tribes of the Mizraim ſent out colonies to the weſt, and occupied many regions in Africa; to which part of the world they ſeem to have confined themſelves. The children alſo of Phut, the third of the ſons of Ham, paſſed very deep into the burning regions of the ſouth, and moſt of the black nations are deſcended from them. Lybia Proper was peopled by the Lubim, or Lehabim, alſo one of the branches from Mizraim. The ſons of Phut ſettled in Mauritania; where was a region and river called Phutia. Some of this family ſettled above Egypt near Ethiopia, and were ſtiled Troglodytæ. *Syncellus*, p. 47. Many of them paſſed inland, and peopled the Mediterranean country. In proceſs of time the ſons of Chus, after their expulſion from Babylonia and Egypt, made ſettlements upon the ſea-coaſts of Africa, and came into Mauritania. We accordingly find traces of them in the names which they bequeathed to places; ſuch as Chuzis, Chuſarez, upon the coaſt; a city Cotta, a promontory Cotis, in Mauritania. By their coming into theſe parts the memorials of the Phuteans were in ſome meaſure obſcured. They are, however, to be found lower down; and the country upon one ſide of the river Gambia is at this day called Phuta. It is not poſſible at this diſtance of time to diſcriminate the ſeveral caſts among the black nations. Many have thought, that all thoſe who had woolly hair were of the Ethiopian, or Cuthite, breed. But nothing can be inferred from this difference of hair: for many of the Ethiopic race had ſtraight hair. *Herodot.* l. 5. c. 1. And we are told by Marcellinus, that ſome of the Egyptians had a tendency to wool; whence Volney ſeems to have referred them to a negro origin. Darkneſs of complexion was a circumſtance more or leſs to be obſerved in all the branches of the line of Ham; but univerſally among the Nigritæ, of whatever branch they may have been.

Egypt fell under the ſubjection of a threefold race of kings: the Meſtræi, who were undoubtedly the genuine deſcendants of Mizraim, who firſt gave name to the country. The Auritæ, who were the Arabian ſhepherds, and their kings; theſe reigned here a conſiderable time, maintaining themſelves by force; till, after many ſtruggles, they were finally expelled by the natives. Laſtly, the regular Egyptian kings. The Auritæ were called by the Greeks and Romans Arabians: but their true name was Cuſhan or Cuſeans; the ſame which they gave to the province where they ſettled, which was the beſt of the land; and was ſituated within the Delta, at the extreme and higheſt part of Lower Egypt. To this place the children of Iſrael ſucceeded, after it had been abandoned by its former inhabitants; but at what interval of

time is uncertain. Joſephus, out of a deſire to aggrandize his own nation, ſuppoſes that the Shepherds who bore rule in Egypt were his anceſtors; and that hence aroſe the hatred that the Egyptians bore to them. For this reaſon he makes no difference between the twofold race of ſhepherds, which Manetho ſufficiently diſtinguiſhes. The firſt were the Cuſeans and their *paſtor* kings, who held the country in bondage: the others were the Iſraelitiſh ſhepherds, who ſucceeded to the firſt, and were themſelves afterwards held in bondage, and delivered by Moſes.

Idolatry, too, ſoon became the degrading character of the Egyptians; though, according to M. Pauw, who cloſely inveſtigated this theology, it was by no means ſo groſs as has been repreſented. They acknowledged an intelligent Being, diſtinct from matter, by the name of *Phtha*, fabricator of the world, but not the creator of matter. Here we ſeem to derive the firſt ſprings of their religion; and if the conſequent ceremonials of it have periſhed from the annals of their country, we muſt endeavour to glean them from the regions into which they have ſubſequently paſſed. Anaxagoras travelled into Egypt to ſtudy philoſophy, as was the cuſtom with his countrymen; on his return to Greece, he brought with him a ſyſtem ſo entirely new, that the Greeks, ever delighting in novelties, raiſed ſtatues to his honour, and diſtinguiſhed him by the title of Νους, the Intelligence. The heads of his ſyſtem, as brought from Egypt, are the following:

"Two things were from eternity, Mind and Matter. Theſe two beings were clearly diſtinct. Matter extended without thought, motion, or order; but divided into parts extremely minute, and poſſeſſed of qualities ſimilar and unalterable. Mind was ſimple, without material extenſion, having in itſelf thought, activity, and an executive power over matter. An infinite time had paſſed before the formation of the world. The Sovereign Mind, ſeeing that order was better than confuſion, reſolved on the meaſure. *Anaxagoras mentis infinitæ vi et ratione rerum omnium modum et deſcriptionem deſignari et confici voluit.*—The Mind watches over men with a particular attention; for them it was that the world was made. Their country is heaven, to which they are to be recalled, if, by their virtue, they deſerve it. The bodies of the firſt animals, conſequently that of man, were formed out of earth, tempered with moiſture and heat; after this, the individuals generated others, each in their own kind. Ζωα γενεσθαι εξ υγρε, και θερμε, και γεωδες, υστερον δε εξ αλληλων. *Diog. Laer.* Neither ſun, moon, nor ſtars, are gods or demons, or animated bodies; they are ſolid maſſes ſet in motion by Intelligence, the ſole cauſe of motion."—It muſt be confeſſed, that there is a ſtriking agreement (the creation of matter excepted) between this Egyptian theology, and the Moſaic ſyſtem.

Os-i-ris, in Coptic, ſignifies *conformator*; I-sis, *formarum receptaculum*, perſonifications of Mind and Matter; by which, the firſt principles of their philoſophy were raiſed by the Egyptians into the higheſt objects of their worſhip. The general doctrine deduced from theſe firſt principles was the omnipotence of a Supreme Divinity, known as to its exiſtence, unknown as to its eſſence. This was the univerſal ſource from which all beings proceeded; whether by emanation, as the rays of light; or by generation, as in animals; or by accretion and ſeparation, as in vegetables and minerals; or, in ſhort, by ſome other way unknown, without fixing the time, the manner, or entering into any philoſophical diſcuſſion of the ſubject. This was the ſyſtem of all the moſt ancient people of the earth; eſpecially of the orientals, who to theſe general ideas added a theocracy peculiar to themſelves, in which they ſuppoſed the Supreme Majeſty retired into the heaven of heavens, leaving to a chief miniſter (himſelf the iſſue of the divinity) the care of governing the world, and of keeping within bounds a certain principle of malevolence and rebellion, of which they conceived the exiſtence, from a view of the evils natural and moral by which the world was afflicted. Of moral obligation they appear to have conceived that virtue conſiſts in a ſtrict obſervance of the laws, ſubmiſſion to the magiſtrate, reſpect for ſuperiors, modeſty towards equals, and tenderneſs for inferiors. This is therefore the ſublime of pagan theology. Το δικαιον ειναι και το αισχρον ου Φυσει αλλα νομω. *Juſtum et turpe non natura conſtare, ſed lege.* Diog. Laer. in Archelao.

The Gymnoſophiſts of Africa acknowledged one Creator, incomprehenſible in his nature, but intelligible in his works; this was the origin of ſymbolic worſhip. The worſhip of ſerpents, very general throughout Africa, obtains at this day in many parts. The eneph, a ſnake, is the emblem of divine goodneſs; the viper, of power; hence the diadem of the Pharaohs was adorned with this emblem. The Egyptians uſually perſonified the divine wiſdom under the name of Neph, repreſented ſpringing out of the body of a lion; the manifeſt prototype of the Greek Minerva ſpringing from the head of Jupiter; emblem of the union of wiſdom and of power. It is remarkable that the Egyptians gave an excluſion to Neptune; they deteſted the ſea; and yet, with a ſtrange inconſiſtency, they made their Nephthis, or Venus, to ſpring out of its froth; whence the Aphroditè of the Greeks. "Almoſt all the names of the gods, (ſays Herodotus,) came out of Egypt into Greece." And the Greeks changed their names, and made the gods their own.

The Egyptian religion rejected eternity of puniſhments; admitting a purgatory, whence, in a certain time, men were to reſume their bodies; hence the practice of embalming and preparing their mummies: but philoſophers, and the truly virtuous, were to paſs directly into heaven. Similar notions that the lives of animals would be reſtored, muſt have induced the practice of embalming the ibis. On inſpecting the vaults of Saccara, Denon found more than five hundred mummies of the ibis in a ſepulchral cave. There ſeems a conſiderable variety in the degree of care beſtowed in embalming this ſacred bird; but the earthen pot, in which the whole is contained, is common to all. The difference and pains beſtowed on mummies taken from the ſame cave, proves that the price of the work varied conſiderably for theſe birds, as well as for men, and conſequently that it was done at the expence of individuals; and alſo it may be preſumed, that the embalmed birds had not all been fed in temples, or colleges of prieſts, in reward of ſervices rendered by the whole ſpecies. If the ſame had been the caſe with theſe birds as with their god Apis, a ſingle individual would have ſufficed, and theſe pots would not be found by thouſands. We may then ſuppoſe that the ibis, as it deſtroys all reptiles, was religiouſly venerated in a country in which theſe noxious animals ſo much abound at a certain time of the year; and, like the ſtork in Holland, this bird growing tame from the good reception which it met with every where, each houſe had its own winged inmates of this ſpecies, to which, after their death, the honours of ſepulture were given according to the means of the inhabitants. Herodotus relates, that he was informed that in the earlieſt times of the records of the country, the ibis abounded every where, but that in proportion as the marſhes of Upper Egypt were drained, the birds retired to the lower province in queſt of their food; which accounts for their being now ſo rarely ſeen.

In moſt nations the profuſion of the table was conſidered as the teſt of opulence, or of the progreſs of luxury; but in Egypt it was made an inlet into their religion, manners, and character. The peculiar circumſtances of their climate and ſoil made it expedient for the Egyptians to have a particular attention to their food; hence moſt of their religious obſervances: Moſes adopted many of theſe, but wiſely deſerted the ſyſtem in ſome points, conſulting the character of his people, and the circumſtances of the country in which they were to live. Pythagoras was not ſo wiſe; having paſſed into Egypt, and ſubmitted to circumciſion, he, in the true ſpirit of a

fanatic,

fanatic, would have all or none, ſo adopted the entire dietetic ſyſtem: after this, travelling into India, he embraced without reſerve the regimen of the Bramins, forbidding all animal food, as the Egyptian had done that of fiſh, and of many vegetables: thus his ſyſtem became an abſurd notion of the two; each of which had been calculated for a different climate, and neither for that in which he and his followers were to obſerve it. To a genuine bigot doctrine is every thing; common ſenſe, nothing! Leproſy, ſore eyes, and gonorrhea, were very early endemic in Egypt: the elephantiaſis, a ſpecies of leproſy peculiar to the Egyptians, above all corrupts the ſpermatic juices; this accounts for the origin of the gonorrhea, as likewiſe for the invention of circumciſion. For this reaſon the prieſts ordained abſtinence from all kinds of fiſh, as productive of ſcurvy; yet the people were indulged in the uſe of ſuch as were leaſt ſo: ſhell-fiſh, and in general thoſe of the ſcaly tribe, were deemed the moſt innocent. The firſt magiſtrates, eſpecially the Pharaohs, were not allowed to drink wine. Pythagoras adopted the prohibition; but it did not laſt long. Apollonius Tyanæus endeavoured to revive it, but in vain. The fleſh of ſwine was totally prohibited, except twice a-year, when the common people were indulged in the uſe of it. The fleſh of gooſe and pigeon was the moſt eſteemed; and therefore reſerved for the prieſts and the king.

The ancient Egyptian Lent of forty days was a dietetic inſtitution; they had ſeveral ſmaller Lents of ſix days: during all theſe the huſband was not allowed to ſleep with his wife. Their Lent was kept in the hotteſt ſeaſon of the year: at this day, the better ſort of the inhabitants, in the hot months, take their meals only in the cool of the morning and evening. Mahomet borrowed his Lent, the time of keeping it, and the abſtaining from wine, from the Egyptians:—*C'eſt en Egypte qu'il faut chercher la racine de la plus-part des inſtitutions religieuſes:*—It is from Egypt that we muſt trace the origin of moſt religious inſtitutions. The Egyptians conſecrated onions, that is, prohibited the eating of them, on account of their being ſtimulating and hurtful to the eyes: it is in this point of view that we are to conſider their conſecrations in general; for whatever was deemed hurtful was conſecrated, and not to be touched as food.

The Egyptian government was monarchical, not deſpotic; for the king was not judge; this belonged to the prieſts; nor could he tax without their conſent. In this reſpect, the prieſts were the ephori of that government. Herodotus informs us, that excluſive power and authority was lodged in the hands of the prieſts, who ruled the ſovereign, and kept the formula of their religion wrapt up in emblem and myſtery, to put a barrier between themſelves and the people. The king was ſerved and counſelled by prieſts, fed and inſtructed by them; every morning they read to him the duties of a ſovereign towards his people, and towards his religion; they then led him to the temple, where theſe duties were inculcated by prayer and ſacrifice. The only two ſovereigns who, according to hiſtory, dared to ſhake off their yoke, were Cheops and Cephrenes, who ſhut up the temples for twenty years; but theſe were regarded as impious and rebellious princes, and were recorded as ſuch in the annals which the prieſts compoſed and handed down to poſterity. The palace with a hundred chambers, the only one mentioned in the hiſtory of Egypt, was the work of a new form of government, in which the prieſts could no longer poſſeſs the ſame influence. In this ſplendid palace of the kings, the idea of uncontrouled monarchy was implied by ſculptured figures on the ſide of the gate, repreſenting heroes holding by the hair a group of conquered priſoners, and preſented by the divinities with new arms for future victories. But it does not appear that this ſtate of kingly power was of long duration.

The pontificate was hereditary, not at the nomination of the prince, who, by the original conſtitution, could not be of the order; but when Sethon, who was pontiff, made himſelf king, there was no counterpoiſe left to the royal authority, which of courſe became deſpotic. In this, as in all the mixed governments of antiquity, a third or middle power was wanting, a repreſentative of the people. From this time, the prieſts or the military diſpoſed of the throne by election from among themſelves, as either prevailed; the people were but a number, that is, ſlaves. The prince, if choſen from the military, aſſumed the prieſthood; there was no controul left. Fertility of ſoil, and facility of culture, conſtituted their wealth; hence pyramids and public works were no proof of the riches of the prince; they were the reſult of the paſſions of a people little employed in providing the means of ſubſiſtence. The Ptolemies at laſt gave them a taſte for commerce, which till then they had deſpiſed. This accounts for their having uſed no coin in early times. They had a phyſician for every malady, but no lawyers; all pleadings were in writing; no torture was inflicted in criminal caſes; perjury was made capital, and ſo was murder. If the accounts we have of the Egyptian government be imperfect and unſatisfactory, it muſt be conſidered, firſt, that the national records are loſt; and, in the next place, that the government, from the time of Sethon, becoming deſpotic, the principles of ſuch a government, if it can then be ſaid to have had any, muſt be contained in a very ſmall code, the will of the prince. The flouriſhing ſtate of the arts at the era of the Macedonian conqueſt, is, however, the moſt ſatisfactory proof of the ſtability and antiquity of their government.

The Egyptians had two languages, a popular, and an hieroglyphic. The obſcurity and indeciſion of the hieroglyphic, ſays Herodotus, fitted it to become a language of which the prieſt might keep the interpretation to himſelf. No one can conceive what is become of their popular language; it ſeems totally loſt. A conjecture on this ſubject may poſſibly be allowed. In their laws, manners, and inſtitutions, the Egyptians piqued themſelves on being ſuperior to all other nations; this was the reſult of the mean opinion they entertained of the reſt of mankind: under this impreſſion, they wiſhed to withhold all knowledge of the diſcoveries they had made in arts and ſciences from others; to this end, thoſe diſcoveries were committed to the keeping of the prieſts, their only authors and literati; the country being conquered, and the prieſthood deſtroyed, the records might periſh with the order. That the prieſts did keep thoſe records in the utmoſt privacy is manifeſt from this, that the Greek literati, who lived and ſtudied ſo many years in Egypt, never brought out of the country a ſingle volume of thoſe records, or ſpecimen of the language in which they were written; a circumſtance not to be paralleled in the hiſtory of letters: ſo that their communication with their teachers muſt have been by interpreters; a ſingularity the more likely to be adopted by the Greeks, from their known contempt of all other tongues, and pride in their own. Yet, as the Egyptian prieſts had a ſettled revenue, and ſuffered none of their order to receive legacies or donations, it is the more extraordinary that they ſhould have given into theſe extremes of prieſtcraft. Beſides, they were obliged to marry, which made them a part of the ſtate. They were likewiſe poſſeſſed of the judicial power: the firſt claſs of judges were called prophets; that is, interpreters. The forcteller of events was called Mantis; who, according to Plato, was always ſuppoſed to be out of his ſenſes; or, which was the ſame thing, to be inſpired: hence the prieſteſs of Delphos, who pronounced the oracles, aſſumed a ſemblance of phrenſy to confirm the opinion of her inſpiration.

There is not to be found in the world a ſingle book of the great library of Thebes; ſo that we know nothing of Egyptian literature but from the information of the Greek philoſophers and poets; and even they knew not much; for the Egyptian literati held the wiſeſt of the Greeks extremely cheap. "You Greeks will for ever talk like fools

fools on theſe ſubjects." Such were the communications of the Egyptian with the Greek philoſophers.

The hieroglyphic language of the Egyptians is thus deduced by Dr. Bryant: "As Egypt was the land of Ham, who, as the Sun, was ſtiled Ait, it alſo was called Ait, rendered by the Greeks Αἴα; and as the heart in the body may be eſteemed what the Sun is in his ſyſtem, the ſource of heat and life, it was therefore called Ait, which word having theſe two ſenſes, was the reaſon why they made a heart over a vaſe of burning incenſe, the firſt hieroglyphic or emblem of their country. The principal rites in Egypt were confeſſedly for a perſon loſt, and for a time conſigned to darkneſs, who was at laſt found. This was Oſiris. Hence thoſe exclamations at the feaſts of Iſis: Εὑρήκαμεν· Συγχαίρομεν. See Plutarch. If. et Oſiris, v. 1. the ultimate to which we can apply is Egypt. Every ſacred thing in Egypt was at length diſtinguiſhed by ſome ſymbol of the deity. The Egyptians had many ſubordinate deities, which they eſteemed ſo many emanations, ἀποῤῥοιαι, from the Supreme Being. They were refined in their ſuperſtition, above all nations in the world; and conferred the names and titles of their deities upon vegetables, and animals of every ſpecies; and not only upon theſe, but alſo on the parts of the human body, and the very paſſions of the mind. Whatever they deemed ſalutary, or of great value, they diſtinguiſhed by the title of ſacred, and conſecrated by ſymbol to ſome god. Thus they had many emblematical perſonages, ſet off with heads of various animals, to repreſent particular virtues, and affections; as well as to denote the various attributes of their gods. Hence the origin of their hieroglyphics. But we muſt make a material diſtinction between the hieroglyphics of old, when Egypt was under her native kings; and thoſe of later date, when that country was under the government of the Greeks: at which time their learning was greatly impaired, and their ancient theology ruined.

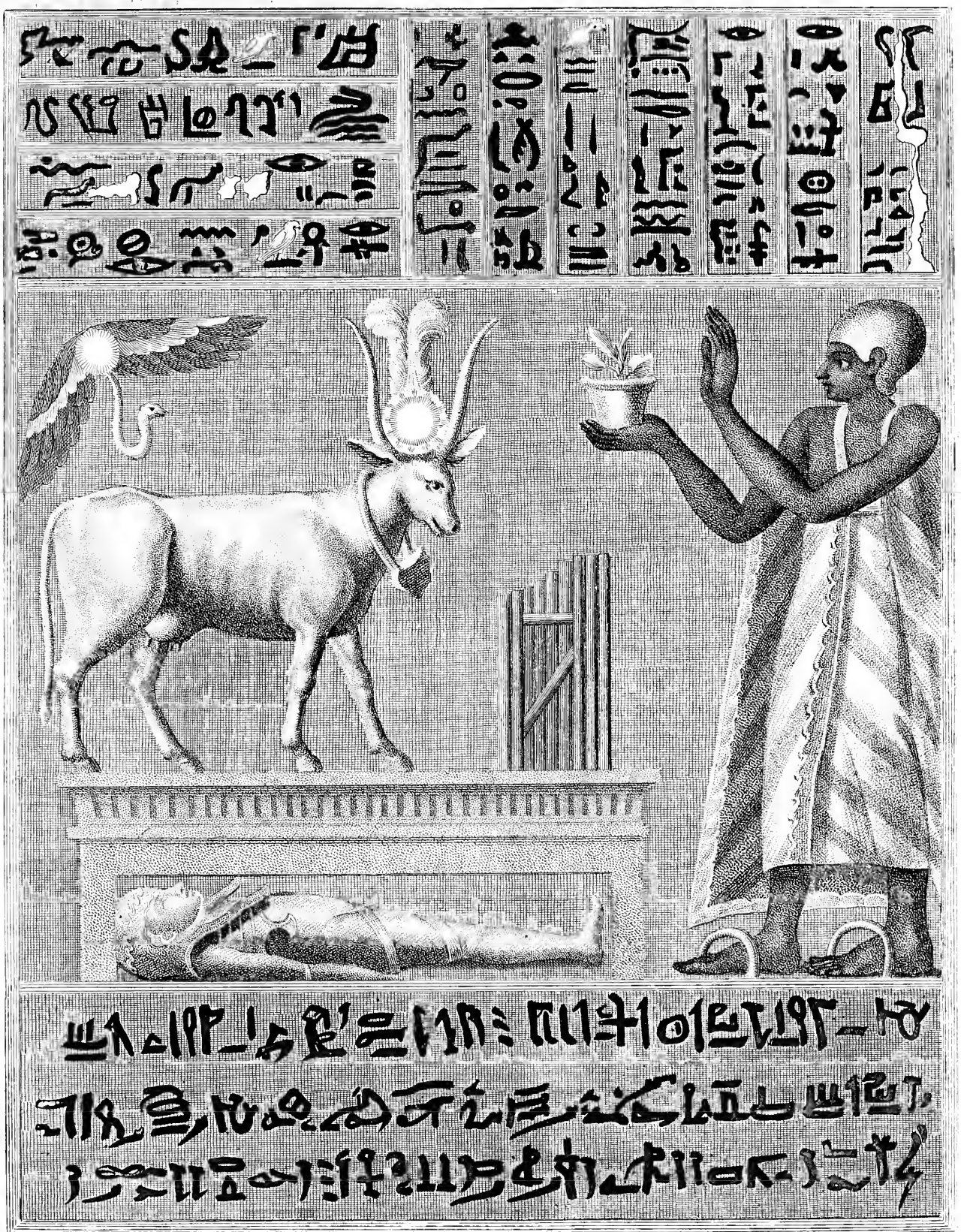
"If any means can be found to obtain the latent purport of the Egyptian hieroglyphics, they muſt ariſe from conſidering theſe emblems ſingly, and obſerving their particular ſcope and deſtination. When we have aſcertained the meaning of ſome individuals, we may poſſibly diſcover their drift, when conſidered collectively. Theſe, I think, are the principles upon which we muſt proceed: but after all it will be a dark reſearch, in which many have been bewildered. There are authors who mention an ancient piece of hieroglyphical ſculpture, which was to be ſeen in the city Saïs. It conſiſted of a child, an old man; and near them ſtood an hawk. After theſe a cetus, or ſea-fiſh; and laſt of all an hippopotamus. Clemens of Alexandria mentions the ſame hiſtory; but ſays, that it was at Dioſpolis. Inſtead of the river-horſe he introduces a crocodile, which he ſays was an emblem of impudence. It is to be obſerved, that the hippopotamus and crocodile were ſymbols of the ſame purport; both related to the deluge: and, however the Greeks might ſometimes repreſent them, they were both in different places reverenced by the ancient Egyptians. The interpretation given by Clemens, is this: 'All ye who are juſt come into the world, and all ye who are going out, remember, that God hates impudence.' As there are ſo many crimes of high moment, which demand animadverſion, it is ſtrange, that ſo ſolemn a caution ſhould be given merely againſt *impudence*. The inſcription ſeems to have been put up in two places: one of which was the temple of Iſis at Saïs; the other the temple at Dioſpolis, called Theba. Theſe are two remarkable places; in conſequence of which, one would imagine, that the inſcription ſhould contain ſome memorial of more conſequence: ſomething which had a reference to the temples wherein it was found. Were I to attempt the deciphering of theſe hieroglyphics, which however diverſified, ſeem to amount to the ſame purport, I ſhould begin, as in reading their common written language, from right to left, in a ſeries different from thoſe who have gone before me. I find, according to this order, that the hippopotamus, or crocodile, ſtands firſt; and then the cetus. Next comes the figure of the ſacred hawk, under which ſemblance Divine Providence was always depicted; and after this an old man, and a child. It may ſeem preſumptuous to pretend to interpret what was a ſecret two thouſand years ago: I ſhall therefore only mention what I have to ſay, as matter of opinion. I apprehend it may be read in the following manner: 'As the hippopotamus, or crocodile, ſurvives the inundation of the Nile, juſt ſo that ſacred receptacle, the cetus, or ark, through the interpoſition of Providence, weathered the deluge; by which means the aged patriarch eſcaped, and obtained a renewal of life.' How true this interpretation may be, I will not preſume to ſay: it certainly correſponds with the hiſtory of each emblem, as they have been ſeparately conſidered; and is conſonant to the general ſcope of the rites and mythology of Egypt. What is ſtill more to the purpoſe, it perfectly agrees with the deſtination of the two temples, where it is ſaid to have been found: for by Iſis was meant a ſacred receptacle; and Theba is literally the ark. The temples were both of them built in memory of that event, which the hieroglyphic ſeems to deſcribe."

Voltaire gives a curious inſtance of the force and conciſeneſs of hieroglyphical communication, which is taken from Herodotus. That hiſtorian informs us, that when Darius invaded Scythia, the Scythians ſent him the figures of a bird, a mouſe, a frog, and five arrows. By this ſymbolical admonition they informed him, that if he did not fly away as ſwiftly as a bird, or conceal himſelf like a mouſe or a frog, he would periſh by their arrows. This ſtory, ſays Voltaire, may poſſibly not be true; but it nevertheleſs furniſhes a ſtriking example of the ſimplicity of the emblems employed in thoſe diſtant ages.

The hieroglyphic language of the Egyptians, ſays ſir John Marſham, is the greateſt proof of their antiquity as a people. But, however intelligible this mode of communicating ideas might at firſt have been, it is reaſonable to conclude that when their popular language came to be refined by the invention of letters, the hieroglyphic ſymbols began to be diſuſed, and the people gradually forgot the ſignification of them. The prieſts, ſtill retaining and cultivating the knowlege of them, becauſe they were the repoſitories of their learning and hiſtory, at length applied them to the purpoſe of preſerving the ſecrets of their religion. Thus hieroglyphics became the ſource of animal worſhip in Egypt, as ſir John conjectures, *Can. Chron.* p. 58, becauſe in theſe hieroglyphics was recorded the hiſtory of their greater deities, their kings, and lawgivers, repreſented by animals, and other groſs emblems. The ſymbol of each god was well known and familiar to his worſhippers, by means of the paintings and engravings on their temples and other ſacred monuments; ſo that the ſymbol preſenting the idea of the god, and that idea exciting ſentiments of religion, it was natural for them, in their addreſſes to any particular god, to turn to his repreſentative mark or ſymbol; eſpecially when we conſider farther, that the Egyptian prieſts feigned a divine original for hieroglyphic characters, in order to increaſe the veneration of the people for them. Theſe would of courſe bring on a relative devotion to theſe ſymbolic figures, which, when it came to be paid to the living animal, would ſoon terminate in an ultimate worſhip; and which ſubſequently proved to be the fact.

In their written characters, the *A* was not the firſt letter of the Egyptian alphabet, but the *T*, in honour of Thoth, or Hermes, the genius that preſided over the ſciences and the arts. Their writing was from right to left, like the Hebrew; and it is certain that they uſed ſimilar letters ſo early as the age of Moſes. Theſe characters have been lately found upon manuſcripts in the ſwathings of their mummies, as exhibited in the annexed engraving.

"The ſubject of this engraving, (ſays Denon,) is part of a manuſcript found rolled up in a mummy. The papyrus on which it is written is prepared of two layers of the



Denon del.t J. Chapman sc.

Part of an Egyptian Manuscript found in the Swathing of a Mummy.

London Published as the Act directs May 26th 1804 by J. Wilkes.

the medullia of this plant glued to each other, with the fibres made to croſs, to give greater conſiſtence to the leaf. It may alſo be ſeen that the writing goes from right to left. The hieroglyphic deſign here repreſented is an offering made by a prieſt to Iſis, in the form of a cow; whoſe head is dreſſed like the human figures of that deity; beſides having a kind of yoke about her neck, which I have alſo met with around the god Apis, in an hiſtorical bas-relief in the temple of Medinet-Abu, at Thebes. The frame upon which the cow, or Iſis ſtands, is perhaps an altar; beneath which the figure of a mummy is depicted, intended perhaps to repreſent Nature in a dormant ſtate. Above the cow is a diſk with eagle wing, whence a ſerpent, the emblem of divine power, is deſcending. The prieſt is clothed in a white ſtriped tunic, which covers his body from his loins down to the mid-leg; it is faſtened by ſtraps, paſſing round his right ſhoulder, which otherwiſe is as naked as his arms; on his head he has a cloſe-fitting cap, which looks ſomewhat like a helmet, and is rounded off at the ears, leaving them bare: he holds in his hand a vaſe, containing two ſpecies of flowers, which I have often ſeen, without being able to make out what they are. Above the figures is an inſcription compoſed of ſeven vertical and four horizontal lines: the writing is here different from the reſt of the manuſcript, and the characters appear to be infinitely varied and numerous; ſome of the emblematical figures, met with in other places, may be here diſtinguiſhed, ſuch as the ſerpent, the eye, and birds; but theſe are mixed with others that ſeem to be purely conventional, and exhibit no kind of image. The lines at the bottom exhibit an unmixed ſpecimen of the true Egyptian written language.

"In copying the whole manuſcript I have found the return of entire phraſes, and particular characters, ſo often repeated, that they can be only articles, conjunctions, or auxillary verbs: from theſe, it would be eaſy for thoſe perſons who devote themſelves to this kind of ſtudy, to compoſe alphabets, or groups of words, which may aſſiſt in the general explanation; and a ſingle one of theſe manuſcripts would furniſh the whole of the ſet of characters, if each character only expreſſed a ſingle letter. This manuſcript belongs to the firſt conſul, who has been pleaſed to allow me the uſe of it."—From the ſeveral fragments of manuſcripts collected in Egypt by the French literati, it is ardently to be hoped and expected that their dialect may yet be recovered. With reſpect to their hieroglyphics, it is really wonderful, that in a country where this myſtical writing was ſo long in uſe, it ſhould now be wholly loſt, even to the natives themſelves, and not a perſon exiſting in the world who can be found to decypher or explain the connexion and meaning of thoſe ſymbolical characters.

It is generally agreed that the Egyptian ſymbolical writing, or hieroglyphics, was greatly anterior to their alphabetical character. They are ſaid to have firſt uſed letters ſimilar to the Ethiopic, which approach nearly to thoſe of the Hebrew; but, after all the reſearches that have been made, there appears nothing certain or deciſive, either with regard to their language, or its characters. Dr. Edmund Fry, in his Pantographia, publiſhed in 1799, has given ſeven different alphabets which are called Egyptian. The firſt and ſecond are on the authority of Theſeus Ambroſius, and are deemed the moſt ancient; an aſſertion which implies many revolutions in the people and the government; but of which hiſtory is totally ſilent. The third is given by Fournier, under the title of *Iſiac-Egyptien*, which he informs us was attributed to the goddeſs Iſis. The fourth is called by Fournier *Lettres Sacrées*; and he ſays the characters were invented by the god Thoth: this is mere fable. The fifth is ſaid, by Duret and Fournier, to be a character explanatory of their ſymbolical or hieroglyphic alphabet; but for this opinion there does not appear either reaſon or authority. The ſixth was diſcovered by the abbé Barthelemi, under a monument in Egypt; and is very different from all the preceding. The ſeventh alphabet differs entirely from all the others, both in the form of its characters, and in the mode of placing them, being written, like the Hebrew, from right to left; for which reaſon Dr. Bryant ſeems to have conſidered it as moſt likely to be the true one; and on this ground he is of opinion, that their hieroglyphics, and all their manuſcripts, are to be read backward: but this, like all the reſt, is mere conjecture. It is however to be noticed, that the firſt letter of all theſe alphabets, is the *A*, whereas Pauw aſſerts, that the firſt letter of the *true* Egyptian alphabet was the *T*, but in that given by Barthelemi, the *T* is placed laſt, and the *Z* the ſixth. It is ſtill more remarkable, that neither of the alphabets above-mentioned correſpond in the form of their characters with the manuſcripts recently diſcovered in Egypt by the French literati. See the annexed engraving of the manuſcript found under the ſwathings of a mummy in the necropolis of the ancient Memphis; from which it will appear that the Egyptians ſometimes wrote in a vertical direction, as well as in the horizontal.

Bochart muſt have been wholly unacquainted with the antiquities of Egypt, when he aſſerted that the Hebrew was the eldeſt of nations. Abraham, who lived ſix hundred years before the Trojan war, on his paſſing into Egypt, found it a great and flouriſhing kingdom; and the Jews do not pretend to trace their origin, as a people, higher than Abraham. As to Bochart's ſecond aſſertion, that the Egyptians borrowed their arts and ſciences from the Jews, it will be ſufficient to obſerve that, at the time of Abraham's viſit, the great pyramid was ſtanding; this pyramid exhibits a correct meridian, the contrivance of an aſtronomer far advanced in the ſcience; and the building itſelf could not have been raiſed without a conſummate knowledge of mechanics. The facility with which the Egyptians raiſed thoſe immenſe obeliſks which formed avenues to their temples, and which of courſe left little room for the working of engines, brings to ſhame the complicated machinery employed by Fontana in erecting the obeliſk before the church of St. Peter at Rome. Even the Romans, notwithſtanding their boaſted improvement in the arts, and deſpairing to equal the Egyptian architects, thought it a ſufficient honour to borrow from that people the moſt ſplendid ornaments of their capital. When Octavius, afterwards Auguſtus Cæſar, had reduced Egypt to a Roman province, he cauſed a pair of theſe obeliſks to be tranſported to the imperial city; but thinking it impracticable to move a third, which is ſaid to have afforded employment to twenty thouſand men in the reign of Ramiſes, he ſuffered it to remain without moleſtation. Conſtantius, however, effected what Auguſtus durſt not undertake, and actually ordered this ſtupendous monument to be carried to Rome. Theſe obeliſks formerly abounded in every part of Egypt: their ſhape was that of a quadrangular taper ſpire, terminating in a point, to ſerve as an ornament to ſome open ſquare, or to form avenues to their temples, or a ſumptuous entrance to their cities. Their poſition was perpendicular, and their decorations conſiſted of ſuch inſcriptions and hieroglyphics as were commonly uſed by the Egyptians for the purpoſe of diſplaying the myſteries of their religion. The pair of obeliſks now ſtanding at the entrance of Luxor, as ſhewn in the preceding engraving, affords an ample ſpecimen of this majeſtic decoration.

Among the proofs of their high antiquity, great and early advances in the ſciences, particularly in aſtronomy, are the moſt deciſive. The Egyptians knew, at a very early period, that the ſun was fixed, a common center to the earth and planets, which move around it. They gave the firſt hint of the ſublime idea of every ſtar being a ſun to a ſyſtem like our own. Nor did they ſtop ſhort of the inveſtigation of comets, which they held to be planets, moving in orbits ſimilar, but eccentrical, to our ſyſtem. It is admitted that the Jews, on their coming out of Egypt, one thouſand five hundred years before our era, brought with them the Egyptian year of twelve

lunar months, of thirty days each. A year of 360 days muſt have produced great confuſion in the ſucceſſions of ſeaſons: accordingly, it is known that ſo early as the Trojan war, the Egyptians had a year of 365 days; this fell ſhort of true time only twenty-five days in a century, corrected in the Julian calendar, by adding a day to every fourth year, called by us biſſextile or leap-year.

Though the Egyptians gave to the vulgar year no more than 365 days, yet they knew that the true year was ſix hours longer. This the prieſts explained in ſecret to Eudoxus and Plato, but kept the uſe they made of it among the arcana of the college; this uſe conſiſted in adding the fourth of a day to every year, calling the firſt year the firſt quarter, and ſo on to the fourth, which formed the luſtrum of four years, borrowed from them by Eudoxus, according to Strabo and Pliny. This ſecret Julius Cæſar learnt during his ſtay at Alexandria, and this led him to the reform of the Roman calendar. It is to the honour of ſcience to obſerve, that of all the events of Cæſar's life, this bids the faireſt for immortality; for, ſuch is the nature of the thing, that time itſelf muſt be loſt, before this can be forgotten. Should it be aſked, why did not the prieſts apply their luſtrum to the vulgar calendar? it may be anſwered, that they were *politicians* as well as prieſts, and thought that, in both caſes, the vulgar were beſt governed, as certain fowl are beſt fatted, by being kept in the dark. By their excluſive knowledge of true time, they alone could predict with exactneſs the annual inundation of the Nile, the ſtages of its increaſe and retreat; they alone could fix the preciſe time for obſerving the religious feaſts, moſt of which had their origin in the changes of the ſeaſons; on theſe two articles depended the natural and political exiſtence of an Egyptian. Hence it was, that the prieſts were ſo tenacious of the power this ſecret gave them over the people, that they obliged their kings, at their inauguration, to take an oath that they would never ſuffer the calendar to be altered. Hence the cunning of the prieſt ſuggeſted a ſimilar policy to the ſcience of the philoſopher. The vulgar year loſing ſix hours annually, or twenty-five days in a century, it follows that in 1465 years things muſt come right again, and the year begin where it had done at the commencement of the period; of this the aſtronomer took a moſt ingenious advantage, by converting the period of 1465 years, thence called a *cycle*, into a meaſurement of time to be applied to the prodigious age he attributed to the world.

It has been demonſtrated by modern aſtronomers, that the cycle was right in the 139th year of the Chriſtian era; conſequently, the preceding cycle muſt have begun with the Egyptians 1456 years before, and been thence carried back to the meaſurement of an aſcending period of prodigious antiquity: but here the preſent aſtronomers interpoſe, and will not allow that the Egyptians carried theſe cycles higher: yet it is ſtrange, that a ſenſible people, who knew the value of time, ſhould throw it away in forming a period of which they meant not to make uſe more than twice or thrice. But ſince the recent diſcovery made by Denon of the advanced ſtate of their aſtronomy, exemplified in their zodiac and planiſphere, ſtill extant in the great temple at Tentyra, it ſeems that they were entitled to much more intelligence and enlightened knowledge than modern writers have been willing to allow them. And after the departure of Denon, we are informed, that general Deſaix found another zodiac, ſculptured on a periſtyle at Eſneh, apparently of much higher antiquity than the former. We learn alſo from a memoir tranſmitted by C. Corabœuf, French engineer in Egypt, that the zodiac found at Eſneh is in twenty-five degrees, and that at Tentyra, the preſent Dendera, in twenty-ſix degrees, north latitude: and M. Burckhardt, who, having examined the drawing made by Denon, of the zodiac of Tentyra, finds that the ſolſtice had advanced ſixty degrees further than the place where it now is; which ſuppoſes an antiquity of four thouſand years. By ſtudying the ſurrounding figures, this poſition may, perhaps, be obtained with more accuracy. C. Fournier has likewiſe preſented to the inſtitute a memoir, containing further details on this curious ſubject. The zodiac of Eſneh, he ſays, repreſents the ſolſtice in the conſtellation of Virgo, which ſuppoſes an antiquity of ſeven thouſand years. But the poſition of the ſolſtice is there indicated in a more vague manner, and it is not impoſſible that there may be an uncertainty of ſome hundred years. This, however, appears calculated to give probability to the hypotheſis of Dupuis, who aſcribes our zodiac to the climate of Egypt when the ſummer ſolſtice was in the conſtellation of capricorn, fourteen or fifteen thouſand years before our era. See an anſwer to this under the article EARTH, p. 206, of this volume.

With aſtronomy, the fine arts ſeem to have kept pace in Egypt. Certain it is, that the Egyptians engraved the *pietre dure*, or gems, two thouſand years before our era; and to this we are wholly indebted for the correct figures and portraits, which have been tranſmitted to us from thoſe early times. What ages muſt have preceded their arrival at this point in an art of ſo great difficulty! In like manner, the moſt difficult operations in mechanics muſt have taken place in the building of their vaſt temples and pyramids, and the erection of their ſtupendous obeliſks.

The Egyptians excelled in works of glaſs, caſt large plates, but ſtopt ſhort of the mirror: they caſt ſtatues of coloured glaſs, and counterfeited the murine vaſes; but it is now unknown what thoſe vaſes were; though they are ſuppoſed to be of the nature of the onyx. They delighted in ſimple and contraſted colours; for they had no knowledge of mixed tints; accordingly, we never hear amongſt the ancients of an Egyptian painter, though Plato aſſures us that they cultivated the art, as far as related to architecture, ten thouſand years before his time. The ſtatuaries of Egypt were confined by the prieſts to certain forms and modes of repreſentation: hence Plato obſerves, that they were, in his time, juſt where they were at their firſt ſetting out, except as to greater correctneſs and beauty in the ſtile of finiſhing.

It is ſuggeſted by Ariſtotle, that the agriculture of Egypt being eaſy, and of little labour, and the conſequent idleneſs of the people thought hurtful to their health and morals, they were conſtantly employed in ſome great work. Thus the policy of the rulers became the paſſion of the people; and a maſter-ſtroke in police. It is certain that the Egyptians had little employment in navigation and commerce; what they wanted from other countries was brought to them. It is very remarkable, that they neither coined, nor made uſe of, money, till ſome time after the Perſian invaſion. Yet Monteſquieu makes this the teſt of civilization.

It appears that the errors into which we have fallen, touching the developement of the arts, have their ſource in Varro, who aſſerts, that all the arts were invented in Greece in the courſe of a thouſand years: but it now turns out that the Greeks did not invent either arts or ſciences; they went abroad to learn them, or they were brought to them: had they been confined to their own country, and had no communication with Egypt, it would probably have taken them up a thouſand years to complete an alphabet; which was brought to them in a day, and that by accident. The very ſlow progreſs of ſcience is evinced in the following inſtance: The prieſts of Thebes and Heliopolis, who thought that they had diſcovered the preciſe term of a tropical year, made a miſtake of ſome minutes, as is ſeen in the defect of the Julian year; it was but the other day that this miſtake was corrected, and this branch of ſcience brought to perfection. Caſtration, male and female, was ſaid to be practiſed in Egypt from the earlieſt times. Strange it is that this uſage ſhould not have paſſed with the Egyptian colonies into Greece, if any ſuch were. Cuſtoms, ceremonies, feaſts, &c. paſſing from Egypt into Greece, are accounted for,

by

by ſuch men as Lycurgus and Solon ſtudying legiſlation in Egypt: this ſame obſervation holds with reſpect to philoſophers and artiſts.

But the moſt prominent feature of the progreſs of the arts in ancient Egypt, was the perfection and magnificence of their architecture. Borrowing nothing from the ſtile of other nations, they have added no foreign ornament, no ſuperfluity of materials. Order and ſimplicity are the principles which they have followed, and they have carried them to ſublimity. At this point they have ſtopped, and have attached ſo much importance to preſerving the unity of deſign, that though they have loaded the walls of their edifices with bas-reliefs, inſcriptions, and hiſtorical and ſcientific reprefentations, yet none of theſe rich additions interſects a ſingle line of the general plan, all of which is religiouſly preſerved unbroken: the ſumptuous and rich decorations which appear to the eye when cloſe to the building, all vaniſh at a ſhort diſtance, and leave full to view the grand elements of architectural compoſition, which are dictated by found reaſon. It ſeldom rains in this climate; all that is wanted, therefore, is a covering of plat-bands to give ſhade; but beyond this, neither roof nor pediment are added; the plain fortification ſlope is the principle of ſolidity; they have therefore adopted this form for every main ſupporter, doubtleſs with the idea that ſtability is the firſt impreſſion that architecture ſhould give, and is an eſſential conſtituent of this art. With theſe people, the idea of the immortality of the Deity is preſented by the eternity of his temple; theſe ornaments, which are always rational, always conſiſtent, always ſignificant, demonſtrate a ſteadineſs of principle, a taſte founded upon truth, and a deep train of reaſoning; and if we even had not a full conviction of the eminent height to which they had attained in the abſtract ſciences, their architecture alone, in the ſtate in which we now find it, would give the obſerver of the preſent day a high opinion of the antiquity of this nation, of its intellectual reſources, and the impreſſive gravity of its character.

"I deſpair, (ſays Denon,) of being able to expreſs half what I felt on ſtanding under the rich portico of the maſſive temple of Tentyra. I felt that I was in the ſanctuary of the arts and ſciences. How many periods preſented themſelves to my imagination at the ſight of ſuch an edifice! how many ages of creative ingenuity were requiſite to bring a nation to ſuch a degree of perfection and ſublimity in the arts! and how many more of oblivion to cauſe theſe mighty productions to be forgotten, and to bring back the human race to the ſtate of nature in which I now found them on this very ſpot! Never was there a place which concentered in a narrower compaſs the well-marked memorial of a progreſſive lapſe of ages. What unceaſing power, what riches, what abundance, what ſuperfluity, of means muſt a government poſſeſs which could erect ſuch an edifice, and find within itſelf artiſts capable of conceiving and executing the deſign, of decorating and enriching it with every thing that ſpeaks to the eye and the underſtanding! A conſtant ſubject of aſtoniſhment is afforded by the equality of care obſervable in all the parts of ſo vaſt a whole, by that minute exactneſs of execution, and that perfect finiſh, the fruits of an obſtinacy and an inflexible perſeverance which characteriſes a monaſtic ſpirit, whoſe zeal neither periſhes nor even cools, and whoſe pride is not individual but corporate. Probably the artiſts themſelves were a conſtituent part of the colleges of prieſts; for it is ſcarcely to be ſuppoſed that theſe would have allowed the arts, that elevate and adorn the human mind, to be entruſted to any caſt but their own.

"Theſe monuments, which imprint on the mind the reſpect due to the ſanctuary of the Divinity, were certainly the open volumes, in which ſcience was firſt unfolded, morality dictated, and the uſeful arts promulgated; every thing ſpoke, every object was animated with the ſame mind. The opening of the doors, the angles, the moſt private receſs, ſtill preſented a leſſon, a precept of admirable harmony; and the richeſt ornament on the graveſt feature of the architecture, revealed, under living images, the abſtract truths of aſtronomy. Painting added a further charm to ſculpture and architecture, and produced at the ſame time an agreeable richneſs, which did not injure either the general ſimplicity or the gravity of the whole. To all appearance, painting, in Egypt, was only an auxiliary ornament, and not a particular art: the ſculpture was emblematical, as well as architectural. Architecture, therefore, was the great art, or that which was dictated by utility, and we may from this circumſtance alone infer the priority, or at leaſt the ſuperior excellence of the Egyptian over the Indian art; ſince the former, borrowing nothing from the latter, has become the baſis of all that is the ſubject of admiration in modern art, and of what we have conſidered as excluſively belonging to architecture, the three Greek orders, the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. We ſhould, therefore, be cautious of entertaining the falſe idea, which is ſo prevalent, that the Egyptian architecture is the infancy of this art, ſince it is in fact the complete type. Yet it is wonderful that a knowledge of this advanced ſtate of the arts in Egypt, ſhould have lain dormant for ſo many ages, and that the diſcovery of it ſhould have been left to dignify or mark the completion of the eighteenth century.

"I was particularly ſtruck with the beauty of the entrance to the ſanctuary of the temple of Tentyra, which is a moſt magnificent fragment of Egyptian architecture. I have copied with great exactneſs the different hieroglyphics, and have ſhewn the perfect preſervation of this part of the edifice; on which account the view given of it in the annexed Engraving, unites the advantage of a geometrical elevation, with a pictureſque diſplay of that ſymbolical language which is now utterly unknown. In the ſame engraving is repreſented a variety of capitals adapted to different columns, and other fragments of Egyptian architecture. In viewing ſuch variety of form, uniting ſuch richneſs of ornament, with elegance of outline, one may well be ſurpriſed that the world has allowed the Greeks, on their own aſſertion, the merit of having been the inventors of architecture, and that all the truths of this art are to be ſought for in the rules of the three Grecian orders. Might we not ſuppoſe that if ſome hiſtory, like that of the urn of the prieſteſs of Corinth, were attached to each of theſe capitals, they would each have acquired equal celebrity; or rather we may aſſert, that they require no adventitious reputation to claim the admiration of all lovers of the fine arts, as beautiful productions of human ſkill. The Egyptians, we ſee, have copied ſimple nature, ſuch as it appeared in their own country; this the Greeks have borrowed from them, and have added to it nothing but fable. Here, the calyx of a flower, ſupported by its ſtem, has furniſhed the form of the column, its baſe, and its capital; the lotus has afforded the firſt model, and this plant was expreſſive of the inundation, the emblem of the entrance of the Nile into the canals, the greateſt bounty which nature can beſtow on the Egyptians; they have therefore introduced this plant into the decoration of their temples, as a homage of gratitude to Iſis, who preſided over this bounteous gift: as goddeſs of the earth, they have alſo dedicated to her the other productions of the ſoil, the reed, the palm, the vine, &c. The following is an explanation of theſe fragments of Egyptian architecture:

Fig. 1. A golden vaſe, emblematic of the overflowing of the Nile, whoſe unlimited bounty diſpenſes the neceſſaries of life alike to man and beaſt. The richneſs of its appropriate decorations may well be admired; an inverted lotus flower ſerves as a cover; and the horſe paſſant, and the heads of goats and Arabian horſes, are in fine ſtyle. Fig. 2. The capital to the columns in the temple of Typhon or Anubis, the evil genius, or god of the

the kamſin, or deſtroying wind. His image is ſculptured on the four ſides of a cubic die, which is in fact nothing but a prolongation of the column: this member of architecture has the advantage of ſhewing the capital more completely, and preventing it from appearing to be cruſhed by the architrave; and the general effect which it produces is ſo good, that we may be ſurpriſed it has never yet been imitated. Fig. 3. Winged horſes, the hieroglyphic of ſpeed, ſculptured on the third platband of the ceiling of the portico of the great temple at Tentyra. Fig. 4. An ornament uſed in the Egyptian temples, ſimilar to the cherubims in the temple of Jeruſalem. Fig. 5. Another ornament of architecture of united doves. Fig. 6. The head of Iſis, with all the attributes of this goddeſs, crowning the columns of the temple of Tentyra. This is the moſt elegant and expreſſive of all the capitals found among the remains of Egyptian architecture. Fig. 7. One of the beautiful but very ſingular columns in the portico of the temple in the iſle of Elephantina. Fig. 8. A capital decorating the pillars of many of the temples in Upper Egypt; in which may be traced the origin of the Ionic volute, and the ſtem of the Corinthian capital. Fig. 9. A capital compoſed of the branches and leaves of the palm, and the cups or capſules of its fruit; it is perhaps the moſt chaſte of all the known capitals, and even in Europe, where it would not poſſeſs the ſame local intereſt as in Egypt, it might be ſelected as a moſt beautiful decoration for a feſtive hall. Fig. 10. Caryatides of prieſts or divinities, employed as ornaments in various edifices, and particularly in the Memnonium. Similar caryatides occur in the temple of Apollinopolis magna, and in that of Medinet-Abu. The invention of this ornament in architecture has been pompouſly, but erroneouſly, attributed to the Greeks, after their conqueſt of Carya. "I have alſo diſcovered at Tentyra, (ſays Denon,) the repreſentations of the periſtyles of temples in caryatides, which are executed in painting at the baths of Titus, and have been copied by Raphael, and which we conſtantly ape in our rooms, without once ſuſpecting that the Egyptians were the people who afforded us the firſt models of them." Fig. 11. A monolithic temple or ſanctuary, in which the ſacred birds were kept incloſed. Fig. 12. One of the pyramids ſtripped of its outſide facing, and truncated like that of Cheops. This ſhews the ſtability of principle upon which all the pyramids were erected. From the capitals here delineated, may be obviouſly traced the rudiments of the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic, architecture.

A longer ſeries of years might, perhaps, have brought the Egyptian architecture to a higher degree of perfection in ſome particulars; but each fabric appears to have been ſo equally finiſhed in all its parts, that they ſeem all to have been executed by the ſame hand; no one portion is better or worſe than any other; there appears neither negligence nor the bold ſtrokes of a more exalted genius; uniformity and harmony prevail throughout. The art of ſculpture, here made ſubſervient and attached to that of architecture, appears, indeed, to have been circumſcribed in principle, in method, and in ſtile of execution; a ſingle figure expreſſes nothing, when taken out of its exact ſtation in the group in which it is a part; the ſculptor muſt have had his deſign chalked out for him, and could not introduce any deviation which might alter the true meaning that it was intended to convey. The perfection given by the Egyptians to the repreſentations of their animals, proves that they were not without an idea of that bold ſtyle which expreſſes much character in a few lines, and their execution tended to the grave, and to ideal perfection.

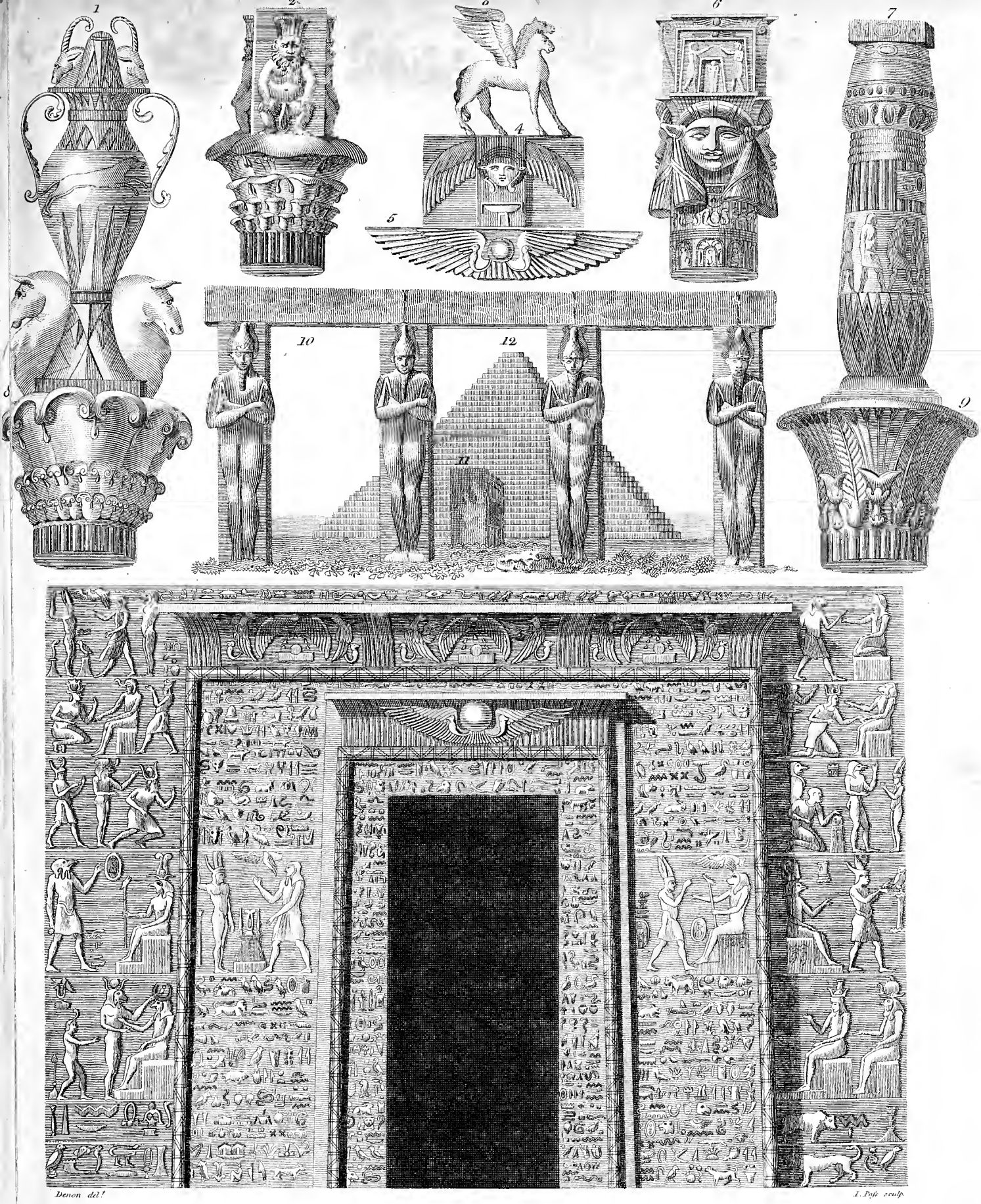
"As to the character of the human figure, ſince they borrowed nothing from other nations, they could only copy from their own, which is rather delicate than fine. The female forms, however, reſemble the figure of their handſomeſt women of the preſent day, round and voluptuous, a ſmall noſe, the eyes long, half ſhut, and turned up at the outer angle, like thoſe of all perſons whoſe ſight is habitually fatigued by the burning heat of the ſun, or the dazzling white of ſnow; the cheeks round and rather thick, the lips pouting, the mouth large, but cheerful and ſmiling; in ſhort, the African character is conſpicuous, of which the negro is the caricature or exaggerated picture, and perhaps the original type. Volney, however, was extremely incorrect in calling the ancient Egyptians *negroes*. This ſuggeſtion aroſe from the following paſſage in Herodotus: "I believe, (ſays Herodotus,) the Colchi to be a colony of Egyptians; becauſe, like them, they have a black ſkin and *curled* hair:" which M. Volney choſe to tranſlate or rather torture into *frizzled* hair; and adds, "That the ancient Egyptians were therefore real negroes." The beſt anſwer to this comment, will be another from Herodotus, by which the deciſive article of *frizzled* hair is quite done away. "The prieſts of other nations have long hair, thoſe of Egypt are cloſe ſhaved: in mourning for near relations, all other people cut their hair ſhort; but the Egyptians, mourning for the dead, ſuffer the hair of the head and chin to grow long: Ανιεσι τας τριχας αυξεσθαι, τας τε εν τε κεφαλη, και τω γηνειω. *Herodot.* A change, which, from the nature of the thing, could not take place on the woolly head or chin of a negro.

It has been admitted that the Egyptians were of a dark olive complexion; Herodotus is deciſive on the point. But it is probable that the negro was not known to the Greeks ſo early as the age of this hiſtorian. Certain it is, that the ancients do not appear to have entertained the leaſt diſlike of a black complexion; nor ſhould we, after the firſt ſurpriſe, did we not connect with it the image, and with that the character, of the negro. There are throughout Aſia numerous tribes of dark olive-coloured people, but with European features, and abundant hair. From among thoſe tribes muſt have come that fable beauty, who thus aſſerts her pretenſions, in the Song of Songs: "I am black, but comely, O ye daughters of Jeruſalem!"

"Amid theſe reſearches, (ſays Denon,) I diſcovered a rule or canon of proportions traced upon a human figure, with red chalk, and afterwards covered by a thin ſtucco, a method adopted by the Egyptians to give a finer finiſh to their bas-reliefs, and render their architectural paintings indeſtructible. I made an outline drawing of the bas-relief and the lines, by which the figure was divided into proportions: hence we may infer the principles which they had adopted, their mode of applying them, and, in ſhort, that method of proceeding, which, to the advantage of preventing at once all errors, all unharmonious combinations, and ignoble proportions, unites that of attaining the conſtant equality obſervable in their works; an equality, which, if it is detrimental to the ſallies of genius and the expreſſion of delicate ſentiment, tends at leaſt to the perfection of uniformity, converts drawing into a mechanical art, and reduces ſculpture to an acceſſary proper for the decoration and enriching of architecture, to a method of expreſſing ideas, in ſhort, to writing. It is worthy of remark, that, according to the Egyptian canon, the human figure was divided into twenty-two parts and a half, of which the head took up two and two-thirds, or the eighth of the whole, correſponding in this reſpect with the heroic ſtile among the Greeks.

"The hieroglyphics, adopted as ornaments in their architecture, are executed in three different ſtiles, are alſo of three ſpecies, and may take their date from as many diſtinct periods. From the examination of the different edifices which now remain, it would ſeem that the moſt ancient of theſe characters are only ſimple outlines cut in without relief, and very deep; the next in age, and which produce the leaſt effect, are ſimply in a very ſhallow relief; and the third, which ſeem to belong to a more improved age, and are executed at Tentyra more perfectly than in any other part of Egypt, are in relief

below



Denon del.t

I. Pass sculp.

A View of the Entrance to the Sanctuary of the Temple of Tentyra; with various Fragments of Egyptian Architecture.

London Published as the Act directs July 16th 1803 by J. Wilkes

below the level of the outline. By the ſide of the figures which compoſe theſe tabular pieces of ſculpture, there are ſmall hieroglyphics, which appear to be only the explanation of the ſubjects at large, and in which the forms are much ſimplified, ſo as to give a more rapid mode of inſcription, or a kind of *ſhort-hand*, if we may apply the term to ſculpture. A fourth kind of hieroglyphics, devoted ſimply to ornament, is termed the *arabeſque*. It was adopted by the Greeks, and in the age of Auguſtus was introduced among the Romans; and in the fifteenth century, during the reſtoration of the arts, it was tranſmitted by them to us as a fantaſtic decoration, the peculiar taſte of which formed all its merit. Among the Egyptians, who employed theſe ornaments with equal taſte, every object had a meaning or a moral, and at the ſame time formed the decoration of the friezes, the cornices, and the ſur-baſements, of their architecture. In ſhort, the Egyptian artiſts perfectly underſtood that magic of art which works on the ſoul through the medium of the ſenſes, that gradual diſplay of magnificence, that increaſe of intereſt ariſing from the myſterious impreſſion produced by faint and broken light, that kind of dramatic progreſſion which occaſions the keeneſt ſenſations, and promoted the myſterious empire of religion in their temples, the empire which, with them, was omnipotent. And can we ſtill preſume to call this the *infancy* of art, when nothing greater has been produced in its *maturity*?

In reflecting on the object of the conſtruction of their pyramids, ſo ſtupendous, ſo coloſſal, in compariſon of all other works of architecture, the gigantic pride which gave them birth appears more enormous even than their actual dimenſions; and one hardly knows which is the moſt aſtoniſhing, the madneſs of tyrannical oppreſſion which could direct the undertaking, or the ſervility of obedience in the people who ſubmitted to the labour; and in which, perhaps, we might perceive a glimpſe of that kind of oppreſſion which the Iſraelites ſuffered in Egypt. In ſhort, the moſt favourable view, for the honour of human nature, in which theſe monuments can be conſidered is, that man was thereby ambitious of rivalling nature in immenſity and in eternity, and not without ſucceſs, ſince the mountains contiguous to theſe edifices are leſs high, and ſtill leſs exempted from the ravages of time, than this work of human hands. In proof of the indeſtructibility of their fabric, we need only contemplate the following anecdote, related in Dr. White's tranſlation of Abdollatiph: "When Al-Malec Al-Aziz Othman Ben Joſeph ſucceeded his father in the government of Egypt, his fooliſh favourites perſuaded him to pull down theſe pyramids, beginning with the third, which is built with red granite. Having therefore collected great numbers of engineers, maſons, and labourers, and having convoked the grandees of the empire, he iſſued his orders to them to demoliſh that pyramid, and commiſſioned them to ſuperintend the performance. They immediately pitched their tents on the ſpot, collected artificers and workmen from all parts, and maintained them at an enormous expence. Here they continued for eight months, with horſe and foot; pulling down, in the ſpace of a whole day, after the moſt painful efforts and the utmoſt difficulty, one ſtone only, or two at the fartheſt. The labourers from above forced downward every ſtone with wedges, levers, and iron-crows; while thoſe below pulled it with cables and ropes: when it fell, ſo violent was its fall, that the noiſe was heard at a ſurpriſing diſtance, the mountains trembled, and the earth ſhook; and the ſtone was buried in the ſand, whence they at length extracted it with additional labour and fatigue. They then applied their wedges to it in crevices made for that purpoſe, broke it in pieces, and conveyed theſe pieces on carriages to the farther end of the mountain, which was at no great diſtance. Having thus ſpent much time to little purpoſe, their reſources failed them, their difficulties increaſed, and they were finally obliged to deſiſt, filled with dejection, confuſion, and deſpair. They were unable to obtain their wiſhes and the end propoſed; and all that they accompliſhed was to deface the pyramid, and betray the weakneſs and impotence of their efforts. This event happened in the year of Chriſt, 593. However, if any one ſhould behold the ſtones that have been taken down, he would think that the pyramid muſt have been entirely deſtroyed; but let him take a view of the pyramid itſelf, and he will ſcarcely believe that it has been at all injured: for a ſmall part only of one of its ſides is demoliſhed. Perceiving the prodigious toil which they underwent in pulling down every ſingle ſtone, I aſked the ſuperintendant of the maſons, whether, if offered a thouſand pieces of gold, on condition that they ſhould replace any one ſtone in its proper and original poſition, they would be able to effect it; he anſwered me, ſwearing by the living God, that, though they were offered double that ſum, the thing would be impoſſible."

Obeliſks and ſphinxes, as well as pyramids, were among their coloſſal works, and which alike demand our admiration and aſtoniſhment at the preſent day. It is alſo remarkable that theſe gigantic embelliſhments in architecture have been erected in no other part of the world beſides Egypt, except thoſe which have been copied from, or brought out of, that country. The ſphinx, which ſtands near the pyramids of Gizeh, is undoubtedly a very great architectural curioſity, and upon the whole is very graceful; the expreſſion of the head is mild and tranquil; the character is African; but the mouth, the lips of which are thick, has a correctneſs of execution truly admirable; it ſeems real life. Art muſt have been at a high pitch when this monument was executed; for, if the head wants what is called *ſtile*, that is to ſay, the ſtraight and bold lines which give expreſſion to the figures under which the Greeks have deſignated their deities, yet ſufficient juſtice has been rendered to the fine ſimplicity and character of nature which is diſplayed in this figure. Among the Egyptians the ſphinx was the ſymbol of religion, by reaſon of the obſcurity of its myſteries; and on the ſame account the Romans afterwards placed a ſphinx in the pronaos or porch of their temples. Sphinxes were uſed by the Egyptians, as a ſymbol of the water's riſing in the Nile: with this view, as it had the head of a woman and body of a lion, it ſignified that the Nile began to ſwell in the months of July and Auguſt, when the ſun paſſes through the ſigns of Leo and Virgo. The coloſſal ſphinx, near the pyramids, according to Thevenot, is twenty-ſix feet high, and fifteen feet from the ear to the chin: but Pliny aſſures us that the head was no leſs than 102 feet in circumference, and ſixty-two feet high from the belly, and that the body was 143 feet long, and was thought to be the ſepulchre of king Amaſis. The French, however, deſirous of aſcertaining whether this ſtatement of Pliny's were true, and very induſtriouſly clearing away the rubbiſh all around it, could find nothing but ſolid unſhapen rock; from which they concluded that it never had a body. The learned Dr. Bryant obſerves, "that this ſphinx ſeems to have been originally a vaſt rock of different ſtrata; which, from a ſhapeleſs maſs, the Egyptians faſhioned into an object of beauty and veneration. The Egyptians uſed this figure in their buildings; from them the Greeks derived it, and afterwards improved it into an ornament uſed in modern architecture."

In the annexed Engraving is given a ſide view of the ſphinx, which exhibits a faithful repreſentation of the decay that it has ſuffered, and the character of this figure in the parts that are ſtill preſerved. The living perſons who are about it will ſerve as a ſcale of compariſon. He that is ſitting down on the top of the head, whom the other is juſt helping up with his hand, is climbing out of a narrow excavation full of rubbiſh at the bottom, which is now only nine feet deep. There are notches cut down the ſides of this aperture at different diſtances, which ſerve as ſtairs to deſcend by, but the uſe of this hole is

beyond the reach of conjecture. The circular figure above, in the same engraving, is a species of patera, which Denon found among the tombs of the kings of Thebes; the ornaments are of exquisite taste, and the execution perfect: the two portraits are those of Osiris and Isis. That of Osiris is generally given under the figure of a hawk, to which the face is here converted; but it has the beak much worn. The ornament beneath is intended for the plant and bud of the lotus, which is used amongst their hieroglyphics as the emblem of death. It is very handsomely bordered with a branch from the vine. The group above was also found among the same tombs. The figure playing upon the harp of twenty-one strings, and which appears evidently the origin of our Welsh harp, is represented in a dress equally uncouth and disagreeable, but the attitude is that of truth and enthusiasm. The second figure is naked to the waist, from whence it is cloathed with a kind of pantaloons. The third figure is attired in a close tunic with large sleeves. The flesh colour of these musicians is dull red; the middle figure has a head-dress composed of the lotus plant; the pantaloons are white; but they sit so close, that the colour becomes of a rosy hue by the tint of the skin which appears through. These figures are finely sculptured and painted; and it is remarkable that they are all women. The birds in the centre of this engraving are supposed to be done for the vulture, eagle, or hawk, and are abundantly used as devices in the Egyptian architecture, and frequent symbols in their hieroglyphies.

Pompey's Pillar, now Diocletian's, is given in the same engraving, as measured very accurately in all its parts, by citizen Norry, which will furnish the reader with an idea of its prodigious dimensions. Cleopatra's Needle, with its hieroglyphies, is also given from a correct admeasurement taken after the base had been dug round, and the rubbish cleared.

COSTUME, CLIMATE, CULTIVATION, AND PRESENT STATE.

Egypt, exclusive of its subjugation by various European powers, being situated in the vast peninsula of Africa, and accessible only on the side next Asia, is the reason why it has in almost every period of its history, been more or less affected by the revolutions and migrations of the Asiatic states; whence arose its present heterogeneous mixture of inhabitants. The only remnant of what is called *ancient* Egyptians, is said to be the Copts; yet neither their written characters, nor their dialect, correspond with any of those which are called Egyptian. There can be little doubt but that these people took their name from the city of Coptos, which flourished before, and after, the commencement of the Christian era; and having early embraced the gospel dispensation, they became celebrious from the stand they made against the persecutions of Diocletian; from which time the name of *Copts* in Egypt, has been synonymous with that of *Christian*. The Copts profess the Monophysite creed; and the Coptic patriarch of Egypt is the head of the church of Abyssinia, whither he sends a bishop, as his deputy, to govern the clergy of that country. They also form the bulk of the inhabitants in Upper Egypt, where they subsist chiefly by husbandry; but are continually plundered by the kiachefs and beys. Numbers of them also inhabit Alexandria, Cairo, and the other principal towns; where, on account of their superior knowledge above any of the other classes in Egypt, they are employed as agents by the principal people of the country. Denon fancied he could distinguish in the Copts evident traces of the ancient Egyptian stock, "a kind of swarthy Nubians, such as are represented on old sculptures, with flat foreheads, eyes half closed, and raised up at the angles, high cheek bones, short flattish nose, large mouth, thick lips, little beard, and without much vivacity or expression in the general contour." However this may be, it is very certain that the original Egyptians were much darker than the Copts, or any other separate or mixed race of people which now inhabit Egypt; *though they were not negroes.*

If there be yet any remain of the mystical ceremonies of the ancient Egytian idolatry, it exists with the sect called *Psylli*, which boasts a very high origin, and pretends to a supernatural power over the instinct and poison of serpents. According to Strabo and Eusebius, they were worshippers of the god Cnuphis, who had a temple at Elephantina in Upper Egypt, where he was adored under the figure of a serpent. "When the Psylli were introduced to us, (says Denon,) we put many questions to them relative to the mystery of their sect, and their supposed command over serpents; which they openly profess. They answering with more assurance than intelligence, we put them to the proof. "Can you tell us whether there are any serpents in this place; and if there are, can you oblige them to come forth from their retreats?" They answered both questions in the affirmative; on which they searched all the rooms, and they presently declared that there was a snake in the house; they then renewed their search to discover where he was hid, made some distortions in passing before a jar placed in a corner of one of the rooms, and declared that the animal was there; where, indeed, we actually found one. This we considered as a true Comus's trick; we looked at each other, and acknowledged that they were very adroit."

These people have an annual festival and religious ceremony, which they call *Sidi Ibrahim*, where priests and proselytes to their doctrine and faith are admitted and made. "Being always curious to observe the means by which men command the opinions of others, (says Denon,) I addressed myself to the chief of the sect, whom I flattered, and he promised to make me a spectator of the exaltation of one of the Psylli, as soon as he should have blown into his spirit, as he expressed it. From my anxious curiosity he thought I bid fair to be a proselyte, and he proposed to initiate me, which I accepted; but when I learned that in the ceremony of initiation the priest spits in the mouth of the neophyte, this circumstance cooled my ardour, and I found that I could not prevail on myself to go through this trial; so I gave my money to the high priest, and he promised to let me be present at the ceremony. They had brought with them their serpents, which they let loose from a large leather sack in which they were kept, and made them erect their bodies and hiss, by irritating them. I thought it was the light which principally caused their anger; for, as soon as they were returned into the sack, their passion ceased, and they no longer endeavoured to bite. It was curious to observe, that, when angry, the neck, for six inches below the head, was dilated to the size of one's hand. (See *colubur naja*, under the head COLUBER, vol. iv. p. 803.) I soon conceived that even I could manage the serpents, without fear of their fangs; for, having well remarked that the Psylli, while they were threatening the animal with one hand, seized it on the back of the head with the other, I did the same with one of the serpents with equal success, though apparently to the indignation of the performers themselves. After this, they proceeded to the grand mystery: one of the performers took a snake, which he had previously disabled by breaking the under jaw, and by rubbing away the gums till the whole of the palate was destroyed; he then grasped it with the appearance of passion, and approached the chief-priest, who with great gravity gave him the spirit, that is to say, after uttering some mysterious words, blew into his mouth; and, at the instant, the other was seized with a sacred convulsion, his arms and legs distorted, his eyes seeming to start from his head, and he began to tear the animal with his teeth; whilst the attendants, appearing to commiserate his sufferings, restrained his struggles with difficulty, and snatched from his hand the serpent, which he was unwilling

willing to let go. As ſoon as the ſnake was removed, he remained as if ſtupid; but the chief approached him, muttered ſome words to him, retook from him the ſpirit by aſpiration, and he returned to his former quieſcent ſtate. Now, however, he that had ſeized the ſnake beginning to be tormented with the ſame ardour to conſummate the myſtery, came up to the chief-prieſt to demand the ſpirit; and as he was ſtronger and more active than the firſt, his cries and convulſions were ſtill more violent and ridiculous.

In ſpeaking of this antique Egyptian ſect, Mr. Bruce obſerves as follows: "Notwithſtanding that the incantation of ſerpents has been generally treated as a fable, there is certainly no doubt of its reality. Even the ſcriptures are full of it. All who have been in Egypt have ſeen as many different inſtances as they choſe. Some have doubted that it was a trick; and that the animals thus handled had been firſt trained, and then deprived of their power of hurting; and, fond of the diſcovery, they have reſted themſelves upon it, without experiment, in the face of all antiquity. But I will not heſitate to aver, that I have ſeen at Cairo (and this may be ſeen daily without any trouble or expence) a man who came from the catacombs, where the pits of the mummy-birds are kept, who has taken a ceraſtes with his naked hand from a number of others lying at the bottom of a tub, has put it upon his bare head, covered it with the common red cap he wears, then taken it out, put it in his breaſt, and tied it about his neck like a necklace; after which it has been applied to a hen, and bit it, which died in a few minutes; and, to complete the experiment, the man has taken it by the neck, and beginning at his tail, has eaten it as one would do a carrot, without any ſeeming repugnance." (See a correct figure of the ceraſtes, vol. iv. p. 799.)

M. Savary alſo tells us, that he ſaw at the feaſt of Sidi Ibrahim, a troop of people, ſeemingly poſſeſſed, with naked arms and a fierce look, holding in their hands enormous ſerpents, which twined round their body, and endeavoured to eſcape. Theſe Pſylli, graſping them ſtrongly by the neck, avoided the bite; and, notwithſtanding their hiſſing, tore them with their teeth, and ate them alive, while the blood ſtreamed from their mouth." A further deſcription of the feats of theſe people is likewiſe given by Haſſelquiſt: "They take the moſt poiſonous vipers with their bare hands, play with them, put them in their boſoms, and uſe a great many more tricks with them, as I have often ſeen. I have frequently ſeen them handle thoſe that were three or four feet long, and of the moſt horrid ſort. The power of doing this is not poſſeſſed by the Arabs, Turks, or any other ſect in Egypt. I enquired and examined whether they had cut out the vipers poiſonous teeth; but I have with my own eyes ſeen they do not. We may therefore conclude, that the art they uſe is not known. Some people are very ſuperſtitious, and the generality believe this to be done by ſome ſupernatural means which they obtain from inviſible beings. It is, however, worthy the endeavours of all naturaliſts, and the attention of every traveller, to learn ſomething deciſive as to this affair. How ancient this art is among the Africans, may be concluded from the ancient Marii and Pſylli, who were from Africa, and daily ſhewed proofs of it at Rome. It is very remarkable that this artifice ſhould have been kept a ſecret for more than two thouſand years, when we have ſeen how many other ſecrets have within that time been revealed." The ſnakemen of Hindooſtan are probably derived from this ſame ſect.

The ſupremacy of Egypt being in the hands of the Turks and mamalukes, the Mahomedan faith is in conſequence the eſtabliſhed religion of the country; though all perſuaſions are now freely tolerated. From hence it alſo follows, that the Turks, who are numerous, and the mamalukes, are conſidered as the principal people. The Turks in Egypt are moſtly of dignified manners; and though their complexion is ſwarthy, yet the ſolemnity of their gait, and ſedateneſs of their character, rather inſpire awe, and command reſpect.

The mamalukes, being now ſelected from all countries where fine young men can be obtained, form an intereſting variety of different complexions and countenances; yet the principal part being ſtill Georgians and Circaſſians, and all trained for the army, and elegantly attired, they are of courſe the faireſt and handſomeſt men in Egypt. After having ſerved their chiefs or maſters with fidelity, they are made free; and as their proſperity or means occur, they have then a right to purchaſe ſlaves for themſelves. A mamaluke, while a ſlave, is not permitted to wear a beard; the whiſker being always an indiſputable proof of their freedom. The revenues of the twenty-four beys or chiefs of the mamalukes, conſiſt in thoſe fertile diſtricts which were originally allotted to them by Solyman the Legiſlator, and in the immenſe extorſions and fines they are prone to exact from the bulk of the inhabitants; and from which there is no appeal. No one can ever be made a chief or a bey, who has not previouſly been a ſlave. The general character of the mamalukes is, that they are brave and generous, though ſometimes cruel and revengeful: but they are moſt abominably addicted to the deteſtable crime againſt nature, which is extremely prevalent in all parts of the Turkiſh dominions. The arms and accoutrements of the mamalukes are as follow: a caſe or quiver containing three javelins, which the mamalukes generally throw before they come to the ſabre, which is their favourite weapon. They are very dexterous at throwing the lance; and they have young attendant mamalukes, called *piétons*, to carry part of their arms, who follow on foot, and run up among the combatants, pick up the javelin when the ſtroke has miſſed, and bring it back to their maſters. The point of this weapon is of hammered iron, the ſhaft of wood, and the ornaments in ſilver, of modern workmanſhip, done in a good taſte, and wrought at Cairo. The caſe is covered with velvet. They have a buckler of rhinoceros' leather, ſabre-proof, and of exquiſite workmanſhip; from the varniſh which covers the leather, and the gilding of the ornaments, it has a very rich effect. Another piece of defenſive armour is an arm-piece, worn on their left arm, with which they hold the horſe's bridle; the right is only protected by a glove of buffalo hide, in the form of thoſe of our dragoons. Under their belt they carry a battle-axe of iron, damaſked with gold, bearing a Perſian inſcription, which ſhews the country in which it is wrought. The handle, made of ſilver and leather, is of Cairo manufacture. They have ſometimes a whalebone bow of perfect workmanſhip; with very long ſharp arrows; the cord of the bow is a bundle of untwiſted ſilk, which has more ſtrength than the thickeſt and beſt twiſted gut. When the bow is uſed, they have a handpiece with a groove, along which the arrow runs; it fits the wriſt that holds the bow, and ſerves to direct the arrow at the moment of its departure from the bow. They wear a ſabre by the ſide, and a dirk in the belt, the hilts and ſcabbards of which are richly ornamented. Under the girdle are alſo a pair of large piſtols ſuperbly mounted; and ſome parties of them are armed with a fuſil or firelock, like the Bedouin Arabs. The annexed engraving exhibits the coſtume of the mamalukes; who, if once brought under European diſcipline, would doubtleſs become the moſt invincible cavalry in the world.

The following particulars of the initiation of the young mamalukes, are given by Browne. "The name, from *maleh*, to poſſeſs, implies merely a perſon who is the property of another. None are choſen but ſuch as are diſtinguiſhed by the grace and manlineſs of their perſons. After having been properly educated as a *piéton*, or attendant on foot, the young mamaluke receives a preſent of a horſe and arms from his maſter; together with a ſuit of accoutrements, which is renewed every year. The generoſity of their maſters, and rewards or extortions from

from others, afford them ſupplies of money either for avarice or debauchery. Some of them, admitted to peculiar favour by the beys, are elected kiachefs, and afterwards beys: but this preferment generally ariſes from political adherence to ſome powerful leader. They are characteriſtically gay, thoughtleſs, and improvident; fond of ſhow, and unprincipled in their means of acquiring it. They ſeldom marry, which accounts for the infamous habit to which they are addicted. It is alſo extremely remarkable that thoſe few who do marry, ſeldom have children. As the ſon even of a bey is not honoured with any particular conſideration, the women perhaps procure abortions. However this be, of eighteen beys whoſe hiſtory I particularly knew, only two of them had any children. The only ſtudy of the mamalukes is to be hardy, capable of every fatigue, of undaunted courage, of eminent ſkill in horſemanſhip, and of unrivalled dexterity in the uſe of the ſabre. Their horſes are of the fineſt Arabian breeds, and are often purchaſed at three or four purſes, 150l. to 200l. ſterling. The gratitude of the young *piéton* is equal to the favour of their maſters, whom they never quit in the hour of danger." The young *piéton*, or mamaluke who attends on foot, is attired very light: his turban is a ſhawl; his veſt or jacket is of fine cloth, of various colours, but moſt commonly yellow or purple, ſometimes ſtriped; his pantaloons are of an enormous ſize; his buſkins are of yellow leather, and his ſandals or ſlippers are of the ſame colour. He is alſo equipped with a ſhawl, by way of girdle, a ſabre, a dagger, a pair of piſtols, and on the left ſide he uſually carries a kind of horn, which contains relics, taliſmans, and oil for wounds. The figure of a young Georgian foot mamaluke is exhibited in the ſame engraving, and a ſoldier of the Bedouin Arabs, with his firelock and cartouch-box. Theſe are the individuals which form the mamaluke armies.

The race of people next in conſideration in modern Egypt, are the Greeks, who muſt be claſſed among the foreigners by whom ſocieties diſtinct from thoſe of the indigenous inhabitants are formed. The fine delineations of their form, their arch and penetrating eyes, and the delicacy and flexibility of their traits, bring to remembrance all that the imagination has figured relative to their anceſtors, and all that their monuments have tranſmitted to us to atteſt their elegance and their taſte. The degraded ſtate to which they have been reduced, through a dread which the ſuperiority of their intellectual faculties ſtill inſpires, has rendered many of them deceitful and treacherous. Were they, however, left to themſelves, they would perhaps become in a little time what they formerly were, ſubtle and ambitious.

Next come the Jews, who are in Egypt what they are every where;—hated, without being dreaded; deſpiſed and perſecuted inceſſantly, without ever being expelled; plundering conſtantly without being very rich; and rendering themſelves uſeful to all the world, at the ſame time that their only incentive is ſelf-intereſt. We cannot decide whether it is owing to their being nearer to their own country that their phyſical character is better preſerved here than elſewhere: but it is a fact which ſtrikes the obſerver very forcibly. Thoſe among them who are ugly reſemble our Jews; while the handſome ones, and more particularly thoſe who are young, bear a ſtrong reſemblance, in point of character, to the intereſting figures pourtrayed by the beſt painters of the diſciples of our Saviour. In the great cities of Egypt the Jews contend with the Copts for the places in the cuſtom-houſes, ſtewardſhips of eſtates, and, in general, for whatever requires calculation, and ſupplies the means of amaſſing and concealing a fortune well or ill acquired, but which is alike expoſed to the rapacity of the kiachefs, ſheiks, and beys.

The characteriſtic traits of another race of men, who are very numerous, are ſtrongly delineated. Theſe are the Barabras, or people from the upper countries, inhabitants of Nubia, and of the frontiers of Abyſſinia. In theſe fervid climates nature has, in an economical mood, denied them every ſuperfluity. They have neither fleſh nor fat, but ſimply nerves, muſcles, and tendons, of greater elaſticity than vigour. They perform by activity and addreſs what others effect by ſtrength. It would ſeem as if the barrenneſs of their ſoil had exhauſted the ſmall portion of ſubſtance which nature has beſtowed on them. Their ſkin is of a ſhining black, exactly ſimilar to that of antique bronzes; yet they have not the ſmalleſt reſemblance to the negroes of the weſtern parts of Africa. Their eyes are deep ſet and ſparkling, with the brows hanging over; the noſe pointed; the noſtrils large; the mouth wide; the lips of moderate dimenſions; and the hair and beard in ſmall quantity, and hanging in little locks. Being wrinkled betimes, and retaining their agility till the laſt, the only indication of old age among them is the whiteneſs of the beard, every part of the body remaining ſlender and muſcular as in their youth. Their phyſiognomy is cheerful; and they are lively and well diſpoſed. They are moſt commonly employed in ſubordinate offices of truſt, to guard the magazines, timber-yards, and other property of the merchants. They are clad in a piece of white woollen cloth, gain but little, and ſubſiſt on almoſt nothing. They are faithful to their maſters, to whom they are ſtrongly attached. During the pilgrimage of Mecca, all the nations which are ranged under the denomination of Maugrabians, or weſtern people, paſs through Egypt, and occaſionally mix with and obtain permanent ſettlements among the other inhabitants of the country.

But the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt ſingular, of the inhabitants of modern Egypt, are the Arabs. Without poſſeſſing an influence proportioned to their numbers, they ſeem to be placed there to ſupply the great depopulation of the country, to cultivate the lands, to tend the flocks, or to be themſelves in the degraded ſtate of animals. They are, however, lively, and have a penetrating phyſiognomy. Their eyes, which are ſunk in and overarched, are replete with vivacity and character; all their proportions are angular; their beard is ſhort, and hanging in filaments; their lips thin and open, diſplaying fine teeth; their arms are fleſhy; and in other reſpects they are more active than handſome, and more muſcular than well ſhaped. Theſe characteriſtic traits are moſt common in the ſmall villages and ſolitary habitations, and more particularly among the inhabitants of the deſert. Three claſſes of theſe people, altogether different from each other, are, however, to be diſtinguiſhed. Firſt, the Arab ſhepherd, who ſeems to belong to the original ſtock, and who moſt reſembles the above deſcription. Next, the Bedouin Arab, on whom a more exalted independence, and the ſtate of warfare in which he lives, have beſtowed a character of ſavage ferocity, leanneſs, and poverty. Laſtly, the Arab cultivator, the moſt civilized, the moſt corrupted, the moſt degraded, in conſequence of the ſtate of bondage in which he is held, and the moſt varied in perſon and in character; as may be remarked in moſt of the villages; in the fellahs or peaſants, who are the chief labourers in huſbandry; in thoſe of the boufackirs or beggars; and, finally, in thoſe of the artiſans, who conſtitute the moſt abject claſs. Theſe two claſſes of Bedouins and artiſans or labourers, are ſprung from the preceding one, that of the Arab ſhepherds.

On inveſtigating the oppreſſed condition of the Fellahs, it is impoſſible to urge as ſo many reproaches againſt theſe cultivators of the land, that they are ſullen, miſtruſtful, avaricious, improvident, and careleſs about the future, when it is conſidered that, independently of the exactions of the proprietor of the land which they till, and thoſe of the covetous ſheik and bey, a wandering enemy in arms, the Bedouin, watches unceaſingly the favourable opportunity to ſnatch from him whatever ſuperfluities he may venture to diſplay. The money which he can hide, and which is a repreſentative of every enjoyment, is therefore all that he can truly conſider as belonging to him. Accordingly the art of burying it in the earth is

his

Denon del. J. Chapman sc.

A Mamaluke on Horseback, with a Piéton, or Foot Mamaluke, and a Bedouin Arab Soldier.

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his principal ſtudy; by which conſiderable ſums diſappear, which never again return into circulation. By appearing in rags and tatters, and with a ſtudied diſplay of wretchedneſs, he can alone hope to ſecure from the graſp of tyranny what he has hoarded together. It behoves him to inſpire pity; and not to commiſerate his lot would be to denounce him. Anxious to amaſs his dangerous wealth, and unhappy when in the poſſeſſion of it, his life is ſpent between the diſappointment which reſults from not having procured it, and the ſubſequent dread of ſeeing it ſnatched from him.

It is nevertheleſs true, that the Bedouin Arab, badly armed, and incapable of ſerious reſiſtance, having no other ramparts than the ſhifting ſands, no other lines than the wide expanſe, and no other retreat than the immenſity of the deſerts, is a more pitiable object. Sloth and independence are the baſes of his character; and to indulge the one, and protect the other, he is unceaſingly in an agitated ſtate, allowing himſelf to be haraſſed and pinched by want. Envy, that torment from which the abode of want itſelf is not exempt, hovers alſo over the burning ſands of his retreat. The Bedouins, in waging war againſt all the nations of the univerſe, confine their hatred and their envy to thoſe Bedouins alone who do not belong to their tribe. To them all wars are alike; and as ſoon as the tranquillity of Egypt is diſturbed, either by an inteſtine quarrel, or by a foreign enemy, they take the field. Without attaching themſelves to either party, they take advantage of the conteſt to plunder both. Wherever the booty is, there the tribe of Bedouins is to be found. Never backward to treat, becauſe all the ſtipulations made with them are accompanied by preſents, they are true to no other engagement than the one which neceſſity impoſes. They are, however, neither cruel nor vindictive. The French, whom they have made priſoners, in deſcribing the hardſhips they ſuffered during their captivity, conſidered them rather as the effect of the mode of living adopted by this wandering nation, than as the reſult of their barbarity. Several officers who had fallen into their hands, ſay, that the labour which was required of them was neither cruel, nor exceſſive: they had to attend on the women, and to load and drive the aſſes and camels. It is true that it was neceſſary to encamp and decamp continually, for which purpoſe all the camp equipage was kept conſtantly packed up, and in leſs than a quarter of an hour after notice given, the cavalcade was in motion. This equipage conſiſted of a mill to grind corn and coffee, of a round iron plate on which to bake cakes, of a large coffee-pot, a ſmall one, a few dried goat-ſkins to hold the water, a few ſacks of corn for their horſes, and the tent cloth, in which all the articles are wrapped. A handful of roaſted corn, and a dozen of dates, were the cuſtomary ration on the marching days, accompanied by a ſmall allowance of water, which, on account of its ſcarcity, had been applied to every other purpoſe before it was employed to allay the thirſt. They are for the moſt part well mounted, and always prefer mares, becauſe they can bear more fatigue, and, when going on a predatory excurſion, are not liable to lead to a diſcovery by their neighing. Their dreſs is very light, and their arms either a muſket or a long ſpear, and a ſabre or dagger. Theſe Bedouins, deſtitute of religious prejudices, and without any external form of worſhip, are friends to toleration. Among them a few revered cuſtoms ſupply the place of laws; and their principles bear the reſemblance of virtues which anſwer all the purpoſes of their partial aſſociations, and of their paternal government. We ſhall here cite a trait of their hoſpitality. A French officer had been ſeveral months priſoner to a chief of the Arabs, whoſe camp was ſurpriſed in the night by the French cavalry, and who had barely time to eſcape; and loſing his tents, cattle, and proviſions, he was on the following day fugitive, ſolitary, and without any reſources; yet he drew from his pocket a cake, and, preſenting the half of it to his priſoner, he ſaid to him, "I do not know when we ſhall have any more food; but I ſhall not be accuſed of having refuſed to ſhare my laſt morſel with one whom I eſteem as my friend." Yet the invincible hatred of theſe tribes towards each other is ſometimes aſtoniſhing, particularly where the chief or father of one tribe has been aſſaſſinated or killed by that of another. This calls for what is termed *the price of blood*; then follows reprifals on reprifals, inſatiable vengeance, and ceaſeleſs warfare, until one or other of the tribes is nearly extirpated. The weaker party has then no other reſource than flight to ſave their lives, and theft to ſupport it; men, women, and children, blotted out from all connexion with the other clans, and roving from place to place, become the terror of their neighbours, only appear furtively in their former habitations, which they convert into dens of robbers, alarming thoſe who would ſucceed them in their retreats of miſery. Thus whole villages, when become the aſylum of crime, offer no other view to the paſſenger than deſerted fields, ruins, ſilence, and deſolation.

The Arabs of Egypt who follow huſbandry, and a paſtoral life, are Mahomedans of a very peculiar caſt. Not ſatisfied with the precepts of the koran, and their abſolute devotedneſs to every thing which comes from their prophet; and notwithſtanding the anathemas pronounced againſt every deviation from their law, they have not been able to reſiſt the attractions of idolatry. They have their peculiar ſaints, to whom they do not indeed aſſign a ſeparate place in their paradiſe, where every thing is in common, but to whom they raiſe tombs, and whoſe aſhes they revere; and from an unaccountable ſtupidity, theſe ſaints do not become an object of worſhip till after death, and when alive, are the ſubject of mockery and deriſion. Theſe Arabs attribute to the weak in underſtanding, when dead, certain powers and influences: one is the father of the light, and cures complaints in the eyes; another is the father of generation, and preſides over lying-in women, &c. The greater number of theſe ſaints have paſſed their life in repeating conſtantly the word *allah*, crouched beſide the corner of a wall, or in receiving without thanks what has been neceſſary to their ſubſiſtence; others employ themſelves in beating their heads with a ſtone; others, covered with garlands, in ſinging hymns; others, like the oriental faquirs, in remaining motionleſs and naked, without ever teſtifying the ſlighteſt emotion, and waiting for alms, for which they never aſk, or thank, the donor. Beſides this kind of idolatry, there are others, which are akin to magic; for example, there are certain ſtones and trees which conceal a good or bad genius, and thus became ſacred, and cannot be removed without profanation; and to theſe, domeſtic ſecrets and projects of various kinds are entruſted in confidence, whilſt they are worſhipped with myſterious ſecreſy, and revered in public.

The principal religious feſtival of the muſſulmans in Egypt, is the anniverſary of the birth of Mahomet, when the ſtreets are illuminated, and general joy diffuſed among all the diſciples of their great prophet. Denon has given a deſcription of this feſtival, which he attended with the French generals, at Roſetta. "The ſtreet was the principal aſſembly-room, which was lengthened or contracted according to the number of gueſts. An alcove covered with carpeting, was occupied by the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages. Fires, combined with a number of ſmall lamps and large tapers, formed a ſplendid illumination. On one ſide was a band of martial muſic, conſiſting of hautboys, ſmall kettle drums, and large Albaneſe drums. On the other ſide were ſtationed violins and fingers; and, in the middle, Greek dancers; and attendants provided with ſweetmeats, coffee, ſyrups, roſe-water, and pipes, the never-failing accompaniment of all their pleaſures. As ſoon as we were ſeated, the martial muſic commenced. A kind of leader of the band played alternately two different airs, which the other muſicians repeated in chorus. Whether it was owing to the calmneſs of the atmoſphere, or to a wiſh of introducing too many flouriſhes into it, it

ſo happened that the ſecond meaſure was a true cacophony, a diſcordance of harſh ſounds, as diſagreeable to nice ears as it was enchanting to thoſe of the muſſulmans. I noticed particularly, that the leader of the band invariably took up each of the airs with all the importance and enthuſiaſm of an inſpired *improviſatore*, and that, when his nerves appeared to be no longer able to ſupport the energy of expreſſion he tried to beſtow on it, the chorus came to his aid with the ſame unvaried diſſonance. The violins, which were more tolerable, afterwards played an air, in the burden of which a ſmall portion of melody was overcome by ſuperfluous ornaments. The naſal twangs of an inſpired ſinger were ſuperadded to the faſtidious ſoftneſs of the ſemi-tones of the violins, which conſtantly ſhunning the key-note, fell into the ſecond of the key, and invariably terminated by the dieſis, or imperfect ſemi-tone immediately beneath the key-note, as in the Spaniſh ſeguidillas. This may be conſidered as a proof that the reſidence of the Saracens in Spain introduced into that kingdom this ſpecies of muſical compoſition. After this couplet, the violins took up the ſame ſtrain with new variations, which the ſinger diſguiſed by a ſharp movement, until he had entirely loſt ſight of the air, falling into the wild expreſſion of ſounds, without harmony, and without principle. This was what, however, charmed his auditory ſtill more and more. The dance which followed was of the ſame deſcription with the ſinging: it was not the expreſſion of joy, or of gaiety, but of an extravagant pleaſure, which made haſty ſtrides towards laſciviouſneſs; and this was the more diſguſting, as the performers, all of them of the male ſex, preſented, in the moſt indecent way, ſcenes which love has reſerved for the two ſexes in the ſilence and myſtery of the night."—Nothing of the grand muſical inſtruments ſculptured on the walls of their ancient temples, are now to be ſeen in any part of Egypt.

The long reſidence of the French in this country, and the opportunity afforded the principals of being introduced into the moſt reſpectable families, gave Denon an excellent opportunity of obſerving the coſtume of the Egyptian females, who are kept very cloſe in the harem, and never ſuffered to hold converſation with any male but the maſter of the family, nor to appear in company, but during his preſence; ſo ſenſible is he of the ready ſubmiſſion of the moſlem women to the embraces of man: for which reaſon they are never ſuffered to appear in the ſtreet, without being ſo completely muffled up as to expoſe no part to view but the eyes. Yet the coquetry of the elder females, who are the moſt ſcrupulous in public on every point in which honour is concerned, often enables them to elude the moſt watchful care of their huſband or keeper. The young girls who are not yet marriageable, and relative to whom leſs ſtrictneſs is in conſequence obſerved, bear a pretty general reſemblance to the forms of the Egyptian ſtatues of the goddeſs Iſis. The women of the lower claſſes, who take greater pains to conceal the noſe and mouth than any other part, diſcover from time to time, not attractions, but fine ſlender limbs, the ſhape of which diſplays more activity than grace. As ſoon as their breaſts have attained their full growth, they begin to fall, and their gravitation is ſuch, that it would be difficult to ſay how low ſome of them reach. The complexion of theſe women is neither black nor white, but of a duſky brown. They dye of a black colour the eye-brows, eye-lids, and chin; and ſtain the finger-nails of a deep yellow. Few women, however, carry with more elegance a child, a vaſe, or a baſket of fruit; or walk with greater eaſe and ſecurity. Their long drapery would be by no means unbecoming, were it not that a veil, in the ſhape of a ſhip's pendant, caſts a gloom over the whole of their dreſs, ſo as to make it reſemble the diſmal coſtume of a nun of the order of penitents.

"One of the rich natives, (ſays Denon,) who was under ſome obligations to me, by way of teſtifying his graſitude, invited me to his houſe. On account of my advanced age, and of my being a foreigner, he thought that he might allow his wife to be of the breakfaſt party, and thus contribute more to my entertainment. As he was engaged in mercantile purſuits, he ſpoke a little Italian, and acted as interpreter between myſelf and the lady, whoſe beauty was accompanied by a ſoft tinge of melancholy. She was finely formed, and her hands uncommonly delicate and handſome. On my admiring them, ſhe held them out to me. We had very little to ſay to each other; and to make up for this ſilence, I kiſſed her hands, which, as ſhe was perplexed to know what ſhe ſhould afterwards do to intereſt me, ſhe did not offer to withdraw. On my ſide, I dared not let them go, for fear ſhe ſhould imagine that I was tired of them. I am at a loſs to conjecture how this ſcene would have terminated, if refreſhments had not been brought to relieve us from our embarraſſment. They were handed to her, and ſhe preſented them to me in a very particular manner, and with ſome degree of grace. I fancied I could perceive that her negligent and penſive air was merely the affectation of a great lady, who perſuaded herſelf that, by aſſuming it, ſhe ſhould become ſuperior to all the magnificence by which ſhe was ſurrounded and covered. Her engaging manners, in the occaſional abſence of her huſband, attracted other lovers, on whom ſhe contrived to beſtow her favours. The plague breaking out in the city, the lady caught it of her enamorata, beſtowed it very faithfully on her huſband, and they all three died."

Infidelity, in countries where many women are kept as priſoners in the harem for the laſcivious gratification of one man, is certainly more pardonable than under thoſe governments where polygamy is not allowed. Perhaps the ſingle reflection of ſo many women being made ſubſervient to the ſenſual delight of one man, may be a conſtant ſpur to them, from parity of reaſoning, to ſeek a ſimilar gratification from a plurality of males. However this be, it is a well-known fact, that the extreme watchfulneſs of the grand ſeignor himſelf, cannot keep the women chaſte even within the impervious walls of his harem, in the ſeraglio of Conſtantinople; as witneſs the frequent puniſhment of the polluted, by cruelly drowning them in ſacks. See the article CONSTANTINOPLE, vol. v. p. 119, 120.

Denon has furniſhed us with the coſtume of the Egyptian harem, illuſtrated with an elegant engraving, which we ſhall here annex. When the huſband, who is ſupreme, is diſpoſed to give an entertainment in his harem, to pleaſe any of his wives who may be pregnant, or who has juſt given him a ſon, or perhaps one whom he has newly purchaſed, he ſends for the almées, or dancing girls, to perform voluptuous dances, whilſt he is ſmoking his pipe. The favourite wife is here repreſented reclining with her head on his knees; and the almées alternately dance, ſing, and play upon inſtruments, while the other wives are in waiting on the ſofa. In front is a fumigating veſſel of rich perfumes, and to the right a candleſtick after the faſhion of the country; the inſtrument played on by the laſt performer to the right, is a ſmall drum of baked earth, which is ſtruck by the fingers with more or leſs force, and produces a very good effect in keeping time to the muſic; the dancers have generally caſtanets in their hands, which are in the form of ſmall cymbals of the diameter of a crown piece. Two of theſe dancing girls were extremely handſome. Their forms were diſplayed through coloured gauze faſtened by a ſaſh, which they tightened from time to time negligently, and with an air of levity by no means diſagreeable, and ſomewhat *à la Françaiſe*. They had brought with them two inſtruments, a pipe and tabor, and the kind of drum above deſcribed. The two handſomeſt of them began dancing, while the others ſung, with an accompaniment of the caſtanets. The movement they diſplayed in ſtriking them againſt each other, gave infinite grace to their fingers and wriſts. At the commencement the dance was voluptuous: it ſoon after became laſcivious, and expreſſed, in the groſſeſt and moſt

Denon del.

J. Chapman sculp

An Egyptian Harem entertained by the Almees, or Dancing Girls.

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indecent way, the giddy tranſports of the paſſions. Theſe dancers ſwallowed large glaſſes of brandy, as if it had been lemonade. Accordingly, notwithſtanding they were all young and handſome, they looked haggard and jaded, except the two above-mentioned, Joſephina and Hanka, who, though truly graceful, had received no other education than that which is purpoſely beſtowed on this looſe profeſſion, with a view to its profits. When the dance was ended, theſe two girls appeared with all the delicacy of modeſt women, yet poſſeſſing the ſoft voluptuouſneſs which they, no doubt, reſerve for thoſe on whom they laviſh their ſecret favours. Notwithſtanding the licentious life which they lead, they are introduced into the harems of the great, to inſtruct the young perſons of their own ſex in all that may captivate and render them agreeable to their huſband or lord. They give them leſſons of dancing, ſinging, graceful attitude, and, in general, of all voluptuous attainments. It is not ſurpriſing, that with manners which make the principal duty of women to conſiſt in beſtowing pleaſure, thoſe who follow the profeſſion of gallantry ſhould be the teachers of the ſex. They are admitted to moſt of the feſtivals which the grandees give to thoſe of their own rank; and when, from time to time, a huſband wiſhes to entertain his harem in a ſportive mood, they are ſent for to ſing and dance, as ſhewn in the Engraving.

The maſſive Egyptian architecture, has now given place to that of the Mooriſh, which has no fixed principles, nor determined rules; and, as if all human affairs ſhould glory in extremes, lightneſs and airineſs are the only objects that are conſulted; and conſequently there is an infinite variety in theſe productions. The ornaments, though profuſe, are never incoherent, and preſerve a degree of harmony which prevents them from ever paſſing the limits of grace and elegance. The domes and minarets, which are built with great rapidity, are raiſed with much regularity, by maſons who uſe but very few tools, and employ no other material beſides plaſter, ſupported by very ſmall pieces of timber. The uſe of the minaret is only to point out, at a diſtance, the moſque which it ſurmounts, and to ſupport the gallery, in which every four hours the imans call together the faithful muſſulmans, by ſinging hymns to the Deity or to his prophet. In every moſque there is a ciſtern, a baſon for ablutions, and wherever it can be commanded, a ſmall enclоſure planted with trees, that the devotee may pray in the ſhade.

The muſſulmans, who make but little uſe of the light, take no pains to procure it in their buildings; and in general all their cuſtoms ſeem to invite to repoſe. Their divans, where the recumbent poſture is more eaſy than to ſit up, and from which it requires a ſerious effort to riſe; their dreſs, which is a kind of petticoat that confines the legs; their large ſleeves, which ſtretch nearly eight inches over the fingers ends; their turban, which prevents the head from ſtooping; their cuſtom of always holding a pipe in their hands, and intoxicating themſelves with its ſmoke: all theſe conſpire to deſtroy activity and imagination, ſo that they meditate without an object, paſs every day in the ſame taſteleſs manner, and even their whole exiſtence, without ſeeking for any new ſcene to relieve its dull monotony. Even that claſs of ſociety who are obliged to work for their livelihood, are not much different from the higher orders; they have been long taught to expect no other reward from induſtry than a bare ſubſiſtence, and thus they have no motive to depart from their ordinary routine, and to exerciſe their invention. They even diſlike particularly every occupation which keeps them ſtanding; the joiner, blackſmith, carpenter, farrier, all work ſitting, even the maſon raiſes a minaret without ſtanding to his work: like ſavage nations, they do every thing almoſt with a ſingle tool, ſo that one is ſurpriſed at the dexterity with which they manage it, and ſhould almoſt be tempted to allow them inventive ingenuity, if their invariable method of proceeding did not rather lead one to attribute it almoſt to a kind of inſtinct, like the inſect, whoſe workmanſhip we admire, whilſt we know that it has not the power of applying the ſame ſkill to different purpoſes. It is, however, to a deſpotiſm which always commands, and never rewards, that we muſt look for the ſource and permanent cauſe of this ſtagnation of induſtry.

The inhabitants of this country build as little as poſſible, and repair ſtill leſs. If a wall threatens to come down, they prop it up; if notwithſtanding it falls in, it only makes the fewer rooms in the houſe, and they quietly range their carpets by the ſide of the ruins; if at laſt the houſe falls altogether, they either abandon the ſpot, or if they are obliged to clear it out, they carry away the rubbiſh to as ſhort a diſtance as poſſible, which is the cauſe that in almoſt every town of Egypt, and eſpecially in Cairo, the eye of the traveller is conſtantly annoyed by heaps of rubbiſh. In Upper Egypt their manſions are little better than vaſt pigeon-houſes, in which the owner reſerves to himſelf only a room or two for his own uſe, and there he lodges along with poultry of all kinds, and all the vermin that they engender between them, which it is a part of his daily employment to hunt for, but at night the toughneſs of his ſkin defies their bites.

The government of Egypt being now re-aſſumed by the Turks with all their ancient authority, the police has been regulated much in favour of their capitan pacha, and of all their dependents. Ibrahim Bey, who was always well-diſpoſed towards the grand ſeignor, is the ſheik-el-belled, or chief of the mamalukes; and next to him in power is Mohammed Bey Elfi. The courteous manners and dignified appearance of Ibrahim Bey, added to the uniform mildneſs of his character, has conſtantly gained him the reſpect and veneration of all the different tribes in Egypt. Notwithſtanding his advanced age, being in his ſixty-ſixth year, he gained great reputation in the review of the Ottoman army by the grand vizier and general lord Hutchinſon near Cairo, by the dexterity and effect with which he managed the ſabre. He is ſtill robuſt and active, of a fair complexion, with a quick ſparkling eye, aquiline noſe, and ſilvery beard. The kiachefs are the magiſtrates or governors of the towns and villages, who adminiſter juſtice, and regulate the police throughout Egypt; but it is a lamentable reflection that the kiachefs and beys connive with each other in their unbounded extortions on all the ſubordinate orders of the people. The ſheiks are the chiefs of the Mohammedan moſques, as the Coptic prieſts are of the Chriſtian churches. Few of the villages are without a public ſchool, where the children are inſtructed in reading the koran. This is the only book they have; and as the art of printing is ſcarcely known among the moſlems, their copies are always manuſcripts: hence belles lettres and the arts are baniſhed from modern Egypt.

From the above ſtate of things, we cannot wonder that ignorance, filth, indolence, and poverty, pervade the lower ranks of people throughout Egypt. Even in the public ſtreets of Cairo and Alexandria, little is to be ſeen but wretchedneſs and miſery; a moſt melancholy picture, after reflecting on the inexhauſtible reſources of that fertile country. Few of the rich females appear abroad; but the lower claſs are ſeen in groups. All of them are alike careful to hide the face, becauſe this is the only part they are enjoined to conceal. When an Egyptian lady paſſes through the ſtreets, the more full, bulky, and cumberſome, her clothes are, and the more they embarraſs her gait, the higher does ſhe think of her importance: the upper garment commonly falls to the ground, and almoſt conceals the feet: nothing appears of her whole perſon except her eyes; and even before theſe the women often ſuſpend a taliſmanic ring, which has the virtue of driving away enchantment and bad luck. The poorer ſort of women are often employed in fetching water; they appear to be fond and affectionate mothers, and are frequently ſeen carrying their children on their ſhoulders.

For

For theſe coſtumes Denon acknowledges himſelf indebted to the pencil of citizen Rigo, a member of the inſtitute of Cairo.

To the wretched policy of the Egyptian government, aided by internal warfare, plague, peſtilence, &c. muſt be attributed the late wonderful depopulation of the country. From upwards of eight millions of inhabitants, the number is now calculated not to amount to one half. Indeed Browne ſtates the general population at only two millions and a half; but Walſh, the lateſt writer on the ſpot, eſtimates the number at three millions; of which 300,000 are ſuppoſed to inhabit Cairo, which is the metropolis of all Africa; and from ſix to ſeven thouſand in Alexandria.

The common language of Egypt is the Arabic. The Coptic, which has been called the vernacular tongue, is ſaid, by Browne, to be extinct. "Numerous reſearches, (ſays this author,) have enabled me to aſcertain the fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain ſome Coptic words, ſuch as *Boyuni*, the name of a month. Nevertheleſs, in the Coptic monaſteries, the prayers are read in Arabic, and the epiſtle and goſpel in Coptic; but the prieſt is a mere parrot, repeating a dead letter. Coptic manuſcripts are found in ſome of the convents, and leave to copy them might be obtained from the reſident patriarch."

The current coins in Egypt are thoſe of Turkey, and Spaniſh dollars, at the rate of 150 parats to the dollar. The ignorance of the people in this country, in general is ſo great, that it is with the utmoſt difficulty they can be prevailed on to receive in payment any European coin, either of gold or ſilver, except the Spaniſh dollar, and its ſubdiviſions. A great number of Roman coins were found by the French, in their various reſearches amongſt the ruins; but none of theſe fell into the hands of the Engliſh. The following were all the curioſities ſurrendered by the French to the Britiſh army, which have been ſince brought to London: An Egyptian ſarcophagus, with hieroglyphics, of a ſtone called by the French *breche verte*, from the moſque of St. Athanaſius in Alexandria. Ditto of black granite, from Cairo. Ditto of baſaltes, from Menouf. The fiſt of a coloſſean ſtatue, ſuppoſed to be Vulcan, found in the ruins of Memphis. Five fragments of ſtatues, with lions heads, black granite, brought from the ruins of Thebes. A mutilated figure kneeling, black granite. Two ſtatues, white marble, ſuppoſed to be Septimius Severus and Marcus Aurelius, found in Alexandria. A ſtone of black granite, with three inſcriptions, hieroglyphic, Coptic and Greek, found near Roſetta. A ſtatue of a woman ſitting, with a lion's head, black granite, from Upper Egypt. Two fragments of lions heads, black granite, from Upper Egypt. A ſmall figure kneeling, with hieroglyphics, black granite, from Upper Egypt. Five fragments of ſtatues, with lions heads, black granite, from Upper Egypt. A fragment of a ſarcophagus, black granite, from Upper Egypt. Two ſmall obeliſks, remarkably fine, with hieroglyphics, baſaltes, from Upper Egypt. A coloſſean ram's head, of a ſtone called by the French *rauge grais*, from Upper Egypt. A ſtatue of a woman ſitting on the ground, of black granite; between the feet is a model of a capital of a column of the temple of Iſis at Dendera. A fragment of a ſtatue, with a lion's head, black granite, from Upper Egypt. A cheſt of oriental manuſcripts, amounting to ſixty-two, Coptic, Arabic, and Turkiſh, belonging to the library of the French inſtitute at Cairo.

Several antiquities were found by the Engliſh; the moſt valuable were the figure of a Roman ſoldier, as large as life, and a large tablet, the inſcription of which ſtated, that whatever this belonged to, was erected in honour of Septimius Severus, by the veterans of the eleventh legion. A ſtone was alſo found covered with hieroglyphics, of the ſame unknown kind as the Memnon.

The climate of Egypt is ſuppoſed to be the moſt regular of any in the world. The ſky is almoſt always beautifully ſerene; and, after ſeven or eight in the morning, not a ſingle fleeting cloud can be perceived to intercept the burning rays of the ſun. It ſeldom rains in the interior parts; but, on the ſea-coaſt, and near Alexandria, it rains frequently in what may be called the winter time. The ſhowers, however, are ſhort, though heavy, and are immediately ſucceeded by a fine clear ſky. But the want of rain is ſupplied by the heavy dews which fall during the night. The effect of them is perceived in the morning, when, as ſoon as the ſun appears above the horizon, the ground ſmokes as copiouſly as if a great quantity of rain had fallen. The conſtant ſerenity of the ſky affords the advantage alſo of very clear and bright nights; ſo that the moon is ſcarcely ever overclouded, but ſhines with extreme luſtre. The nights in March, April, and May, are often damp and chilly. "In the evening of the 15th of May (ſays Denon) it thundered; a very rare occurrence in this country, which happens hardly oftener than once in a generation, by a concourſe of circumſtances perhaps not difficult of explanation. The north wind, which is the moſt conſtant of all thoſe that prevail in this part of the world, brings from the ſea the clouds of a colder region, rolls them along through the valley of Egypt, where a burning ſun rareſies them and reduces them to vapour; when this vapour is driven into Abyſſinia, the ſouth wind, which croſſes the lofty and cold mountains of this country, ſometimes brings back a few ſcattered clouds, which, as they experience but little change of temperature when returning over the humid valley of the Nile in flood-time, remain condenſed, and at times produce, without thunder or tempeſt, ſmall haſty ſhowers. But, as the eaſt and weſt winds, which are in general the parents of ſtorms, both croſs burning deſerts, which either abſorb the clouds, or raiſe the vapour to ſuch a height as to be able to paſs over the narrow valley of Upper Egypt, without being able to undergo detonation by the operation of the waters of the river, the phenomenon of thunder becomes ſo rare an occurrence to the inhabitants of this country, that even the thinking people who reſide here do not attempt to aſſign to it a phyſical cauſe. Having queſtioned a perſon in the law on the cauſe of thunder, he replied, with the perfect confidence of conviction: "We know very well that it is an angel, but ſo ſmall in ſtature that he cannot be perceived in the air; he has, however, the power of conducting the clouds of the Mediterranean into Abyſſinia, and when the wickedneſs of men is at its height, he makes his voice to be heard, which is a voice of menace and reproach; and, as a proof that he has alſo the diſpoſal of puniſhment, he opens a little way the gate of heaven, whence darts out the lightning; but as the clemency of God is infinite, never is his wrath carried further in Upper Egypt."

At this ſeaſon of the year the *kamſin*, or deſtroying wind, is uſually experienced. Sometimes, indeed, it rages violently in April; but chiefly in May. It is thus deſcribed by Denon: The kamſin may be termed *the hurricane of Egypt and the deſert*. Its name, *kamſin*, ſignifies *fifty*; becauſe it continues more or leſs for fifty days. It is equally terrible by the frightful ſpectacle which it exhibits when preſent, and by the conſequences which follow its ravages. We had already paſſed with ſecurity one half of the ſeaſon in which it uſually appears; when, in the evening of the 18th of May, I felt myſelf entirely overcome by a ſuffocating heat; it ſeemed as if the fluctuation of the air was ſuddenly ſuſpended. I was ſtruck on my arrival with my companions at the bank of the Nile, with a new appearance of nature all around me; this was a kind of light and colours which I had not before ſeen. The ſun, without being concealed, had loſt its rays; it had even leſs luſtre to the eye than the moon, and gave a pale light without ſhade; the waters of the Nile no longer reflected its rays, but appeared in agitation; every thing had changed its uſual aſpect; it was

now

Denon del. J. Chapman sc.

Portraiture of Ibrahim Beys an Egyptian Lady of Rank; and a female Water-carrier and Child.

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now the flat ſhore that ſeemed luminous, and the air dull and opaque; the yellow horizon ſhewed the trees on its ſurface of a dirty blue; flocks of birds were flying off before the cloud; the frighted animals ran looſe in the country, followed by the inhabitants, who vainly attempted to collect them together again. We could now eaſily conceive the dreadful ſituation of thoſe who are ſurpriſed with ſuch a phenomenon of nature, when croſſing the expoſed and naked deſerts; where, as it ſtands upon record, many thouſands have been overwhelmed and loſt in the ſhoals of ſand raiſed by the kamſin winds. The next day, an aſtoniſhing maſs of duſt, attended with ſimilar appearances, travelled along the deſert of Lybia: it followed the chain of the mountains, and, when we flattered ourſelves that we were entirely rid of this peſtilence, the weſt wind brought it back, and once more overwhelmed us with this ſcorching torrent; the light of the ſun could pierce with difficulty through this denſe vapour; all the elements appeared to be in diſorder; rain was mixed with whirlwinds of fire, wind, and duſt; and, in this time of confuſion, the trees, and all the other productions of nature, ſeemed to be again plunged in the horrors of chaos. If the deſert of Lybia had ſent us theſe clouds of duſt, thoſe on the eaſt, on the contrary, had been inundated with water; for the merchants who came from the borders of the Red Sea told us, that in the valleys they had the water up to the middle of their legs. When this deſtructive ſcourge ſets in from the deſert, the inundation of ſand often overwhelms the country, changes its fertility to barrenneſs, drives the labourer from his houſe, whoſe walls it covers up, and leaves no other mark of vegetable life than the tops of a few palm-trees, which adds ſtill more to the dreary aſpect of deſtruction. Thus the deſert is conſtantly encroaching on the fertile land; and, were the water of the Nile to diſcontinue its inundations, the whole vale of Egypt would eventually become a deſert or bed of ſand.

"Two days after this diſaſter, we were told that the plain was covered with birds, which were paſſing on from eaſt to weſt, like the cloſe files of an army; and, indeed, we ſaw at a diſtance the fields appear to move, like a broad torrent flowing through the country. Thinking that they might be ſome foreign birds, we haſtened out to meet them; but inſtead of birds we ſaw a cloud of locuſts, who juſt ſkimmed the ſoil, ſtopping at each blade of graſs to devour it, then flying off to new food. If it had been the ſeaſon in which the corn was young and tender, this would have been a ſerious plague; for theſe children of the deſert are as lean as active, and quickly devour every thing before them. It would be intereſting to know how they live and produce ſuch multitudes in ſo arid a deſert; perhaps it was the rain that had fallen in the valleys which had ſuddenly hatched them, and had produced this emigration, juſt as certain wind bring ſwarms of muſketoes. The wind changing again in a contrary direction to their march, they were once more driven back into the deſert. Theſe locuſts are of a roſe-colour, ſpeckled with black, very ſtrong, ſhy, and difficult to catch." It is during the kamſin, and diſturbance of the waters of the Nile, that the crocodiles moſt abound. Denon ſaw them from eight or ten to thirty feet long: but he ſays they are by no means ſo ferocious as has been pretended.

During the latter days of the kamſin, the current of the Nile becomes ſluggiſh, the waters loſe their uſual ſalubrity and tranſparency, and become green, throwing up flakes of foul mud, which exhale a mephitic odour: in ſhort, it is then no longer the bountiful river, the creator and preſerver of Egypt; but it grows heavy in its motion, and would alarm the inhabitants of the banks, if its periodic reſtoration to its uſual ſtate were not as conſtant a phenomenon for them as it is ſurpriſing to the curious traveller. It keeps falling till the 17th of June, remains in ſtagnation for two days, and on the 19th it begins to riſe. "It is at this period (ſays Denon) that the reſidence in Upper Egypt is almoſt inſupportable; the winds are variable, and are conſtantly changing from the eaſt to the ſouth, or the ſouth-weſt: this latter is terrible, for it troubles the atmoſphere, obſcures the ſun with a burning vapour, parches with thirſt, drics up every thing, inflames the blood, irritates the nerves, and makes life itſelf painful: it alſo oppreſſes the lungs ſo ſeverely, that one involuntarily ſeeks for cooler air to breathe in, feeling as if the mouth was an oven of fire; if one inhales the air by the noſtrils, it affects the head; and in again exhaling it, it feels like a guſh of blood ruſhing over the air-paſſages; every thing we touch is burning; and iron, *even in the night*, acquires as great a heat as it does in France in the dog-days, expoſed to the noon-day beams of the ſun."

During this muddy ſtate of the Nile, the water is purified by ſtanding in jars, which Walſh calls *alkarras*; but which are more commonly known by the name of *balaſſes*, from Balaſſe, the town where they are manufactured, and from whence they are ſent not only throughout Egypt, but alſo into Syria, and the iſles of the Archipelago. They have the uncommon property of allowing water to tranſude through their pores, whereby it ſoon becomes clear and cool; they are made at little expence, and ſold ſo cheap, that they are ſometimes uſed to conſtruct the walls of houſes, and the pooreſt inhabitant may ſupply himſelf with them in abundance. Nature gives the material in the neighbouring deſert, which requires no further preparation; it is a fat, ſoapy, and compact, marl, which only requires moiſtening and working in the hands to be perfectly ductile and tenacious; and any veſſels that are formed of it, when dried in the ſhade and half baked in the ſun, only require burning for a few hours with a little ſtraw-fire, to be completed. The people make raſts of theſe pots, which have been deſcribed by almoſt every traveller in Egypt: they are thus carried down the Nile, part of them are ſold on the way, and the remainder are embarked at Roſetta and Damietta to be ſent abroad. The ſpongy nature of this earth makes the water tranſude, whilſt the ſlimy particles ſuſpended in it are attracted to the ſide of the veſſel, and the outer ſurface being always moiſtened by the tranſudation, when there is the leaſt breath of wind to promote evaporation, the water within the jar becomes as clear and cool as if it were iced. They are ſometimes fumigated with benzoin, or perfumed with orange-flower, or other aromatics, to vary the inſipid taſte of the water, which, however, when drunk from theſe vaſes, is the beſt in the world. It is curious to ſee the immenſe cargoes of theſe jars, which are either piled up on boats, or made into raſts, like the large floats of wood on our rivers, which are borne by the ſtream, and at the ſame time carry their owners, who diſpoſe of them to good advantage. The uſe of theſe vaſes appears to be of great antiquity, for they are repreſented of the ſame form as at preſent, ſtanding on the ſame tripods, and employed for the ſame purpoſe, in hieroglyphic paintings, and on ancient manuſcripts. The poorer ſort of women are continually employed in fetching water in theſe jars.

The violent heats prevail chiefly in June, July, and Auguſt; during which, and the ſeaſon of the kamſin, the paſſage over the deſert is moſt arduous, and often fatal. The French loſt many men in this dreary region, where the heat of the ſands burnt their feet through their ſhoes; and the ſcorching rays of the ſun, cracking the leathern jars which contained their water, expoſed them to the ſevereſt torture of unquenchable thirſt. The Engliſh Indian army, in croſſing from Coſſir, experienced ſimilar loſſes and fatigues; as did the army of the grand vizier, in its march to Salahieh. But their ſufferings were trivial, when compared to thoſe of a party of mamalukes mentioned by Denon, who taking the paſs from the Kittah by the way of Rediſi, nearly all of them periſhed. "This paſs (ſays Denon) is never frequented by

the merchants, and was fatal to the mamalukes, who, by taking this road, loſt their horſes, together with a part of their camels, a conſiderable number of their attendants, and twenty-ſix women out of twenty-eight. Their march was traced by their diſaſters, and by what they left behind them, tents, arms, clothing, the carcaſſes of horſes ſtarved to death, camels which were no longer able to ſupport their burden, attendants, and their women, whom they abandoned to their fate. I figured to myſelf the ſufferings of a poor wretch, panting with fatigue, and expiring with thirſt, his tongue parched, and breathing with difficulty the hot air by which he is conſumed. He hopes that a few minutes repoſe will enable him to recover his ſtrength: he ſtops, and ſees his companions paſs by, calling on them in vain for help. The miſery to which each one is a prey, has baniſhed every compaſſionate feeling: they proceed on their way without caſting a look on him, and follow in ſilence the footſteps of thoſe who precede them. They are no longer in his view: they are fled, and his benumbed limbs, already overpowered by their painful exiſtence, refuſe their office, and cannot be ſtimulated to action either by danger or by terror. The caravan has paſſed: it appears to him like an undulating line in the wide expanſe, and, becoming at length a mere point, diſappears altogether like the laſt glimmer of an expiring taper. He caſts around him his wild and frantic looks, but can ſee nothing: he turns them towards himſelf, and then cloſes his eyes to ſhun the aſpect of the terrible vacuity by which he is ſurrounded. He hears nothing but his own ſighs, and fate hovers over him to cut the final thread of his exiſtence. Alone, and without a companion to do him the laſt offices, he is about to expire without one ſingle ray of hope to adminiſter comfort to his departing ſoul; and his corpſe, conſumed by the parched and burning ſoil, ſoon becomes a bleached ſkeleton, which will ſerve as a guide to the uncertain ſteps of the traveller who ſhall dare to brave the fate that has befallen him."

Such is the picture of the deſolations of the deſert, under circumſtances of unallayed thirſt, fervent heat, and inſupportable fatigue. In theſe wild and dreary waſtes, men alſo often become a prey to thirſt, with the image of a vaſt lake before their eyes. This puniſhment, of a new deſcription, requires explanation, as it reſults from an illuſion peculiar to the deſert. It is produced by the reflection of ſalient objects on the oblique rays of the ſun, refracted by the heat of the burning ſoil; and this phenomenon has ſo truly the appearance of water, that the obſerver is deceived by it over and over again. It provokes a thirſt, which is the more importunate, as the inſtant when it preſents itſelf to the view is the hotteſt time of the day. This optical phenomenon is called *mirage*, in a late paper publiſhed by Monge. In theſe vaſt deſerts, at the diſtance of a hundred miles or more from either ſide the Nile, are ſituated the Oaſes, or iſlands of fertile ſoil, ſurrounded by ſeas of burning ſand, which afford miſerable but central ſettlements for the robbers and banditti of the deſert, the Muggrebin Arabs.

The Natron Lakes, ſo called from their production of that kali which ſupplies the uſe of barilla, are alſo ſituated in the deſert, near that remarkable channel called the *dry river*, or *Bahr Belame*, i. e. river without water: probably an outlet of the lake of Kerun, in remote ages, before the deſerts had become ſo extenſive; and when the mountains were clothed with vegetation, and the Nile a far ſuperior ſtream. On paſſing the deſert towards Coſſir, the rugged and lofty rocks have a grand and terrific appearance, conſiſting chiefly of red granite, and porphyry red and green, the latter being the ophite or ſnake-ſtone of the ancients, by a far more proper appellation, as the word *porphyry* implies red or purple. Here is alſo found the celebrated *verde antico*, or green marble with white and dark ſpots: it ariſes in the neighbourhood of ſerpentine, under a blue ſchiſtus. In theſe rocks are alſo red and other marbles.

If any thing can brighten the gloomy aſpect of the deſert, it is the ſlow but orderly paſſage of the caravans, whoſe numerous attendants give life to this otherwiſe ſolitary empire of death. The large groups of attendant guards, thoſe of the merchants in their different coſtumes, a vaſt retinue of laden camels, with an equal number of Arab guides, the horſes, aſſes, foot travellers, and perhaps a few inſtruments of harſh muſic, give animation to a ſcene moſt ſtriking and pictureſque, even in the wildeſt regions of deſolated nature.

Let us, however, abandon to the mercy of the kamſin theſe wild and barren waſtes, to contemplate the foreground of this ſtriking Egyptian picture, where the rich vale abounds with eternal vegetation—where the cultivator can live for three-half-pence a day—where the moſt abundant crops of rice are produced—and where the fineſt ſugar-canes and plantations of indigo and cotton might be cultivated, under the benign influence of a pure and healthy climate, on the banks of a river of an almoſt miraculous deſcription, the advantages of which cannot be recapitulated. Here the vine-ſtalk continues green through the winter; the leaves only harden, become red, and dry, whilſt the end of the branch perpetually renews its verdure; the creeping peaſe do the ſame, their ſtalk becomes woody, and they will riſe forty feet high, and climb to the tops of the talleſt trees. Here we every where behold the advantages of irrigation, extended by water-carriages, locks, and flood-gates. Theſe Arabian works, made doubtleſs from ancient models, are as uſeful as well contrived; and, in general, it appears that the diſtribution of the waters in Upper Egypt for irrigation, is ordered with more intelligence, and effected with ſimpler means, than even in China. Here are ſtill no leſs than eighty canals, like rivers during the inundation, ſome thirty, ſome forty, leagues in length, receiving and diſtributing the waters over the face of the country. In the elevated tracts or ſpots, which cannot thus receive the benefit of the Nile's increaſe, the want is ſupplied by a great number of wells, ſpiral pumps, and wheels which carry a rope of large earthen pots, and draw water from the canals. In this labour no leſs than two hundred thouſand men are ſaid to be employed every day during the ſeaſon for irrigation, beſides thoſe who draw water in wicker baſkets of ſo fine a texture that not a drop of the liquid runs through.

The Egyptian huſbandmen have not the laborious taſk of ploughing, digging, or breaking the clods; nor have they any occaſion for manure, becauſe the Nile, by bringing with it a profuſion of mud or ſlime, fattens the earth, and makes it exceedingly fruitful. When, therefore, the river has retired, the agriculturiſts have no more to do than to mingle a little ſand with the earth in order to abate its ſtrength, after which they caſt in their ſeed with little trouble, and at an inconſiderable expence. Seed-time differs according to the province, and the height of the ground. Near Syene, wheat and barley are ſown in October, and reaped in January. About Girgeh, the harveſt month is February, and March round Grand Cairo: ſuch is the general progreſs of the harveſt through the Said. There are many exceptions, according as the lands are high or low, more or leſs diſtant from the river. They ſow and reap all the year in Lower Egypt, wherever they can obtain the water of the river. The land is never fallow, and yields three harveſts annually; there the traveller inceſſantly beholds the charming proſpect of flowers, fruits, and corn; and ſpring, ſummer, and autumn, at once preſent their treaſures. Deſcending from the cataracts, at the beginning of January, the wheat is ſeen almoſt ripe; farther on it is in ear; and ſtill farther the fields are green. Lucerne is mowed three times between November and March, and is the only hay of Egypt, ſerving chiefly to fodder the cattle. All the country is more or leſs ſown with wheat, ſainfoin, barley, beans, lentiles, and *doura* or *ſorgo*, which is a kind of millet, cultivated almoſt univerſally in Upper Egypt. Whilſt the grain of this plant is ſtill milky, the peaſants roaſt it like

maize,

maize, they chew the green ſtalk like the ſugar-cane; the leaves are food for cattle; and the medulla or pith, when dry, ſerves for tinder; the cane ſupplies the place of wood for firing and heating the ovens; flour is made of the grain itſelf, and cakes of the flour, but none of all theſe parts are good. Theſe people manage their ovens with great ſkill, and ſhew dexterity in almoſt all their avocations; and as they have a paucity of tools, it is ſurpriſing how much they do with their fingers, the inſtruments to which they are commonly reduced; and with their feet, with which they aſſiſt their hands wonderfully. As workmen, the common people have one great recommendation, which is, that they are patient and unaſſuming, and ready to repeat their work till it is done to your mind. They are eminently ſober, active, laborious, and perſevering; and yet to reflect that a few tyrants exerciſe abſolute empire over many hundred thouſand of ſuch men, poſſeſſing ſuch formidable qualities of body, ſtrongly impreſſes on the mind the fact that ſome perſons are lulled by the habit of obedience, juſt as the force of command acts upon others; and this ſtate continues till one party ſlumber over their abuſe of power, whilſt the others at laſt awake at the noiſe of their chains.

The Egyptian art of hatching chickens has been always peculiar to themſelves. See the article EGG, p. 285 of this volume. Their manner of raiſing bees is not leſs extraordinary, and beſpeaks great ingenuity. Upper Egypt preſerving its verdure only four or five months, the flowers and harveſt being ſeen no longer, the people of Lower Egypt profit by this circumſtance, aſſembling on-board their boats the bees of different villages. Each proprietor confides his hives, with his own mark, to the boatman, who, when loaded, gently proceeds up the river, and ſtops at every place where he finds verdure and flowers. The bees ſwarm from their cells at break of day and collect their nectar, returning ſeveral times loaded with booty, and, in the evening, re-enter their hives, without ever miſtaking their abode.

In Egypt, the camels do all the office of carts, by conveying the proviſions, and carrying away the filth: the ſaddle-horſes and aſſes are chiefly devoted to tranſporting paſſengers from place to place, and they are ſeen in every ſtreet ſaddled, bridled, and always ready to ſtart. The aſs, which in Europe and the northern countries is heavy and dull, appears quite in its natural climate in Egypt; and it here enjoys all its powers in full perfection; it is healthy, active, and cheerful, the mildeſt and ſafeſt animal to mount that one can poſſibly have; his natural pace is an amble or a gallop, and without fatiguing his rider, he carries him rapidly over the plains which lie between the different towns.

The Egyptian horſes are of the true Arabian breed, and are diſtinguiſhed by the excellent qualities they poſſeſs, as well as by the fine ſymmetry of their proportions. None but the Turks and Mamalukes are permitted to ride on horſeback, in order that a ſufficient ſupply of horſes might always be obtained for their cavalry. For ſhort journies, or rides of pleaſure, all other perſons uſe mules or aſſes; but for travelling over the deſert, camels and dromedaries. The women ride aſtride like the men, on a broad and elevated pad, covered with a piece of rich Turkey or Perſian carpet.

The goats in Egypt are remarkably fine, the females giving twice in the courſe of the day more than a quart of milk; to preſerve an ample ſupply of which large herds are kept. The mutton is good, and ſold at a cheap rate; as are alſo the geeſe, fowls, pigeons, eggs, &c. which are in great abundance throughout Egypt. The fleſh of the buffalo ſupplies the table with beef, which, at the time the paſturage is in perfection, ſome time after the retreat of the inundation, is fat and good. The ſmall and delicate cows and oxen are on a variety of accounts too uſeful to be ſlaughtered for food while in vigour. They labour conſtantly at the wheels by which the water is conveyed to the fields and gardens.

The principal fruits throughout Egypt are muſk and water melons, ſmall apricots, grapes, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, a few plantains about Roſetta, and millions of dates. The laſt-mentioned fruit is the potatoe of this country, the poor people living almoſt entirely upon it. The date-tree grows in large woods, thrives almoſt every where, and a ſandy ſoil agrees perfectly well with it. The peninſula of Aboukir, and great part of the ſandy country between Aboukir and Roſetta, are covered with them. Numerous advantages are derived from this tree, every part of which is made to ſerve ſome purpoſe. The fruit is very wholeſome and palatable food, and tolerable brandy is made from it. The leaves are converted into ropes for the germes and other boats; the trunk of the tree makes fuel, and is uſed alſo in the conſtruction of their houſes. Wherever the date-tree is found, it is remarkable that water may be procured by ſinking wells.

The diſeaſes of Egypt are few, but extremely alarming: the moſt common are fever, ophthalmia, dyſentery, and plague. To the exceſſive heat of the ſummer months, the three firſt of theſe maladies have been attributed. But, were heat the only principle of theſe diſeaſes, the Said would not be habitable. Heat certainly diſpoſes the blood to fever, and to which the inhabitants ſeem conſequently more or leſs ſubject; and which they cure by regimen, drinking much water, and bathing in the river; in other reſpects they are ſtrong and healthy. Old men are numerous, and many ride on horſeback at eighty. The food they eat in the hot ſeaſon much contributes to the preſervation of their health; it is chiefly vegetables, pulſe, and milk. They bathe frequently, eat little; ſeldom drink fermented liquors, and mix much lemon juice in their food. This abſtinence preſerves vigour to a very advanced age. The waters of the Nile are lighter, ſofter, and more agreeable to the taſte, than almoſt any other. In Lower Egypt, the neighbourhood of the ſea, the large lakes, and the abundance of the waters, moderate the ſun's heat, and preſerve a delightful temperature. The greateſt torment of the inhabitants are the gnats and muſquitos, which, riſing by millions out of the marſhes, ſwarm in the air and the houſes. The handkerchief muſt be held in the hand all day. It is the firſt thing a viſitor receives, and at night it is neceſſary to ſleep under muſquiteros.

Opthalmia, or diſeaſes of the eyes, are the moſt common of all others in Egypt, where the blind are numerous. Eight thouſand of theſe unfortunate people are decently maintained in the great moſque of Cairo. The ſmall pox is very common in Egypt, but without committing great ravages. As to pulmonary diſeaſes, which in cold countries carry off ſo many in the prime of youth, they are unknown in this more equable climate. The unhealthy ſeaſon in Egypt is from February till the end of May, during which time they eat rice, vegetables, freſh fiſh, and fruits; bathing frequently, and uſing plenty of perfumes and lemon juice, with which regimen they prevent the dangerous effects of that ſickly ſeaſon, and overcome the violence of dyſentery. But the moſt fatal of all their maladies is the plague. Sonnini, Volney, Savary, &c. ſeem erroneouſly to have ſuppoſed that this fever, now properly called epidemical or intermittent, was conſtantly brought from Turkey in the ſhips charged with old clothes, which annually came to Alexandria for a market; "but theſe, and ſimilar reaſons, (ſays Sir Robert Wilſon,) cannot any longer be maintained, ſince the plague has generated annually in Egypt during the laſt four years, although no ſuch communication had been poſſible; and even chiefly commenced in Upper Egypt. The ſource of this diſorder muſt therefore be ſought for in thoſe phenomena with which the appearance is connected. The plague commences in Egypt when the Nile begins to fall, and ceaſes to be fatal, almoſt to a day, (many pretend preciſely ſo,) after the 17th of June, which is the period of the ſummer ſolſtice, and when the Nile is ſuppoſed to receive the firſt increaſe.

increaſe. As the waters of the Nile retire from the ſurface of the country they had inundated, a rich ſlime of conſiderable condenſity is left, which forms a ſoil ſo productive, as to render Egypt the moſt fertile land in the known world: but unfortunately this ſlime, ſubjected to the univerſal laws of matter, is no ſooner ſeparated from its principle of action, than corruption enſues, and continues until all the putrid juices are totally abſorbed by the heat of the ſun, which then leaves the ground perfectly brittle, and full of fiſſures: the atmoſphere at this time ceaſing to be tainted, the plague throughout Egypt diſappears. This theory, however natural to Egypt, cannot be immediately applied to other countries, where the plague annually rages; but an examination into their climate, ſoil, and the cuſtoms of the people, will probably prove the poſition, that the plague is local, occaſioned by a corrupted ſtate of atmoſphere, and never introduced by *contagion*."

Dr. White, an Engliſh phyſician, attached to the army of Egypt, determined to diſcover if this malady, ſo deſtructive to a large portion of the globe, and which filled with apprehenſion the remainder, could not be checked, or rendered leſs virulent, by the introduction of inoculation. Reſolving to become the patient of his own ſpeculation, during the time the plague raged at Roſetta, he inoculated himſelf with matter taken from an infected perſon. The attempt failed twice; the third proved fatal: in three days after the ſymptoms appeared he died, falling a much-to-be-lamented victim to a diſtintereſted zeal, benevolently and intrepidly directed for the benefit and happineſs of the community.—"The fever called plague, (ſays ſir Robert Wilſon,) is not attended with any corporeal pain; torpor tranquillizes all ſenſibility of mind, and the hour of diſſolution is expected with apathy. The criſis is death, or complete recovery.

Dr. Wittman, however, who compiled an Hiſtorical Journal of the Plague, during his continuance with the Turkiſh army in Syria and Egypt, is decidedly of opinion that the plague is extremely *contagious*; but thinks it may be generated by mephitic air—by the ſlime left on the ſhores after the inundations of the Nile—by the ſtench of carrion, or all kinds of dead carcaſes, as well as from the filth, ſtench, and confined hovels, of ſuch multitudes of poor miſerable inhabitants. See the article MEDICINE. So little do the people of the country dread this diſeaſe, that Ibrahim Bey encamped on the very burial-ground at El-Ariſh, where the bodies of ſeveral thouſands of perſons who had fallen victims to the plague during the courſe of the laſt ſix weeks, were interred. "His own tent, (ſays Dr. Wittman,) covered a part of the graves!"

Egypt, in curious ſubjects of Natural Hiſtory, is rather limited. Its mineralogy is not opulent, nor does it ſeem ever to have produced any of the metals. A mountain towards the Red Sea is ſtiled that of emeralds; and even now the beſt emeralds are by the Perſians called thoſe of Said, or Upper Egypt: but the mines are no longer worked, and even the ſpot ſeems unknown. Wad has publiſhed an account of Egyptian foſſils, from ancient fragments in the muſeum of cardinal Borgia at Veletri. They are of red granite; white granite with hornblende; grey felſpar, and black hornblende. The porphyry ſeems petroſilex with ſpots of felſpar. There is alſo a little fragment, with hieroglyphics, of micaceous ſchiſtus, conſiſting of browniſh black mica: other remains are of ſand-ſtone, and ſand-ſtone breſcia, felſpar, ſerpentine, lapis ollaris, white marble with veins of ſilver mica, ſwine-ſtone, what is called green baſalt by the Italians, and jaſper of various kinds; with topaz, or the chryſolite of the ancients, amethyſt, rock cryſtal, calcedony, onyx, carnelian, heliotrope, obſidian, lazulite; but there ſeem to be none of emerald. Many are of baſalt, or the Ethiopic ſtone of Herodotus and Strabo; Pliny adding that the native word means *iron*: the Egyptian is ſometimes a grunſten, being black hornblende with veins of felſpar; and particles of hornblende are viſible in all theſe baſalts. Theſe notices become intereſting, as the Egyptians were the firſt inventors of ſculpture and architecture, and the original materials may juſtly excite curioſity. Beſides the natron lakes, there are ſome mineral ſprings, and one of ſalt water near Cairo, which is ſuppoſed to have medical virtues.

With regard to botanical productions, it is by no means eaſy to diſtinguiſh its native vegetables from thoſe which have been introduced at various periods for profit or pleaſure, and have gradually naturalized themſelves in the ſoil of Egypt. Wherever the annual inundations extend, a number of ſeeds, brought down by the torrent from Ethiopia and Abyſſinia, muſt be depoſited together with the fertilizing mud, which, vegetating regularly every year, are probably miſtaken for truly indigenous plants. We ſhall therefore mention ſuch of the Egyptian vegetables as are of moſt importance, either by their preſent uſe or ancient fame, without being ſolicitous to examine whether they are real natives, or naturalized ſtrangers. The lotus and papyrus have always been the appropriate decorations of the god of the Nile: the former of theſe is a ſpecies of nymphæa or water lily, which at the retreat of the inundation covers all the canals and ſhallow pools with its broad round leaves, among which are its cup-ſhaped bloſſoms of pure white, or cærulean blue, repoſing with inimitable grace on the ſurface of the water. The papyrus, ſacred to literature, after having long vaniſhed from the borders of the Nile, has at length been again recognized in the cyperus papyrus of the Linnæan ſyſtem. (See the article CYPERUS, vol. v. p. 525.) The arum colocaſia of ancient fame is ſtill cultivated in Egypt for its large eſculent roots. The Egyptian ſycamore (ficus ſycomorus), probably introduced from the oppoſite ſhore of Arabia, is of peculiar value from its fruit, its depth of ſhade, and the vigour with which it grows, even on the ſandy frontiers of the deſert. The date palm, the piſtachia, the oriental plane, and the bead-tree, adorn the ſhores, and are cultivated in the vicinity of moſt of the towns. The cypreſs overſhadows the burial grounds, and the caperbuſh roots itſelf in the ruins of Egypt. The ſenna, the mimoſa nilotica, and the henné (Lawſonia inermis), are alſo characteriſtic of Egypt; from the latter of theſe, the women prepare that yellow dye with which they tinge the nails of their fingers. All the moſt exquiſite of the European fruits, ſuch as the almond, the orange, pomegranate, fig, peach, and apricot, are cultivated here with great aſſiduity and ſucceſs; the various kinds of melons and gourds grow to full perfection, and compoſe no unimportant portion of the food of the inhabitants; and mingled with theſe productions of the temperate regions are found the plantain, the ſugar-cane, the cotton, and a few others, that have formerly been imported hither from the tropical climates.

Contemplating the matchleſs fertility of the vale of Egypt, we cannot but notice the two magnificent proſpects which it exhibits at two very different ſeaſons of the year. If the traveller aſcends either of the mountains, or one of the great pyramids near Cairo, in the month of July or Auguſt, he beholds with amazement a ſpacious ſea, ſpotted with innumerable towns and villages, interſected with ſeveral cauſeys, and occaſionally contraſted with groves and orchards; while a magnificent diſplay of ſylvan and mountainous ſcenery bounds the delightful view, and terminates a moſt exquiſite horizon at the utmoſt diſtance the eye can poſſibly reach. On the contrary, if the view be taken in winter, that is, in the months of January and February, the whole country reſembles one extenſive meadow clothed with the fineſt verdure, and enamelled with an infinite variety of flowers; the plains are embelliſhed with numberleſs flocks and herds; the mild zephyrs are impregnated with the ſweet odours that riſe from the orange and lemon groves, and the air is altogether ſo pure and ſalubrious, that a more healthful or agreeable ſpot cannot be found in the univerſe; and, for this reaſon, nature, which in winter ſeems to droop and languiſh in every other climate, appears at this time to triumph in the delights of her Egyptian abode.

EGYP'TIANS, the natives of Egypt: an appellation alſo beſtowed on a ſingular deſcription of wandering vagabonds in England, called *gypſies*. See the article GYPSEY.

EHIN'GEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia: twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Ulm, and forty-eight weſt of Augſburg. See EBINGEN.

EH'LE, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Elbe, near Magdeburg.

EH'RENBERG, a citadel of Germany, in the county of Tyrol, on the frontiers of Swabia: forty miles north-eaſt of Inſpruck.

EHRENBREIT'STEIN, a fortreſs of Germany, in the Lower electorate, and conſidered as the key of the Rhine and the Moſelle, near Coblentz, on the oppoſite ſide of the Rhine.

EH'RENBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Hoya: eighteen miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Hoya.

EH'RENFELS, or EHRNFELS, a lordſhip of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, and principality of Neuburg, to which it was ceded in 1567. It gives a ſeat in the aſſembly of the circle, and pays thirty-ſix florins for a Roman month. It takes its name from a fortreſs, thirteen miles north-weſt of Ratiſbon.

EHRENFRIE'DERSDORF, or IRBERDORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Erzgeburg, founded in 1407; near it are tin mines, formerly very rich: three miles weſt of Wolkenſtein.

EH'RENSTEIN, a town and ancient caſtle of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Schwartzburg Rudolſtadt: ten miles north-weſt of Saalfield.

EH'RET (George-Dionyſius), a very excellent botanical painter, ſon to the gardener of the prince of Baden-Durlach, born in that country in 1710. At a very early age, without inſtruction, he took to drawing and painting flowers, and had executed five hundred pieces with wonderful accuracy, when he was made known to Dr. Trew, of Nuremberg, who purchaſed the whole at double the price he ſet upon them. Having, with the thoughtleſſneſs of a young man, diſſipated the ſum which he had thus raiſed, he went to Baſil, where, ſtimulated by neceſſity, he reſumed his labours, and produced many admirable ſpecimens of his ſkill. He then viſited France and England, ſupporting himſelf by the practice and the teaching of his art. In 1736 he was employed in the garden of Mr. Clifford in Holland, where he met with Linnæus, who inſtructed him in his ſyſtem. His fine taſte and botanical accuracy of delineation were publicly diſplayed in the figures of the *Hortus Cliffortianus*, which appeared in 1737. He returned to England about 1740, and ſpent the remainder of his days in this country. He was employed by various lovers of natural hiſtory, whoſe cabinets he enriched with his works. The late ducheſs of Portland poſſeſſed near three hundred paintings of exotics, and five hundred of Engliſh plants, upon vellum, highly finiſhed by his hand. Several of his pieces are in the Britiſh Muſeum, probably from the collections of Sloane and Mead, both of whom employed him; the latter generouſly advanced his price. He was accuſtomed for ſeveral years to paſs ſome of the ſummer months at the ſeat of Ralph Willet, eſq. of Merly, Dorſetſhire, in the library of which is a copious collection of his performances. For his firſt patron, Dr. Trew, he painted a number of figures of rare plants in the Engliſh botanical gardens, of which one hundred have been engraved, and publiſhed under the title of *Plantæ Selectæ, &c.* in ten decads, from 1750 to 1773, with the illuſtrations of Dr. Trew and Dr. Vogel, forming one of the moſt ſplendid works in botany. Ehret drew the figures of Brown's Hiſtory of Jamaica, in forty plates. He both drew and engraved a ſet of fifteen plates of exotics, each containing two or three plants, with a foreign butterfly. He was elected a fellow of the royal ſociety, a diſtinction he deſerved for the ſcientific knowledge which he poſſeſſed, and which greatly contributed to the truth of his pencil. He married a ſiſter of Philip Miller, of Chelſea, and obtained a moderate independence by the practice of his art, which he continued as long as he lived. He died in 1770.

EHRE'TIA, *f.* [ſo named after that ingenious artiſt and botaniſt, *G. D. Ehret.*] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order aſperifoliæ, (borragineæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, bell-ſhaped; half five-cleft, obtuſe, very ſmall, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled; tube longer than the calyx; border five-cleft; diviſions ſomewhat ovate, flat. Stamina: filaments five, ſubulate, patulous, length of the corolla; antheræ roundiſh, incumbent. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh; ſtyle filiform, thicker above, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma obtuſe, emarginate. Pericarpium: berry roundiſh, one-celled. Seeds: four, convex on one ſide, cornered on the other.—*Eſſential Character.* Berry two-celled; ſeeds ſolitary, two-celled; ſtigma emarginate.

Species. 1. Ehretia tinifolia, or tinus-leaved ehretia: leaves oblong-ovate, quite entire, ſmooth; flowers panicled. This is an upright tree, from twenty to thirty feet high, with an oblong thick head. Leaves alternate, veined, blunt, about four inches long, on ſhort petioles. Flowers numerous, white, ſmall. Berry ſpherical, at firſt yellow, then black. Seeds two, hemiſpherical, two-celled. Native of Cuba and Jamaica; flowering there in January and February. In Jamaica, where it is pretty common in the lower lands, and known by the name of *baſtard cherry-tree*, it riſes generally to the height of ſixteen or twenty feet: the berries are ſmall, and ſeldom exceed the largeſt of our European currants in ſize. They ſerve to feed poultry, and are ſometimes eaten by the poorer ſort of people. Mr. Miller received the ſeeds from Jamaica, in 1734. The plants grew here to the height of eight or nine feet, and produced flowers, but not ſeeds. He will not allow that it is Sloane's plant: the leaves in this being ſmoother, longer, and more pointed, and the corymb of flowers much longer than in Sloane's plant.

2. Ehretia ſpinoſa, or thorny ehretia: thorny. This tree has a trunk three or four inches in diameter, dividing almoſt cloſe to the ground uſually in three parts, which run up twenty-five or thirty feet high: theſe having put out a few ſimilar boughs in their progreſs, ſcarcely attain the length of ten feet before they are bowed back to the ground, and require ſupport from the boughs of the neighbouring trees: they have many very ſhort lateral branches ſcatteringly diſpoſed; their bark is aſh-coloured, and ſmooth. Strong, woody, ſhort, very thick, awl-ſhaped, ſpines, are ſcattered over the trunk, principal boughs, and ſecondary branches; the oldeſt of theſe frequently put forth from their middle a perpendicular leafy branchlet of the ſame length with themſelves. Leaves oblong, ſhining, three or four inches long, uncertain in their number, but uſually five or ſix from the ſame tubercle, falling off every year. Flowers very many, ſmall, with yellowiſh corollas. The ſegments of the ſtyle may be regarded as a two-parted ſtigma, whence with a glaſs appears an opening to the germ itſelf. Fruit the ſize of a pea, and red. Native of Carthagena, in New Spain; flowering in Auguſt, and bearing fruit in October. It is called there *cacaracacara*, and differs much in habit from the preceding; they agree, however, in the flower, except in the calyx and ſtyle.

3. Ehretia Bourreria, or oval-leaved ehretia: leaves ovate, quite entire, ſmooth; flowers in a kind of corymb; calyxes ſmooth. This is a ſmall inelegant tree, having an aduſt habit; in Curaçao often above fifteen feet high, in Martinico ſeldom five. Trunk unequal, with a chinky bark. Branches very many, irregular. Leaves alternate, petioled, quite entire, various; obtuſe, acute or emarginate; on rocks ſmooth, elſewhere rugged; differing in ſize, oblong, ovate, &c. Racemes corymbed, terminating.

flowers ſweet. Corollas white, with roundiſh ſegments. Berries ſhining, ſaffron or orange-coloured, pulpy, ſweet, ſucculent, more quadrangular as they are larger; eaten by children, and the natives. This ſpecies is the connecting link between Ehretia and Cordia. Native of the Weſt Indies, growing from the crevices of rocks, where there is no ſoil. According to Dr. P. Browne, it grows in the ſavannas of Jamaica; it is there called *poiſon-berries*: the French name it *bois cabril batard*. It ſeldom riſes above fourteen or fifteen feet; the berries are of a ſaffron colour. Browne named it *Bourreria*, after Mr. Beurer, (or rather Beurer,) an apothecary of Nuremberg, who was a great promoter of natural hiſtory. Cultivated in 1758 by Mr. Miller, who received the ſeeds from Surinam.

4. Ehretia exſucca, or dry-fruited ehretia: leaves wedge-form-lanceolate, with the edge reflex. This is a ſmall tree, fifteen feet in height; ſometimes erect, ſometimes ſupporting itſelf on other trees. Leaves ovate, acute, very ſmooth, alternate, petioled, two inches long. Flowers having a ſlight degree of ſweetneſs, much larger than in the preceding ones; corollas white, with heart-ſhaped ſegments. Frequent about Carthagena, in mountain woods; flowering from May to Auguſt, and ripening the ſeeds in October.

5. Ehretia virgata, or twiggy ehretia: leaves oblong, entire, rugged on the upper ſurface; branches filiform; flowers terminating, ſcattered; calyxes hirſute. Native of Hiſpaniola.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are too tender to thrive abroad in England, where they require a moderate warm ſtove in winter; but when the plants have acquired ſtrength, they may be placed in the open air during the heat of the ſummer, but it ſhould be in a ſheltered ſituation; and when the evenings grow cold in the autumn, they muſt be removed into ſhelter. They are propagated by ſeeds, when theſe can be obtained. Sow them in ſmall pots, plunged into a hot-bed. They may alſo be increaſed by layers, but theſe are long before they put out roots. See LYCIUM.

EHRFEL'DEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: eight miles weſt of Darmſtadt.

EHRHAR'TA, *ſ.* [ſo named in honour of *Frederic Ehrhart*, a native of Swiſſerland, a very diligent and acute obſerver. *Linn. Suppl.*] In botany, a genus of the claſs hexandria, order monogynia, or digynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: glume one-flowered, two-valved, ovate, concave, ſhorter than the corolla, patulous; one valve a little larger than the other, and membranaceous. Corolla: double; outer two-valved; valves oblong, complicate, keeled, retuſe, tranſverſely wrinkled, three times as long as the calyx, villoſe on the outſide of the baſe; inner a little ſhorter, keeled, with a ſmooth even ſurface; nectary two-leaved, very ſmall; leaflets jagged and ciliate, involving the genitals. Stamina: filaments ſix, capillary, very ſhort; antheræ upright, linear, emarginate, ſhorter than the corolla. Piſtillum: germ ovate; ſtyle compreſſed, very ſhort, ſmooth; ſtigma ſimple, villoſe. Pericarpium: none. Seed: ſingle, ovate, ſmooth.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, a two-valved one-flowered glume; corolla, double, each two-valved; the outer compreſſed.

Species. 1. Ehrharta cartilaginea, or cartilaginous ehrharta: culm undivided; panicle ſimple; outer corolla retuſe, almoſt awnleſs; edge of the leaves cartilaginous, and curled. This is an extremely beautiful ſmooth graſs: root fibrous, perennial; culm erect, jointed, from a foot and a half to two feet high; joints about five; leaves ſheathing, enſiform, the lower ones a hand in length, the upper ones much ſhorter; diſk ſmooth; edge cartilaginous and crenulate, ſcabrous; panicle oblong, conſiſting of fifteen or twenty flowers; peduncles capillary, looſe, flexuoſe, in threes, pairs or ſolitary, ſimple or ſometimes a little branched, growing thicker at the top; flowers drooping; calycine glume coloured at the baſe, outer corolline glume violet, inner becoming pale; bundles of villoſe hairs very white and ſhining; nectary and filaments white; antheræ yellow. Firſt obſerved at the Cape by Thunberg.

2. Ehrharta bulboſa, or bulbous ehrharta: culm undivided; panicle branched, many-flowered; outer corolla retuſe, awned. Lamarck confounds this with the foregoing ſpecies, from which it is very diſtinct.

3. Ehrharta longiflora, or long-flowered ehrharta: culm ſimple; panicle branched, many-flowered; outer corolla mucronate, tubercled, and hiſpid; flowers three-ſtamened. Obſerved at the Cape by Maſſon.

4. Ehrharta panicea, or panicled ehrharta: culm divided; panicle ſomewhat branched; flowers erect, two-ſtyled. Though the ſtyle appears to be ſingle at the baſe, yet it has two ſtigmas, as in the graſſes and oryza (rice), after which it ſhould be placed, ſince it has a great affinity with it. Sonnerat brought it from the Cape in the year 1776.

5. Ehrharta calycina, or calycined ehrharta: culm branched; panicle almoſt ſimple; calyx coloured equalling the corolla. Brought from the Cape by Sparrman.

EH'RICH (Groſs), a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and county of Schwartzburg: four miles weſt of Greuſſen.

EHR'NAU, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: ſix miles north of Knittelfeld.

EHRN'HAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, at the conflux of the Salm and the Muehr: ten miles north of Mahrburg.

EHRN'SPRUNN, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles ſouth of Laab.

E'HUD [אחוד Heb. praiſing.] A judge of Iſrael. He was the ſon of Gera, a Benjamite, a man left-handed, who delivered Iſrael from the oppreſſion of Eglon king of Moab. *Judges* iii. 15, &c.

EI'A, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Sea of Azoph, at Eiſkoi.

EI'A, or EY, *ſ.* in our old writers, are uſed for an iſland. Hence the names of places ending in *ey*, denotes them to be iſlands. Thus, Ramſey, the iſle of rams; Sheppey, the iſle of ſheep, &c. *Eia* is alſo ſometimes uſed for water; and hence the names of places near waters or lakes terminate in *ey*.

To EJA'CULATE, *v. a.* [*ejaculor*, Lat.] To throw; to ſhoot; to dart out.—Being rooted ſo little way in the ſkin, nothing near ſo deeply as the quills of fowls, they are the more eaſily *ejaculated*. *Grew.*

The mighty magnet from the center darts
This ſtrong, though ſubtile force, through all the parts:
Its active rays, *ejaculated* thence,
Irradiate all the wide circumference. *Blackmore.*

EJACULA'TION, *ſ.* The act of darting or throwing out.—There ſeemeth to be acknowledged, in the act of envy, an *ejaculation* or irradiation of the eye. *Bacon.*—A ſhort prayer darted out occaſionally, without ſolemn retirement.—In your dreſſing let there be *ejaculation* fitted to the ſeveral actions of dreſſing; as at waſhing your hands, pray God to cleanſe your ſoul from ſin. *Taylor.*

EJA'CULATORY, *adj.* Suddenly darted out; uttered in ſhort ſentences.—The continuance of this poſture might incline to eaſe and drowſineſs; they uſed it rather upon ſome ſhort *ejaculatory* prayers, than in their larger devotions. *Duppa.*—Sudden; haſty.—We are not to value ourſelves upon the merit of *ejaculatory* repentances, that take us by fits and ſtarts. *L'Eſtrange.*

EI'BESWALD, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: ſixteen miles ſouth of Voitſberg.

EI'CETÆ, called alſo HEICETÆ, and HICETÆ, heretics of the ſeventh century, who made profeſſion of the monaſtic life.

EICH'ENBUHL, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz: three miles ſouth-eaſt of Miltenberg.

EICH'HOLZ, a town of Germany, in the circle of

Upper

Upper Saxony, and principality of Anhalt Zerbſt: three miles ſouth-weſt of Zerbſt.

EICH'IGT, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Erzgeburg: four miles ſouth of Erzgeburg.

EICH'MED, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Natangen: ſix miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Raſtenburg.

EICHS'FELD, or EISFELD, a country of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, bounded by Heſſe, Thuringia, Calenberg, and Grubenhagen, divided by mountains into Upper and Lower; the Upper is cold and mountainous, the Lower, flat, warm, and fertile, bearing corn, flax, and tobacco: the inhabitants of the Upper part are principally engaged in manufactures. The whole country belongs to the electorate of Mentz. The principal towns are Heiligenſtadt, Duderſtadt, and Stadtworbis. The contributions amount to 45,000 imperial crowns; the nobility pay 218 to each thouſand, the bailiwicks 500, the clergy 100, and the towns of Heiligenſtadt and Duderſtadt 182.

EICK'EL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Mark: two miles ſouth-eaſt of Grimberg.

EI'DE, a town of Norway: thirty-ſix miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Berghen.

EI'DER, a river which, in a great part of its courſe, divides the duchy of Sleſwick from the duchy of Holſtein, and runs into the German ocean twelve miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Lunden.

EI'DER-DUCK. See ANAS.

EID'WALD, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz: ſixteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Leitmeritz.

To EJE'CT, *v. a* [*ejicio, ejectum*, Lat.] To throw out; to caſt forth; to avoid.—Tears may ſpoil the eyes, but not waſh away the affliction; ſighs may exhauſt the man, but not *eject* the burthen. *South.*

Infernal lightning ſallies from his throat!
Ejected ſparks upon the billows float!
The heart, as ſaid, from its contracted cave,
On the left ſide *ejects* the bounding wave. *Blackmore.*

To throw out or expel from an office or poſſeſſion:

It was the force of conqueſt; force with force
Is well *ejected*, when the conquer'd can. *Milton.*

To expel; to drive away; to diſmiſs with hatred:

We are peremptory to diſpatch
This viperous traitor; to *eject* him hence. *Shakeſpeare.*

To caſt away; to reject.—Will any man ſay, that if the words whoring and drinking were by parliament *ejected* out of the Engliſh tongue, we ſhould all awake next morning chaſte and temperate. *Swift.*

EJEC'TION, *ſ.* [*ejectio*, Lat.] The act of caſting out; expulſion.—Theſe ſtories are founded on the *ejection* of the fallen angels from heaven. *Broome.*—[In phyſic.] The diſcharge of any thing by vomit, ſtool, or any other emunctory. *Quincy.*

EJEC'TION, *ſ.* in Scots law, the proceſs of turning out the poſſeſſor of any heritable ſubject, by force.

EJECTIO'NE CUSTO'DIÆ, *ſ.* [*ejectment de garde*, Fr.] A writ which lies againſt him that caſteth out the guardian from any land during the minority of the heir. *Reg. Orig.* 162. There are two other writs not unlike this; the one termed *raviſhment de gard*, and the other *droit de gard*. See the article GUARDIAN.

EJECT'MENT, *ſ.* in law, an action by which a perſon ouſted or amoved from the poſſeſſion of an eſtate for years, may recover that poſſeſſion; which action is now uſed as the general mode of trying diſputed titles to lands and tenements. A writ of *ejectione firmæ*, or action of treſpaſs in ejectment, lieth where lands or tenements are let for a term of years, and afterwards the leſſor, reverſioner, remainder-man, or any ſtranger, doth eject or ouſt the leſſee of his term. In this caſe he ſhall have his writ of ejection or ejectment, to call the defendant to anſwer for entering on the lands ſo demiſed to the plaintiff for a term that is not yet expired, and ejecting him. And by this writ the plaintiff ſhall recover back his term, or the remainder of it, with damages.

Since the diſuſe of real actions, this mixt proceeding is become the common method of trying the title to lands or tenements. The writ of covenant, for breach of the contract contained in the leaſe for years, was anciently the only ſpecific remedy for recovering againſt the leſſor a term from which he had ejected his leſſee, together with damages for the ouſter. But if the leſſee was ejected by a ſtranger claiming under a title ſuperior to that of the leſſor, or by a grantor of the reverſion, (who might at any time, by a common recovery, have deſtroyed the term,) though the leſſee might ſtill maintain an action of covenant againſt the leſſor, for non-performance of his contract or leaſe, yet he could not by any means recover the term itſelf. *F. N. B.* 145. If the ouſter was committed by a mere ſtranger, without any title to the land, the leſſor might, indeed, by a real action, recover poſſeſſion of the freehold, but the leſſee had no other remedy againſt the ejector but in damages, by a writ of *ejectione firmæ*, for the treſpaſs committed in ejecting him from his farm. But afterwards, when the courts of equity began to oblige the ejector to make a ſpecific reſtitution of the land to the party immediately injured, the courts of law alſo adopted the ſame method of doing complete juſtice; and, in the proſecution of a writ of ejectment, introduced a ſpecies of remedy not warranted by the original writ, nor prayed by the declaration; viz. a judgment to recover the term, and a writ of poſſeſſion thereupon. This method ſeems to have been ſettled as early as the reign of Edward IV. though it hath been ſaid to have firſt begun under Henry VII. becauſe it probably was then firſt applied to its preſent principal uſe, that of trying the title of the land. *Bro. Ab. F. N. B.* 220.

This remedy by ejectment is, in its origin, an action brought by one who hath a leaſe for years, to repair the injury done him by diſpoſſeſſion. In order, therefore, to convert it into a method of trying titles to the freehold, it is firſt neceſſary that the claimant do take poſſeſſion of the lands, to empower him to conſtitute a leſſee for years, that may be capable of receiving this injury of diſpoſſeſſion. For it would be an offence, called in our law *maintenance*, to convey a title to another, when the grantor is not in poſſeſſion of the land; and, indeed, it was doubted at firſt, whether this occaſional poſſeſſion, taken merely for the purpoſe of conveying the title, excuſed the leſſor from the legal guilt of maintenance. 1 *Ch. Rep. Ap.* 39. When, therefore, a perſon, who hath a right of entry into lands, determines to acquire that poſſeſſion, which is wrongfully withheld by the preſent tenant, he makes (as by law he may) a formal entry on the premiſes, and being ſo in the poſſeſſion of the ſoil, he there, upon the land, ſeals and delivers a leaſe for years to ſome third perſon or leſſee; and, having thus given him entry, leaves him in poſſeſſion of the premiſes. This leſſee is to ſtay upon the land, till the prior tenant, or he who had the previous poſſeſſion, enters thereon a-freſh and ouſts him; or till ſome other perſon (either by accident or by agreement beforehand) comes upon the land, and turns him out, or ejects him. For this injury the leſſee is entitled to his action of ejectment againſt the tenant; or his caſual ejector, whichever it was that ouſted him, to recover back his term and damages. But where this action is brought againſt ſuch a caſual ejector as is before mentioned, and not againſt the very tenant in poſſeſſion, the court will not ſuffer the tenant to loſe his poſſeſſion without an opportunity to defend it. Wherefore it is a ſtanding rule, that no plaintiff ſhall proceed in ejectment to recover lands againſt a caſual ejector, without notice given to the tenant in poſſeſſion, (if any there be,) and making him a defendant if he pleaſes. And, in order to maintain the action, the plaintiff muſt, in caſe of any defence, make out four points before the court; viz. title, leaſe, entry,

and ouſter. Firſt, he muſt ſhew a good title in his leſſor, which brings the matter of right entirely before the court; then, that the leſſor, being feiſed or poſſeſſed by virtue of ſuch title, did make him the leaſe for the preſent term; thirdly, that he, the leſſee, or plaintiff, did enter or take poſſeſſion in conſequence of ſuch leaſe; and, laſtly, that the defendant ouſted or ejected him. Whereupon he ſhall have judgment to recover his term and damages; and ſhall in conſequence have a writ of poſſeſſion, which the ſheriff is to execute, by delivering him the undiſturbed and peaceable poſſeſſion of his term.

This is the regular method of bringing an action of ejectment, in which the title of the leſſor comes collaterally and incidentally before the court, in order to ſhew the injury done to the leſſee by this ouſter. This method muſt be ſtill continued in due form and ſtrictneſs, (ſave only as to the notice to the tenant,) whenever the poſſeſſion is vacant, or there is no actual occupant of the premiſes; and alſo in ſome other caſes. But, as much trouble and formality were found to attend the actual making of the leaſe, entry, and ouſter, a new and more eaſy method of trying titles by writ of ejectment, where there is any actual tenant or occupier of the premiſes in diſpute, was invented by the lord chief juſtice Rolle. *Styl. Pract. Reg.* 108. This new method entirely depends upon a ſtring of legal fictions; no actual leaſe is made, no actual entry by the plaintiff, no actual ouſter by the defendant, but all are merely ideal, for the ſole purpoſe of trying the title. To this end, in the proceedings, a leaſe for a term of years is ſtated to have been made, by him who claims title, to the plaintiff who brings the action; as, by John Rogers to Richard Smith, which plaintiff ought to be ſome real perſon, and not merely an ideal fictitious one who hath no exiſtenee, as is frequently, though unwarrantably, practiſed. *6 Mod.* 309. It is alſo ſtated that Smith the leſſee entered; and that the defendant, William Stiles, who is called the caſual ejector, ouſted him; for which ouſter he brings this action. As ſoon as this action is brought, and the complaint fully ſtated in the declaration, Stiles, the caſual ejector, or defendant, ſends a written notice to the tenant in poſſeſſion of the lands, *e. g.* George Saunders, informing him of the action brought by Smith, and tranſmitting him a copy of the declaration; withal aſſuring him that he, Stiles, the defendant, has no title at all to the premiſes, and ſhall make no defence; and therefore adviſing the tenant to appear in court and defend his own title; otherwiſe he, the caſual ejector, will ſuffer judgment to be had againſt him; and thereby the actual tenant, Saunders, will inevitably be turned out of poſſeſſion. On receipt of this caution, if the tenant in poſſeſſion does not within a limited time apply to the court to be admitted a defendant in the ſtead of Stiles, he is ſuppoſed to have no right at all; and, upon judgment being had againſt Stiles, the caſual ejector, Saunders, the real tenant, will be turned out of poſſeſſion by the ſheriff.

But, if the tenant in poſſeſſion applies to be made a defendant, it is allowed him upon this condition, that he enter into a rule of court to confeſs, at the trial of the cauſe, three of the four requiſites for the maintenance of the plaintiff's action; viz. the leaſe of Rogers the leſſor, the entry of Smith the plaintiff, and his ouſter by Saunders himſelf, now made the defendant inſtead of Stiles; which requiſites being wholly fictitious, ſhould the defendant put the plaintiff to prove them, he muſt of courſe be non-ſuited for want of evidenee; but, by ſuch ſtipulated confeſſion of leaſe, entry, and ouſter, the trial will now ſtand upon the merits of the title only. This done, the declaration is altered by inſerting the name of George Saunders (the tenant) inſtead of William Stiles; and the cauſe goes down to trial under the name of Smith, (the plaintiff,) on the demiſe of Rogers (the leſſor) againſt Saunders the now defendant. And herein the leſſor of the plaintiff is bound to make out a clear title, otherwiſe his fictitious leſſee cannot obtain judgment to have poſſeſſion of the land for the term ſuppoſed to be granted. But, if the leſſor makes out his title in a ſatisfactory manner, then judgment and a writ of poſſeſſion ſhall go for Smith, the nominal plaintiff, who, by this trial, has proved the right of Rogers, his ſuppoſed leſſor.

Yet, to prevent fraudulent recoveries of the poſſeſſion, by colluſion with the tenant of the land, all tenants are obliged by 11 Geo. II. c. 19. on pain of forfeiting three years rent, to give notice to their landlords, when they are ſerved with any declaration in ejectment: and any landlord may, by leave of the court, be made a co-defendant to the action, in caſe the tenant himſelf appears to it, or, if he makes default, though judgment muſt be then ſigned againſt the caſual ejector, yet execution ſhall be ſtayed, in caſe the landlord applies to be made a defendant, and enters into the common rule; a right which indeed the landlord had, long before the proviſion of this ſtatute. (*Salk.* 257. *Burr.* 1301.) in like manner as (previous to the ſtatute of Weſtminſter, 2. c. 3.) if in a real action the tenant of the freehold made default, the remainder-man, or reverſioner, had a right to come in and defend the poſſeſſion, leſt, if judgment were had againſt the tenant, the eſtate of thoſe behind ſhould be turned to a naked right. *Bract. lib.* 5. c. 10. But a tenant to a mortgagor who does not give him notice of an ejectment brought by the mortgagee to enforce an attornment, is not liable to the penalties of 11 Geo. II.

In ejectment for a chapel, the parſon can only defend for a right to enter and perform divine ſervice. *Str.* 914. Notwithſtanding 1 *Salk.* 250, no man is to be admitted tenant or defendant in ejectment by the common rule, unleſs he hath been in poſſeſſion or received rent, and not a mere ſtranger. *Comb.* 209. He who claims title, ſhall be joined as a defendant though the plaintiff oppoſes it. 1 *Salk.* 256. And therefore even the wife of the leſſor. 257. The court permitted an heir who had never been in poſſeſſion, to come in and defend the ejectment. The father under whom he claimed, died juſt after having firſt obtained a ſimilar rule. 4 *Term Rep.* 122. So a mortgagee. *Comberb.* 399.

But if the new defendants, whether landlord, or tenant, or both, after entering into the common rule, fail to appear at the trial, and to confeſs leaſe, entry, and ouſter, the plaintiff Smith muſt indeed be there nonſuited, for want of proving thoſe requiſites; but judgment will in the end be entered againſt the caſual ejector Stiles; for the condition on which Saunders, the tenant, or his landlord, was admitted a defendant, is broken, and therefore the plaintiff is put again in the ſame ſituation as if he never had appeared at all, the conſequence of which would have been that judgment would have been entered for the plaintiff, and the ſheriff, by virtue of a writ for that purpoſe, would have turned out the tenant Saunders, and delivered poſſeſſion to Smith the plaintiff. The ſame proceſs therefore as would have been had, provided no conditional rule had ever been made, muſt now be purſued as ſoon as the condition is broken.

The damages recovered in theſe actions, though formerly their only intent, are now uſually (ſince the title has been conſidered as the principal queſtion) merely nominal, as *one ſhilling*. In order therefore to complete the remedy, when the poſſeſſion has been long detained from him that had the right to it, an action of treſpaſs alſo lies, after a recovery in ejectment, to recover the meſne profits which the tenant in poſſeſſion has wrongfully received. Which action may be brought in the name of either the nominal plaintiff in the ejectment, or his leſſor, againſt the tenant in poſſeſſion: whether he be made party to the ejectment, or ſuffers judgment to go by default. In this caſe the judgment in ejectment is concluſive evidenee againſt the defendant, for all profits which have accrued ſince the date of the demiſe ſtated in the former declaration of the plaintiff; but if the plaintiff ſues for any anteeedent profits, the defendant may make a new defence. 4 *Burr.* 668.

Such

Such is the modern way of obliquely bringing in queſtion the title to lands and tenements, in order to try it in this collateral manner; a method which is now univerſally adopted in almoſt every caſe. It is founded on the ſame principles as the ancient writs of aſſize, being calculated to try the mere poſſeſſory title to an eſtate; and hath ſucceeded to thoſe real actions, as being infinitely more convenient for attaining the ends of juſtice, becauſe the form of the proceeding being entirely fictitious, it is wholly in the power of the court to direct the application of that fiction, ſo as to prevent fraud and chicane, and eviſcerate the very truth of the title. The writ of ejectment and its nominal parties (as was reſolved by all the judges) are judicially to be conſidered as the fictitious form of an action, really brought by the leſſor of the plaintiff againſt the tenant in poſſeſſion, invented, under the controul and power of the court, for the advancement of juſtice in many reſpects, and to force the parties to go to trial on the merits, without being entangled in the nicety of pleadings on either ſide.

But a writ of ejectment is not an adequate means to try the title of all eſtates, for on thoſe things, whereon an entry cannot in fact be made, no entry ſhall be ſuppoſed by any fiction of the parties. Therefore an ejectment will not lie of an advowſon, a rent, a common, or other incorporeal hereditaments. *Brownl.* 129. Except for tithes in the hands of lay appropriators, by the expreſs purview of 32 Hen. VIII. c. 7. which doctrine hath ſince been extended by analogy to tithes in the hands of the clergy. 2 *Ld. Raym.* 789. Nor will it lie in ſuch caſes, where the entry of him that hath right is taken away by deſcent, diſcontinuance, twenty years diſpoſſeſſion, or otherwiſe.

Ejectment ought to be brought for a thing that is certain; and if it be of a manor, the manor of A. with the appurtenances; if of a rectory, the rectory of B. &c. And ſo many meſſuages, cottages, acres of arable land, meadow, with the appurtenances in the pariſh of, &c. Ejectment lies of a church, as of an houſe called the pariſh church of, &c. And a church is a meſſuage, by which name it may be recovered; and the declaration is to be ſerved on the parſon who performs divine ſervice. 11 *Rep.* 25. 1 *Salk.* 256. It lies *de uno meſſuagio ſive burgagio*; but not *de uno meſſuagio ſive tenemento*, unleſs it have a *vocat'* A. &c. to make it good, becauſe of the uncertainty of the word tenement. 1 *Sid.* 295. But for a meſſuage *and* tenement hath been allowed. 1 *Term Rep.* 11. So indeed for a meſſuage *or* tenement. 3 *Wilſ.* 23. It will lie for a moiety, or third part of a manor or meſſuage, &c. And for a chamber or room of a houſe well ſet forth. 3 *Leon.* 210. It lieth *de domo*, which hath convenient certainty for the ſheriff to deliver poſſeſſion, &c. *Cro. Jac.* 654. It lies of a cottage or curtilage; of a coal-mine, &c. but not of a common, piſcary, &c. *Cro. Jac.* 150. For underwood it lies, though a *præcipe* doth not. 2 *Roll. Rep.* 482. But for *uno clauſo*, or *una pecia terræ*, &c. without certainty of the acres, and their nature, it doth not lie. 4 *Mod.* 1. It lieth of a cloſe, containing three acres of paſture, &c. Alſo of ſo many acres of land covered with water; though not *de aquæ curſu*. 1 *Brownl.* 242. It lies for a prebendal ſtall, after collation to it. 1 *Wilſ.* 14.

In this action the law requires, that the thing demanded be ſo particularly ſpecified, that the ſheriff may certainly know what to give the poſſeſſion of, if the plaintiff ſhould recover; for the judgment is in order to execution; and the judgment would be vain, if execution could not be had of the thing ſpecifically demanded; but in this action the judges did not confine themſelves to thoſe rules which govern the *præcipe*, but allowed ſome things to be recovered in this action, which could not be demanded in a *præcipe*; becauſe, ſince the eſtabliſhment of that real action, many things have been added and improved by art, and acquired new appellations that are perfectly underſtood now by the law, which are not found in the ancient law books; and as men began to contract by new names which were not known in the old law, ſo it was reaſonable to ſuffer the remedy to follow the nature of ſuch contracts. 2 *Ld. Raym.* 1470. 1 *Burr.* 629.

An ejectment is a poſſeſſory remedy, and only competent where the leſſor of the plaintiff may enter; therefore it is always neceſſary for the plaintiff to ſhew that his leſſor had a right to enter, by proving a poſſeſſion within twenty years, or accounting for the want of it, under ſome exceptions allowed by the ſtatute; twenty years' adverſe poſſeſſion, is a poſitive title to the defendant; it is not a bar to the action or remedy for the plaintiff only, but takes away his right of poſſeſſion. 1 *Burr.* 119. Every plaintiff muſt ſhew a right of poſſeſſion, as well as of property, and therefore the defendant needs not plead the ſtatute, as in the caſe of actions.

A judgment in ejectment is the recovery of the poſſeſſion, (not of the ſeiſin or freehold;) without prejudice to the right, as it may afterwards appear between the parties. He who enters under it in truth and ſubſtance, can only be poſſeſſed according to right, *prout lex poſtulat.* If the leſſor have a freehold, he is in as a freeholder: if he has a chattel intereſt he is in as a termor; and in reſpect of the freehold, his poſſeſſion enures according to right. If he has no title, he is in as a treſpaſſer; and, without any re-entry by the true owner, is liable to account for the profits. 1 *Burr.* 114.

This action of ejectment is rendered a very eaſy and expeditious remedy to landlords *whoſe tenants are in arrear*, by 4 Geo. II. c. 28, which enacts that every landlord, who hath by his leaſe a right of re-entry in caſe of nonpayment of rent, when half a year's rent is due, and no ſufficient diſtreſs is to be had, may ſerve a declaration in ejectment on his tenant, or fix the ſame upon ſome notorious part of the premiſes, which will be valid, without any formal re-entry or previous demand of rent. And a recovery in ſuch ejectment ſhall be final and concluſive, both in law and equity, unleſs the rent and all coſts be paid or tendered within ſix calendar months afterwards. The true conſtruction upon this act is, to take off the landlord the inconvenience of his continuing always liable to an uncertainty of poſſeſſion; (from its remaining in the power of the tenant to offer him a compenſation at any time, in order to found an application for relief in equity;) and to limit and to confine the tenant to ſix calendar months after execution granted, for his doing this; or elſe that the landlord ſhall from thenceforth hold the demiſed premiſes diſcharged from the leaſe. 1 *Burr.* 619. As to the proviſion of 11 Geo. II. c. 19. in caſes of tenants at rack-rent being one year in arrear and deſerting the premiſes, two juſtices of peace may in this caſe put the landlord in poſſeſſion. See the article RENT.

Where an ejectment is brought againſt a tenant, for the purpoſe of turning him out of his houſe, farm, &c. and the tenant actually holds the premiſes of the leſſor of the plaintiff, it is ſometimes neceſſary to give him notice to quit poſſeſſion, in order to maintain an ejectment. Here we may obſerve, that demiſes, where no certain term is mentioned, are held to be tenancies from year to year, which neither party can determine, without reaſonable notice to the other. This notice is, in moſt counties, ſix months; and it muſt, in all ſuch caſes, expire at that part of the year when the tenancy commenced; and therefore it hath been holden, that half a year's notice to quit poſſeſſion muſt be given to ſuch tenant, before the end of which time the landlord cannot maintain an ejectment; unleſs the tenant has attorned to ſome other perſon, or done ſome act diſclaiming to hold as tenant; in which caſe no notice is neceſſary. And the ſame law will apply to the executor of ſuch a tenant. 3 *Wilſ.* 25. 1 *Term Rep.* 160. But after the expiration of a leaſe for a certain term, the tenant continuing in poſſeſſion is deemed a treſpaſſer; and therefore an ejectment which is an action of treſpaſs may be brought without any notice to quit.

Where there is a tenant in poſſeſſion, in order to proceed againſt him, prepare a declaration, the copy of which,

which, upon ſtamp, you ſerve the tenant with: if there be more than one tenant, each muſt be ſerved with a copy; but if the man is not at home, his wife will do, provided ſhe be ſerved on the premiſes, and ſo ſworn to; this is neceſſary both in town and country cauſes. At the time of ſervice, in all caſes it is requiſite to read over or explain the notice at the foot of the declaration to the perſon ſerved. The tenant's ſon, daughter, or ſervant, he being out of the way, muſt not be ſerved, unleſs it appear to the court, that ſuch declaration and notice came to his hands, in which caſe it has been held a good delivery; but if the tenant purpoſely keep out of the way to avoid being ſerved, the court on affidavit will grant a rule to ſhew cauſe why that ſhould not be deemed good ſervice. The declaration muſt be ſerved before the eſſoign-day of every term, either in town or country, and the notice muſt be made to appear in the next term after delivery: but the delivery on a Sunday, or on the eſſoign-day of that term wherein the defendant is to appear, will not do.

In ejectment, where there are divers defendants, and the freeholds are ſeveral, no defendant may defend for more than is in his own poſſeſſion; and the plaintiff may take judgment againſt his ejector for what remains. 1 *Vent.* 355. If there be two defendants in ejectment, and one of them appears and confeſſes leaſe, entry, and ouſter, but the other does not appear, in that caſe the plaintiff may enter a *non-pros* or *retraxit* againſt him, and go to trial, and have judgment againſt the other defendant. 1 *Lord Raym.* 717. Alſo if an ejectment be brought againſt two perſons, and after iſſue joined, one dies, and a *venire* is awarded as to the two defendants, and a verdict againſt two; here, upon ſuggeſtion of the death of one of them upon the roll, judgment ſhall be given for the plaintiff againſt the other for the whole: for it is ſaid this action is grounded upon torts, which are ſeveral in their nature, and one may be found guilty and the other acquitted.

As the plaintiff in ejectment is a mere nominal perſon, and a truſtee for the leſſor; if he releaſe the action, the court may ſet aſide the releaſe, and he ſhall be committed for a contempt; ſo likewiſe if he releaſe an action brought in his name for the meſne profits. 1 *Salk.* 260. If a man is made plaintiff in ejectment without his knowledge, and the defendant appearing, the plaintiff thereupon becomes nonſuit, after which execution is ſued out againſt him; if it appears by his oath that he was made plaintiff without his knowledge, or order, he ſhall be diſcharged. 1 *Lil.* 500.

If there be a verdict and judgment againſt the plaintiff, he may bring another action of treſpaſs and ejectment for the land, it being only to recover the poſſeſſion, &c. wherein judgment is never final; for it is not like a writ of right, &c. where the title alone is tried. *Wood's Inſt.* 547. The reaſon why an ejectment is not or cannot be *final*, ſeems to be this. That it is impoſſible from the ſtructure of the record in this action, to plead a former, in bar of another, ejectment brought. Becauſe, 1. The plaintiff and defendant are nominal, and exiſt in moſt caſes on record only; and conſequently may be changed in a new action. But the identity both of plaintiff and defendant muſt be averred in pleading a former action in bar. 2. The term demiſed may be laid many different ways. An ejectment however, though in its nature not *final at law*, is capable of being made ſo in *equity*: and the court of chancery will on proper grounds grant a perpetual injunction; and not permit the poſſeſſion of lands to be diſturbed by a vain inceſſant litigation of the ſame queſtion. See 2 *Eq. Ab.* 171. c. 1. 1 *Bro. P. C.* 266. 2 *Stra.* 404.

EIF'FEL, a ſmall country of Germany, ſituated between the duchy of Juliers, the electorate of Treves, the duchy of Luxemburg, and the electorate of Cologne. It belongs to the duke of Arenberg, and ſeveral other princes.

EI'GALACH, a ſmall Ruſſian iſland, in the Erozen Sea. Lat. 78. 25. N. lon. 133. E. Ferro.

EIGH, *interj.* An expreſſion of ſudden delight.

EIGHT, *adj.* [eahta, Sax. *ahta*, Goth. *acht*, Scot.] Twice four. A word of number.—This iſland contains *eight* ſcore and *eight* miles in circuit. *Sandy.*

EIGHT, *ſ.* [more properly EYOTT, which ſee.] A little iſland.—Some do alſo plant oſiers on their *eights*, like quickſetts. *Evelyn.*

EIGHT AL'NEY, a little iſland in Glouceſterſhire, where Edmund king of England, and Canutus king of the Danes, in a ſingle combat tried their right to the kingdom.

EIGHTH, *adj.* Next in order to the ſeventh; the ordinal of eight.—In the *eighth* month ſhould be the reign of Saturn. *Bacon.*

I ſtay reluctant ſeven continued years,
And water her ambroſial couch with tears;
The *eighth* ſhe voluntary moves to part,
Or urg'd by Jove, or her own changeful heart. *Pope.*

EIGHTEE'N, *adj.* Twice nine.—If men naturally lived but twenty years, we ſhould be ſatisfied if they died about *eighteen*; and yet *eighteen* years now are as long as *eighteen* years would be then. *Taylor.*

EIGHTEEN'TH, *adj.* The next in order to the ſeventeenth; twice ninth.—In the *eighteenth* year of Jeroboam died Abijam. 1 *Kings.*

EIGHT'FOLD, *adj.* Eight times the number or quantity.

EIGHTH'LY, *adv.* In the eighth place.—*Eighthly*, living creatures have voluntary motion, which plants have not. *Bacon.*

EIGH'TIETH, *adj.* The next in order to the ſeventy-ninth; eighth tenth.—Some balances are ſo exact as to be ſenſibly turned with the *eightieth* part of a grain. *Wilkins.*

EIGHT'SCORE, *adj.* Eight times twenty; an hundred and ſixty:

What! keep a week away? ſeven days and nights?
Eightſcore eight hours? and lovers' abſent hours,
More tedious than the dial *eightſcore* times?
Oh weary reckoning! *Shakeſpeare.*

EIGH'TY, *adj.* Eight times ten; fourſcore:

Eighty odd years of ſorrow have I ſeen,
And each hour's joy wreck'd with a week of teen. *Shakeſp.*

EIGNE, *adj.* [*aiſne*, Fr.] In law denotes the eldeſt or firſt born. Here it ſignifies unalienable, as being entailed.—It happeneth not ſeldom, that, to avoid the yearly oath, for averment of the continuance of ſome eſtate for life, which is *eigne*, and not ſubject to forfeiture for the alienation that cometh after it, the party will offer to ſue for a pardon uncompelled before the time; in all which, ſome mitigation of the uttermoſt value may well and worthily be offered. *Bacon.*

EILD, *ſ.* [eld, Sax.] Age in its general meaning:

His crown, and me (poor orphan) left alone
My uncle govern'd in my tender *eild*. *Fairfax.*

EILE'MA, *ſ.* [from ειλεω, to involve.] A painful twiſting of the inteſtines, from flatulence. Alſo a membrane or covering.

EI'LENBURG, or EULENBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Leipſic: twelve miles north-eaſt of Leipſic; thirty-ſix miles weſt-north-weſt of Meiſſen.

EIME'O, or EIMEEO, one of the Society iſlands, in the South Pacific Ocean; almoſt wholly ſurrounded with rocks: four leagues weſt from the north-weſt part of Otaheita.

EI'MONT, a river of England, which runs into the Eden a little below Penrith.

EI'NABI, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-ſix miles north of Degnizlu.

EIN'BECK, or EIMBECK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Grubenhagen, on the Ilmen, encloſed with walls, and defended with redoubts,

doubts, towers, &c. and containing 830 houſes. It is the chief manufacturing town in the whole principality: thirty miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Hildeſheim, and forty-eight miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Brunſwick.

EIN'FIDEL, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Pilſen: eight miles weſt of Teuſing.

EINIEH', a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: forty-four miles ſouth-weſt of Artaki.

EINSID'LEN, a town and abbey of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Schweitz: fifteen miles eaſt of Zug.

EIN'VILLE AU JARD, a town of France, in the department of the Meurte, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Luneville: four leagues eaſt of Nancy, and one and a half north of Luneville.

EI'SEL, *ſ.* [eoſil, Sax.] Vinegar; verjuice; any acid. *An old word:*

Caſt in thy mind
How thou reſembleſt Chriſt, as with ſowre poiſon,
If thou paine thy taſte; remember therewithall,
How Chriſt for thee taſted *eiſel* and gall. *Sir T. More.*

EI'SENACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and capital of a principality of the ſame name, in the circle of Thuringia, on the Neſſe, where the repreſentatives of the ſtate aſſemble. It has a college, a ſeminary for divinity, and an orphan houſe: forty miles eaſt of Weimar, and twenty-ſix weſt-ſouth-weſt of Erfurt. Lat. 50. 46. N. lon. 27. 57. E. Ferro.

EI'SENACH, a principality of Germany, in Thuringia, and circle of Upper Saxony, ſituated on the confines of Heſſe. It is mountainous, and hardly produces corn enough for the inhabitants. Some wine is made, but of a very indifferent ſort. It has ſome mines of copper, iron, vitriol, and alum, with ſome ſalt ſprings. It gives a vote to the duke of Saxe-Weimar, in the diets and aſſemblies of the circle. The tax is fifty-eight rixdollars and ſeventeen kruitzers. Eiſenach is the capital.

EI'SENBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Waldeck, with a caſtle: three miles ſouth-weſt of Corbach.

EI'SENBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and marggraviate of Meiſſen: eight miles north of Dreſden.

EI'SENBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Saxe-Gotha: twenty miles weſt of Altenburg, and thirty ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Leipſic.

EI'SENHARTZ, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria; enriched by iron mines diſcovered in 712: ten miles north of Leoben.

EI'SENSTADT, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigingratz: three miles north-north-eaſt of Gitſchin.

EI'SENSTADT, a town of Hungary: eight miles north of Edenburg, and ſixteen ſouth of Vienna.

EIS'FELD, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and principality of Cobourg, on the Werra: eight miles eaſt of Hildburghauſen.

EIS'GARN, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles weſt-north-weſt of Bohmiſch Waidhofen.

EI'SKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Caucaſus, ſituated at the mouth of the river Eia, on the eaſt coaſt of the Sea of Azoph: fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Azoph. Lat. 46. 30. N. lon. 56. E. Ferro.

EI'SLEBEN, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Saxony, and county of Mansfeld; once the capital of a county of the ſame name. It contains three churches, and about 700 houſes. Martin Luther, the celebrated reformer, was born and died in this town: twelve miles eaſt of Mansfeld, and twelve weſt of Hall.

EISS, a village and barony of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia: ſix miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Aix-la-Chapelle.

EISS'DORF, or EYSZDORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, belonging to the biſhopric of Merſeburg: four miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Lutzen.

EI'THER, *pron.* [æg'ðer, Sax. *auther*, Scott.] Which ſoever of the two; whether one or the other:

So like in arms thoſe champions were,
As they had been a very pair;
So that a man would almoſt ſwear,
That *either* had been *either*. *Drayton.*

Each; both.—In the proceſs of natural beings, there ſeem ſome to be creatures placed, as it were, on the confines of ſeveral provinces, and participating ſomething of *either*. *Hale.*

Sev'n times the ſun has *either* tropic view'd,
The Winter baniſh'd, and the Spring renew'd. *Dryden.*

It is uſed ſometimes of more than two; any one of a certain number. Any of an indeterminate number, as in the following paſſage.—Henry VIII. Francis I. and Charles V. were ſo provident, as ſcarce a palm of ground could be gotten by *either* of the three, but that the other two would ſet the balance of Europe upright again. *Bacon.*

EI'THER, *adv.* A diſtributive adverb, anſwered by *or*; either the one *or*.—*Either* your brethren have miſerably deceived us, *or* power confers virtue. *Swift to Pope.*

What perils ſhall we find,
If *either* place, *or* time, *or* other courſe,
Cauſe us to alter th' order now aſſign'd? *Daniel.*

EI'THON, or YTHON, a river of Scotland, which runs into the German Sea: twenty-ſix miles north of Aberdeen.

EI'TIAT, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, and province of Tedla, defended with walls, and containing about 3000 inhabitants.

EJULA'TION, *ſ.* [*ejulatio*, Lat.] Outcry; lamentation; moaning: wailing.—Inſtead of hymns and praiſes, he breaks out into *ejulations* and effeminate wailings. *Government of the Tongue.*

With diſmal groans
And *ejulation*, in the pangs of death,
Some call for aid. *Philips.*

EJURA'TION, *ſ.* [Lat.] Renouncing or reſigning one's place. *Bailey.*

E'KA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland: eleven miles north of Wexio.

EKANFANO'KA. See OUAQUAPHENOGAW.

EKAN'GA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into th Frozen Sea, 140 miles eaſt of Kola.

EKAR'MA, one of the ſmaller Kurule iſlands, in the North Pacific Ocean. Lat. 49. 30. N. lon. 172. 15. E. Ferro.

EKAS'TROV, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Archangel: eighty miles ſouth of Kola.

EKA'TERINGBURG, a town of Ruſſia, and capital of a province of the ſame name, in the government of Perm: 148 miles ſouth-eaſt of Perm, and 960 eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg. Lat. 56. 45. N. lon. 78. E. Ferro.

EKA'TERINGBURG, a province of Ruſſia, in the government of Perm, about 360 miles long, and from 100 to 160 broad: the capital is of the ſame name.

EKATERININSKAI'A, a bay of the North Sea, in Ruſſian Lapland, near Kola. Lat. 68. 50. N. lon. 50. 10. E. Ferro.

EKATERINOGRAD', a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Caucaſus, on the Malva: 260 miles ſouth-eaſt of Azoph, and 1080 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg. Lat. 44. 15. N. lon. 61. 24. E. Ferro.

EKATERINOSLAV', a city of Ruſſia, and capital of a government of the ſame name: 164 miles north-eaſt of Otchakov, and 728 ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburg. Lat. 48. 15. N. lon. 52. 60. E. Ferro.

EKATERINOSLAV', a government of Ruſſia, bounded on the weſt by the dominions of Turkey, on the north-weſt by the government of Kiov, on the north by the government of Charkov, on the eaſt by the country of the

Cofacs, and on the fouth by the Black Sea; divided into two provinces, Ekaterinoflavfkoi and Taurida. This government contains the greateft part of that territory which was wreſted by the late empreſs from the Turks, and compriſes New Ruſſia, the former government of Azoph, and Crim Tartary.

EKATERINOSLAV'SKOI, a province of Ruſſia, in the government of Ekaterinoſlav, comprehending what has formerly been called *Budziac Tartary*, and the *Ukraine*, now a part of the government of Ekaterinoſlav.

EKE, *adv.* [eac, Sax. *ook*, Dut.] Alſo; likewiſe; beſide; moreover:

If any ſtrength we have, it is to ill;
But all the good is God's, both power and *eke* will. *Spenſer.*

To EKE, *v. a.* [eacan, Sax.] To increaſe:

The little ſtrength that I have, I would it were with you.
—And mine to *eke* out her's. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſupply; to fill up deficiencies:

Your ornaments hung all,
On ſome parch'd dog-hole *ek'd* with ends of wall. *Pope.*

To protract; to lengthen:

I ſpeak too long; but 'tis to piece the time,
To *eke* it, and to draw it out in length,
To ſtay you from election. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſpin out by uſeleſs additions. [In this ſenſe it ſeems borrowed from the uſe of our old poets, who put *eke* into their lines when they wanted a ſyllable.]—Euſden *ekes* out Blackmore's endleſs line. *Pope.*

EKEBER'GIA, *ſ.* in botany, a genus of the claſs decandria, order monogynia, (monadelphia, *Retz.*) natural order of trihilatæ, (meliæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, bell-ſhaped, tomentoſe, four-parted; diviſions ovate, obtuſe. Corolla: petals four, oblong, obtuſe, tomentoſe on the outſide, a little longer than the calyx; nectary, a ring ſurrounding the baſe of the germ. Stamina: filaments ten, very ſhort, pubeſcent; antheræ ovate, acute, upright. Piſtillum: germ ſuperior; ſtyle cylindric, very ſhort; ſtigma capitate. Pericarpium: a globular berry. Seeds: five, oblong.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, four-parted; petals, four; nectary, like a garland ſurrounding the germ; berry containing five oblong ſeeds.

Ekebergia capenſis, a ſingle ſpecies; it is a tree, with abruptly or unequally pinnate leaves, the common petiole flatted; the flowers panicled and axillary.

EKEL'SBEKE, a town of France, in the department of the North, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Bergues: three leagues ſouth of Dunkirk.

EKE'NAS, a ſea-port town of Sweden, in the province of Nyland, on the north coaſt of the Gulf of Finland; the harbour is not good: fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Abo.

EKER'DER, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: ſixteen miles eaſt of Iſbarteh.

EKE'SIO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland: ſixty miles north-weſt of Calmar.

E'KIE, a town of Aſia, in Thibet: fifty-five miles ſouth of Toſon Hotun.

EK'KI TEK'KI, a town of Africa, in the country of Commendo.

EK'MIN. See ACHMIM.

EK'RAD, a town of Egypt: ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Monfalout.

E'KREBEL, the name of a place ſaid to be ſituated near Chuſi, upon the brook Mochmuz; where, in the days of Judith, part of the combined armies of the Edomites and Ammonites encamped. *Judith*, vii. 18.

E'KRON, [Heb. barrenneſs.] A province of the land of the Philiſtines, and one of the five lordſhips of that nation; *Joſh.* xiii. 3. alſo the name of its principal city. We find, by comparing Judges, i. 18. Joſhua, xv. 45. and xix. 43. that this province, together with its towns and villages, were conquered by, and reckoned with, the tribe of Judah, and the city of Ekron aſſigned to the tribe of Dan. Yet, notwithſtanding, in the days of Samuel, we again find it in the hands of the Philiſtines, and ſoon afterwards again ceded to the Iſraelites, 1 *Sam.* vii. 13. Here the ark of God, taken from the Iſraelites, was brought previous to its departure for Iſrael; and here alſo was the oracle of Baal-zebub, to which Ahaziah king of Iſrael ſent to enquire concerning his recovery. 2 *Kings*, i. In the valley of Ekron the children of Iſrael and the men of Judah took up arms, and purſued the Philiſtines to the gates of the city.

E'KRONITE, a native or an inhabitant of Ekron.

E'KSAS, a town of Egypt: twenty-one miles ſouth of Cairo.

E'KSENIDE, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: eighty-four miles ſouth of Degnizlu. Lat. 36. 27. N. lon. 46. 45. E. Ferro.

EL-A'RISH, a town of Syria, on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, ſituated about two miles from the ſea It was taken by the French army under Bonaparte, in 1799, who gave orders for it to be deſtroyed; and it is now in ruins. Dr. Wittman, who viſited this place in 1801, obſerved that the French had alſo cut down nearly the whole plantation of date-trees, which at once ornamented and enriched the ſpot, and produced food to the inhabitants. The Turkiſh ſhips of war, with an army deſtined for Egypt, were anchored off the port.

EL-BETH'EL, [Heb. the God of Bethel.] A name given by the patriarch Jacob to an altar erected by him in Bethel, on his ſecond viſit to that place. *Gen.* xxxv. 7.

EL-ELO'HE-ISRAEL, [Heb. God the God of Iſrael.] The name of an altar erected by the patriarch Jacob, at his firſt ſettlement in Canaan. *Gen.* xxxiii. 20.

EL-PA'RAN, or plain of Paran, ſituated in Arabia Petræa, near the wilderneſs of Paran. *Gen.* xiv. 6.

E'LA CAI'LI, *ſ.* in botany. See EUPHORBIA.

EL'ABACH, a river of Germany, which runs into the Elbe, near Konigſtein, in the marggraviate of Meiſſen.

To ELA'BORATE, *v. a.* [*elaboro*, Lat.] To produce with labour.—They in full joy *elaborate* a ſigh. *Young.*—To heighten and improve by ſucceſſive endeavours or operations.—The ſap is diverſified, and ſtill more *elaborated* and exalted, as it circulates through the veſſels of the plant. *Arbuthnot.*

ELA'BORATE, *adj.* [*elaboratus*, Lat.] Finiſhed with great diligence; performed with great labour.—Formalities of extraordinary zeal and piety are never more ſtudied and *elaborate* than when politicians moſt agitate deſperate deſigns. *King Charles.*

ELA'BORATELY, *adv.* Laboriouſly; diligently; with great ſtudy or labour.—Some coloured powders, which painters uſe, may have their colours a little changed by being very *elaborately* and finely ground. *Newton.*

ELABORA'TION, *ſ.* Improvement by ſucceſſive operations.—To what purpoſe is there ſuch an apparatus of veſſels for the *elaboration* of the ſperm and eggs; ſuch a tedious proceſs of generation and nutrition? *Ray.*

ELABU'GA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Viatka, on the Biclaia: 156 miles ſouth of Viatka.

To ELA'CERATE, *v. a.* [*elacerare*, Lat.] To tear in pieces. *Bailey.*

ELÆACH'NUS BURM. See ELÆAGNUS.

ELÆAG'NUS, *ſ.* [ελαιαγνος of Theophraſtus; from ελαια, the olive, and αγνος, chaſte; or a ſhrub ſo called from its ſuppoſed quality of preſerving chaſtity.] The OLEASTER; in botany, a genus of the claſs tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order elæagni, *Juſſ.* The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, four-cleft, ſuperior, ſtraight, bell-form, outwardly ſcabrous, inwardly coloured, deciduous. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments four, very ſhort, inſerted into the calyx below the diviſions; antheræ oblong, incumbent. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, inferior; ſtyle ſimple, a little

ſhorter than the calyx: ſtigma ſimple. Pericarpium: drupe ovate, obtuſe, ſmooth, with a dotted tip. Seed: not oblong, obtuſe.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, none; calyx, four-cleft, bell-form, ſuperior; drupe below the calyx.

Species. 1. Elæagnus auguſtifolia, or narrow-leaved oleaſter: leaves lanceolate.- A tree branching from the bottom, growing ſometimes to the height of three fathoms, with a trunk the thickneſs of a man's arm or thigh, elegant in its appearance, eſpecially from the ſilvery brightneſs of the leaves. Bark ſmooth, brown; wood pale, prettily veined with grey and brown, but not hard; branches and branchlets ſlender, frequent, alternate, ſmooth, unarmed, or having thorns, eſpecially in young trees; leaves petioled, in the more northern parts lanceolate, in the more ſouthern broader, rather obtuſe, and larger; ſilvery white underneath, on their upper ſurface hoary-greniſh, and ſhining very much. The flowers come out at the middle leaves of the ſmaller branches, uſually ſolitary or two together, ſometimes, but very ſeldom, three from each axil, in which caſe one or two are on ſhorter peduncles and barren, having no germ, though they have a ſtyle and antheræ. The diviſions of the calyx (or corolla) are four, very ſeldom five, never more in the wild plant, (others ſay from four to eight:) the antheræ are placed at the baſe of theſe, on very ſhort filaments; ſtyle the length of the calyx; drupe always ſolitary, oblong, hoary-white when young, thicker and yellowiſh when ripe, incloſing within a ſweet pulp a woody, grey, furrowed, nut. In the deſerts, near the Volga, the fruit is hardly bigger than the berries of the barberry; whereas, in the more ſouthern parts, it is the ſize of the cornelian cherry. Native of the ſouth of Europe, the Levant, near the Caſpian ſea, in the deſerts near the Volga, and the farther Tartarian deſert, and other parts of the Ruſſian empire in Aſia. It flowers there in May. It was cultivated by Parkinſon in 1633.

Mr. Miller diſtinguiſhes ſpecifically the thorny and unarmed narrow-leaved oleaſter. The latter, he ſays, is that which is moſt commonly preſerved in the Engliſh gardens. The leaves are more than four inches long, and not half an inch broad; they are very ſoft, and have a ſhining appearance like ſatin. The flowers come out at the footſtalks of the leaves, ſingly, or two, and frequently three, at the ſame place; the outſide of the calyx is ſilvery and ſtudded, the inſide of a pale yellow; it has a very ſtrong ſcent. The flowers appear in July, and ſometimes are ſucceeded by fruit. The *eſpinoſa*, or thorny elæagnus, he takes to be the common ſort, which grows naturally in Bohemia, and of which he ſaw ſome trees in the curious garden of the famous Boerhaave, near Leyden. The leaves of this are not more than two inches long, and about three quarters of an inch broad in the middle; they are white, and have a ſoft cottony down on their ſurface; at the footſtalk of every leaf comes out a pretty long ſharp thorn, the leaves being alternate, the ſpines come out on each ſide of the branches. The flowers are ſmall, and have a ſtrong ſcent when fully open. They were both obſerved by Tournefort in the Levant.

2. Elæagnus orientalis, or oriental oleaſter: leaves oblong, ovate, opake. This has the appearance of the foregoing, but the leaves are twice as broad, ovate-oblongiſh, ſoft to the touch on both ſides, pale underneath, but neither ſurface ſhining or ſilvery. In ſtature and manner of growth this tree reſembles a middle-ſized willow, as it does alſo in the hoarineſs of its leaves and the diviſion of its branches. In the wild ſpecimens from Perſia, ſharp ſtraight thorns are ſcattered variouſly over the branches; on the ſmaller twigs they are hoary all over and bear leaves; whereas the cultivated trees have no thorns. Flowers alternate, peduncled, ſolitary, extremely fragrant; calyx funnel-form, hoary on the outſide, the diviſions become reflex by age, and are obſcurely yellowiſh within. This and the ſpinoſa of Linnæus do no ſeem to differ any otherwiſe than a garden tree does from a wild one or the thorny variety of the foregoing ſpecies from the unarmed. Native of the mountains of Perſia from Caucaſus to Derbent, about the Caſpian ſea abundantly, and of the Levant.

3. Elæagnus latifolia, or broad-leaved oleaſter: leaves ovate. This riſes with a woody ſtem to the height of eight or nine feet, dividing into many branches. Leaves ſilvery, with ſeveral irregular dark-coloured ſpots; they are alternate, and continue all the year. Native of the Eaſt Indies and China. Mr. Miller ſays, that it is rare at preſent in the Engliſh gardens; but that there were ſeveral large plants of it in the royal garden at Hampton-court, ſome of which produced flowers.

4. Elæagnus criſpa, or curled-leaved oleaſter: leaves lanceolate-oblong, obtuſe, waved; flowers ſolitary. 5. Elæagnus multiflora, or many-flowered oleaſter: leaves obovate, obtuſe; flowers axillary, aggregate; peduncles longer than the flower. 6. Elæagnus umbellata, or umbelled oleaſter: leaves obovate, obtuſe; flowers axillary, aggregate; peduncles ſhorter than the flower. 7. Elæagnus glabra, or ſmooth-leaved oleaſter: leaves ovate-oblong, acuminate; flowers axillary, ſubſolitary. 8. Elæagnus macrophylla, or ſilver-leaved oleaſter: leaves rounded-ovate, ſilvery. 9. Elæagnus pungens, or prickly oleaſter: branchlets becoming thorns; leaves oblong, waved; flowers axillary, in pairs. Theſe ſix ſpecies are natives of Japan.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt ſort is extremely hardy, and is not injured by froſt; it is not, however, of very long duration; young plants, therefore, ſhould be raiſed once in three or four years, by ſeeds or layers. The ſecond requires the protection of a greenhouſe. The third ſort requires a warm ſtove to preſerve it in this country; for it is too tender to live in the open air, except for a ſhort time in the warmeſt part of the ſummer. It may be raiſed from ſeeds. The other ſpecies have not yet been introduced into cultivation in Europe.

ELÆ'GRUS. See ELÆAGNUS.

ELÆ'IS, *ſ.* [ſo named by Jacquin, from ελαια, the olive, on account of the oilineſs of the nuts.] In botany, a genus of palmæ; dioecia hexandria, (*Thunb.*) of the natural order of palms. The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: perianthium ſix-leaved; leaflets concave, upright. Corolla: one-petalled, ſix-cleft, upright, ſharp, length of the calyx. Stamina: filaments ſix, ſubulate, length of the corolla; antheræ oblong, ſharp. II. Female. Calyx: as in the male, (nine-leaved, with the inner leaflets longer, *Gærtner.*) Corolla: ſix-petalled, (none, unleſs a part of the calyx be conſidered as ſuch, *G.*) Piſtillum: germ ovate, (three-celled, *G.*) ſtyle thickiſh, (three-cornered, *G.*) ſtigmas three, reflex. Pericarpium: drupe fibrous, ovate, ſomewhat angulated, oily, (ſuperior, berried, one-celled, *G.*) Seed: nut ovate, obſcurely three-ſided with three holes, three-valved, (valveleſs, *G.*) one-celled.—*Eſſential Character.* Male. Calyx, ſix-leaved; corolla ſix-cleft; ſtamina, ſix. Female. Calyx, ſix-leaved, (nine-leaved, with the inner leaflets longer, *G.*) Corolla, ſix-petalled, (none, *G.*) ſtigmas three; drupe fibrous; nut one to three-valved, (valveleſs, *G.*)

Elæis guineenſis, a ſingle ſpecies. It is the palma oleoſa of Miller. Trunk erect, irregular from the ſtipes of the fronds, which continue a long time, and are longer the nearer they are to the frond. Fronds pinnate, with a rigid rib (or rachis) fifteen feet in length, for four feet below the leaflets armed at the edge on both ſides with awl-ſhaped ſpines, the uppermoſt hooked and bowed back, the middle ones ſtraight, the loweſt patulous, and twice as long as the reſt; leaflets ſword-ſhaped, acute, unarmed, folded back at the baſe, a foot and a half long, and an inch broad. After theſe have fallen, the rigid rib remains ſome time, and reſembles a ſpine. Spadix axillary, a foot long, much compreſſed, erect, divided into about fifty branchlets, five inches long, erect, the thickneſs of a finger, compactly ſpiked, imbricate, and irregularly diſpoſed, with triangular acuminate tips. The

branchlets, except the tip, are wholly covered with ſmall flowers, each having a ſmall roundiſh bracte at the baſe, the loweſt on each branchlet being much larger than the others with a lanceolate point. The flowers have a ſingular and very ſtrong ſmell, like aniſe-ſeeds mixed with chervil-leaves. Fruit larger than a pigeon's egg; the pericarpium variegated with yellow, black, and red, and ſo full of oil as to run out on being very ſlightly preſſed. Nut black, with longitudinal interrupted whitiſh ſtreaks. Mr. Miller ſays, that the leaflets are long, narrow, and not ſo ſtiff as moſt of the palms; that the foot-ſtalks of their leaves are broad at the baſe, where they embrace the ſtem, diminiſh gradually upwards, and are armed with ſtrong, blunt, yellowiſh, thorns, which are largeſt at their baſe. The flowers come out at the top of the ſtem among the leaves; ſome bunches have only male flowers, others female; the latter are ſucceeded by oval berries, bigger than the largeſt Spaniſh olives, but of the ſame ſhape; they grow in very large bunches, and when ripe are of a yellowiſh colour. From this fruit the inhabitants of the Weſt-India iſlands draw an oil, in the ſame manner as it is extracted from olives. They alſo extract a liquor from the body of the tree, which when fermented has a vinous quality, and will inebriate. The leaves are wrought by the negroes into mats, on which they repoſe. It is called in the Weſt Indies the *oily palm*, and by ſome *negroes oil*; the fruit of this tree having been firſt carried from Africa to America by the negroes. It grows in great plenty on the coaſt of Guinea, and alſo in the Cape de Verd iſlands, but was not in any of our American colonies, till it was carried there by the negroes, who now propagate it in great plenty. Jacquin alſo ſays that he has never ſeen this tree wild in America, and that the French call it *palmier*.

Gærtner has ſet down another elæis, which he names *melanococca*, from the blackneſs of the nuts. He thinks it may poſſibly be no more than a variety: the ſhell, however, is much ſmaller, and not ſo much bellied, but rather oblong, and ſuddenly contracted at the tip into an oblique dagger-point; it is alſo thinner, and elegantly variegated on the outſide with teſtaceous ſtreaks, irregularly confluent, with other alternate ſtreaks like the others, but of a coal black; when broken it appears of a ſooty black colour. The ſeed is ovate-oblong, and brown.

Jacquin alſo mentions another very thorny palm, which has ſomewhat of the ſame habit with elæis guineenſis, and is called in Martinico *grigri*. The fruit is eatable, of an acid flavour, globular, ſlightly depreſſed, acuminate by means of the ſtyle, ſcarlet and ſhining. The pulp is ſmall, red, ſoft, and not fibrous, ſurrounded by a very thin pellicle. Nut brown, with three obſcure holes, from which run lines in a ſtellate order like veins over the whole ſurface. Kernel cartilaginous, and hollow.

Another palm occurs about Carthagena, called by the natives *corozo*. They make both an oil and a butter of the fruit for domeſtic uſes. The pericarpium is ſhining, and yellow on the outſide, ſupported by a three-leaved calyx and a three-petalled corolla, permanent and ſhining; it is but little fibroſe, not thick, and contains a pleaſant oil. Its form is ovate, obſcurely three-cornered. Nut black, and ſhining, of the ſame form, with three obſcure holes at the baſe. Kernel roundiſh, cartilaginous, very hard, ſolid, with the center ſlightly cloven. Linnæus (in Mant.) refers to the third palm of Miller, which is the macaw-tree of the Weſt Indies. See BACTRIS and COCOS.

Propagation and Culture. It muſt conſtantly be kept in the bark ſtove, otherwiſe it will not make any great progreſs. In about twenty years it will be too tall for moſt of our ſtoves. It is propagated by ſeeds; for the ſowing and management of which, ſee PALMS and PHŒNIX.

ELÆOCAR'PUS, *ſ.* [from ελαια, olive, and καρπος, fruit.] In botany, a genus of the claſs polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of guttiferæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, ſpreading, permanent, five-parted; leaflets linear-lanceolate, concave, ſharp. Corolla: petals five, with claws; multifid-laciniate, the extreme jags capillary, equal, ſcarcely longer than the calyx, inſerted at the baſe of the nectary. Stamina: filaments twenty to thirty, capillary, very ſlender, ſhort, inſerted into the nectary; antheræ ſhorter than the corolla, upright, linear, ſcabrous, two-valved at the tip; valves ſpreading, with about five ciliate hairs, very ſlender, from reflex expanding, unequal. Piſtillum: germ ſomewhat globular, villoſe, ſitting on the nectary; ſtyle filiform, longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma ſharp. Pericarpium: drupe oblong, of a ſmooth even ſurface. Seed: nut oblong, grooved and tubercled; ſhell ſubtrivalvular; kernel ſubtrigonal.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, five-leaved (or one-leafed, five-parted); corolla, five-petalled, jagged; antheræ two-valved at the tip; drupe with a curled ſhell.

Species. 1. Elæocarpus ſerratus, or ſerrate-leaved elæocarpus: leaves alternate, lanceolate-elliptic, ſerrate; racemes axillary. Branches round, warted, ſmooth; leaves petioled, three inches long, bluntly-ſerrate, ſmooth, nerved, and veined; flowers diſtant. Linnæus obſerves, that they are ſimple, looſe, ſolitary, the length of the leaves, which have a double gland at their baſe. According to Retzius, the calyx has three, four, or five, ſharp-keeled diviſions; and the corolla has three petals, cut in tripartite diviſions; the ſtamens twenty-five, with anthers terminating in cirrhoſe threads, and the germ very tomentoſe. Linnæus affirms, that there are twenty ſtamens in the Ceyloneſe plant, eight in that from Java, and ſixteen in Burman's; who ſays, however, that there are ſixteen when there are four diviſions of the calyx, and twenty when there are five. The deſcription under *Dicera dentata* belongs to this ſpecies. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

2. Elæocarpus dentatus, or tooth-leaved elæocarpus: leaves alternate, oblong, tooth-ſerrate at top; racemes axillary; flowers one-ſtyled. Native of the iſlands of the South Seas. Theſe two ſpecies have been confounded.

3. Elæocarpus dicera, or dicera elæocarpus: leaves oppoſite, ovate, doubly-ſerrate; racemes compound; flowers four-ſtyled. According to Linnæus's Supplement, it correſponds with the preceding in the ſtructure of the flower; but it differs in having four ſtyles, a berried four-celled fruit, and two ſeeds in each cell. See DICERA SERRATA.

4. Elæocarpus copalliferus, or copal elæocarpus: leaves quite entire; panicle terminating. It yields the copal reſin, but of this there are ſeveral ſorts. It is thus deſcribed by Vahl: This is a lofty tree, with round branches, mealy-tomentoſe at the top, and ferruginous. Leaves petioled, alternate, half a foot long and more, lanceolate, acuminate, rounded at the baſe, almoſt three inches broad, ſubcoriaceous, ſmooth on both ſides, above very finely marked with lines along the nerves, and with more obſcure oblique lines between the nerves, beneath having protuberant alternate nerves. Vahl obſerves, that vateria of Linnæus agrees with elæocarpus in the calyx, corolla, anthers, and fruit; and that they are the ſame, appears from the ſpecimen in Herman's Herbarium. He does not find that the calyx is ſuperior, as Retzius affirms it to be. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

5. Elæocarpus integerrimus, or entire-leaved elæocarpus: leaves lanceolate, quite entire; flowers heaped, axillary. This is a middle-ſized tree, with ſpreading branches. Leaves ſmooth, petioled, alternate. Flowers many, golden, ſweet-ſmelling. Native of Cochin-china, where it is alſo cultivated on account of the ſweetneſs and beauty of the flowers.

6. Elæocarpus oblongus, or oblong elæocarpus. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

ELÆODEN'DRUM, *ſ.* [from ελαια, olive, and δενδρον, a tree.] The OLIVE-WOOD; in botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved; leaflets roundiſh, blunt, concave, ſpreading very much, ſmall, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundiſh, blunt, concave, ſpreading

ſpreading very much, twice as long as the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, ſubulate, bent back, ariſing from a gland beneath the germ; antheræ roundiſh, erect. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, conical, placed on a gland; ſtyle conical; ſtigma obtuſe, bifid. Pericarpium: drupe ovate, obtuſe. Seed: nut ovate; ſhell thick, and very hard; two-celled; kernels oblong, compreſſed.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla, five-petalled; drupe ovate, with a two-celled nut.

Species. 1. Elæodendrum orientale: a moderate ſized twiggy ſhrub or tree, a native of the oriental regions; with the leaves ovate-lanceolate, ſmooth, ſometimes ſlightly waved, and ſometimes even a little inclining to a ſubſerrated appearance on the upper parts of the ſhoots. Flowers borne towards the ends of the branches, ſtanding by twos and threes; of a pale green colour, ſupported on ſhortiſh pedicels, each of which ſprings from a ſomewhat longer common pedicel. The lower ſhoots, or thoſe neareſt the ground, appear to be ſomewhat procumbent, and have narrower and longer leaves in proportion than the upper ones; the nerves or midribs of theſe leaves are alſo of a reddiſh colour.

2. Elæodendrum argan: branches ſpiny; leaves ovate, obtuſe. This is a middle-ſized tree, with ſhort thickiſh ſpines at the ends of the branches. It is called *argan* by the Moors, who expreſs an oil from the fruit, which the Europeans uſe in a variety of works, and the Moors for the table. Native of the woods of Morocco, whence it was ſent to Retzius by profeſſor Schulten.

ELÆOM'ELI, *ſ.* with ancient phyſicians, a kind of ſweet oil of the conſiſtence of honey, ſaid to flow from the trunk of a tree in Syria, and to be very efficacious in bilious complaints.

ELÆOSAC'CHARUM, *ſ.* in pharmacy, a compoſition of oil and ſugar.

ELÆOTHE'SIUM, *ſ.* in antiquity, a room or place where the athletæ were wont to bathe and anoint themſelves.

E'LAH, [Heb. an oak.] A valley of Paleſtine, in the land of Judah, remarkable for a battle fought between the Iſraelites under king Saul, and the Philiſtines, in which the latter were vanquiſhed; and where David ſlew Goliah. 1 *Sam.* xviii. 19. xxi. 9.

ELAHA'JAN, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: 100 miles ſouth-eaſt of Amanzirifdin.

ELAIOCAR'POS. See ELÆOCARPUS and DICERA.

ELA'IS, *ſ.* in botany. See ELÆIS.

E'LAM, [עלם Heb. a young man.] The ancient name of Perſia, ſo named from Elam, eldeſt ſon of Shem, whoſe deſcendants, probably, firſt ſettled there. Chedorlaomer, king of this country, together with his confederates, were vanquiſhed by the patriarch Abraham, when they invaded Canaan. *Gen.* xiv. *Jer.* xlix. 34.

E'LAN, a town of Ruſſia, in the country of the Coſacs, on the Don: ſixty-eight miles ſouth-weſt of Archadinſkaia.

E'LAN, a town of South Wales, in the county of Brecknock.

To ELAN'CE, *v. a.* [*elancer*, Fr.] To throw out; to dart; to caſt as a dart:

Harſh words, that once *elanc'd*, muſt ever fly
Irrevocable. *Prior.*

ELAPHEBO'LIA, *ſ.* in Grecian antiquity, a feſtival in honour of Diana the huntreſs. In the celebration a cake was made in the form of a deer (ελαφος), and offered to the goddeſs. It owed its inſtitution to the following circumſtance: When the Phocians had been ſeverely beaten by the Theſſalians, they reſolved, by the perſuaſion of one Deiphantus, to raiſe a pile of combuſtible materials, and burn their wives, children, and effects, rather than ſubmit to the enemy. This reſolution was unanimouſly approved by the women, who decreed Deiphantus a crown for his magnanimity. When every thing was prepared, before they fired the pile, they engaged their enemies, and fought with ſuch deſperate fury, that they totally routed them, and obtained a complete victory. In commemoration of this unexpected ſucceſs, this feſtival was inſtituted to Diana, and obſerved with the greateſt ſolemnity.

ELAPHEBO'LIUM, *ſ.* in Grecian antiquity, the ninth month of the Athenian year, anſwering to the latter part of February and beginning of March. It conſiſted of thirty days; and took its name from the feſtival claphebolia, kept in this month, in honour of Diana the huntreſs, as mentioned in the preceding article.

ELA'PHRIUM, *ſ.* in botany. See FAGARA.

To ELAPIDATE, *v. a.* [*elapidare*, Lat.] To clear a place of ſtone.

ELAPIDA'TION, *ſ.* A clearing of ſtones.

To ELAP'SE, *v. n.* [*elapſus*, Lat.] To paſs away; to glide away; to run out without notice.—There is a docible ſeaſon, a learning-time in youth, which, ſuffered to *elapſe*, and no foundation laid, ſeldom returns. *Clariſſa.*

ELAP'SION, *ſ.* The act of ſliding away; the act of paſſing away without notice. *Scott.*

To ELA'QUEATE, *v. a.* [*e*, from, and *laqueus*, Lat. a trap.] To diſentangle; to ſet free from a ſnare.

ELAQUEA'TION, *ſ.* The act of diſentangling; the act of ſetting free.

ELARAHAL', or EL HARAHAL, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville: twenty miles north-weſt of Seville.

ELARGA'TION, *ſ.* [*e*, from, and *largior*, Lat. to beſtow.] The act of freely beſtowing.

ELASE'RE, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twenty-eight miles north of Chamir.

ELAS'MIS, *ſ.* A trivial name for a genus of talcs, compoſed of ſmall plates in form of ſpangles; and either ſingle, and not farther fiſſile; or, if complex, only fiſſile to a certain degree, and in ſomewhat thick laminæ. Of theſe talcs there are ſeveral varieties, ſome with large and others with ſmall ſpangles, which differ alſo in colour and other peculiarities.

ELAS'TIC, or ELASTICAL, *adj.* [ελαω, Gr.] Having the power of returning to the form from which it is diſtorted or withheld; ſpringy; having the power of a ſpring.—A fermentation muſt be excited in ſome aſſignable place, which may expand itſelf by its *elaſtical* power, and break through, where it meets with the weakeſt reſiſtance. *Bentley.*

By what *elaſtic* engines did ſhe rear,
The ſtarry roof, and roll the orbs in air. *Blackmore.*

All bodies partake, more or leſs, of the properties of elaſticity; though perhaps none are perfectly elaſtic, as none are found to reſtore themſelves with a force equal to that with which they are compreſſed. The principal phenomena obſervable in elaſtic bodies are, 1. That an elaſtic body, (*i. e.* a body perfectly elaſtic, if any ſuch there be) endeavours to reſtore itſelf with the ſame force with which it is preſſed or bent. 2. An elaſtic body exerts its force equally towards all ſides; though the effect is chiefly found on that ſide where the reſiſtance is weakeſt; as is evident in the caſe of a gun exploding a ball, a bow ſhooting out an arrow, &c. 3. Elaſtic bodies, in what manner ſoever ſtruck, or impelled, are inflected and rebound after the ſame manner: thus a bell yields the ſame muſical ſound, in what manner or on what ſide ſoever it be ſtruck; the ſame of a tenſe or muſical chord; and a body rebounds from a plane in the ſame angle in which it meets or ſtrikes it, making the angle of incidence equal to the angle of reflection, whether the intenſity of the ſtroke be greater or leſs. 4. A body perfectly fluid, if any ſuch there be, cannot be elaſtic, if it be allowed that its parts cannot be compreſſed. 5. A body perfectly ſolid, if any ſuch there be, cannot be elaſtic; becauſe, having no pores, it is incapable of being compreſſed. 6. The elaſtic properties of bodies ſeem to differ, according to their greater or leſs denſity or compactneſs, though not in an equal degree: thus, metals are rendered more

compact

compact and elaſtic by being hammered: tempered ſteel is much more elaſtic than ſoft ſteel; and the denſity of the former is to that of the latter as 7809 to 7738: cold condenſes ſolid bodies, and renders them more elaſtic; whilſt heat, that relaxes them, has the oppoſite effect: but, on the contrary, air, and other elaſtic fluids, are expanded by heat, and rendered more elaſtic.

ELASTIC FLUIDS, or VAPOURS, are ſuch as may be compreſſed mechanically into a leſs ſpace, and which reſume their former ſtate when the compreſſing force is withdrawn. Such as atmoſpherical air, and all the aerial fluids, with all kinds of fumes or gaſes raiſed by means of heat, whether from ſolid or fluid bodies. Of theſe, ſome remain elaſtic only while a conſiderable degree of heat is applied to them, or to the ſubſtance which produces them; while others continue elaſtic in every degree of cold that has yet been obſerved. The elaſtic force with which any one of theſe fluids is endowed, has not yet been calculated, as being ultimately greater than any obſtacle we can put in its way. Thus, on compreſſing the atmoſpherical air, we find that for ſome little time at firſt it eaſily yields to any force applied; but at every ſucceeding moment the reſiſtance becomes always the ſtronger, and a greater and greater force muſt be applied to compreſs it farther. As the compreſſion goes on, the veſſel containing the air becomes hot; but no power whatever has yet been able in any degree to deſtroy the elaſticity of the contained fluid; for, upon removing the preſſure, it is always found to occupy the very ſame ſpace that it did before. The caſe is the ſame with the ſteam of water, to which a ſufficient heat is applied to keep it from condenſing into water. See all theſe facts exemplified under the heads of the different *Gaſes*, and under *Atmoſpherical Air*, in the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 196, &c.

ELAS'TIC STONE, *ſ.* See BRASILIAN STONE.

ELAS'TIC GUM, or RESIN, *ſ.* commonly called *India-rubber*. See the article CAOUTCHOUC, vol. iii. p. 744; and the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 340.

ELASTI'CITY, *ſ.* Force in bodies, by which they endeavour to reſtore themſelves to the poſture from whence they were diſplaced by any external force. *Quincy.*—A lute-ſtring will bear an hundred weight without rupture; but at the ſame time cannot exert its *elaſticity*: take away fifty, and immediately it raiſeth the weight. *Arbuthnot.*

Mc emptineſs and dullneſs could inſpire,
And were my *elaſticity* and fire. *Pope.*

The cauſe or principle of this important property, *elaſticity*, is variouſly accounted for. The Carteſians aſcribe it to their ſubtile matter making an effort to paſs through pores that are too narrow for it. Thus, ſay they, in bending or compreſſing a hard elaſtic body, as a bow, for inſtance, its parts recede from each other on the convex ſide, and approach on the concave one: conſequently the pores are contracted or ſtraitened on the concave ſide; and, if they were before round, are now perhaps oval: ſo that the *materia ſubtilis*, or matter of the ſecond element, endeavouring to paſs out of the pores thus ſtraightened, muſt make an effort, at the ſame time, to reſtore the body to the ſtate it was in when the pores were rounder, i. e. before the bow was bent: and in this conſiſts its *elaſticity*. Some later philoſophers account for elaſticity much after the ſame manner as the Carteſians, with this only difference, that inſtead of the ſubtile matter of the Carteſians, theſe ſubſtitute ether, or a fine ethereal medium that pervades all bodies.

Others, ſetting aſide the precarious notion of a materia ſubtilis, account for elaſticity from the great law of nature, attraction, or the cauſe of the coheſion of the parts of ſolid and firm bodies. Thus, ſay they, when a hard body is ſtruck or bent, ſo that the component parts are moved a little from each other, but not quite diſjointed or broken off, or ſeparated ſo far as to be out of the power of that attracting force by which they cohere; they muſt, on removing the external violence, ſpring back to their former natural ſtate. Others again reſolve elaſticity into the preſſure of the atmoſphere: for a violent tenſion, or compreſſion, though not ſo great as to ſeparate the conſtituent particles of bodies far enough to let in any foreign matter, muſt yet occaſion many little vacuola between the ſeparated ſurfaces; ſo that on the removal of the force they will cloſe again by the preſſure of the aerial fluid upon the external parts. There are others who attribute the elaſticity of all hard bodies to the power of reſilition in the air included within them; and ſo make the elaſtic force of the air the principle of elaſticity in all other bodies.

Among the modern philoſophers, Barruel and Libes ſeem to have made the moſt intereſting reſearches reſpecting the cauſe of elaſticity. Barruel aſcribes the cauſe to two principles: 1. "Every body in nature," ſays he, "is porous, and theſe pores are proportioned to the denſity of the ſubſtance. 2. Theſe pores are filled with different fluids, and principally with caloric. But caloric poſſeſſes a ſtrong repulſive force; from which it follows, that, when an elaſtic body is compreſſed, the caloric in its pores drives back by its repulſive power the diſplaced parts, and brings them to their former ſtate." Libes, who has examined the ſame ſubject with ſimilar attention, makes elaſticity to depend on caloric interpoſed either between the moleculæ of the bodies, or combined with them, and at the ſame time on the attractive force of theſe moleculæ. "This being premiſed," ſays he, "I ſay, that the reſtoration of ſolid bodies after compreſſion is a combined effect, which depends in part on the repulſive force which their integral moleculæ have received from caloric, and in part from the attractive force of theſe moleculæ." He then applies elegant formulæ of calculation to theſe phenomena.

The ſuppoſition that repulſion is a primary cauſe, independent of all others, has given riſe to many erroneous theories, and very much embarraſſed philoſophers in accounting for the phenomena of elaſticity.

ELA'TE, *adj.* [*elatus*, Lat.] Fluſhed with ſucceſs; elevated with proſperity; lofty; haughty:

Oh, thoughtleſs mortals! ever blind to fate!
Too ſoon dejected, and too ſoon *elate!*
I, of mind *elate*, and ſcorning fear,
Thus with new taunts inſult the monſter's ear. *Pope.*

To ELA'TE, *v. a.* To elevate with ſucceſs; to puff up with proſperity. To exult; to heighten. *An unuſual ſenſe:*

Or truth, divinely breaking on his mind,
Elates his being, and unfolds his power. *Thomſon.*

EL'ATE, *ſ.* [ſo named παρα το ελαν, from its great height; ελατη ουρανομηκης, *Homer.*] In botany, a genus of palmæ, (monoecia triandria, *Thunb.*) The generic characters are—I. Male flowers. Calyx: ſpathe two-valved; ſpadix branching. Corolla: petals three, roundiſh. Stamina: filaments three, ſimple; antheræ adnate. II. Female flowers in the ſame ſpadix with the males. Calyx: ſpathe common with the males. Corolla: petals three, roundiſh, permanent. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh; ſtyle ſubulate; ſtigma ſharp. Pericarpium: drupe ovate, acuminate. Seed: nut ovate, grooved.—*Eſſential Character.* Male: calyx, three-toothed; corolla, three-petalled; antheræ, ſix, ſeſſile. Female: calyx, one-leafed; corolla, three-petalled; piſtillum, one; ſtigmas, three; drupe, one-ſeeded.

Elate ſylveſtris, or prickly-leaved elate, a ſingle ſpecies: fronds pinnate; leaflets oppoſite. This palm grows to the height of about fourteen feet, the trunk being covered with an aſh-coloured cruſt, cloſely united with a very hard whitiſh wood; pinnate leaves break out from the top of the trunk only, in a decuſſated order, the old ones dropping off as the young ones break forth; the flowers are concealed in ſtiff, green, coriaceous ſpathes;

they are ſmall, ſeveral on the ſame peduncle; petals whitiſh-green; ſtamens whitiſh, lanuginoſe. They have no ſmell, but a rough taſte; fruits oblong-round, ſmall, like a wild plum, with a hard woody point at top, covered with the calyx at bottom, firſt green, then red, but when ripe of a reddiſh brown, or blackiſh and ſhining, covered with a thin rind that is eaſily broken, and having a whitiſh ſweet farinaceous pulp within; the nut or ſtone is oblong, rufous, marked longitudinally with a deep furrow, and containing a whitiſh bitter kernel; the fruits grow on green, ſmooth, ſhining, branches, near a yard long, and two fingers broad, flat, ſtiff, and woody; whence a clear auſtere liquor flows when they are cut or wounded. The poorer ſort of people chew the nut in the ſame manner with the areca-nut, with the leaf of the betel and quick-lime. The elephants are very fond of the fruit branches, which are very ſweet. The leaves, fruit, &c. are very aſtringent, and are looked upon as powerful in ſtopping fluxes. Native of the Eaſt Indies. Introduced about 1763, by John Blackburne, eſq. For the *Propagation and Culture*, ſee PALMS.

EL'ATER, *ſ.* [ελαυνω, to agitate.] The SKIPPER; in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The antennæ of ſome elateres are ſetaceous, others filiform, pectinated, or ſerrated. Their larvæ live in decayed trunks of trees, where they undergo their metamorphoſes. Many of the coleopterous inſects have a great difficulty in reſtoring themſelves when laid on the back; the apparatus with which the inſects of this genus are provided for that purpoſe, is ſingular and curious. An elaſtic ſpring, or ſpine, projects from the hinder extremity of the breaſt, and there is a groove or cavity in the anterior part of the abdomen. When laid on its back, the inſect raiſes and ſuſtains itſelf on the anterior part of the head and the extremity of the body, by which means the ſpine is removed from the groove where it is lodged, when in its natural poſition; then ſuddenly bending its body, the ſpine is ſtruck with force, acroſs a ſmall ridge or elevation, into the cavity from whence it was withdrawn; by which ſhock, the parts of the body before ſuſtained in the air, are ſo forcibly beat againſt whatever the inſect is laid on, as to cauſe it to ſpring or rebound to a conſiderable diſtance. The antennæ are lodged in a cavity ſcooped out of the under ſide of the head and thorax, probably to preſerve them, when the inſect falls, after its ſingular leap.

There are no leſs than one hundred and eighty-three ſpecies of this genus of inſects now aſcertained; of which twenty-ſix are found in England. They are all eaſily diſtinguiſhed from every other genus by the ſpine at the extremity of the thorax; a character which ſcarcely any other inſect poſſeſſes. The phoſphoreus, noctilucus, and ſeveral other ſpecies of this inſect, give out a ſtrong phoſphoric light in the night time, the ſtreams of which are ſo luminous, that a perſon may ſee to read the ſmalleſt print, by placing them on the leaf of a book. The elegant ſpecies delineated on the annexed engraving, are as follow: Fig. 1. Elater Flabellicornis, with fan-ſhaped antennæ; the largeſt of the genus yet known; meaſuring about two inches and a half from the head to the anus. The head is ſmall, and of a ſquariſh form, ſurrounded with a ſmall black margin, having four palpi, two of them very ſhort; the eyes are brown and ſhining; the antennæ are the length of the thorax, and black; thoſe of the male are pectinated, or rather laminated, having not leſs than eight diſtinct plates or laminæ lying cloſe to each other, which, when cloſed together, appear to be of equal thickneſs. The general colour of the inſect is a dark ſhining bronze: the thorax has a black margin, terminating on the ſides in two ſharp ſpines; the eſcutcheon is ſmall; the wing-caſes or ſhells are ſmooth and gloſſy, without any margin, and rounding at their extremities, without any ſpines; the elaſtic ſpring is black, and ſmall for the ſize of the inſect. All the under part of the inſect is the ſame colour as the upper; the bearers or feet conſiſt of five articulations, beſides the hooks or claws. It is a native of India; that which is figured in the engraving was found at Sierra Leona, on the coaſt of Africa.

Fig. 2. The Porcatus: a beautiful ſpecies, and large, meaſuring an inch and three quarters. The head is a dark braſſy green; the eyes brown and ſhining; the antennæ black, conſiſting of ten articulations; the thorax on the ſides is yellow, having a broad bar of a green colour running longitudinally from the head to the hinder part, being marginated with black; the wing-caſes are deeply furrowed with green and yellowiſh lines, the ſides having a broad yellow ſtripe all round them, and are marginated with black; the extremities rounded, and not ending in a ſpine; the breaſt, abdomen, and legs, are entirely dark green; the elaſtic ſpring is black and large; the bearers conſiſt of five articulations beſides the hooks. It inhabits South America: the one figured in the engraving was brought from the Bay of Honduras.

Fig. 3. The Auratus, ranked among the moſt elegant of the elateres, is alſo large, meaſuring near an inch and three-fourths. The head is green; the eyes black; the antennæ are black, and ſhorter than the thorax, having at each joint ſome ſhort hairs, plainly to be diſcovered when viewed through a microſcope; the thorax is green, and margined, appearing as if finely poliſhed; the hinder corners being pointed, and forming obtuſe angles; the eſcutcheon is round, and ſhining; the wing caſes are likewiſe green, variegated with ſhades of yellow and gold, ſhining, and margined; their extremities terminating in two ſharp points: all the under part of the inſect is of the ſame ſhining green as the upper, except the bearers, which are black, and conſiſt of five articulations beſides the claws. In this inſect the elaſtic ſpring is very large and ſtrong, ſo that it can jump to a conſiderable height. This was brought from China.

Fig. 4. The Serraticornis: meaſures near an inch and a quarter. The head is reddiſh brown; the eyes ſmall and black; the antennæ black, ſerrated, and ſhorter than the thorax; the thorax is red-brown, with a dark longitudinal dagger-ſhaped ſtreak running along the middle from the head to the eſcutcheon; the ſides terminating in two angular points; the eſcutcheon is ſmall and brown; the wing-caſes are reddiſh, brown, marginated, and ending in two ſpines: they are a little ſtriated, with three longitudinal ſtreaks of a dark brown colour; the principal one in the middle along the future, the others on each ſide; the breaſt and fore-part of the abdomen is the ſame red-brown colour as on the upper ſide; the hinder part of the abdomen is darker, having two remarkable oval ſpots of a lightiſh colour near the anus; the bearers conſiſt of no more than four articulations beſides the hooks. This came from Rio Janeiro in the Braſils: it is alſo found in Italy.

Fig. 5. The Angulatus: a degree larger than the preceding. The head and eyes are black, the former being furniſhed with two remarkable thick and ſhort horns or ſpines; the antennæ are black, and ſtrongly pectinated, conſiſting of not leſs than ten articulations; the thorax is orange coloured, with a broad black ſtreak down the middle. Two remarkable black lozenge-ſhaped ſpots are placed near the middle of the thorax, and are united to the longitudinal black ſtreak. Cloſe to theſe are two ſingular ſwellings, like protuberances, on the ſides of the thorax. The eſcutcheon is black; the wing caſes pale-orange, the ſides and middle having three black ſtripes running along them, the extremities ending in two ſharp ſpines; the breaſt is orange, with two long black ſpots on the ſides; the abdomen is of a dark cream colour, with two black ſtripes running along the ſides from the breaſt, and joining at the anus; all the legs are orange; the bearers conſiſting of five articulations, beſides the hooks. Native of the Braſils.

Fig. 6. The Faſciatus: about three quarters of an inch in length. The head is grey; the eyes black; the antennæ ſerrated and black, much ſhorter than the thorax, which is grey, with two ſmall round black ſpots on the middle, and two ſquare ones next the eſcutcheon; the eſcutcheon itſelf is black, ſurrounded by a patch of the ſame colour; the wing caſes are grey, with two waved irregular bands croſſing them, one near the middle, the other near the anus: all the under part of the inſect is black; and, when viewed through a microſcope, appears to be powdered, as it were, with grey. The legs are entirely black. Native of Africa and Europe; and is found likewiſe in England.

Fig. 7. The Pictus: nearly the ſize of the preceding. The head is yellow-brown; the eyes ſmall and black; the antennæ deeply ſerrated and black, being ſhorter than the thorax; the thorax is yellow-brown, with ſeveral black longitudinal ſtreaks; the eſcutcheon is very ſmall and yellow-brown; the wing-caſes the ſame colour, with ſeveral faint black marks thereon, particularly two ſituated near the middle, of a triangular ſhape, and reaching to the ſides: they are a little ſtriated, and terminate at the anus in four blunt ſpines, two to each. All the under part of this inſect is of a grey colour. The elaſtic ſpring in this inſect is remarkably large. Native of Africa.

Fig. 8. The Teſſellatus: a native of Europe, and an inhabitant of England; the ſhells adorned with teſſelated whitiſh ſpots on a chocolate-coloured ground. Fig. 9. The Purpureus: thorax black, with a thin purple down; wing-caſes or ſhells purple, with raiſed lines: native of Auſtria. Fig. 10. The Pulchellus: head and thorax black and bronze; ſhells variegated with black, yellow, and reddiſh brown: inhabits England, and is found in gardens. Fig. 11. The Rufipes, moſtly black and poliſhed: a native of Saxony. Fig. 12. The Ignitus: a curious and beautiful ſpecies, from Cayenne. Fig. 13. The Phoſphoreus: dark bronze, with two tranſparent yellow ſpots on the thorax, which appear to give out a phoſphoric light: it is a native of South America. Fig. 14. The Fuſcipes: a large ſpecies, moſtly black; wing-caſes ſtriate: native of the Eaſt Indies. Fig. 15. The Sanguinolentus: thorax and body black; wing-caſes blood-red, with an ovate black ſpot in the center: inhabits Germany. Fig. 16. The Bipuſtulatus; a ſmall ſpecies, found in the woods of Germany: it is quite black, with two flame-coloured puſtules on the wing-caſes. Fig. 17. The Pulverulentus: head and body black, very minutely ſpeckled with greeniſh gold; on the wing-caſes a divaricated ſtripe of red: native of America.

ELA'TERIST, *ſ.* One who holds the doctrine of the elaſticity of the air.

ELAT'ERIUM, *ſ.* [ελατηριον, Gr.] The elaſticity of the air.

ELATE'RIUM, *ſ.* [ελατηριον, from ελαυνω; whatever purges the belly; troches made of the juice of the wild cucumber; and a name for that cucumber itſelf.] In botany, a genus of the claſs monoecia, order monandria, natural order cucurbitaceæ. The generic characters are—I. Male flowers. Calyx: none. Corolla: one-petalled, ſalver-ſhaped; tube cylindric; border five-cleft; diviſions lanceolate, channelled on the back, the inciſures furniſhed with a toothlet. Stamina: filament ſingle, columnar; anther linear. II. Female flowers. Calyx and corolla as in male. Piſtillum: germ inferior, echinate; ſtyle columnar, thickening; ſtigma capitate. Pericarpium: capſule inferior, echinate, leathery, filled with pulp, uniform, one-celled, two-valved, elaſtic. Seeds: ſeveral.—*Eſſential Character.* Male: calyx, none; corolla, ſalver-ſhaped. Female: calyx, none; corolla, ſalver-ſhaped; capſule, inferior, one-celled, two-valved.

Species. 1. Elaterium Carthagenenſe: leaves cordate, angular. This is probably an annual plant; ſtems round, ſmooth, herbaceous, diffuſed, ſcandent, with tendrils biſid and lateral; leaves very finely ſerrate, ſmooth underneath, ſomewhat rugged above, petioled, alternate, numerous; peduncles of the male flowers axillary, ſolitary, many-flowered, ſpreading, almoſt the length of the leaves, racemed or ſubumbelled: female peduncle from the ſame axil, ſolitary, one-flowered, ſhort: corolla white, without ſcent in the day, but ſmelling ſweet at night; fruit green, an inch and half long, having but little watery pulp, ſmelling like cucumber; when ripe, it opens elaſtically with a very gentle touch, and diſperſes its ſeeds; or, when approaching to maturity, if it be held ſome time in the hand cloſed, it will do the ſame; one valve is compoſed of the whole ſides and the anterior part of the fruit, and is roundiſh two-lobed on one ſide, or like the figure 8; the back of the capſule forms the other, which is therefore oblong: this on the inſide at the tip is furniſhed with a lanceolate appendix, highly elaſtic, furniſhed with about eighteen toothlets, to which as many browniſh ſeeds adhere. Native of Carthagena in New Spain, covering entire ſhrubs with its ſtalks, and flowering in October and November.

2. Elaterium trifoliatum: leaves ternate, gaſhed. Capſule kidney-ſhaped, rough with hairs, two-valved, opening with a ſpring; and therefore of this genus. Native of Virginia. See MOMORDICA.

E'LATH, or ELOTH, [Heb. a hind.] A city of Edom, ſituated near the Red Sea. It was in being in the days of Moſes, *Deut.* ii. 8. and during the ſubjection of the Edomites to Judah, was one of Solomon's principal ſeaports. 2 *Chron.* viii. 17. It was taken from Judah, and deſtroyed; but was rebuilt by Uzzah king of Judah, who reſtored it to his kingdom: it was again taken from Judah in the reign of Ahaz, by Rezin king of Syria, through the aſſiſtance of Pekah king of Iſrael, and was never afterwards regained by the Jews. 2 *Kings*, xiv. 22. xvi. 6.

ELA'TINE, *ſ.* [ελατινος, made of fir.] In botany, a genus of the claſs octandria, order tetragynia, natural order inundatæ, (caryophylleæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved; leaflets roundiſh, flat, ſize of the corolla, permanent. Corolla: petals four, ovate, obtuſe, ſeſſile, ſpreading. Stamina: filaments eight, length of the corolla; antheræ ſimple. Piſtillum: germ orbicular, globoſe-depreſſed, large; ſtyles four, upright, parallel, length of the ſtamens; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: capſule orbicular, globoſe-depreſſed, large, four-celled, four-valved. Seeds: ſeveral, mooned, upright, ſurrounding the receptacle in the manner of a wheel.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, four-leaved; petals, four; capſule, four-celled, four-valved, flatted.

Species. 1. Elatine hydropiper, or oppoſite-leaved water-wort: leaves oppoſite. A very ſmall annual aquatic plant, hardly a ſpan in length; ſtems very tender, creeping; the ſhoots erect, and leafy; leaves ovate-lanceolate, quite entire, ſeſſile at the joints; flowers ſolitary, much ſmaller than in the ſecond ſpecies, alternate, on very ſhort peduncles at the axils of the leaves on the branches, and cloſe to them on the ſtem; petals white, purpliſh, or roſe-coloured; ſtyles none, ſtigmas very ſmall; anthers globular: capſules ſmaller than in the ſecond. Native of Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Sileſia, and France; in ditches and wet places: flowering in ſummer.

2. Elatine alſinaſtrum, or whorl-leaved water-wort: leaves in whorls. Native of Aboa, Leipſic, Sileſia, Switzerland, near Paris and Montpellier, England; in ditches. Found by Mr. James Sherard on the bogs upon the common, by the road from Eltham to Chiſſelhurſt: it flowers in June and July. See ANTIRRHINUM, LATHYRUS, APHACA, and VERONICA.

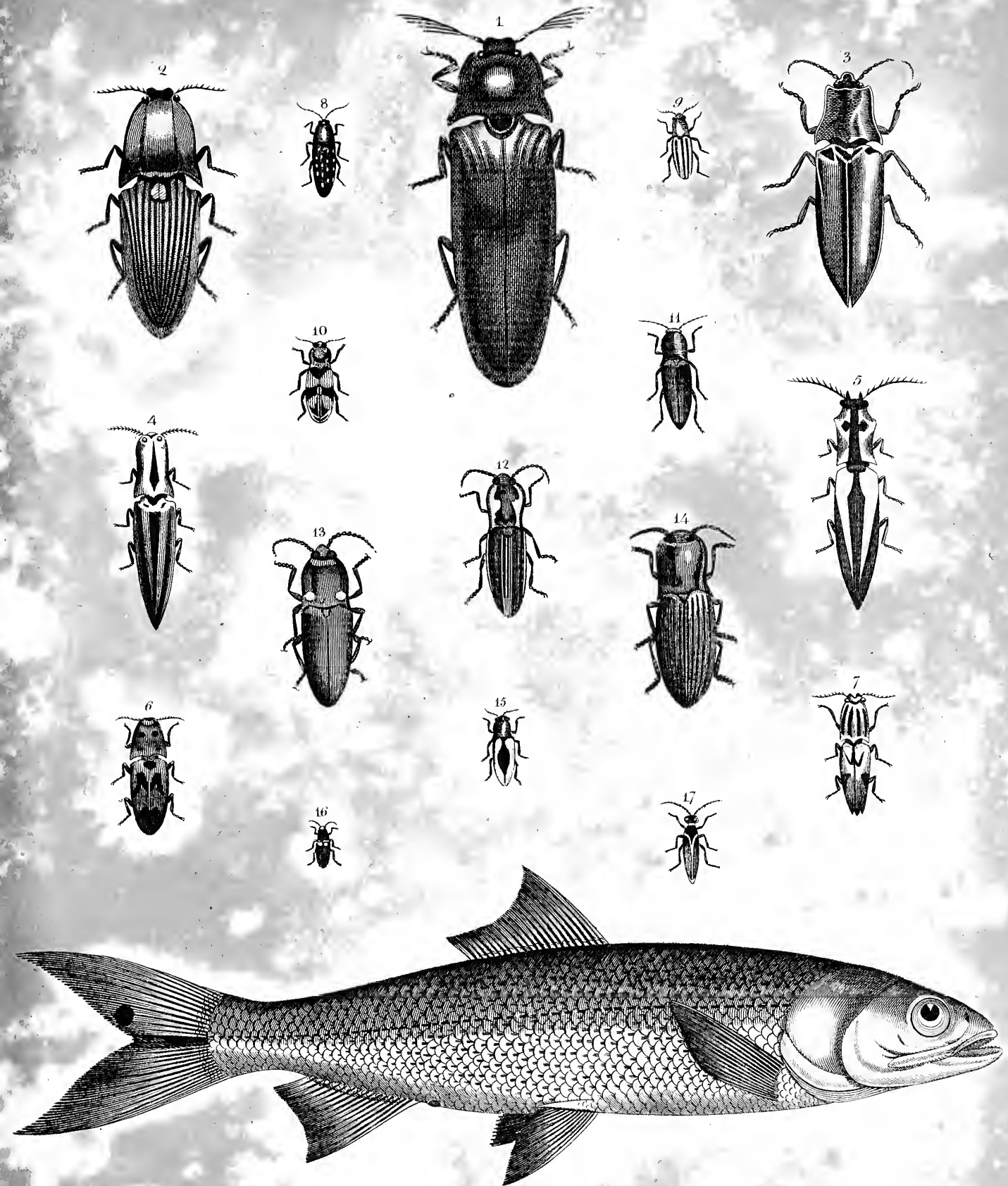
ELA'TION, *ſ.* Haughtineſs proceeding from ſucceſs; pride of proſperity.—God began to puniſh this vain *elation* of mind, by withdrawing his favours. *Atterbury.*

ELATI'TES, *ſ.* in natural hiſtory, a kind of blood-ſtone.

ELATOS'TEMA, *ſ.* in botany; ſee DORSTENIA.

ELAT'MA,

ELATER AND ELOPS.



H. Bloch del.

J. Pass sculp.

Seventeen species of Elater or Skipper, & the Elops or Saur-fish.

London Published as the Act directs Sep.r 6. 1803 by J. Wilkes

ELAT'MA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Tambov, on the Oka: 132 miles north of Tambov. Lat. 55. 2. N. lon. 59. 28. E. Ferro.

To ELAX'ATE, *v. a.* [*elaxare*, Lat.] To unlooſe or make wider.

ELAY', a river of Wales, in the county of Glamorgan, which runs into the ſea, near Pennarth Point.

EL'BA (iſle of), in Latin *Ilva*, anciently *Oethalia*, in the Tuſcan ſea, and middle diviſion of Italy, oppoſite to Piombino, being ſeparated from the main land by a channel of the latter name, about 10 miles broad. The iſland is forty miles in circuit, reckoning its gulfs, capes, &c. and has two ports; the one to the north weſt, called Porto Ferraio, belonged to the grand-duke of Tuſcany before the late revolutionary war; the other is to the ſouth-eaſt, called Porto Longone, was ſubject to Spain, and indeed the whole iſland was generally conſidered as under the protection of that crown, and moſtly belonged to the duke of Piombino. By the treaty of Luneville, Dec. 1800, it was expreſsly ſtipulated that Elba ſhould be attached to the duchy of Tuſcany; but in Auguſt 1801, the dominions of the grand duke were given in ſovereignty to the infant of Spain, by the title of Louis I. king of Etruria; by which means the French obtained this iſland for themſelves at the peace of March 1802, in direct contradiction to the treaty of Luneville. The place is mountainous, and has mines of iron, marble, ſulphur, and ſome lead-ſtone. It lies fourteen miles ſouth-weſt of Piombino. Lat. 42. 26. N. lon. 11. 18. E.

ELBE, a river of Germany, which riſes in the ſouth-eaſt part of the principality of Jauer, in Sileſia, takes a ſoutherly courſe through part of Bohemia, paſſing by Arnau, Koninghoff, Konigingratz, &c. to Pardubitz, where, turning towards the weſt and north-weſt, it paſſes by Nimburg, Koſteletz, Melnik, Raudnitz, Leitmeritz, Tetſchen, &c. after which it enters Saxony, paſſes by Konigſtein, Pirnau, Dreſden, Meiſſen, Belgern, Torgaw, Wittenburg, Coſwick, Deſſau, Barley, Magdeburg, Tangermunde, Sandau, Domitſch, Boitzenburg, Lauenburg, Hamburg, Gluckſtadt, &c. and runs into the German Sea, about lat. 54. 3. N. lon. 25. 50. E. Ferro. Pruſſia having allowed the French troops under Bonaparte, to blockade its banks, with a view to injure our commerce in that quarter, the king of England took the ſpirited reſolution of completely blockading the entrance of it, which was notified to the neutral powers in June 1803.

ELBE, a river of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, which runs into the Eder, two miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Fritzlar, in the county of Waldeck.

ELBEDOU'I, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: fourteen miles ſouth of Abu Ariſch.

EL'BERT, a county of the American States, in the upper diſtrict of Georgia, on the tract of land between Tugulo and Broad rivers. The ſouth-eaſt corner of the county is at their confluence, at the town of Peterſburg. On the north-weſt it is bounded by Franklin county. Elberton, the ſeat of juſtice in this county, is twenty-three miles north-weſt of Peterſburg, and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Franklin court-houſe.

EL'BERTON, a poſt-town of the American States, in Effingham county, Georgia, on the north-eaſt bank of Ogeechee river, nineteen miles weſt of Ebenezer, forty-eight north-weſt of Savannah, and fifty-five ſouth-eaſt of Louiſville. Lat. 32. 18. 45. N. lon. 80. 30. W.

ELBEUF', a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Rouen; with a manufacture of cloth, on the Seine: ten miles ſouth of Rouen.

EL'BING, or ELBLANG, a ſea-port town of Pruſſia, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, near the Friſche Haffe, built in 1239; ſeven years after its foundation it enjoyed the privilege of coining money. It is a place of conſiderable trade, and was till very lately Hanſeatic. The Roman Catholics make uſe of the largeſt church, the Lutherans have eight others, the Calviniſts have places of worſhip, and other ſects are tolerated: thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Dantzick.

ELBO'IC, *ſ.* A rude kind of compoſition in proſe or verſe; a rough line or verſe.

EL'BOW, *ſ.* [elboga, Sax.] The next joint or curvature of the arm below the ſhoulder:

In ſome fair evening, on your *elbow* laid,
You dream of triumphs in the rural ſhade. *Pope.*

Any flexure or angle.—Fruit trees, or vines, ſet upon a wall between *elbows* or buttreſſes of ſtone, ripen more than upon a plain wall. *Bacon.*

To be at the ELBOW. To be near; to be at hand:

Strait will he come;
Wear thy good rapier bare, and put it home:
Quick, quick; fear nothing, I'll *be at thy elbow*. *Shakeſp.*

To EL'BOW, *v. a.* To puſh with the elbow.—One *elbows* him, one joſtles in the ſhole. *Dryden.*—To puſh; to drive to a diſtance; to encroach upon:

It thruſts and ſtretches out,
And *elbows* all the kingdoms round about. *Dryden.*

To EL'BOW, *v. n.* To jut out in angles.

ELBOWCHA'IR, *ſ.* A chair with arms to ſupport the elbows.—Swans and *elbowchairs*, in the opera of Diocleſian, have danced upon the Engliſh ſtage with good ſucceſs. *Gay.*

EL'BOWING, *part. act.* Puſhing with the elbows; encroaching upon; bending out like an elbow.

EL'BOWROOM, *ſ.* Room to ſtretch out the elbows on each ſide; perfect freedom from confinement.—A politician muſt put himſelf into a ſtate of liberty to provide *elbowroom* for conſcience to have its full play in. *South.*

Now my foul hath *elbowroom*;
It would not out at windows nor at doors. *Shakeſpeare.*

ELBU'GA, a river of Ruſſia, in the government of Caucaſus, which runs into the Kagalinſk, twelve miles eaſt of Azoph.

EL'BURG, or ELBURCH, a town of the United Dutch States, in Guelderland, ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of the Zuyder Sea: thirty-four miles north-north-eaſt of Utrecht. Lat. 52. 28. N. lon. 23. 13. E. Ferro.

ELCE'SAITES, in church hiſtory, ancient heretics, who appeared in the reign of the emperor Trajan, and took their name from their leader Elceſai. They held a mean between the Jews, Chriſtians, and Pagans; they worſhipped one God, obſerved the Jewiſh ſabbath, circumciſion, and other ceremonies of the law. They rejected the Pentateuch, and the prophets; nor had they much reſpect for the writings of the apoſtles, particularly thoſe of St. Paul.

EL'CHE, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, ſituated in a foreſt of palms and olive-trees; the environs produce a great quantity of wine, and feed a number of cattle; the water is ſalt, and not good; that which the inhabitants drink is brought from a diſtance. Several magnificent remains of its ancient ſplendour make it ſuppoſed to be the ancient *Ilici*: eight miles ſouth-weſt of Alicant.

EL'CHE, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile: twenty-ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Alcaraz.

ELCHIN'GEN, an abby of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, the abbot of which is a prince, and pays fifty florins for a Roman month, and is taxed 162 rix-dollars and twenty-nine kruitzers to the imperial chamber: its territory includes about fifteen villages near Ulm.

ELCO'SIS, *ſ.* [ελκος, Gr. an ulcer.] A diſeaſe attended with fœtid carious ulcers.

ELD, *ſ.* [ealb, Sax. *eld*, Scottiſh.] Old age; decrepitude:

Thy blazed youth
Becomes aſſuaged, and doth beg the alms
Of palſied *eld*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Old people; persons worn out with years.—They count him of the green-hair'd *eld*. *Chapman*.

EL'DA, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia: twenty miles west-north-west of Alicant.

EL'DAD, [Heb. the love of God.] A man's name.

ELDAG'SEN, or ELDAGSHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Calenburg: sixteen miles east-north-east of Hameln.

EL'DEN HOLE, in Derbyshire. See PEAK.

ELDE'NA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Pomerania: three miles east of Griefswalda.

EL'DER, *s.* in botany. See SAMBUCUS and VIBURNUM.

EL'DER, *adj.* the comparative of *eld*, now corrupted to *old*; [ealo, ealdon, Sax.] Surpassing another in years; survivor; having the privileges of primogeniture: opposed to *younger*.—They bring the comparison of younger daughters conforming themselves in attire to their *elder* sisters. *Hooker*.

Fame's high temple stands;
Stupendous pile; not rear'd by mortal hands!
Whate'er proud Rome, or artful Greece beheld,
Or *elder* Babylon, its frame excell'd. *Pope*.

EL'DER-GUN, *s.* A pop-gun made of elder:

Who disinherited one son
For firing off an *elder-gun*. *Churchill*.

EL'DERS, *s.* Persons whose age gives them a claim to credit and reverence.—Rebuke not an *elder*, but intreat him as a father, and the younger men as brethren. 1 *Tim.* v. 1.

The blushing youth their virtuous awe discloses,
And from their seats the reverend *elders* rose. *Sandys*.

Ancestors.—Says the goose, If it will be no better, e'en carry your head as your *elders* have done before you. *L'Estrange*.

I lose my patience, and I own it too,
Where works are censur'd, not as bad, but new;
While, if our *elders* break all reason's laws,
Those fools demand not pardon, but applause. *Pope*.

Those who are older than others.—At the board, and in private, it very well becometh children's innocency to pray, and their *elders* to say, Amen. *Hooker*.

ELDERS, in the Jewish history, were persons the most considerable for age, experience, and wisdom. Of this sort were the *Seventy* men whom Moses associated to himself in the government of his people; such, likewise, afterwards were those who held the first mark in the synagogue, as presidents. In the first assemblies of the primitive Christians, those who held the first places were called *elders*. The word *presbyter*, often used in the New Testament, is of the same signification: hence the first councils of Christians were called *presbyteria*, or councils of elders. The same denomination is still retained in the presbyterian discipline in Scotland. The elders are officers, who, in conjunction with the pastors, or ministers, and deacons, compose the consistories or kirk-sessions, meeting to consider, inspect, and regulate, matters of religion and discipline. They are chosen from among the people, and are received publicly with some degree of ceremony.

EL'DERLY, *adj.* Inclining to old age.

EL'DERSHIP, *s.* Seniority; primogeniture.—The world, while it had scarcity of people, underwent no other dominion than paternity and *eldership*. *Raleigh*.

Nor were the *eldership*
Of Artaxerxes worth our least of fears,
If Memnon's interest did not prop his cause. *Rowe*.

Presbytery; ecclesiastical senate; kirk-session.—That controversy sprang up between Beza and Erastus, about the matter of excommunications; whether there ought to be in all churches an *eldership*, having power to excommunicate, and a part of that *eldership* to be of necessity certain chosen out from amongst the laity. *Hooker*.

EL'DEST, *adj.* The superlative of *eld*, now changed to *old*; [ealo, ealdon, ealdrte, Sax.] The oldest; that has the right of primogeniture:

We will establish our estate upon
Our *eldest* Malcolm, whom we name hereafter
The prince of Cumberland. *Shakespeare*.

The person that has lived most years.—*Eldest* parents signifies either the oldest men and women that have had children, or those who have longest had issue. *Locke*.

ELDITZ'KA, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Upha, on the river Upha: fifty miles north of Upha.

ELD'PACH, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Austria: six miles south of Ips.

EL'DRED, a man's name.

ELE'A, in ancient geography, a district of Peloponnesus, situated between Achaia and Messenia, reaching from Arcadia to the Ionian sea.

ELEA'LEH, [Heb. the ascension of God.] A city of Palestine, situated in the land of the Amorites, east of Jordan. This city was destroyed by the Israelites in their contest with Sihon, during the journey to Canaan, and was afterwards assigned to the Reubenites, who rebuilt it. *Num.* xxxii. 37.

ELEA'SA, the place where Judas Maccabeus encamped previous to the battle in which he lost his life. 1 *Macc.* ix. 5.

EL'EANOR, [Camden supposes it to be a corruption of *Helena*; others derive it from æl eamen, Sax. all fruitful.] A name of women.

ELEA'TIC, *adj.* Belonging to Elea; belonging to the sect founded by Parmenides, a native of Elea.

ELEA'TIC PHILOSOPHY, among the ancients, a name given to that of the Stoics, because taught at Ελεα, in Latin *Velia*, a town of the Lucani. The founder of the Eleatic sect is supposed to have been Xenophanes, who lived about the 56th olympiad, almost 600 years before Christ. This sect was divided into two parties, the one rejecting, and the other approving, the appeal to fact and experiment. Of the former kind were Xenophanes, Parmenides, Melissus, and Zeno, of Elea. They are supposed to have maintained principles not unlike those of Spinoza; they held the eternity and immutability of the world; that whatever existed was only one being; that this one being was immoveable and immutable, and was the true God; and whatever changes seemed to happen in the universe, they considered as mere illusions of sense. The other branch of the Eleatic sect were the atomic philosophers, who formed their system from an attention to the phenomena of nature; of these the most considerable were Leucippus, Democritus, and Protagoras.

ELEA'ZAR, [אלעזר Heb. of אל God, and עזר help, *i. e.* the help of God.] A man's name.

ELEA'ZAR, high-priest of the Hebrew nation, was the third son of Aaron, and his successor in that office. His elder brethren, Nadab and Abihu, were struck dead during their father's life-time for presuming to burn incense in the tabernacle with strange fire, contrary to the divine command. On the death of Aaron on mount Hor, about the year before Christ 1452, Eleazar was invested by Moses with the robes belonging to his father's dignity. We have little information concerning him, excepting that he continued to discharge the duties of the high-priesthood during the remainder of the life of Moses, and the whole of the administration of Joshua; and that he survived the latter but a short time, dying most probably about the year before Christ 1427.

ELEA'ZAR, high-priest of the Jews, was raised to that office on the death of his brother, Simon the Just, about 292 years before Christ. It was during his pontificate, according to the testimony of Aristæas, which was implicitly received by Josephus, and after him by Justin Martyr, Irenæus, Cyril, Chrysostom, Epiphanius, and others

others of the Chriſtian fathers, that Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, ſent an embaſſy to Jeruſalem, with rich preſents, in order to obtain a copy of the ſacred books of the Hebrews, which he placed in the library at Alexandria. Eleazar died after he had filled the ſtation of high-prieſt about thirty-two years.

ELECAMPA'NE, *ſ.* [*helenium*, Lat.] A plant, named alſo ſtarwort. See INULA.—The Germans have a method of candying *elecampane* root like ginger, to which they prefer it, and call it German ſpice. *Hill.*

To ELE'CT, *v. a.* [*electus*, Lat.] To chooſe for any office or uſe; to take in preference to others:

Henry his ſon is choſen king, though young;
And Louis of France, *elected* firſt, beguil'd. *Daniel.*

[In theology.] To ſelect as an object of eternal mercy.

ELE'CT, *adj.* Choſen; taken by preference from among others:

You have here, lady,
And of your choice, theſe reverend fathers,
Yea, the *elect* of the land, who are aſſembled
To plead your cauſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

Choſen to an office not yet in poſſeſſion.—The biſhop *elect* takes the oaths of ſupremacy, canonical obedience, and againſt ſimony; and then the dean of the arches reads and ſubſcribes the ſentences. *Ayliffe.*—[In theology.] Choſen as an object of eternal mercy:

Some I have choſen of peculiar grace,
Elect above the reſt: ſo is my will. *Milton.*

ELEC'TION, *ſ.* [*electio*, Lat.] The act of chooſing; the act of ſelecting one or more from a greater number for any uſe or office; choice.—If the *election* of the miniſter ſhould be committed to every ſeveral pariſh, do you think that they would chooſe the meeteſt? *Whitgift.*—The power of choice:

For what is man without a moving mind,
Which hath a judging wit, and chuſing will!
Now if God's pow'r ſhould her *election* bind,
Her motions then would ceaſe, and ſtand all ſtill. *Davies.*

Voluntary preference.—He calls upon the ſinners to turn themſelves and live; he tells us, that he has ſet before us life and death, and referred it to our own *election* which we will chooſe.—Diſcernment; diſtinction; diſcrimination.—In favour, to uſe men with much difference and *election* is good: for it maketh thoſe preferred more thankful, and the reſt more officious. *Bacon.*—[In theology.] The predetermination of God by which any were ſelected for eternal life.—The conceit about abſolute *election* to eternal life, ſome enthuſiaſts entertaining, have been made remiſs in the practice of virtue. *Atterbury.*—The ceremony of a public choice.—I was ſorry to hear with what partiality, and popular heat, *elections* were carried in many places. *King Charles.*

ELEC'TION, *ſ.* in law, is when a man is left to his own free will, to take or do one thing or another, which he pleaſes. And if it be given of ſeveral things, he who is the firſt agent, and ought to do the firſt act, ſhall have the election: as if a perſon make a leaſe, rendering rent, or a garment, &c. the leſſee ſhall have the election, as being the firſt agent, by the payment of the one, or delivery of the other. *Co. Litt.* 144. And if A. covenant to pay B. a pound of pepper or ſugar, before Eaſter; it is at the election of A. at all times before Eaſter, which of them he will pay: but if he pays it not before the ſaid feaſt, then afterwards it is at the election of B. to demand and have which he pleaſeth. *Dyer*, 18. 5 *Rep.* 59. If I give to you one of my horſes in my ſtable, there you ſhall have the election; for you ſhall be the firſt agent, by taking or ſeizure of one of them. *Co. Litt.* 145. If things granted are annual, and to have continuance, the election (where the law gives it him) remains to the grantor, as well after the day as before: but it is otherwiſe when to be performed at once. When nothing paſſes to the feoffee or grantee before election to have the one thing or the other, the election ought to be made in the life of the parties; and the heir or executor cannot make the election: but where an eſtate or intereſt paſſes immediately to the feoffee, donee, &c. there election may be made by them, or their heirs or executors. 2 *Rep.* 36. And when one and the ſame thing paſſeth to the donee or grantee, and ſuch donee or grantee hath election in what manner he will take it, there the intereſt paſſeth immediately, and the party, his heirs, &c. may make election when they will. *Co. Litt.* 145.

Where the election creates the intereſt, nothing paſſes till election; and if no election can be made, no intereſt will ariſe. *Hob.* 174. If the election is given to ſeveral perſons, there the firſt election made by any of the perſons ſhall ſtand: as if a man leaſes two acres to A. for life, remainder of one acre to B. and of the other acre to C. now B. or C. may elect which of the acres he will have, and the firſt election by one binds the other. *Co. Litt.* 145. If a man leaſes two acres for life, the remainder of one in fee to the ſame perſon; and after licenſes the leſſee to cut trees in one acre, this is an election that he ſhall have the fee in the other acre. 2 *Danv.* 762. A real election concerning lands is deſcendible; and election of a tenant in tail may prejudice his iſſue. He in remainder may make an election, after the death of tenant for life; but if the tenant for life do make election, the remainder-man is concluded. *Moor, Ca.* 247.

A perſon grants a manor, except one cloſe called N. and there are two cloſes called by that name, one containing nine acres, and the other but three acres; the grantee ſhall not in this caſe chooſe which of the ſaid cloſes he will have, but the grantor ſhall have election which cloſe ſhall paſs. 1 *Leon.* 268. But if one grants an acre of land out of a waſte or common, and doth not ſay in what part, or how to be bounded, the grantee may make his election where he will. 1 *Leon.* 30. Where there are three coparceners of lands, upon partition the eldeſt ſiſter ſhall have the election: though if ſhe herſelf make the partition, ſhe loſes it, and ſhall take laſt of all. *Co. Litt.* 166.

A condition of a bond is, that the obligor ſhall pay thirty pounds, or twenty kine, at the obligee's election, within ſuch a time; the obligee at his peril is to make his election within the time limited. 1 *Leon.* 69. Though in debt upon bond to pay ten pounds on ſuch a day, or four cows, at the then election of the obligee, it was adjudged, that it was not enough for the defendant to plead that he was always ready, &c. if the obligee had made his election; for he ought to tender both at the day, by reaſon the word *then* relates to the day of payment. 1 *Nelſ.* 694, 695. If a man hath an election to do one of two things, and he cannot by any default of a ſtranger, or of himſelf, or the obligee, or by the act of God, do the one, he muſt at his peril do the other. 1 *Lil. Abr.* 506.

Where the law allows a man two actions to recover his right, it is at his election to bring which he pleaſeth: and when a man's act may work two ways, both ariſing out of his intereſt, he hath election given him to uſe it either way. *Dyer*, 20. Action of treſpaſs upon the caſe, or action of treſpaſs *vi & armis*, may be brought againſt one that reſcues a priſoner, at the election of the party damnified by the reſcous. And an action on the caſe, or an aſſiſe, lies againſt him that ſurcharges a common, at the election of him that is injured thereby. 1 *Lil.* 504. Alſo for a rent-charge out of lands, there may be a writ of annuity or diſtreſs, at the election of the grantee: but after the death of the grantor, if the heir be not charged, the election to bring annuity ceaſeth. *Dyer*, 344.

A man was indicted of felony for entering a houſe and taking away money, and found guilty, and burnt in the hand; after which the perſon who loſt the money brought an action of treſpaſs againſt the other for breaking his houſe, and taking away his money; and it was held that the action would lie; for though it was at his election at firſt, either to prefer an indictment or bring an action, yet

by the indictment he had made no election, becauſe that was not the proſecution of the party, but of the crown. *Style*, 347.

If a bargain and ſale be made of lands, which is inrolled, and at the ſame time the bargainor levies a fine thereof to the bargainee, he hath his election to take by one or the other. 4 *Rep.* 72. A wife hath her election which to take, of a jointure made after marriage, or her dower, on the death of the huſband, and not before. *Dyer*, 358. When a leſſor hath election to charge the leſſee, or his aſſignee, for rent; if he accepts the rent of the aſſignee, he hath determined his election. 3 *Rep.* 24. If a perſon hath election to pay or perform one of two things at a day, and he do neither of them at that day, his election is gone: and where a grant is made of two acres of land, the one for life, the other in fee, or in tail, and before any election the feoffee makes a feoffment of both; in this caſe the election will be gone, and the feoffor may enter upon which he will for the forfeiture. 2 *Rep.* 37. If money on a mortgage be to be paid to a man, his heirs, or executors, the mortgagor hath election to pay it to either: and if in a feoffment it be to pay to the feoffee, his heirs or aſſigns, and he enfeoff another, the feoffor may pay the money to the firſt or ſecond feoffee, &c. *Co. Litt.* 210. In ſome caſes, where one hath cauſe of ſuit, he may ſue one perſon or another at his election; for there is an election of perſons, as well as of things. *Dyer*, 204. A man by deed binds himſelf and his heirs to pay money, and dies; the obligee may chooſe to ſue the heir, or the executors, although both of them have aſſets. *Poph.* 151. One may have election, when he hath recovered a debt, to have his execution by *elegit; fieri facias*, or *capias ad ſatisfaciendum*; but where he takes an *elegit*, and hath no fruit of it, he may reſort to another writ, though the election be entered on record. *Hob.* 57. But there is no election againſt the king in his grants, &c. 1 *Leon.* 30.

ELECTION OF A CLERK OF STATUTES-MERCHANT. A writ that lies for the choice of a clerk aſſigned to take bonds called *ſtatutes-merchant*; and is granted out of the chancery, upon ſuggeſtion that the clerk formerly aſſigned is gone to dwell at another place, or is under ſome impediment to attend the duty of his office, or hath not lands ſufficient to anſwer his tranſgreſſions, if he ſhould act amiſs, &c.

ELECTION OF ECCLESIASTICAL PERSONS. There is to be a free election for the dignities of the church. 9 *Edw.* II. c. 14. And none ſhall diſturb any perſon from making free election, on pain of great forfeiture. If any perſons that have a voice in elections, take any reward for an election in any church, college, ſchool, &c. the election ſhall be void: and if any of ſuch ſocieties reſign their places to others for reward, they incur a forfeiture of double the ſum; and the party giving it, and the party taking it, is incapable of ſuch place. 31 *Eliz.* c. 6.

ELECTION OF MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT. See the article PARLIAMENT.

ELECTION OF A VERDEROR OF THE FOREST. A writ which lies for the choice of a verderor, where any of the verderors of the foreſt are dead, or removed from their offices, &c. It is directed to the ſheriff; and, as appears by the ancient writs of this kind, the verderor is to be elected by the freeholders of the county, in the ſame manner as coroners.

ELECTIONEER'ING, *ſ.* Concern in parliamentary elections.—Adieu, ſay I, to all *electioneering*. *Soame Jenyns.*

ELEC'TIONS, or CHOICE, *ſ.* in algebra, a calculation of the ſeveral different ways of taking any number of things propoſed, either ſeparately, or as combined in pairs, in threes, in fours, &c. not as to the order, but only as to the number and variety of them. Thus, of the things *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, &c. the elections of
one thing are (*a*,) $1 = 2^1 - 1$,
two things are (*a*, *b*, *ab*) $3 = 2^2 - 1$,
three things are (*a*, *b*, *c*, *ab*, *ac*, *bc*, *abc*) $7 = 2^3 - 1$, &c.
and of any number, *n*, all the elections are $2^n - 1$; that is, one leſs than the power of 2 whoſe exponent is *n*, the number of ſingle things to be choſen, either ſeparately or in combination.

ELEC'TIVE, *adj.* Regulated or beſtowed by election or choice.—I will ſay poſitively and reſolutely, that it is impoſſible an *elective* monarchy ſhould be ſo free and abſolute as an hereditary. *Bacon.*—Exerting the power of choice.—To talk of compelling a man to be good, is a contradiction; for where there is force, there can be no choice: whereas all moral goodneſs conſiſteth in the *elective* act of the underſtanding will. *Grew.*

ELEC'TIVE ATTRAC'TION. See the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv p. 174, &c.

ELEC'TIVELY, *adv.* By choice; with preference of one to another.—How or why that ſhould have ſuch an influence upon the ſpirits, as to drive them into thoſe muſcles *electively*, I am not ſubtle enough to diſcern. *Ray.*

ELEC'TOR, *ſ.* He that has a vote in the choice of any officer:

From the new world her ſilver and her gold
Came, like a tempeſt, to confound the old;
Feeding with theſe the brib'd *electors'* hopes,
Alone ſhe gave us emperors and popes. *Waller.*

A prince who has a voice in the election or choice of the German emperor.—See the article GERMANY.

ELEC'TORAL, *adj.* Having the dignity of an elector. Belonging to an elector, or to the body of electors of Germany.—The emperor gave the ſolemn inveſtiture of the *electoral* dignity to the plenipotentiary of Erneſt Auguſtus. *Collins.*—Of the three colleges of the empire, the firſt is the *electoral*. *Guthrie.*

ELEC'TORATE, *ſ.* The territory of an elector. It is uſed as well to ſignify the dignity of, as the territories belonging to, any of the electors of Germany; ſuch are Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, &c.

ELEC'TRA, one of the Oceanides, wife of Atlas, and mother of Dardanus, by Jupiter. *Ovid. Faſt.* 4.—A daughter of Agamemnon king of Argos. She firſt incited her brother Oreſtes to revenge his father's death by aſſaſſinating his mother Clytemneſtra. Oreſtes gave her in marriage to his friend Pylades, and ſhe became mother of two ſons, Strophius and Medon. Her adventures and misfortunes form one of the intereſting tragedies of the poet Sophocles. *Elian.*—A ſiſter of Cadmus. *Pauſ.* 9, c. 8.—A city and river of Meſſenia in Peloponneſus. *Pauſ.* 4, c. 33.—One of Helen's female attendants. *Id.* 10, c. 25.

ELEC'TRAL, *adj.* for *electric* or *electrical*, occurs in a poem of Shenſtone's, publiſhed after his death, but is an unneceſſary and a misformed word. *Maſon's Supplement.*—Upon which we have the following remarks in the Monthly Magazine: The adjectives *electric*, *electral*, and *electrical*, have all been uſed by writers of education: are they in purity, as in meaning, equivalent? The termination *ic* derives from the Greek ικος, as μοναρχης, monarch, μοναρχικος, monarchic; κωμος, fun, κωμικος, comic: the termination *al* derives from the Latin *alis*, as *æquare*, to level; *æqualis*, equal; *navis*, a ſhip; *navalis*, naval: but the termination *ical* is a hybrid coaleſcence of the Greek and Latin formative ſyllables, a mongrel affix peculiar to Engliſh language. If then the ſpirit of our language does not favour the breed of mule words, it would follow, that, where the radical ſubſtantive or etymon is Greek, the inflection of the derived adjective ſhould be in *ic*; and where the etymon is Latin, in *al*: but that, to words of low and ludicrous ſignification, an affix *ical*, ſomewhat barbarous and illiterate in its very compoſition, would beſt be adapted: as *whimſical*, *finical*, *pedantical*, *ſatirical*. As the old word *electre*, amber, may come from the Greek, or from the Latin, the adjectives *electric* or *electral* are alike proper. *Monthly Mag.* vol. xii. p. 300.

ELEC'TRE, *ſ.* [*electrum*, Lat.] Amber; which, having the quality when warmed by friction, of attracting bodies, gave to one ſpecies of attraction the name of *electricity*, and to the bodies that ſo attract, the epithet

electric.

electric. A mixed metal.—Change ſilver plate or veſſels into the compound ſtuff, being a kind of ſilver *electre*, and turn the reſt into coin. *Bacon.*

ELEC'TRESS, *ſ.* The wife or widow of a German elector.—The *electreſs* Palatine has ſent me ſix wild boars' heads. *Cheſterfield.*—The act of parliament ſettled the crown on the *electreſs* Sophia and her deſcendants, being proteſtants. *Burke.*

ELEC'TRIC, or ELECTRICAL, *adj.* [*electrum*, Lat.] Attractive by a peculiar property, ſuppoſed once to belong chiefly to amber.—An *electric* body can by friction emit an exhalation ſo ſubtle, and yet ſo potent, as by its emiſſion to cauſe no ſenſible diminution of the weight of the *electric* body, and to be expanded through a ſphere, whoſe diameter is above two feet, and yet to be able to carry up lead, copper, or leaf-gold, at the diſtance of above a foot from the *electric* body. *Newton.*—Produced by an electric body.—If that attraction were not rather *electrical* than magnetical, it was wonderous what Helmont delivereth concerning a glaſs, wherein the magiſtery of loadſtone was prepared, which retained an attractive quality. *Brown.*

ELEC'TRIC, *ſ.* the globe, cylinder, or barrel, of an electrical machine. This term is alſo applied to all ſubſtances in which the electric fluid can be excited and accumulated, without tranſmitting it; and which are therefore called *non-conductors*. They are alſo called *original electrics*, and *electrics per ſe*. To the claſs of non-conductors belong glaſs, and all vitrifications, even of metals; all gems, of which the moſt tranſparent are the beſt; all reſins, and reſinous compoſitions; alſo ſulphur, baked wood, all bituminous ſubſtances, wax, ſilk, cotton, all dry animal ſubſtances, as feathers, wool, hair, &c.; alſo paper, white ſugar, and ſugar-candy; likewiſe air, oils, chocolate, calces of metals, the aſhes of animal and vegetable ſubſtances, the ruſt of metals, all dry vegetable ſubſtances, and ſtones, of which the hardeſt are the beſt.

ELEC'TRICA, *ſ.* with phyſicians. Medicines which have the quality of drawing.

ELEC'TRICALNESS, *ſ.* The quality of being electrical. *Scott.*

ELECTRICITY, *ſ.* [from ηλεκτρον, *amber*, as having the power to *excite*, or *attract*.] The ſcience which inveſtigates and explains the nature and properties of that active and ſubtile matter, which philoſophers have agreed to call *electric fluid*; or that exceedingly elaſtic principle, which when excited by friction, is found to reſide more or leſs in all bodies or ſubſtances with which we are acquainted. No one branch of natural philoſophy, perhaps, hath attracted more attention than the doctrine of electricity; and indeed there are few which ſeem more worthy of inveſtigation. When we conſider the diſtinguiſhed part which electricity apparently performs in the grand operations of nature; the aſtoniſhing, and, on the firſt view, the inexplicable effects produced by its power, ſo different from thoſe of any other; and its ſecret and concealed mode of action, which the moſt acute obſervers have not hitherto been able fully to penetrate; it will not appear ſurpriſing that both the learned and the unlearned ſhould, with unabated zeal, have employed their attention on this phenomenon, as important to ſpeculative philoſophy, as by its medical influence it is intereſting to ſociety.

The property of excitation which amber poſſeſſes, certainly furniſhed the firſt idea of electricity. Thales, ſix hundred years before Chriſt, and Theophraſtus, three hundred years before the ſame era, recorded this electrical property in amber. See the article AMBER, vol. i. p. 398. It was afterwards noticed by Pliny, and other later naturaliſts, particularly Gaſſendus, Kenelm Digby, and ſir Thomas Brown. But it was generally imagined that this quality was peculiar to amber and jet, and perhaps agate, till W. Gilbert, a native of Colcheſter, and a phyſician in London, publiſhed his treatiſe *De Magnete*, in the year 1600. Dr. Gilbert made many conſiderable experiments and diſcoveries, conſidering the then infant ſtate of the ſcience. He greatly enlarged the liſt of electrics, and of the bodies on which they act: he remarked, that a dry air was moſt favourable to electrical phenomena, whilſt a moiſt air almoſt annihilates the electric principle: he alſo obſerved the conical figure aſſumed by electrified drops of water: he conſidered electrical attraction ſeparately from repulſion, which he thought had no place in electricity, as a phenomenon ſimilar to the attraction of coheſion; and, he imagined, that electrics were brought into contact with the bodies on which they act by their effluvia, excited by friction.

The ingenious Mr. Boyle alſo added to the catalogue of electric ſubſtances; but he thought that glaſs poſſeſſed this power in a very low degree: he found, that the electricity of all bodies, in which it might be excited, was increaſed by wiping and warming them; that an excited electric was acted upon by other bodies as ſtrongly as it acted upon them; that diamonds rubbed againſt any kind of ſtuff, emitted light in the dark; and that feathers would cling to the fingers, and to other ſubſtances, after they had been attracted by electrics. He accounted for electrical attraction, by ſuppoſing a glutinous effluvia emitted from electrics, which laid hold of ſmall bodies, in its way, and carried them back to the body from which it proceeded.

Otto Guericke, the celebrated inventor of the air-pump, lived about the ſame time. This ingenious philoſopher diſcovered, by means of a globe of ſulphur, that a body once attracted by an electric, was next repelled, and continued in this ſtate of repulſion till it ſhould be touched by ſome other body: he alſo obſerved the ſound and light produced by the excitation of the tube; and that bodies immerged in electrical atmoſpheres are themſelves electrified with an electricity oppoſite to that of the atmoſphere.

The light emitted by electrical bodies was, not long after, obſerved to much greater advantage by Dr. Wall, who aſcribes to light the electrical property which they poſſeſs; and he ſuggeſted a ſimilarity between the effects of electricity and lightning. Sir Iſaac Newton was not inattentive to this ſubject: he obſerved that glaſs attracts light bodies on the ſide oppoſite to that on which it is rubbed; and he aſcribes the action of electric bodies to an elaſtic fluid, which freely penetrates glaſs, and the emiſſion of it to the vibratory motions of the parts of excited bodies.

Mr. Hawkſbee wrote copiouſly on this ſubject in 1709, when a new era commenced in the hiſtory of electricity. He firſt took notice of the great electrical power of glaſs, and light proceeding form it; though others had before obſerved the light proceeding from other electrified ſubſtances: he alſo noted the noiſe occaſioned by it, with a variety of phenomena relating to electrical attraction and repulſion. He firſt introduced a glaſs globe into the electrical machine, to which circumſtance it was that many of his important diſcoveries were owing. After his time there was an interval of near twenty years in the progreſs of this ſcience, until the experiments and writings of Mr. Stephen Grey gave new vigour to this intereſting inquiry. To him we owe the capital diſcovery of communicating the power of native electrics to other bodies, in which it cannot be excited, by ſupporting them on ſilken lines, hair lines, cakes of reſin or glaſs; and a more accurate diſtinction than had hitherto been obtained between electrics and non-electrics: he alſo ſhewed the effect of electricity on water much more obviouſly than Gilbert had done in the infancy of the ſcience.

The experiments of Mr. Grey were repeated by M. du Faye, member of the academy of ſciences at Paris, to which he added many new experiments and diſcoveries of his own. He obſerved, that electrical operations are obſtructed by great heat, as well as by a moiſt air; that all bodies, both ſolid and fluid, would receive electricity, when placed on warm or dry glaſs, or ſealing-wax; that

thoſe bodies which are naturally the leaſt electric, have the greateſt degree of electricity communicated to them by the approach of the excited tube. He tranſmitted the electric virtue through a diſtance of 1256 feet; and firſt obſerved the electric ſpark from a living body, ſuſpended on ſilken lines, and noted ſeveral circumſtances attending it. M. du Faye alſo eſtabliſhed a principle, firſt ſuggeſted by Otto Guericke, that electric bodies attract all thoſe that are not ſo, and repel them as ſoon as they are become electric, by the vicinity or contact of the electric body. He likewiſe ſuppoſed, from other experiments, that there were two kinds of electricity, one of which he called the *vitreous*, belonging to glaſs, rock cryſtal, &c. and the other *reſinous*, as that of amber, gumlac, &c. diſtinguiſhed by their repelling thoſe of the ſame kind, and attracting each other. He farther obſerved, that communicated electricity had the ſame property as the excited; and that electrical ſubſtances attract the dew more than conductors.

Mr. Grey, reſuming his experiments in 1734, ſuſpended ſeveral pieces of metal on ſilken lines, and found that by electrifying them they gave ſparks; which was the origin of metallic conductors: and on this occaſion he diſcovered a cone or pencil of electric light, ſuch as is now known to iſſue from an electrified point. From other experiments he concluded, that the electric power was of the ſame nature with that of thunder and lightning.

Dr. Deſaguliers ſucceeded Mr. Grey in the proſecution of this ſcience. The account of his firſt experiments is dated in 1739. To him we owe thoſe technical terms of *conductors* or *non-electrics* and *electrics per ſe*; and he firſt ranked pure air among the electrics per ſe, and ſuppoſed its electricity to be of the vitreous kind. After the year 1742, in which Dr. Deſaguliers concluded his experiments, the ſubject was taken up and purſued in Germany: the globe was ſubſtituted for the tube, which had been uſed ever ſince the time of Hawkſbee, and a cuſhion was ſoon after uſed as a rubber, inſtead of the hand. About this time too, ſome uſed cylinders inſtead of the globes; and ſome of the German electricians made uſe of more globes than one at the ſame time. By thus increaſing the electrical power, they were the firſt who ſucceeded in ſetting fire to inflammable ſubſtances: this was firſt done by Dr. Ludolf, in 1744; who, with ſparks excited by the friction of a glaſs tube, kindled the ethereal ſpirit of Frobenius. Winkler did the ſame by a ſpark from his own finger, by which he kindled French brandy, and other ſpirits, after previouſly heating them. Mr. Gralath fired the ſmoke of a candle juſt blown out, and ſo lighted it again; and Mr. Boze fired gunpowder, by means of its inflammable gas. About this time Ludolf the younger demonſtrated, that the luminous barometer was made perfectly electrical by the motion of the quickſilver. The electrical ſtar and electrical bells were alſo of German invention.

In England, Dr. Watſon made a diſtinguiſhed figure from this period in the ſcience of electricity: he fired a variety of ſubſtances by the electrical ſpark, and firſt diſcovered that they are capable of being fired by the repulſive power of electricity. In 1745, the accumulation of the electrical power in glaſs, by means of the Leyden phial, was firſt diſcovered. Dr. Watſon obſerved that glaſs tubes and globes do not contain the electric matter in themſelves, but only ſerve as *firſt-movers* or *determiners*, as he expreſſes it, of that power; which was alſo confirmed towards the end of 1746, by Mr. Benjamin Wilſon, who made the ſame diſcovery, that the electric fluid does not come from the globe, but from the earth, and other non-electric bodies about the apparatus. Dr. Watſon alſo diſcovered what Dr. Franklin obſerved about the ſame time in America, called the *plus* and *minus* in electricity. He likewiſe ſhewed that the electric matter paſſed *through* the ſubſtance of the metal of communication, and not merely over the *ſurface*. The notion of medical electricity commenced in 1747. We muſt not omit to notice other experiments and concluſions drawn from them, by Mr. Wilſon, Mr. Smeaton, and Dr. Miles, in England, and by the abbé Nollet, with regard to the effect of electricity on the evaporation of fluids, on ſolids, and on animal and other organized bodies, in France.

Whilſt the philoſophers of Europe were thus buſily employed in electrical experiments and purſuits, thoſe of America, and Dr. Franklin in particular, were equally induſtrious, and no leſs ſucceſsful. His diſcoveries and obſervations in electricity were communicated in a Series of Letters to a Friend; the firſt of which is dated in 1747, and the laſt in 1754. The ſimilarity between electricity and lightning had been ſuggeſted by ſeveral writers: but Dr. Franklin firſt propoſed a method of bringing the matter to the teſt of experiment, by raiſing an electrical kite; and he ſucceeded in collecting the electric fluid by this means from the clouds, in 1752, one month after the very ſame theory had been verified in France, and without knowing what had been done there: and to him we owe the practical application of this diſcovery, in ſecuring buildings from the damage of lightning, by the erection of metallic conductors.

In the ſubſequent period of the hiſtory of this ſcience, Mr. Canton in England, and ſignior Beccaria in Italy, acquired diſtinguiſhed reputation. They both diſcovered, independently of each other, that air is capable of receiving electricity by communication, and of retaining it when received. Mr. Canton alſo, towards the end of the year 1753, purſued a ſeries of experiments, which prove that the appearances of poſitive and negative electricity, which had hitherto been deemed eſſential and unchangeable properties of different ſubſtances, as of glaſs and ſealing-wax for inſtance, depend upon the ſurface of the electrics, and that of the rubber. This hypotheſis, verified by numerous experiments, occaſioned a controverſy between Mr. Canton and Mr. Delaval, who ſtill maintained that theſe different powers depended entirely on the ſubſtances themſelves. About this time too, ſome curious experiments were performed by four of the principal electricians of that period, viz. Dr. Franklin, and Meſſrs. Canton, Wilcke, and Æpinus, with a view to aſcertain the nature of electric atmoſpheres.

The theory of *two* electric fluids, always co-exiſtent and counteracting each other, though not abſolutely independent, was maintained by a courſe of experiments on ſilk ſtockings of different colours, communicated to the royal ſociety of London by Mr. Symmer, in 1759, which was farther purſued by Mr. Cigna of Turin, who publiſhed his account in the Memoirs of the Academy of Turin for the year 1765.

Many inſtances occur in the hiſtory of the ſcience about this period, of the aſtoniſhing force of the electric ſhock, in melting wires, and producing other ſimilar effects: but the moſt remarkable is an experiment of S. Beccaria, in which he thus revivified metals. Several experiments were alſo made by Dr. Watſon, Mr. Smeaton, Mr. Canton, and others, on the paſſage of the electric fluid through a vacuum, and its luminous appearance, and on the power poſſeſſed by certain ſubſtances of retaining the light communicated to them by an electric exploſion. Mr. Canton, S. Beccaria, and others, made many experiments to identify electricity and lightning, to aſcertain the ſtate of the atmoſphere at different times, and to explain the various phenomena of the aurora borealis, water-ſpouts, &c. on the principles of this ſcience.

Thoſe who are deſirous of farther information with reſpect to the hiſtory of electrical experiments and diſcoveries, may conſult Dr. Prieſtley's Hiſtory and Preſent State of Electricity. This author, however, is not merely an hiſtorian: his work contains many original experiments and diſcoveries made by himſelf. He aſcertained the conducting power of charcoal, and of hot glaſs; the electricity of fixed and inflammable air, and of oil; the difference between new and old glaſs, with reſpect to the diffuſion of electricity over its ſurface; the lateral exploſion

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in electrical diſcharges; a new method of fixing circular-coloured ſpots on the ſurfaces of metals, and the moſt probable difference between electrics and conductors, &c. The ſcience is alſo greatly indebted to many other perſons, either for their experiments and improvements of it, or for treatiſes and other writings upon it; as Mr. Henley, to whom we owe ſeveral curious experiments and obſervations on the electrical and conducting quality of different ſubſtances, as chocolate, vapour, &c. with the reaſon of the difference between them; the fuſion of platina; the nature of the electric fluid, and its courſe in a diſcharge; the method of eſtimating the quantity of it in electrical bodies by an electrometer; the influence of points, &c. Alſo Meſſrs. van Marum, van Swinden, Ferguſon, Cavallo, lord Mahon, Nairne, &c. for their ſeveral treatiſes on the ſubject of electricity, any of which may be conſulted with advantage for the experiments and principles of the ſcience.

It is natural to imagine that a power of ſuch efficacy as that of electricity would eventually be applied to medical purpoſes; eſpecially, ſince it has been found invariably to increaſe the ſenſible perſpiration, to quicken the circulation of the blood, and to promote the glandular ſecretion: accordingly, many inſtances occur in the latter period of the hiſtory of this ſcience, in which it has been applied with conſiderable advantage and ſucceſs. And among the variety of caſes in which it has been tried, there are none in which it has been found prejudicial, except pregnancy and the venereal diſeaſe. In moſt diſorders, in which it has been uſed with perſeverance, it has given at leaſt a temporary and partial relief, and in many it has effected a total cure. Of which numerous inſtances may be ſeen in the Philoſ. Tranſ. and the writings on this ſcience by Meſſrs. Lovet, Weſtley, Ferguſon, Cavallo, Wilkinſon, &c.

It is hardly neceſſary to recite the ancient hypotheſes on this ſubject, or the numerous controverſies or exploded notions relative to electricity; ſuch as that of the ſympathetic powder of the Peripatetics; that of unctuous effluvia emitted by excited bodies, and returning to them again, adopted by Gilbert, Gaſſendus, ſir Kenelm Digby, and others; or that of the Carteſians, who aſcribed electricity to the globules of the firſt elements, diſcharged through the pores of the rubbed ſubſtance, and in their return carrying with them thoſe light bodies, in whoſe pores they were entangled: theſe hypotheſes were framed in the infancy of the ſcience, and of philoſophy in general, and have been wiſely given up. In the more advanced ſtate of electricity there have been ſuggeſted two principal theories, each of which has had its advocates. The one, is that of *two* diſtinct *electric fluids*, repulſive with reſpect to themſelves, and attractive of one another, adopted by M. du Faye, on diſcovering the two oppoſite ſpecies of electricity, viz. the *vitreous* and *reſinous*, and ſince new-modelled by Mr. Symmer. It was ſuppoſed by him that theſe two fluids are equally attracted by all bodies, and exiſt in intimate union in their pores; and that in this ſtate they exhibit no mark of their exiſtence. But that the friction of an electric by a rubber ſeparates theſe fluids, and cauſes the vitreous electricity of the rubber to paſs to the electric, and then to the prime conductor of a machine, while the reſinous electricity of the conductor and electric is conveyed to the rubber: and thus the quality of the electric fluid, poſſeſſed by the conductor and the rubber, is changed, while the quantity remains the ſame in each. In this ſtate of ſeparation, he contends that the two electric fluids will exert their reſpective powers; and any number of bodies charged with either of them will repel each other, attract thoſe bodies that have leſs of each particular fluid than themſelves, and be ſtill more attracted by bodies that are wholly deſtitute of it, or that are loaded with the contrary. According to this theory, the electric ſpark is ſuppoſed to make a double current; one fluid paſſing to an electrified conductor from any ſubſtance preſented to it, whilſt the ſame quantity of the other fluid paſſes from it; and when each body receives its natural quantity of both fluids, the balance of the two powers is reſtored, and both bodies are unelectrified. For a further account of this theory, ſee Dr. Prieſtley's Hiſtory, vol. ii. ſect. 3.

The other theory, now generally received, is diſtinguiſhed under the denomination of *poſitive and negative electricity*, being firſt ſuggeſted by Dr. Watſon, but digeſted, illuſtrated, and confirmed, by Dr. Franklin; and ſince that it has been known by the appellation of the Franklinian hypotheſis. It is here ſuppoſed that all the phenomena of electricity depend on one fluid, *ſui generis*, extremely ſubtile and elaſtic, diſperſed through the pores of all bodies, by which the particles of it are as ſtrongly attracted as they are repelled by one another. When bodies poſſeſs their natural ſhare of this fluid, or ſuch a quantity as they can retain by their non-attraction, it is then ſaid they are in an unelectrified ſtate; but when the equilibrium is diſturbed, and they either acquire an additional quantity *from* other bodies, or loſe part of their own natural ſhare by communication *to* other bodies, they exhibit electrical appearances. In the former caſe it is ſaid they are electrified poſitively, or *plus*; and in the other negatively, or *minus*. This electric fluid, it is ſuppoſed, moves with great eaſe in thoſe bodies that are called conductors, but with extreme difficulty and ſlowneſs in the pores of electrics; whence it comes to paſs, that all electrics are impermeable to it. It is farther ſuppoſed that electries contain always an equal quantity of this fluid, ſo that there can be no ſurcharge or increaſe on one ſide without a proportionable decreaſe or loſs on the other, and *vice verſa*; and as the electric does not admit the paſſage of the fluid through its pores, there will be an accumulation on one ſide, and a correſponding deficiency on the other. Then when both ſides are connected together by proper conductors, the equilibrium will be reſtored by the ruſhing of the redundant fluid from the overcharged ſurface to the exhauſted one. Thus alſo, if an electric be rubbed by a conducting ſubſtance, the electricity is only conveyed from one to the other, the one giving what the other receives; and if one be electrified poſitively, the other will be electrified negatively, unleſs the loſs be ſupplied by other bodies connected with it, as in the caſe of the electric and inſulated rubber of a machine. This theory ſerves likewiſe to illuſtrate the other phenomena and operations in the ſcience of electricity. Thus, bodies differently electrified will naturally attract each other, till they mutually give and receive an equal quantity of the electric fluid, and the equilibrium is reſtored between them. Beccaria ſuppoſes, that this effect is produced by the electric matter making a vacuum in its paſſage, and the contiguous air afterwards collapſing, and ſo puſhing the bodies together.

The influence of points, in drawing or throwing off the electric fluid, a moſt curious phenomenon, is ſuppoſed to depend on the leſs reſiſtance it finds to enter or paſs off through fewer particles than through a greater number, whoſe reſiſtance is united in flat or round ſurfaces. The electric light is ſuppoſed to be part of the electric fluid, which appears when it is properly agitated; and the ſound of an exploſion is produced by vibrations, occaſioned by the air's being diſplaced by the electric fluid, and again ſuddenly collapſing.

Mr. Cavendiſh has publiſhed an attempt to deduce and explain ſome of the principal phenomena of electricity in a mathematical and ſyſtematic manner, from the nature of the electric fluid, conſidered as compoſed of particles that repel each other, and attract the particles of all other matter, with a force inverſely as ſome leſs power of the diſtance than the cube, whilſt the particles of all other matter repel each other, and attract thoſe of the electric fluid, according to the ſame law. *Philoſ. Tranſ.* vol. lxi. p. 584–677.—And a ſimilar hypotheſis and method of reaſoning has been propoſed by M. Æpinus, in his *Tentamen Theoriæ Electricitatis & Magnetiſmi.*

Of the ELECTRICAL APPARATUS.

The *electrical machine* is the *primum mobile* of the electrical apparatus. It conſiſts of the electric or barrel, the moving engine or wheel, the rubber, and the prime conductor. In the early ſtate of the ſcience, for the electric, was uſed ſealing-wax, ſulphur, or rough glaſs; but, ſince the method of inſulating the rubber, and ſo producing negative electricity, was introduced, ſmooth glaſs has been uſed. The form is commonly either that of a globe, or of a cylinder. Each figure has its advantages, and its inconveniences. Dr. van Marum, a late German writer, has conſtructed a machine, in which gum-lac, in the form of a diſc, is uſed as an electric inſtead of glaſs; which has the effect of depending very little on the temperature of the air; deſcribed in his Treatiſe concerning the method of electrifying. Groningen, 1776. But he has ſince procured others to be made by Mr. Cuthbertſon of London, conſtructed of large diſcs, or round plates of glaſs: one of theſe is now placed in Teyler's muſeum at Harlem, having two of theſe glaſs plates, of ſixty-five inches diameter, excited, on both ſides of them, by rubbers of waxed taffaty; with which effects are produced that are truly aſtoniſhing and tremendous.

There have been various contrivances for giving *motion* to the electric of a machine. The common method is by a wheel turned by a winch or handle; a cord going round a groove in the periphery of the wheel, and over a pulley in the neck of the globe or cylinder. Others have uſed multiplying wheels, which are eaſily turned by a winch; and others again make uſe of a wheel and pinion, or a wheel and endleſs ſcrew. But Van Marum's machine is ſaid to have the completeſt movement, its operation being very uniform, and eaſily worked; it is kept in motion by a weight, which, after being wound up to the height of twelve feet, continues the motion uniformly for ſix hours; yielding alſo a negative power, as well as the poſitive; and the conductors annexed to it ſerving eaſily to convey the electrical fluid wherever it is required, without the addition of any chain, or wires, &c.

The *rubber* is the next material part of a machine. Theſe were formerly made of red baſil ſkins, ſtuffed with hair, wool, flax, or bran: Dr. Nooth introduced ſilk cuſhions ſtuffed with hair, over which is laid a piece of leather, rubbed with amalgam, which are better than the others. The rubber may be inſulated in any way that beſt ſuits the conſtruction of the machine: and a chain or wire may eaſily be ſuſpended from it, to communicate with the floor, whenever the inſulation is not neceſſary; and thus poſitive and negative electricity may be produced at pleaſure.

The *prime conductor* is another neceſſary appendage to the electrical machine: it is inſulated, and ſo connected with the electrical machine, as to receive the electric fluid immediately from the excited electric. In the preſent advanced ſtate of the ſcience, this part of the electrical apparatus has been conſiderably improved. The prime conductor is commonly made of hollow braſs, of a cylindrical form, perfectly ſmooth and round, without points or ſharp edges. The ends of the conductor are ſpherical; and it is neceſſary, that the part moſt remote from the electric ſhould be made round and much larger than the reſt, the better to prevent the electric fluid from eſcaping, which it always endeavours moſt to do at the greateſt diſtance from the electric or barrel: and the other end ſhould be furniſhed with ſeveral pointed wires or needles, either ſuſpended from, or fixed to, an open metallic ring, and pointing to the globe or cylinder, or plate, to collect the electric fluid. It is beſt ſupported by pillars of ſolid glaſs, covered with ſealing-wax or good varniſh. Prime conductors of a large ſize are uſually made of paſteboard, covered with tin-foil or imboſſed paper; theſe being uſeful for throwing off a longer and denſer ſpark than thoſe of a ſmaller ſize: they ſhould terminate in a ſmaller knob or obtuſe edge, at which the ſparks ſhould be ſolicited. Mr. Nairne prepared a conductor ſix feet in length, and one foot in diameter, from which he drew electrical ſparks at the diſtance of ſixteen, ſeventeen, or eighteen, inches; and Dr. Van Marum ſtill far exceeded this, with a conductor of eight inches diameter, and upwards of twenty feet long, formed of different pieces, and applied to the large electrical machine in Teyler's muſeum at Harlem, the moſt powerful machine of the kind yet conſtructed. But the ſize of the conductor muſt always be limited by that of the electric or barrel, there being a maximum which the ſize of the former ſhould not exceed; for it may be ſo large, that the diſſipation of the electric fluid from its ſurface may be greater than that which the electric is capable of ſupplying.

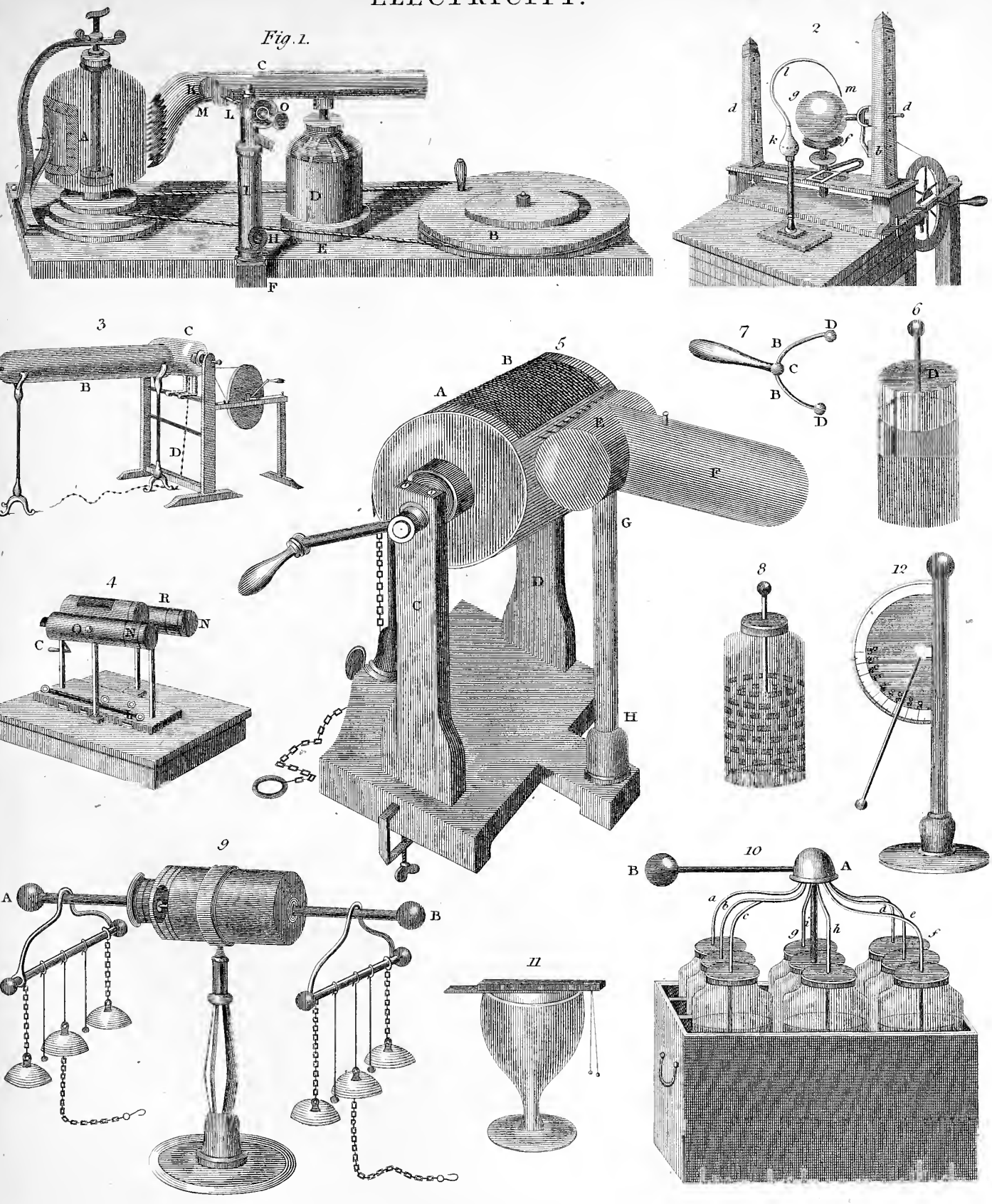
Dr. Prieſtley recommends a prime conductor of poliſhed copper, in the form of a pear, ſupported by a pillar and a firm baſis of baked wood: this receives the electric fluid by a long arched wire of ſoft braſs, which may be eaſily bent, and raiſed or lowered to the globe or cylinder; it is terminated by an open ring, in which ſome ſharp-pointed wires are hung. In the body of this conductor are holes for the inſertion of metalline rods. This, he ſays, collects the electric fluid perfectly well, and retains it equally every where. *Hiſt. Elect.* vol. ii. ſect. 2.

Mr. Henley (Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. lxiv. p. 403.) contrived a new kind of prime conductor, which, from its uſe, is called the *luminous* conductor. It conſiſts of a glaſs tube eighteen inches long, and two inches diameter. The tube is furniſhed at both ends with braſs caps and ferules about two inches long, cemented and made air-tight, and terminated by braſs balls. In one of theſe caps is drilled a ſmall hole, which is covered by a ſtrong valve, and ſerves for exhauſting the tube of its air. Within the tube at each end there is a knobbed wire, projecting to the diſtance of two inches and a half from the braſs caps. To one of the balls is annexed a fine-pointed wire for receiving and collecting the electric fluid, and to the other a wire with a knob or ball for diſcharging it. The conductor, thus prepared, is ſupported on pillars of ſealing-wax or glaſs. Beſide the common purpoſes of a prime conductor to an electrical machine, this apparatus ſerves to exhibit and aſcertain the direction of the electric fluid in its paſſage through it.

The moſt approved electrical machines are exhibited in the Electricity Plate I. Fig. 1, repreſents the very ingenious electrical machine invented by Mr. Read, and improved by Mr. Lane. The glaſs cylinder A, is moved vertically by means of the pulley at the lower end of the axis, the pulley being turned by the large wheel B, parallel to the table: there are ſeveral pulleys, of different ſizes, either of which may be uſed, according as the motion is required to be quicker or ſlower. The prime conductor C is furniſhed with points to collect the electric fluid, and is ſcrewed to the wire of a coated jar D. The figure ſhews alſo the manner of applying Mr. Lane's electrometer, which is ſcrewed on to the prime conductor at K, as will be hereafter explained.

Fig. 2, repreſents Dr. Prieſtley's machine, deſcribed in his Hiſtory of Electricity; in which *g* is the globe, or electric; *f* the rubber; in the two pillars *d*, *d*, of baked wood, are ſeveral holes to receive the ſpindles of different globes or cylinders, ſeveral of which may be put on together, to increaſe the electricity: *klm* is the prime conductor, being a copper tube, ſupported on a ſtand of glaſs or baked wood.

Fig. 3, is a portable electrical machine for common uſes. C repreſents the electric, or glaſs cylinder, about one foot in diameter, and twenty inches long, which is turned by means of a wheel; the rubber or cuſhion is ſupported behind the cylinder by two upright ſprings that appear beneath, and are faſtened to two croſs bars of glaſs. B, is a metallic prime conductor, ſupported on two pillars of glaſs: from the end neareſt to the cylinder iſſue ſeveral points, and at the other end the ball E



Hen.ª Lascelles del.t

Electrical Apparatus — N.º 1.

J. Pass sculp.t

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projects by means of a wire. The chain D, connects the rubber with the earth, or ground.

Fig. 4, shews Mr. Nairne's patent machine for medical purposes. Its glass cylinder is about seven inches in diameter, and twelve long, with two prime conductors parallel to it. The rubber is fastened to the conductor R; and consists of a cushion of leather stuffed, having a piece of silk glewed to its under part. These conductors are of tin covered with black lacker, each of them containing a large coated glass jar, and likewise a smaller one, or a coated tube, which are visible when the caps N N are removed. To each conductor is fixed a knob O, for the occasional suspension of a chain to produce positive or negative electricity. That part of the winch C, which acts as a lever in turning the cylinder, is of glass. Thus every part of the machine is insulated, the cylinder itself and its brass caps not excepted; by which means very little of the electric fluid is dissipated, and hence of course the effects are the more powerful. To this machine the inventor has adapted flexible conducting joints, and a discharging electrometer, for the more appropriate practice of medical electricity.

Fig. 5, represents the very powerful electrical machine invented by the late Mr. George Adams, of Fleet-street, London, and improved by Messrs. W. and S. Jones, in Holborn. The cylinder or barrel A B, is supported by two strong perpendicular pieces, C D. The axis of one cap of the cylinder moves in a small hole at the upper part of one of the supports. The opposite axis passes through the upper part of the other support. To this axis the winch or handle is fitted. The cushion, or rubber, is supported and insulated by a glass pillar; the lower part of this pillar is fitted into a wooden socket, to which a regulating screw is adapted, to increase or diminish the pressure of the cushion against the cylinder. A piece of silk comes from the under edge of the cushion, and lies on the cylinder, passing between it and the cushion, and proceeding till it nearly meets the collecting points of the conductor. The more strongly this silk is made to adhere to the cylinder, the stronger is the degree of excitation. Before the cylinder, or opposite to the cushion, is a metallic tube E F, supported by a glass pillar G H. This is the prime conductor, now more frequently called only the conductor.

The large electrical machine placed in Teyler's museum at Haerlem, partly described above, has, for the electric, two glass plates of sixty-five inches diameter, made of French glass, as this is found to produce the most electricity next to English flint glass, which could not be made of a sufficient size: these plates are set on the same horizontal axis, at the distance of seven inches and a half, and are excited by eight rubbers, each fifteen inches and a half long; and both sides of the plates are covered with a resinous substance to the distance of sixteen inches and a half from the centre, both to strengthen the plates, and to prevent any electricity from being carried off by the axis. Its battery of jars contains 225 square feet of coated surface, and its effects are astonishingly great, and, without proper care, very dangerous.

The next principal article of the electrical apparatus, is the *Leyden phial*. This is nothing more than a glass bottle or jar, coated both within and without with tin foil, or some other conducting substance, that it may be charged and employed in a variety of useful and interesting experiments. Or even flat glass, or any other form, so coated and used, has received the same denomination. Also a vacuum produced in such a jar, &c. has been named the *Leyden vacuum*. The Leyden phial was so called, because it is said that M. Cunæus, a native of Leyden, first contrived, about the close of the year 1745, to accumulate the electric fluid in glass. But Dr. Priestley asserts that this discovery was first made by Von Kleist, dean of the cathedral in Camin; who, on the 4th of November 1745, sent an account of it to Dr. Lieberkuhn at Berlin: however, those to whom Kleist's account was communicated, could not succeed in performing his experiments. The chief circumstances of this discovery are stated by Dr. Priestley in the following manner:

Professor Musschenbroek and his friends, observing that electrified bodies, when exposed to the common atmosphere, which is always replete with conducting particles of various kinds, soon lost the most part of their electricity, imagined, that if the electrified bodies could be terminated on all sides by original electrics, they might be capable of receiving a stronger power, and retaining it a longer time. Glass being the most convenient electric for this purpose, and water the most convenient non-electric, they at first made these experiments with water in common glass bottles: but no considerable discovery was made, till M. Cunæus, happening to hold his glass vessel in one hand, containing water, which had a communication with the prime conductor by means of a wire; and with the other hand disengaging it from the conductor, when he supposed the water had received as much electricity as the machine could give it, was surprised by a sudden and unexpected shock in his arms and breast. This experiment was repeated with the same effect; and the first accounts of it were published in Holland by Messrs. Allamand and Musschenbroek; by the abbé Nollet and M. Monnier, in France; and by Messrs. Gralath and Rugger, in Germany. M. Gralath contrived to increase the strength of the shock, by altering the shape and size of the phial, and also by charging several phials at the same time, so as to form what is now called the *electrical battery*. He likewise made the shock to pass through a number of persons connected in a circuit from the outside to the inside of the phial. He also observed that a cracked phial would not receive a charge: and he discovered what is now called the *residuum of a charge*.

Dr. Watson, about this time, observed a circumstance attending the operation of charging the phial, which, if pursued, might have led him to the discovery which was afterwards made by Dr. Franklin. He says, that when the phial is well electrified, and the hand applied to it, the electric fluid will flash from the outside of the glass, wherever touched, and will crackle in the hand. He also observed, that when a single wire only was fastened about a phial, properly filled with warm water, and charged; upon the instant of its explosion, the electrical corruscations were seen to dart from the wire, and to illuminate the water contained in the phial. He likewise found that the stroke, in the discharge of the phial, was, *cæteris paribus*, as the points of contact of the non-electrics of the outside of the glass; which lead to the method of coating glass: in consequence of which he made experiments, from whence he concluded, that the effect of the Leyden phial was greatly increased by, if not chiefly owing to, the number of points of non-electrics in contact with the glass, and the density of the matter of which these points consisted; provided the matter was, in its own nature, a ready conductor of electricity. He farther observed, that the explosion was greater from hot water inclosed in glasses, than from cold, and from his coated jars warmed, than when cold.

Mr. Wilson, in 1746, discovered a method of giving the shock, by the Leyden phial, to any particular part of the body, without affecting the rest. He also increased the strength of the shock by plunging the phial in water, which gave it a coat of water on the outside as high as it was filled within. He likewise found that the law of accumulation of the electric fluid in the Leyden phial, was always in proportion to the thinness of the glass, the surface of the glass, and that of the non-electrics in contact with its outside and inside.

Mr. Canton found, that when a charged phial was placed upon electrics, the wire and coating would give a spark or two alternately, and that by a continuance of the operation the phial would be discharged; though he did not observe that these alternate sparks proceeded from the two contrary electricities discovered by Dr. Franklin.

lin. The abbé Nollet alſo made ſeveral experiments with this phial. He received a ſhock from one, out of which the air had been exhauſted, and into which the end of his conductor had been inſerted. He aſcribed the force of the glaſs, in giving a ſhock, to that property of it, by which it retains it more ſtrongly than conductors do, and is not ſo eaſily diveſted of it as they are. It was he alſo who firſt tried the effect of the electric ſhock on brute animals: and he enlarged the circuit of its conveyance.

M. Monnier, it has been ſaid, was the firſt who diſcovered that the Leyden phial would retain its electricity for a conſiderable time after it was charged; and that in time of froſt he found it continued for thirty-ſix hours. It is remarkable too, that both the French and Engliſh philoſophers made ſeveral experiments, which, with a ſmall degree of attention, would have led them to the diſcovery of the different qualities of the electricity on the contrary ſides of the glaſs. But this diſcovery was reſerved for the ingenious Dr. Franklin: who, in explaining the method of charging the Leyden phial, obſerved, that when one ſide of the glaſs is electrified *plus*, or poſitively, the other ſide is electrified *minus*, or negatively. Dr. Franklin having alſo found that glaſs was impervious to electricity, and that as the equilibrium could not be reſtored to the charged phial by any internal communication, it muſt neceſſarily be done by conductors externally joining the inſide and the outſide. Theſe capital diſcoveries he made by obſerving, that when a phial was charged, a cork ball ſuſpended by ſilk, was attracted by the outſide coating, when it was repelled by a wire communicating with the inſide, and *vice verſâ*. But the truth of this principle appeared more evident, when he brought the knob of the wire, communicating with the outſide coating, within a few inches of the wire communicating with the inſide coating, and ſuſpended a cork ball between them; for then the ball was attracted by them alternately, till the phial was diſcharged.

Dr. Franklin alſo ſhewed, that when the phial was charged, one ſide loſt exactly as much as the other gained, in reſtoring the equilibrium. Hanging a fine linen thread near the coating of an electrical phial, he obſerved that whenever he brought his finger near the wire, the thread was attracted by the coating; for as the electric fluid was drawn from the inſide by touching the wire, the outſide drew in an equal quantity by the thread. He likewiſe proved, that the coating on one ſide of a phial received juſt as much electricity, as was emitted from the diſcharge of the other, and that in the following manner:—He inſulated his rubber, and then hanging a phial to his conductor, he found it could not be charged, even when his hand was held conſtantly to it; becauſe, though the electric fluid might leave the outſide of the phial, there was none collected by the rubber to be conveyed to the inſide. He then took away his hand from the phial, and forming a communication by a wire from the outſide coating to the inſulated rubber, he found that it was charged with eaſe. In this caſe it was plain, that the electric fluid which left the outſide coating, was conveyed to the inſide by the way of the rubber, the globe, the conductor, and the wire of the phial. This new theory of charging the Leyden phial, led Dr. Franklin to obſerve a greater variety of facts, relating both to the charging and diſcharging it, than other philoſophers had attended to. And this maxim, that it takes in at one ſurface what it loſes at the other, led Dr. Franklin to think of charging ſeveral phials together with the ſame trouble, by connecting the outſide of one with the inſide of another; by which the electric fluid that was driven out of the firſt would be received by the ſecond, &c. By this means he found, that a number of jars might be charged with the ſame labour as one only; and on this principle he firſt conſtructed an electrical battery.

When Dr. Franklin firſt began his experiments on the Leyden phial, he imagined that the electric fluid was all crowded into the ſubſtance of the non-electric, in contact with the glaſs. But he afterwards found, that its power of giving a ſhock lay in the glaſs itſelf, and not in the coating, by the following ingenious analyſis of the phial. To find where the ſtrength of the charged bottle lay, having placed it upon a glaſs, he firſt took out the cork and the wire; but not finding the electricity in them, he touched the outſide coating with one hand, and put a finger of the other into the mouth of the bottle; when the ſhock was felt quite as ſtrong as if the cork and wire had been in it. He then charged the phial again, and pouring out the water into an empty bottle which was inſulated, he expected that if the force reſided in the water, it would give the ſhock; but he found it gave none. He therefore concluded that the electric fluid muſt either have been loſt in decanting, or muſt remain in the bottle; and the latter he found to be true; for, upon filling the charged bottle with freſh water, he found the ſhock, and was ſatisfied that the power of giving it reſided in the glaſs itſelf. The ſame experiment was made with panes of glaſs, laying the coating on lightly, and charging it, as the water had been before charged in the bottle, when the reſult was preciſely the ſame.

From this account of Dr. Franklin's method of analyſing the Leyden phial, the manner of charging and diſcharging it will be eaſily underſtood. Fig. 6, in the Electricity Plate I. repreſents a Leyden jar, coated with tinfoil on the inſide and outſide, within three inches of the top, having a wire with a round braſs knob at its upper extremity. This wire paſſes through the cork D, that ſtops the mouth of the jar, and, at its lower end, is bended and branched ſo as to touch the inſide coating in ſeveral places. Thus it is ready to be charged with the electric fluid, and then diſcharged at pleaſure, by applying a diſcharger.

Fig. 7, in the ſame engraving, exhibits the form of the diſcharging rod; which conſiſts of a glaſs handle, and two curved wires, which move by a joint C, fixed to the braſs cap of the glaſs handle. The wires B B are pointed, and the points enter the knobs D D, to which they are ſcrewed, and may be unſcrewed from them at pleaſure. By this conſtruction, the balls, or the points, may be uſed as occaſion requires. The wires being moveable at the joint C, may be adapted to ſmaller or larger jars at pleaſure. The method of charging and diſcharging is as follows: place the Leyden jar, prepared as above, near to the prime conductor of the electrical machine, ſo that the knob of the wire in the jar may be in contact with it; then, upon turning the winch of the machine, the index of Henley's electrometer, which may be previouſly affixed to the conductor, will gradually riſe as far as ninety degrees nearly, and there reſt; which ſhews that the phial has received its *full charge*; then, holding the diſcharger by its glaſs handle, and applying one of its knobs to the outſide coating of the phial, the other being brought near the knob of the wire, or near the prime conductor which communicates with it, a report will be heard, and luminous ſparks will be ſeen, between the diſcharger and the conducting ſubſtances communicating with the ſides of the phial; and by this operation the phial will be *diſcharged*: But, inſtead of uſing the diſcharger, if a perſon touch the outſide of the phial with one hand, and bring the other hand near the wire of the phial, the ſame ſpark and report will take place, and a ſhock will be felt, affecting the wriſts and elbows, and the breaſt too when the ſhock is ſtrong: a ſhock may alſo be given to any ſingle part of the body, if that part alone be brought in contact. If a number of perſons join hands, and the firſt of them touch the outſide of the phial, while the laſt touches the wire communicating with the inſide, they will all feel the ſhock at the ſame time. If the coated phial be held by the wire, and the outſide coating be preſented to the prime conductor, it will be charged as readily; but with this difference, that in this caſe the outſide will be poſitive, and the inſide negative; alſo if the prime conductor, by being connected with the rubber of the machine, be electrified

trified negatively, the phial will be charged in the same manner; but the side that touches the conductor will be electrified negatively, and the opposite side will be electrified positively. But, by insulating the phial, and repeating the same process, the index of the electrometer will soon rise to ninety degrees, yet the phial will remain uncharged; because the outside, having no communication with the earth, &c. cannot part with its own electricity, and therefore the inside cannot acquire an additional quantity: but when a chain, or any other conducting medium, connects the outside of the phial with the table, the phial may be charged as before. Moreover, if a phial be insulated, and one side of it, instead of being connected with the earth, be connected with the insulated rubber, whilst the other side communicates with the prime conductor, the phial will be expeditiously charged; because that, whilst the rubber exhausts one side, the other side is supplied by the prime conductor; and thus the phial is charged with its own electricity; or the electric fluid of one of its sides is thus thrown upon the other side. This last experiment may be diversified by insulating the phial, and placing it with its wire at the distance of about half an inch from the prime conductor, and holding the knob of another wire at the same distance from its outside coating; then, upon turning the machine, a spark will be observed to proceed from the prime conductor to the wire of the phial, and another spark will pass at the time from the outside coating to the knob of the wire presented towards it: and thus it appears, that as a quantity of the electric fluid is entering the inside of the phial, an equal quantity of it is leaving the outside. If the wire presented to the outside of the phial be pointed, it will be seen illuminated with a star; but if the pointed wire be connected with the coating of the phial, it will appear illuminated with a pencil or brush of rays.

Mr. Cavallo has described the construction of a phial which, being charged by an electrical kite, in examining the state of the clouds, or in any other way, may be put into the pocket, and which will retain its charge for a considerable time. A phial of this kind has been kept in a charged state for six weeks. See his Electricity, p. 340. Mr. Cavallo also describes a method of repairing coated phials that have cracked by accident. He first removes the outside coating from the fractured part, and then makes it moderately hot, by holding it to the flame of a candle; and whilst it remains hot, he applies burning sealing-wax to the part, so as to cover the fracture entirely; observing that the thickness of this wax coating may be greater than that of the glass. Lastly, he covers all the sealing-wax, and also part of the surface of the glass beyond it, with a composition made with four parts of bees-wax, one of resin, one of turpentine, and a very little oil of olives; this being spread upon a piece of oiled silk, he applies it in the manner of a plaster. In this way several phials have been so effectually repaired, that after being frequently charged, they were again broken by a spontaneous discharge, but in a different part of the glass.

Fig. 8. in the Engraving, exhibits another Leyden phial, which is called the *spotted bottle*, because it is only coated with small pieces of tin-foil, placed at a little distance from each other. If this bottle be charged in the usual manner, strong sparks of electricity will fly from one spot of tin-foil to the other, making the passage of the fluid on the outside very visible. Discharge this bottle, by bringing a pointed wire gradually near the knob, and the uncoated part of the glass between the spots will be pleasingly illuminated, and the noise will resemble that of small fired crackers. If the jar be discharged suddenly, the outside surface will appear illuminated. To produce these appearances, the glass must be very free from moisture. If a phial uncoated on the outside be held in the hand, and its knob presented towards an electrified conductor; the electric fluid, while it is charging, will pass from the outside to the hand, in a pleasing manner; on the discharge, beautiful ramifications will be seen upon the uncoated part of the bottle.

This experiment may be still farther pursued by suspending two sets of bells from a Leyden bottle placed horizontally; one set connected with the inside, the other with the outside, as represented by fig. 9. Hook up the chain from the bells communicating with the inside, that they may have no connection with the table; charge the bottle in the usual manner; during the charge, the set suspended from the outside will continue to ring. After the bottle is charged, unhook the wire of the bells suspended from the inside. Touch now the wire A, and the bells will cease ringing, but the other set will begin to act; take the finger from A, and apply it to B, and the bells at B will be quiet, while those at A will be set ringing; and so on alternately, till the bottle is discharged of the electrical fluid.

The most formidable charge that can be given to the electrical apparatus, is by means of the electrical battery, which consists of a number of Leyden jars connected together in a box. The bottom of the box is covered with tin-foil; from these a hook projects on the outside of the box, by which any substance may be connected with the outside of the jars; their insides are all connected by wire or some metallic communication; by means of which a great number of very interesting experiments in electricity are performed; and though it be a formidable appendage to an electrical machine, yet it cannot be said that the apparatus is complete without it. Its effects in exploding various bodies, in firing gunpowder, in melting wires, and in imitating all the effects of lightning, are highly curious and interesting.

In an electrical battery, the jars are so arranged that the whole may be charged at the same time, and discharged in an instant; so that the whole power of the electric fluid accumulated in them, may be at once exerted upon the substance exposed to the shock. The electrical battery represented at fig. 10, in the preceding engraving, consists of nine jars connected together by the wires *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*; all of which are fastened into the stoppers of the bottles, and meet at top in the brass ball. Thus a communication is made between all the inside coating of the jars, while their outside coatings are connected by the bottom of the box in which they stand. In one side of the box, near the bottom, is an hole through which a brass hook passes, and which communicates with the metallic lining of the box, and consequently with the outside coatings of the jars. To this hook a wire or chain is occasionally connected when a discharge is made; and, for the more convenient making of this discharge, a ball and wire B, proceed to a convenient length from the center ball A. When the whole force of the battery is not required, one, two, or three, jars may be rendered neutral, by pressing down the wires belonging to them, until their extremities can slip out of their respective holes in the brass ball, and then turning them into such a posture that they cannot have any communication with the battery. The number of jars represented in this figure is rather small for some purposes; but it may be enlarged at pleasure.

The *electrical kite*, was contrived by Dr. Franklin, as before-mentioned, to verify his hypothesis of the identity of electricity and lightning. It consisted of a large thin silk handkerchief, extended and fastened at the four corners to two slender strips of cedar, and accommodated with a tail, loop, and string, so as to rise in the air like a common paper kite. To the top of the upright stick of the cross was fixed a very sharp-pointed wire, rising a foot or more above the wood; and to the end of the twine, next the hand, a silk ribband was tied. From a key suspended at the junction of the twine and silk, when the kite is raised during a thunder-storm, a phial may be charged, and electric fluid collected, as is usually done by means of a cylinder or globe in the electrical machine. Kites made of paper, covered with varnish, or with well-boiled linseed oil, to

preſerve them from the rain, with a ſtick and cane bow, like the common ones uſed by boys, will anſwer the purpoſe extremely well, and are very uſeful in determining the electricity of the atmoſphere.

The next article of conſideration in the electrical apparatus, is the *electrometer*; an inſtrument that meaſures the quantity, and determines the quality, of electricity in any electrified body. Previous to the invention of inſtruments of this kind, Mr. Canton eſtimated the quantity of electricity in a charged phial, by preſenting the phial with one hand to an inſulated conductor, and giving it a ſpark, which he took off with the other; proceeding in this manner till the phial was diſcharged, when he determined the ſtrength of the charge by the number of ſparks. The moſt ſimple electrometer, is a flaxen thread, called by Dr. Deſaguliers, the *thread of trial*; which, being brought near an electrified body, is attracted by it: but this does little more than determine whether the body is in any degree electrified or not; without determining its quantity, much leſs the quality of it. The abbé Nollet uſed two threads, thus ingeniouſly ſhewing the degree of electricity by the angle of their divergency, exhibited in their ſhadow on a board placed behind them. But electrometers have, of late years, been greatly improved.

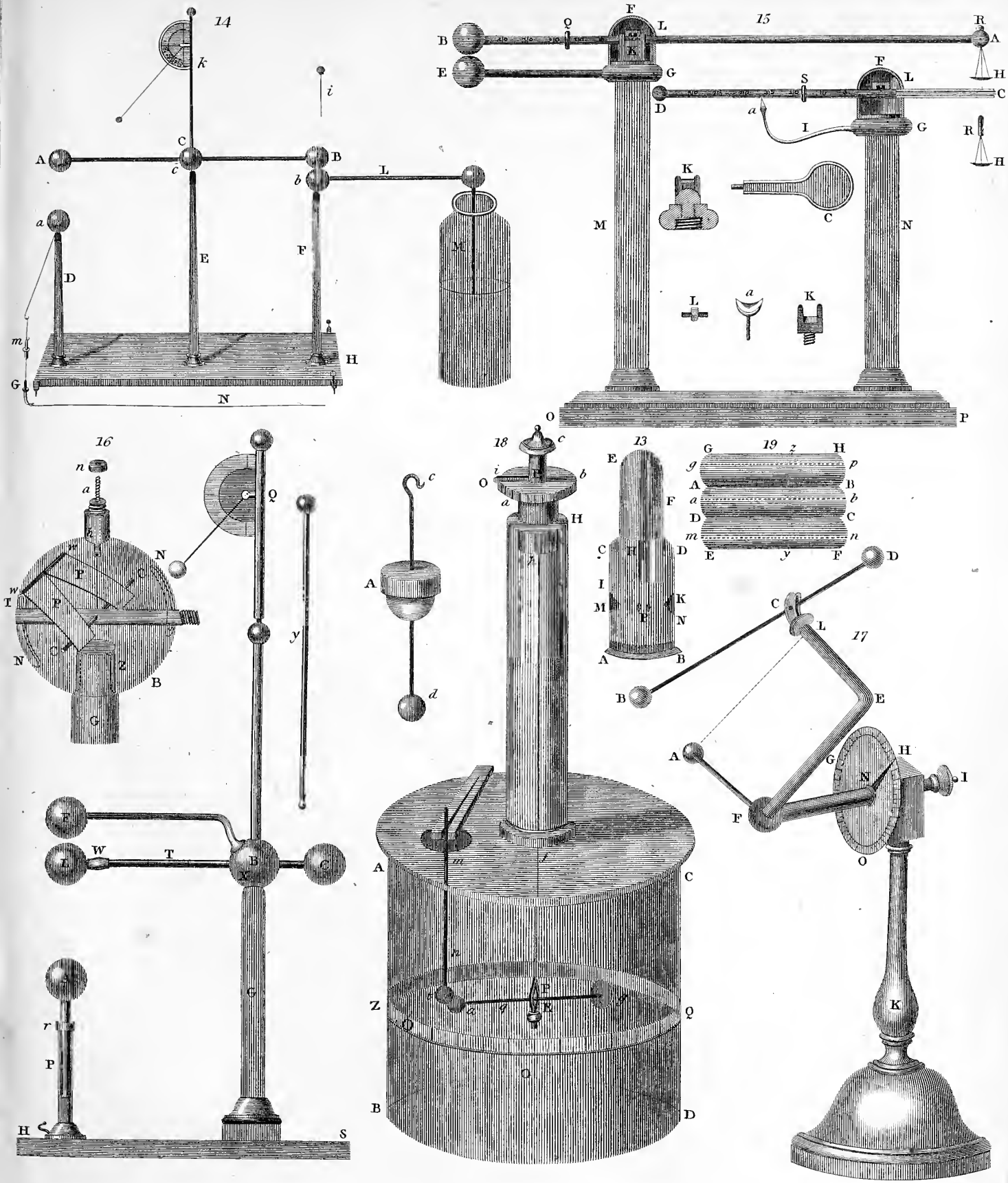
Mr. Canton's electrometer, repreſented in the preceding engraving at fig. 11, conſiſts of two balls of cork, or pith of elder, about the ſize of a ſmall pea, ſuſpended by fine flaxen threads, about ſix inches long, wetted in a weak ſolution of ſalt. If the box containing theſe balls be inſulated, by placing it on a drinking-glaſs, or rummer, and an excited ſmooth glaſs tube be brought near them, they will firſt be attracted by it, and then be repelled both from the glaſs, and from each other; but on the approach of excited wax, they will gradually approach and come together; and *vice verſa*. This alſo ſerves to determine the electricity of the clouds and air, by holding them at a ſufficient diſtance from buildings, trees, &c. for if the electricity of the clouds or air be poſitive, their mutual repulſion will increaſe by the approach of excited glaſs or decreaſe by the approach of amber or ſealing-wax; on the contrary, if it be negative, their repulſion will be diminiſhed by the former, and increaſed by the latter. See Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. 48. If two balls of this kind be annexed to a prime conductor, they will ſerve to determine both the degree and quality of the electricity, by their mutual repulſion and divergency.

The diſcharging electrometer of Mr. Lane, is repreſented as fixed to the prime conductor of the electrical machine, fig. 1, in the preceding engraving. It conſiſts of braſs work, the lower part of which is incloſed in the pillar F, made of baked wood, and boiled in linſeed oil, and bored cylindrically about two-thirds of its length; the braſs work is fixed to the pillar by the ſcrew H, moveable in the groove I; and through the ſame is made to paſs a ſteel ſcrew L, to the end of which, and oppoſite to K, a poliſhed hemiſpherical piece of braſs, attached to the prime conductor, is fixed a ball of braſs M, well poliſhed. To this ſcrew is annexed a circular plate O, divided into twelve equal parts. The uſe of this electrometer is to diſchage the jar D, or any battery connected with the conductor, *without a diſcharging rod*, and to give ſhocks ſucceſſively of the ſame degree of ſtrength; on which account it is very fit for medical purpoſes. Then, if a perſon holds a wire faſtened to the ſcrew H in one hand, and another wire fixed to E, a loop of braſs wire paſſing from the frame of the machine to a tin plate, on which the phial D ſtands, he will perceive no ſhock, when K and M are in contact; and the degree of the exploſion, as well as the quantity of electricity accumulated in the phial, will be regulated by the diſtance between K and M. Mr. Henley has much improved Mr. Lane's electrometer, by taking away the ſcrew, the double milled nut, and the ſharp-edged graduated plate, and adding other contrivances in their ſtead. Mr. Henley's diſcharger of this kind has two tubes, one ſliding within the other, to lengthen and accommodate it occaſionally to a larger apparatus.

The quadrant electrometer of Mr. Henley, delineated in the ſame engraving at fig. 12, conſiſts of a ſtem, terminating at its lower end with a braſs ferrule and ſcrew, for faſtening it upon any occaſion; and its upper part ends in a ball. Near the top is fixed a graduated ſemicircle of ivory, on the centre of which the index, being a very light rod with a cork ball at its extremity, reaching to the braſs ferrule of the ſtem, is made to turn on a pin in the braſs piece, ſo as to keep near the graduated limb of the ſemicircle. When the electrometer is not electrified, the index hangs parallel to the ſtem; but as ſoon as it begins to be electrified, the index, repelled by the ſtem, will begin to move along the graduated edge of the ſemicircle, and ſo mark the degree to which the conductor is electrified, or the ſtrength or height to which the *charge* of any jar or battery is advanced.

Mr. Cavallo has invented a very ſenſible electrometer, well adapted for the obſervation of the preſence and quality of natural and artificial electricity. It is delineated at fig. 13, in the Electricity Plate II. A glaſs tube, CDNM, is cemented into the piece AB. The upper part of the tube is ſhaped tapering to a ſmall extremity, which is entirely covered with ſealing-wax. Into this tapering part, a ſmall tube of glaſs is cemented, the lower extremity being alſo covered with ſealing-wax, projects a ſmall way within the tube CDNM. Into this ſmaller tube, a wire is cemented, which, with its under extremity, touches a flat piece of ivory H, faſtened to the tube by means of a cork. The upper extremity of the wire projects about a quarter of an inch above the tube, and ſcrews into the braſs cap EF, which cap is open at the bottom, and ſerves to defend the waxed part of the inſtrument from the rain. From H are ſuſpended two fine ſilver wires, having very ſmall corks at the lower ends, which, by their repulſion, ſhew the electricity. IM, and KN, are two ſlips of tin-foil ſtuck to the inſide of the glaſs, and communicating with the braſs bottom AB. They ſerve to convey away that electricity, which, when the corks touch the glaſs, is communicated to it, and might diſturb their free motion. When this inſtrument is uſed to obſerve artificial electricity, it is ſet on a table, and electrified by touching the braſs cap EF with an electrified body; in this ſtate, if any electrified ſubſtance is brought near the cap, the corks of the electrometer, by their converging, or diverging more, will ſhew the ſpecies of electricity. When it is to be uſed to try the electricity of the atmoſphere, fogs, &c. it muſt be held a little above the head by the bottom AB, ſo that the obſerver may conveniently ſee the corks, which will immediately diverge if there be any ſufficient quantity of electricity in the air, the nature of which may be aſcertained by bringing an excited piece of ſealing-wax towards the braſs cap EF. This inſtrument is uſually kept in a braſs caſe.

A very ingenious electrometer has been lately invented by Mr. Cuthbertſon, for meaſuring the electricity of large jars and batteries. It is repreſented in the annexed engraving, at fig. 14. GH is an oblong piece of wood, ſerving as a ſtand for the inſtrument, in which are fixed three glaſs ſupporters, D, E, F, mounted with braſs balls, *a*, *c*, *b*. Of theſe ſupporters E and F are exactly of the ſame length; but D is four inches ſhorter. Under the braſs ball *a* is a long braſs hook; the ball *c* is made of two hemiſpheres, the under one being fixed to the braſs mounting, and the upper turned with a groove to ſhut upon it, ſo that it can be taken off at pleaſure. The ball *b* has a braſs tube fixed to it, about three inches long, cemented on the top of F, and the ſame ball has a hole at the top, of about one-half inch diameter, correſponding with the inſide of the tube. AB is a ſtraight braſs wire, with a knife-edged center in the middle, placed a little



Electrical Apparatus.—N.o 2.

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little below the center of gravity, and equally balanced with a hollow brafs ball at each end, the center, or axis, refting upon a proper fhaped piece of brafs fixed in the infide of the ball *c*; that fide of the hemifphere towards *c* is cut open, to permit the end *c* A of the balance to defcend till it touches the ball *a*, and the upper hemifphere C is alfo cut open to permit the end *c* B to afcend; *i* is a weight, weighing a certain number of grains, and made in the form of a pin with a broad head; the ball B has two holes, one at the top, and the other at the bottom; the upper hole is fo wide, as to let the head of the pin pafs through it, but to ftop at the under one, with its fhank hanging freely in *b*; *k* is a common Henley's quadrant electrometer; and when in ufe it is fcrewed upon the top of *c*. It is evident, from the conftruction, that if the foot ftand horizontal, and the ball B be made to touch *b*, it will remain in that pofition without the help of the weight *i*; and if it fhould by any means receive a very low charge of electric fluid, the two balls *b*, B, will repel each other; B will begin to afcend, and, on account of the center of gravity being above the center of motion, the afcenfion will continue till A reft upon *a*. If the balance be fet again horizontal, and the pin *i* be put into its place in B, it will caufe B to reft upon *b*, with a preffure equal to that weight, fo that more electric fluid muft be communicated than formerly before the balls will feparate; and as the weight in B is increafed or diminifhed, a greater or lefs quantity of electric fluid will be required to effect a feparation.

When this inftrument is to be applied to a jar, or battery, one end of a wire L muft be inferted into a hole in *b*, and the other end into a hole of any ball proceeding from the infide of a battery, or jar, as M. A chain, or wire, or any body through which the charge is to pafs, muft be hung to the hook at *m*, and carried from thence to the outfide of the battery, as is reprefented by the line N; *k* muft be fcrewed upon *c*, with its index towards A. The reafon of this inftrument being added, is to fhew, by the index continuing to rife, that the charge of the battery is increafing, becaufe the other part of the inftrument does not act till the battery has received its required charge. It may be here obferved, that this inftrument confifts of three electrometers, viz. Henley's electrometer, Lane's difcharging electrometer conficerably improved, and Brookes's fteelyard electrometer improved likewife. By this combination and thefe improvements, we poffefs all that can be required in an electrometer for batteries and large jars; for, by *k*, we fee the progrefs of the charge; by the feparation of B *b*, we have the repulfive power in weight; and by the ball A, the difcharge is made whenever the charge has acquired the ftrength propofed. Example: Prepare the electrometer in the manner fhewn in the figure, with the jar M annexed, which contains about 168 fquare inches of coating. Take out the pin in B, and obferve whether the ball B will remain at reft upon *b*; if not, turn the adjufting fcrew at C till it juft remains upon A. Put into B the pin, marked *i*, weighing 15 grains; take two inches of watch-pendulum wire, fix to each end a pair of fpring tongs, reprefented at G *m*, hook one end to *m*, and the other to the wire N, communicating with the outfide of the jar; let the prime conductor of an electrical machine, or a wire proceeding from it, touch the wire L; then, if the machine be put in motion, the jar and electrometer will charge, as will be feen by the rifing of the index *k*; and when charged high enough, B will be repelled by *b*, and A will defcend and difcharge the jar through the wire which was confined in the tongs, and the wire will be fufed and run into balls. The ingenious inventor, by breathing through a glafs pipe into the jar, damped it a little in the infide. Then loading B with a pin of thirty grains, he obtained fuch a charge as fufed eight inches of watch-pendulum wire, difpofed exactly as the two inches were difpofed in the former experiment. And by repeating and varying his experiments, he found that double quantities of electrical fluid, in the form of a difcharge, will melt four times the length of wire of a certain diameter.

A very ingenious *difcharging balance electrometer* has been lately invented by A. W. Von Hauch, of the royal fociety of Copenhagen; which is reprefented in the fame engraving, at fig. 15. O P is a board of dry mahogany, which ferves as a ftand for the inftrument. In this board are faftened two glafs pillars, M and N, which fupport the two brafs caps or rings G G, with the two forks of tempered fteel K K fcrewed into them. The two rings G G are well covered with varnifh. In the ring G is faftened a brafs rod, which terminates in a ball E of the fame metal, and an inch in diameter. The length of the rod and ball together is four inches and a half. A very delicate beam, A B, the arms of which are of unequal length, moves on a fharp triangular axis (a knife edge) of well tempered fteel on the fork K of the pillar M. It is feventeen inches in length, and fo conftructed that the fhort arm forms a third, and the long one two-thirds, of the whole beam. The fhort arm of brafs furnifhed with the ball B, exactly of the fame fize as the ball E, is divided into forty-five parts equivalent to grains. The long arm A is of glafs covered with copal varnifh, and ends in an ivory ball A, into which is fitted an ivory hook R, deftined to fupport the ivory fcale H. In order to render the infulation more complete, this fcale is fufpended by three hairs. A very delicate beam, C D, eleven inches in length, moves on an axis, like the former, on the pillar N. This beam is proportioned in the fame manner, one arm being a third and the other two-third of the whole length. The long arm of brafs is furnifhed at the end with a ball D, and divided into thirty parts correfponding to grains. The fhort arm of glafs terminates in a long roundifh plate C, covered with copal varnifh. The fteel forks are fhewn by the fections of the two brafs caps F F, as are alfo the two knife edges L L. By thefe caps the efcape of the electric fluid is partly prevented. A brafs ring Q capable of being moved along the fhort arm of the upper beam A B, fhews, by means of marks determined by trial and cut out on the beam, the number of grains which muft be placed in the fmall fcale to reftore the equilibrium of the beam at each diftance of the ring Q from the point of fufpenfion. On the long arm C D of the lower beam there is alfo a moveable ring S, which, like the ring Q fhews in grains, by its diftance from the point of fufpenfion, the power requifite to overcome the preponderance of L D in regard to L C. The power neceffary for this purpofe will be found if the fcale or fhell H, which weighs exactly fourteen grains, be fuffered to fink down on the glafs plate C, and the ring S be pufhed forwards till both the arms of the beam are in equilibrium. The part of the beam on which the ring S has moved is divided into fourteen parts, fo that 0 marks the place where the ring S muft ftand when the beam, in its free ftate, is in equilibrium; and 14 ftands at the place where the ring S again reftores a perfect equilibrium when the fhell H is laid on the glafs plate C. Each of thefe parts, which are divided into quarters, indicates a grain. The lower divifions of the fcale will be found with more accuracy if quarters of a grain be put, in fucceffion, into the fhell H (after it has been laid on the plate C), and the ring S be moved between each quarter of a grain until the perfect equilibrium be reftored. This place on the beam is then to be marked, and traced in this manner, until the 30th part of a grain be given. Both fcales, for the fake of diftinctnefs, are divided only fo low as quarters of a grain; though the inftrument is fo delicate, and muft abfolutely be fo, that 1-20th of a grain is fufficient to deftroy the equilibrium.

The two glafs pillars M and N, together with the fteel forks affixed to them, are fo fitted into the ftand, that both the beams lie parallel to each other as well as to the rod G E. In this pofition of the beams A B, the balls B and E are juft in contact. The fmalleft glafs pillar N is of fuch a height, that the ball of the beam C D ftands at

the diſtance of exactly four lines from the ring G, and cannot move without touching the latter. The ſmall ſhell H is ſuſpended in ſuch a manner that there is a diſtance of exactly two lines between it and the ſhell C. In each of the braſs rings G G is a ſmall hole, that the inſtrument may be connected with the two ſides of an electric jar. I is a braſs wire, with a hollow bit of ivory *a* deſtined to ſupport the beam C D, which is neceſſarily preponderant at D, in order to prevent oſcillation between the diſcharges to be examined by the inſtrument.

It may be readily comprehended that, when the beam A B has moved, A muſt paſs over twice the ſpace that B does; and that, in the beam C D, the caſe is the ſame in regard to C and D. If A B therefore be connected with the external ſide, and C D with the internal ſide, of a battery, but in ſuch a manner that the inſtrument is at a ſufficient diſtance beyond the electric atmoſphere; and if the battery be charged, the repulſive effect of the electric power will oblige the ball B to ſeparate from the ball E; the ſhell H muſt therefore naturally ſink down with double velocity, ſo that when the ball B riſes a line, the ſhell H muſt ſink two: when it reaches this depth it will touch the ſhell C, and the latter, by the power excited in it, will be obliged to ſink, by which D muſt naturally again aſcend in a double proportion to the ſinking of C; ſo that when C has fallen two lines, D muſt have aſcended four, and D that moment touches the ring by which the two ſides of the battery are connected with each other, and diſcharges the battery.

But, as the attractive electric power between unlike atmoſpheres, under like circumſtances, is at leaſt as ſtrong as its repulſive power between like atmoſpheres, it would thence follow that the electric power, inſtead of repelling the ball B from the ball E would rather attract D, and, by its contact with G, promote the diſcharging; by which the inſtrument would fail of its object, and be ſubjected to the temperature of the atmoſphere; and beſides this, the electric power could no longer be determined by weight. To obviate this inconvenience, the inſtrument, in all electrical experiments, muſt be applied in ſuch a manner that the power with which the ball D is attracted by A B may exceed in ſtrength the power required to repel the ball B from the ball E. For this purpoſe the ring S muſt always be removed two diviſions farther on C D towards D, than the ring Q is ſhifted on A B towards B. If, for example, an electric force were required equal to eight grains, according to this electrometer, the ring Q muſt be removed to the place where 8 ſtands, and the ring S to the place marked 10. The repulſive power will then naturally repel the balls B and E before G is in a condition to attract the ball D, as a power of two grains would be neceſſary for this purpoſe, beſides that of the eight already in action. The ſhell H, with its weight of fourteen grains, will eaſily overcome the preponderance of L D over L C, as it amounts only to ten grains, and therefore nothing exiſts that can impede the diſcharging.

When the ring S, according to the required power, is removed ſo far towards D that the ſhell H is not able by its weight to deſtroy the preponderance of L D in regard to L C, the active power of the ſhell H muſt be ſo far increaſed by the addition of weights, that it can act with a preponderance of four grains, on the plate C. If, for example, an electric power of fourteen grains be required, the ring S muſt be removed to 16, by which L D reſts upon *a*, with a preponderance of ſixteen grains in regard to L C. Now to make H act on the plate C with a preponderance of four grains, it muſt be increaſed to twenty grains, that is, ſix grains weight more muſt be added, as it weighs only fourteen; which ſix grains are again laid upon L B; and therefore the ring Q is ſhifted to 20, as the ſtrength of the repulſive power is pointed out by fourteen grains. If an electric power of twenty-five grains be required, the ring S muſt be removed to 27, and the weight of ſeventeen grains be put into the ſhell H in order to produce a preponderance of four grains in regard to S. Theſe ſeventeen grains are added to the required power of twenty-five grains, and the ring Q is puſhed to 42, &c. In this manner the repulſive power always acts before the attractive power can begin to operate.

It may be readily perceived that the faults and inconveniences common to moſt electrometers hitherto employed, cannot take place here; becauſe the diſcharging is performed by immediate connection between the poſitive and negative electricity in the inſtrument itſelf, without any external means being employed. One of the moſt eſſential advantages of this inſtrument is, the certainty with which the ſame reſult may be expected when the experiment is repeated. For the ſame degree of electric power, whatever be the temperature of the atmoſphere, will always be neceſſary to commence the ſeparation of the two balls B and E from each other, the quantity of coated glaſs and the diſtance of the ring Q from the axis L being the ſame. Another no leſs important advantage of this inſtrument is, that in an experiment where the ſame electric power, often repeated, is neceſſary to aſcertain the reſult with accuracy; ſuch, for example, as the charging a battery through acids, water, &c.; the ſame degree of precaution is not neceſſary as is indiſpenſibly ſo in the common electrometers, as the perſon who puts the machine in motion has nothing to do but to count how often the electrometer diſcharges itſelf; and the inſtrument may be incloſed in a glaſs caſe, or prevented in any other manner from external contact, or any other circumſtances which might render the experiment uncertain.

Another more recent *diſcharging electrometer* has been invented by Henry Lawſon, eſq. We ſhall give the deſcription of it in his own words: "Some time ago it ſtruck me that ſome additions to Brookes's electrometer might be made ſo as to fit it for a good diſcharging electrometer to meaſure the repulſion between two balls (of a certain ſize) in grains, and alſo effect the diſcharge of a battery at the ſame time. The inſtrument known by the name of *Cuthbertſon's diſcharging electrometer*, was at that time the beſt, and indeed the only inſtrument for diſcharging batteries or jars by its own action, then made; but I think this will be found in the eſſentials, and in the theory and uſe, a more perfect inſtrument. It is repreſented in the Electricity Plate II. fig. 16. On the baſe S, is fixed the glaſs pillar G, ſupporting the hollow braſs ball B. T, is a light gradnated braſs tube divided (from the weight W towards the ball B) into thirty parts, repreſenting grains. W, is a ſliding weight. L, a light braſs ball ſcrewed to the end of the tube T, on the other end of which tube adjuſts the heavy counter-balance-ball C, the tube T and its two balls being ſuſpended at their common center of gravity by a ſilk line in the center of the ball B, the mechaniſm of which is ſhewn in the plan or ſection at the ſide. The braſs ball F is ſtationary, and of the ſame ſize as the ball L, and is fixed by a braſs arm to the ball B. The adjuſting ball A is alſo of the ſame ſize, and adjuſts cloſe to the ball L, or at any lower ſtation between that and the ring *r*. The braſs tube to which the ball A is fixed is divided into inches, halves, and quarters: a more minute diviſion is unneceſſary and improper. The diviſions begin, or the o line is marked, on the ſaid tube at the ring *r*, when the three balls A L F are cloſe together. The ring *r* ſerves as an index, as the diviſions paſs in ſucceſſion into the glaſs tube P, on lowering the ball A. The hook H is ſcrewed into the baſe of P. The quadrant, or Henley's electrometer Q is ſupported on a long braſs ſtem to keep it out of the atmoſphere of the lower part of the inſtrument. The ſide-plan or ſection ſhews the internal conſtruction of the ball B. In the firſt place, the ball ſcrews in half, horizontally. The light tube T paſſes through the ball, and is ſuſpended nearly in the center of it by ſome ſilk twiſt *s*, which ſmall ſilk twiſt is fixed into the eye of the adjuſting wire *a*, part of which wire is filed ſquare and goes through

through the square hole *h*. The nut *n* screws on *a*, and serves to adjust the light tube T vertically. The light plates P P are of copper, and move freely on the wire *w w* somewhat like a hinge, and rest on the copper wires C C, serving to make the direct communication between the inside and out of the battery or jar. N N are notches serving to let the tube T descend when the discharge is made. Into the tube Z the glass pillar is ground. At the bottom of the notch N is a piece of brass filed with a Y, and so placed as to keep the centers of the balls L and F under each other when they come close together.

When the instrument is adjusted, which is done by placing the weight W at o on the line of grains, and then screwing or unscrewing the counterbalance-ball C, till the tube T rises slowly into its horizontal position; then set the ball A at the distance from the ball L that you choose, and the weight W placed at the division or number of grains that you wish the repulsive power of the electricity to arrive at before the discharge is made: this being done, connect the battery or jar with the ball B by means of the wire *y*, the end of which goes into B at the hole X, and should stand at right angles to B, the ball of *y* resting on the battery: then connect the outside of the battery or jar with the hook H; as the battery charges, the electrometer Q continues to rise; and when it is so highly charged that the repulsive power between the balls L and F is equal to the number of grains at which the weight W was placed, the ball L will descend, and deliver the charge of the battery to the ball A. The substance or thing through which the shock is intended to be passed, must form part of the communication between the hook H and the outside of the battery or jar. It is evident, from considering the instrument, that it is attended with these excellencies; that, the whole being compact, the electric atmosphere must be so also; that it has but one insulation to depend upon: that the equilibrium of the divided arm and ball may always be adjusted, consequently the weight used known to a certainty; and the hook for communicating with the outside of the battery being placed on the foot of the instrument, the communication may be made by wires lying on the table; which are by far the best mode of conducting shocks; as chains, by the imperfect connection of their links, (especially if long,) very often, and without being suspected, hinder the success of many very well-concerted experiments." The electrometers of Bennett, Brookes, M. de Luc, and some others, have been superseded in their use and application by these later improvements.

An electrometer has been recently invented, capable of exhibiting absolute measures, and susceptible of comparison with others: whence it is denominated the *comparable electrometer*. This instrument is shewn at fig. 17, in the annexed engraving; where A represents a polished brass ball, one-fourth of an inch in diameter. It is fixed on the point of a needle three inches long, as slender as can be had of that length. The other end of the needle passes through a ball of amber or glass, or other firm non-conducting substance, about half or three-fourths of an inch in diameter; but the end does not reach quite to the surface, although the ball is completely perforated. From this ball rises a glass rod F E L, three inches long from F to E, where it bends at right angles, and is continued on to L, immediately over the center of the ball A. At L is fixed a piece of amber C, formed into two parallel cheeks, between which hangs the stalk D C B of the electrometer. This is formed by dipping a strong and dry silk thread, or fine cord, in melted sealing-wax, and holding it perpendicular till it remain covered with a thin coating, and be fully penetrated by it. This stalk is fastened into a small cube of amber, perforated on purpose, and having fine holes drilled in two of its opposite sides. The cheeks of the piece C are wide enough to allow this cube to move freely between them, round two fine pins, which are thrust through the holes in the cheeks, and reach about half way to the stalk. The lower part of the stalk is about three inches long, and terminates in a gilt and burnished cork ball, (or may be made of thin metal,) a quarter of an inch in diameter. The upper part C D is of the same length, and passes through (with some friction) a small cork ball. This part of the instrument is so proportioned, that when F E is perpendicular to the horizon, and D C B hangs freely, the balls B and A just touch each other. The ball F is fixed on the end of the glass rod F I, which passes perpendicularly through the centre of a graduated circle G H O, and has a knob handle of boxwood on the farther end at I. This glass rod turns stiffly, but smoothly, in the head of the pillar H K, &c. and has an index N H, which turns round it. This index is set parallel to the line L A, drawn through the centre of the fixed ball of the electrometer. The circle is divided into 360 degrees, and o is placed uppermost, and 90 on the right hand. Thus the index will point out the angle which L A makes with the vertical. It will be convenient to have another index, turning stiffly on the same axis, and extending a good way beyond the circle.

This instrument is used in the following manner: A connection is made with the body whose electricity is to be examined, by sticking the point of the connecting wire into the hole at F; till it touch the end of the needle; or, if we would merely electrify the balls A and B, and then leave them insulated, we have only to touch one of them with an electrified body. Now, take hold of the handle I, and turn it to the right till the index reach 90. In this position, the line L A is horizontal, and so is C B; and the moveable ball B is resting on A, and is carried by it. Now electrify the balls, and gently turn the handle backwards, bringing the index back toward o, &c. noticing carefully the two balls. It will happen that, in some particular position of the index, they will be observed to separate. Bring them together again, and again cause them to separate, till the exact position at separation is ascertained. This will shew their repulsive force in contact, or at the distance of their centers, equal to the sum of their radii. Having determined this point, turn the instrument still more toward the vertical position. The balls will now separate more and more. Let an assistant turn the long index so as to make it parallel to the stalk of the electrometer, by making the one hide the other from his view. Thus it will give absolute measures: for, by poising the stalk, by laying some grains weight on the cork-ball D, till it becomes horizontal and perfectly balanced, and computing for the proportional lengths of B C and D C, we know exactly the number of grains with which the balls must repel each other (when the stalk is in an horizontal position), in order *merely to separate*. Then a very simple computation will ascertain the grains of repulsion when they separate in any oblique position of the stalk; and another computation, by the resolution of forces, will shew us the repulsion exerted between them when A L is oblique, and B C makes any given angle with it. This is sufficiently obvious to need no farther explanation. The reason for giving the connection between A and C such a circuitous form, was to avoid all action between the fixed and the moveable part of the electrometer, except what is exerted between the two balls A and B. This instrument will also measure the *attractions* of the oppositely electrified bodies; for instead of making the ball B *above* A, by inclining the instrument to the right hand, we may incline it to the left; and then, by electrifying one of the balls positively, and the other negatively, when at a great distance from each other, their mutual attraction will cause them to approach; C B will deviate from the vertical toward A; and we can compute the force by means of this deviation. But this instrument must be secured against dissipation as much as possible, by varnishing all its parts, by having all angles, points, and roughnesses, removed, and by choosing a dry state of the air, and a warm room; and, because it is impossible to prevent dis-

 sipation

ſipation altogether, we ſhould make a previous courſe of experiments, in a variety of circumſtances, in order to determine the diminution per minute correſponding to the circumſtances of the experiments that are to be made with further views.

A moſt valuable electrometer has been invented by Mr. Coulomb, of the royal academy of ſciences at Paris, deſcribed in their Memoirs for 1785. It is conſtructed as repreſented in the engraving at fig. 18. ABDC repreſents a glaſs cylinder, twelve inches in diameter and in height. This is covered by a glaſs plate fitted to it by a projecting fillet on the under ſurface. This cover is pierced with two round holes of one inch three-fourths in diameter. One of them, *f*, is in the center, and it receives the lower end of the glaſs tube *fh*, of twenty-four inches height, which is fixed in the hole with a cement made of ſealing wax, or other electric ſubſtance. The top of this tube receives the braſs collar H, bored truly cylindrical, and having a ſmall ſhoulder, which reſts on the top of the tube. This collar is faſtened with cement, and receives the hollow cylinder P, to which is joined the circular plate *ab*, divided on the edge into 360 degrees. It is alſo pierced with a round hole in the center, which receives the cylindrical pin *i*, having a milled head, and an index o, whoſe point is bent down, ſo as to mark the diviſions on the circle *ab*. This pin turns ſtiffly in the cylinder P, which turns ſteadily in the collar H. To the lower end of the center pin is faſtened a little pincer, formed like the end of a port-crayon, and tightened by a ring, ſo as to hold faſt the ſuſpenſion-wire *kf*, the lower end of which is graſped by a ſimilar pincer P. The lower end o, is cylindrical, and it is of ſuch weight as to ſtrain the wire perfectly ſtraight, but without any riſk of breaking it. It may be made half of the weight that will juſt break it.

This pincer is enlarged at E, and pierced with a hole, which receives tightly the arm *gq*, of the electrometer. This is eight inches long, and conſiſts of a dry ſilk thread, or ſlender ſtraw of ſome graſs completely dried, and dipped in melted gum lac or fine ſealing-wax, and held upright before a clear fire, till it form a ſlender cylinder of about 1-30th of an inch in diameter. This occupies ſix of the eight inches, from *g* to *q*: the remaining two inches is a fine thread of the lac or ſealing-wax, as it drains off in forming the arm. At *a* is a ball of pith of elder or fine cork, one-fourth or one-half of an inch in diameter, made very ſmooth, and gilded. It is balanced by a vertical circle *g*, of paper ſtiffened with varniſh. The whole is ſeen in its place in the engraving, where the arm hangs horizontally about the middle of the height of the great cylinder. In its oſcillations the ball *a* moves round in a circle, whoſe center is in the axis of the whole inſtrument. Its ſituation is indicated by a graduated circle ZOQ drawn on a ſlip of paper, and adhering to the glaſs with varniſh. The electrified body, whoſe action is to be obſerved, is another ſmall ball of cork *t*, alſo gilt, or a braſs ball well poliſhed. This is carried by a ſtalk of gum lac *mn*, incloſing a dry ſilk thread. This ſtalk is graſped by a clamp of cleft deal, or any ſimilar contrivance, which lies firm on the glaſs cover. When this ball is let down through the hole *m*, it ſtands ſo as to touch the ball *a* on the arm, when that ball is oppoſite o on the graduated circle.

To electrify the ball *t*, we employ a ſlender ſtick of ſealing-wax or lac, holding a metal wire that carries a ſmall poliſhed metal ball. We touch with it ſome electrified body, ſuch as the prime conductor of a machine, the knob of a jar, &c. Introduce this electrified ball cautiouſly into the hole *m*, and touch the ball *t* with it. The ball *a* is immediately repelled, and goes to a diſtance, twiſting the ſuſpenſion-wire, till the force of twiſt exerted by the wire balances the mutual repulſion of the balls *t* and *a*.

Such is the proceſs for examining the law of electric action. But when we would examine the action of different bodies in different ſtates, another apparatus is wanted. This is repreſented by the piece *c*A*d*, conſiſting of a plug of ſealing-wax A, which fits tight into the hole *m*, and is pierced by the wire *cd*, hooked at *c*, to receive a wire connecting it occaſionally with an electrified body, and having below a poliſhed metal ball *d*, which fits into the ſame poſition as the ball *t*.

The inſtrument is fitted for uſe in the following manner: Turn the milled button *c*, at top, till the twiſt-index *i*, is on the mark o, of the twiſt circle. Then turn the whole in the collar H, till the ball *a* ſtands oppoſite to the mark o of the paper circle ZOQ and at the ſame time touches the ball *t* or *d*.

The obſervation is made thus: the ball *t* or *d*, is electrified, and *a* is repelled, and retires, twiſting the wire; and, after a few oſcillations, ſettles at a diſtance correſponding to the repulſion. Now turn the twiſt-index, ſo as to force the ball *a* nearer to *t* or *d*, as occaſion may require. We eſtimate the force of this new repulſion by adding the motion of the twiſt-index to the angle at which the ball firſt reſted. By turning the twiſt index ſtill more, we bring the balls ſtill nearer, and have a meaſure of another repulſion. And thus we may obtain as many meaſures as we pleaſe.

In this way Monſ. Coulomb aſcertained the relation between the repulſion and the diſtance to be the inverſe duplicate ratio of the diſtances. He diſcovered the law of diſſipation by air in contact, and the relation which this bears to the primitive repulſion, by obſerving the gradual approach of *a* to *t* as the electricity diſſipates from both, and by ſlackening the twiſt-index till the ball *a* retires to it its primitive diſtance. He aſcertained the diſſipation along imperfect conductors, and the length neceſſary for inſulation, by completely inſulating the ball *t*, and obſerving the loſs by air in contact with it, and then ſliding a metal rod down the inſulating ſtalk, till the diſſipation began to exceed what took place by the air alone. He examined the proportion of redundant fluid in communicating bodies, by connecting them alternately with the ball *d*; as alſo by electrifying one ball, and obſerving its repulſive force, and then ſharing its electricity with another, and obſerving the diminution. An example of one or two of thoſe trials will give a clearer conception of the concluſions deduced from theſe obſervations.

The ball *t* was introduced and electrified; *a* was repelled, and ſettled at 40°; the index was twiſted 140°, which brought *a* to 20; and the time was noted. The electricity gradually diſſipated, and *a* came nearer to *t*. The index was untwiſted 30°, and *a* retired a little beyond 20°; but, on waiting a few ſeconds, it ſtood exactly at 20°. The time was again noted. The interval was exactly three minutes. The concluſion from the experiment was as follows: When the ball was brought to 20°, the repulſion was evidently 140 + 20, or 160. Three minutes afterwards it was 110 + 20, or 130; and 30° were loſt in three minutes, or 10° per minute. The mean force was 145. Therefore the mean loſs per minute was $\frac{10}{145}$. Obſerve alſo, that the primitive force correſponding to the diſtance was 40; and the force correſponding to 20 was 160, or inverſely, as 20² to 40². But obſerve, that the diſtances were not meaſured by the angles, but by the chord of the angles. The obliquity of action muſt alſo be accounted for; and the real lever is leſs than the arm, in the proportion of radius to the coſine of half the angle.

The wire uſed by Coulomb in his firſt experiments on the law of action was of ſuch ſtrength, that $\frac{1}{360}$ of a French grain, applied at the point *a*, held it faſt till the twiſt-index was turned 360°; ſo that one degree correſponded to $\frac{1}{129600}$ of a grain. A foot of this wire weighed $\frac{1}{16}$th of a grain. Experience having ſhewn that this was a ſenſibility far exceeding what was neceſſary for the meaſures that he had in view, and made the inſtrument too delicate for common uſes, he ſubſtituted much ſtronger and ſhorter wires, and recommends much ſmaller dimenſions

ſions for the whole inſtrument. It is far more ſenſible than Bennet's gold-leaf electrometer. The ſame inſtrument, with a ſilver wire ſuſpenſion, and a thread of lac projecting from the end g, as an index to coincide more cloſely with the ſcale, is ſufficiently nice for all experiments of meaſurement. It is always proper to have the diameter of the cylinder double the length of the arm, that the action of the glaſs may not diſturb the poſition of the arm. It is greatly improved by having a round hole in the bottom of the inſtrument, in which the cylinder EO of the lower pincer may hang freely: this prevents much tedious oſcillation. For ordinary experiments, for meaſuring charges of batteries, and the like, a much leſs delicate inſtrument, with a ſuſpenſion-wire ſtrained at both ends, is abundantly delicate, and vaſtly more manageable. The wire ſhould extend as far below the arm as above it, and ſhould be graſped below, by a pincer turning by a milled head in a hole at the end of a ſlender ſpring. This enables us to adjuſt the inſtrument ſpeedily. Having placed the twiſt-index at o, turn this lower button gently till the ball a points exactly to o on the paper circle. Coulomb's electrometer has the great advantage of waſting very little electricity; whereas Henley's, or Brookes's, or de Luc's, waſte it very faſt when it is intenſe.

This electrometer, as hitherto applied, meaſures only repulſions. It is not ſo eaſy to meaſure attractions with it; for even Mr. Coulomb was obliged to take a very circuitous method, during which a great deal of electricity was diſſipated. In this reſpect, the *comparable* electrometer above deſcribed has the advantage; but, in every other reſpect, Mr. Coulomb's is the fineſt electrometer that has yet been publiſhed, giving *abſolute* meaſures, and this with great accuracy. The honourable Mr. Cavendiſh has employed the conſtruction in his moſt valuable experiments on the force of gravity, (Phil. Tranſ. 1798, part ii.) an experiment which Newton would have been delighted with obſerving.

The next inſtrument to be noticed is the *electrophor*, or *electrophorus*; this conſiſts of three diſtinct parts, as ſhewn in the engraving, at fig. 19. The chief part is a cake ABCD, made of ſome electric; ſuch as gum-lac, ſealing-wax, pitch, or other reſinous compoſition. This is melted on a conducting plate, DCFE, and allowed to congeal; in which ſtate it is found to be negatively electric. Another conducting plate, GHBA, is laid at top, and may be raiſed up by ſilk lines, or any inſulating handle. Hence we ſhall call ABCD the *cake*, DCFE the *ſole*, and GHBA the *cover*. It is proper to make all the three parts of conſiderable thickneſs, and of no great breadth. Although this diminiſhes greatly the moſt remarkable of the actions, it leaves them ſufficiently vivid, and it greatly increaſes the ſmaller changes which are inſtructive in the compariſon. The general facts are,

If the ſole has been inſulated during the congelation of the electric, till all is cold and hard, the whole is found negatively electric, and the finger draws a ſpark from any part of it, eſpecially from the ſole. If allowed to remain in this ſituation, its electricity grows gradually weaker, and at laſt diſappears: but it may be excited again by rubbing the cake with dry warm flannel, or, which is better, with dry and warm cat or hare fur. If the cover be now ſet on the cake by its inſulating handle, but without touching the cover, and again ſeparated from the cake, no electricity whatever is obſerved in the cover. But if it be touched while on the cake, a ſharp pungent ſpark is obtained from it; and if, at the ſame time, the ſole be touched with the thumb, a very ſenſible ſhock is felt in the finger and thumb.

After this, the electrophorus appears quite inactive, and is ſaid to be *dead*; neither ſole nor cover giving any ſign of electricity. But, when the cover is raiſed to ſome diſtance from the cake (keeping it parallel therewith), if it be touched while in this ſituation, a ſmart ſpark flies, to ſome diſtance, between it and the finger, more remarkably from the upper ſide, and ſtill more from its edge, which will even throw off ſparks into the air, if it be not rounded off. As this diminiſhes the deſired effects, it is proper to have the edge ſo rounded. This ſpark is not ſo ſharp as the former, and reſembles that from any electrified conductor. The electricity of the cover, while thus raiſed, is of the oppoſite kind to that of the cake, or is *poſitive*. The electricity of the cover while lying on the cake is the ſame with that of the cake, or *negative*. Theſe appearances may be repeated for a very long time, without any ſenſible diminution of their vivacity. The inſtrument has been known to retain its power undiminiſhed even for months. This makes it a ſort of magazine of electricity, and we can take off the electricity of the cake and of the cover as charges for ſeparate jars, the cover, when raiſed, charging like the prime conductor of an ordinary electrical machine; and, when ſet on the cake, charging it like the rubber. This cauſed its inventor, Mr. Volta, to give it the name *electrophorus*.

If the ſole be inſulated before putting on the cover, the ſpark obtained from the cover is not ſo active as it was before: but the ſame ſhock will be felt if both cake and cover be touched together. If the cover be again raiſed to a conſiderable height, the ſole will be found electrical, and its electricity is that of the cake, and oppoſite to that of the cover. After touching both cover and ſole, if the cover be raiſed and again ſet down, without touching it while aloft, the whole is again inactive. If both cover and ſole be made inactive when joined, they ſhew oppoſite electricities when ſeparated, the ſole having the electricity of the cake. If both cover and ſole be made inactive when ſeparate, they both ſhew the oppoſite to the electricity of the cake when joined.

Let us now attend to the diſpoſition of the electrical fluid in the different parts of the inſtrument in their various ſituations, and to the forces which operate mutually between them. Experiments for examining this inſtrument are beſt made by ſetting the three plates vertically, ſupported on glaſs ſtalks, with leaden feet, to ſteady them. A very ſmall electrometer may be attached to the outer ſurfaces of the cover and ſole.

If the extent of the plates were incomparably greater than their thickneſs, we may infer that the redundant fluid and matter would be diſpoſed in parallel ſtrata, and that the actions would be the ſame at all diſtances. But ſince this is not the caſe, the diſpoſition of the fluid will be ſomewhat different; and whatever it is, the action of any ſtratum will be diminiſhed by an increaſe of diſtance. The following deſcription cannot be very different from the truth:

1. The cake grows negative by cooling; and if it were alone, it would have a negative ſuperficial ſtratum on both ſides, of greater thickneſs near the edges; and the fluid would probably grow denſer by degrees to the middle, where it would have its natural denſity. But it cools in conjunction with the ſole, and the attraction of the redundant matter in the cake for the moveable fluid in the ſole diſturbs its uniform diffuſion in the ſole, and cauſes it to approach the cake. And becauſe this, in all probability, happens while the cake is ſtill a conductor, the diſpoſition of its fluid will be different from that deſcribed above. But becauſe we do not know preciſely the gradation of denſity, and aim only at general notions at preſent, it will be ſufficient to conſider the cake and ſole as divided into two ſtrata only; one redundant in fluid, and the other deficient, neglecting the neutral ſtratum that is interpoſed between them in each. The cake, then, conſiſts of a ſtratum AB$b$$a$A containing redundant matter, and a ſtratum $a$$b$CD containing redundant fluid; and the ſole has a ſtratum DCnm containing redundant fluid, namely, all that belongs naturally to the ſpace DCFE, and a ſtratum mnFE containing redundant matter. This may be called the *primitive ſtate* of the cake and

and ſole; and if once changed by communication with unelectrified bodies, it can never be recovered again without ſome new excitement.

2. If the ſole be touched by any body communicating with the ground, fluid will come in, till the repulſion of the redundant fluid in the ſole for a ſuperficial particle *y* is equal to the attraction of the redundant matter in the cake for the ſame particle. The under ſurface will be neutral, and the fluid will increaſe in denſity toward the ſurface D C. The ſole contains more than its natural quantity of fluid, but is neutral by the balance of oppoſite forces. Let it now be inſulated. This diſpoſition of fluid may be called the *common ſtate* of the electrophorus.

3. Let the cover G H B A be laid on it. The particle *z*, at the upper ſurface of the cover, muſt be more attracted by the redundant matter in the ſtratum A B *b a*, than it is repelled by the redundant fluid in the remoter ſtrata; for the fluid in the cake is leſs than what belongs to it in its natural ſtate, and therefore *z* is attracted by the cake. The redundant fluid which has come into the remote ſide of the ſole is leſs than what would ſaturate the redundant matter of the cake, becauſe it only balances the exceſs of the remote action of this matter above the nearer action of the compreſſed fluid in the ſole; and this ſmaller quantity of redundant fluid acts on *z* at a greater diſtance than that of the redundant matter in the cake. On the whole, therefore, the particle *z*, lying immediately within the ſurface G H, is attracted; therefore ſome will move toward the cake, and its natural ſtate of uniform diffuſion through the cover will be changed into a violent ſtate, in which it will be compreſſed on the ſurface A B, being abſtracted from the ſurface G H. It will now have a ſtratum G *g p* H, containing redundant matter, and another *g p* B A, containing redundant fluid. But this will diſturb the arrangement which had taken place in the ſole, and had rendered it neutral on the under ſurface. We do not attend to the fluid in the cake, but conſider it as immoveable, for any motion which it can get will be ſo ſmall, that the variations of its action will be altogether inſignificant. The particle *y*, ſituated in that ſurface, will be more repelled by the compreſſed fluid in the ſtratum *g p* C A than it is attracted by the equivalent but more remote redundant matter in G H *p g*. Fluid is therefore diſpoſed to quit the ſurface E F, and the ſole appears poſitively electric; very little indeed, if the cover be thin. All this may be obſerved by attaching a ſmall Canton's electrometer to the lower ſurface of the ſole.

4. A particle of fluid *z*, placed immediately without the ſurface G H, will be more attracted by the deficient ſtratum G H *p g* and by A B *b a*, than it is repelled by the redundant ſtrata beyond them, and the cover muſt be ſenſibly negative. This is the common ſtate of the whole inſtrument after ſetting on the cover. It is ſlightly poſitive on the lower ſurface of the ſole, and much more ſenſibly negative on the upper ſurface of the cover. A ſmart ſpark will therefore be ſeen between it and the finger, fluid will enter, till the attraction of the redundant matter in A B *b a* is balanced by the repulſion of the redundant fluid in D C F E.

5. A ſpark will now be obtained from the ſole, becauſe it was faintly poſitive before, and there has been added the action of the fluid which has entered into the cover. The fluid in the ſole is therefore diſpoſed to fly to any body preſented to it. But when this has happened, the equilibrium at the ſurface G H is deſtroyed, and that ſurface again becomes negative, and will attract fluid, although the cover already contains more than its natural quantity. A ſmall ſpark will therefore be ſeen between the cover and any conducting body preſented to it. By touching it, the neutrality or equilibrium is reſtored at G H; but it is deſtroyed again at E F, which will again give a poſitive ſpark, which, in its turn, again leaves G H negative. This will go on for ever, in a ſeries of communications continually diminiſhing, ſo as ſoon to become inſenſible, if the three parts of the electrophorus be thin. This makes it proper to make them otherwiſe, if the inſtrument be intended for illuſtrating the theory.

At laſt the equilibrium is completed at the ſurfaces G H and E F, and both are neutral in relation to ſurrounding bodies, although both the cover and ſole contain more than their natural ſhare of electric fluid. We may call this the *neutral* or *dead* ſtate of the electrophorus. This ſtate may be produced at once, inſtead of doing it by theſe alternate touches of G H and E F. If we touch at once both theſe ſurfaces, we have a bright pungent ſpark, and a ſmall ſhock. If this be the object of the experiment, the ſtate N°. 4, which gives occaſion to it, may be called the *charged* ſtate of the electrophorus.

When the inſtrument has thus been rendered neutral in relation to ſurrounding bodies, it is plain that it may continue in this ſtate for any length of time without any diminution of its capability of producing the other phenomena, provided only that no fluid paſs from the cover to the cake. We do not *fully* underſtand what prevents this communication, nor indeed what prevents the rapid eſcape from an overcharged body into the air. This cauſe, whatever it be, operates here; and the beſt way of preventing the diſſipation, or the abſorption by the cake, is to keep the electrophorus with its cover on. It will come into this neutral ſtate by diſſipation from the ſole, and abſorption by the cover, in no very long time; and after this, will remain neutral, retaining its power with great obſtinacy, eſpecially if the cake and plates are very thin.

6. If the cover be now removed to a diſtance, both parts of the apparatus will ſhew ſtrong marks of electricity. The cover contains much redundant fluid, and muſt appear ſtrongly poſitive, and will give a bright ſpark, which may be employed for any purpoſe. It may be employed for charging a jar poſitively by the knob, if we juſt touch the cover with the knob. The ſole will attract fluid, or be negative, although it contain more than its natural quantity of fluid, and it will take a ſpark. The ſole, therefore, in the abſence of the cover, may be employed to charge a jar negatively by the knob. By touching it with the finger, or with the knob of a jar held in the hand, it is reduced to the common ſtate deſcribed in N°. 2; and now all the former experiments may be repeated again in the ſame order. We may call this the *active* or the *charging* ſtate.

Volta, its undoubted inventor, called it *electroforo perpetuo*; for it *appears*, as has been already obſerved, to contain a magazine of electricity. The cover, when removed, will charge a jar held in the hand poſitively; and having done this ſervice, it will charge a jar negatively when again ſet on the cake. The ſole, in the abſence of the cover, will charge a third jar negatively; and then when the cover, after being touched, is ſet down again, it will charge a fourth jar poſitively. It may not be difficult to contrive a ſimple mechaniſm, connected with the motion of the cover, which ſhall connect the joined parts with two jars, and ſhall connect them, when ſeparated, with two others; and thus charge all the four with great expedition. This can be done without any new excitation of the electrophorus. But it is by no means a *magazine* of electricity, which it gradually expends: it is a *collector* of electricity from the ſurrounding bodies, which it afterwards imparts to others, and may be employed to diſcharge jars in the ſame gradual manner as to charge them.

7. If the electrophorus be not inſulated, a ſhock may ſtill be obtained, by firſt touching the ſole, and then, without removing the finger, touching the cover: but this will not be ſo ſmart as when the negative cover is touched at the ſame time that we touch the ſole, more highly poſitive, than when it communicates with the ground. The difference, muſt, however, be almoſt imperceptible when the pieces are thin.

8. If the electrophorus is not insulated, the cover, when put on, will give a spark in the manner already mentioned, and it will be somewhat stronger than when it is insulated; because the fluid is allowed to escape from the sole, and does not obstruct the entry into the cover. If we then, without removing the finger from the cover, touch the sole, nothing is felt; but if we first touch the sole, and, without removing the finger from it, touch the cover, we obtain a shock. This is evident from the theory. By this series of alternate touches, the period of the electrophorus is completed. The electrophorus is charged, or rendered neutral, by touching the plates when joined; then, by touching both when separated, the whole is reduced to the common state. When separated, from being in the neutral state, they have opposite electricities, the sole shewing that of the cake. When brought together, each in the common state, they have opposite electricities, the cover shewing that of the cake.

9. When, by long exposure to the air without its cover, the electrophorus has lost its virtue, it may be brought again into an active state in a variety of ways. Its surface may be rendered negative by friction with dry cat or hare skin, or warm flannel. It may be rendered negative by setting on it a jar charged negatively on the inside, and then touching the knob with any thing communicating with the ground. This is the most expeditious method, and will give it a high degree of excitation, if the jar be of size, and if the electrophorus be covered with a plate of tin-foil which comes into contact all over its surface. This however requires the previous charging of the jar; therefore it will be as expeditious and effectual to connect this surface with the rubber of an electrical machine.

The electrophorus has been compared to a charged plate of coated glass. It is true that it *may be brought* into an external state which very much resembles a charged pane; namely, when the cover, in its natural state, is set on the electrophorus in its natural state; and accordingly it gives a shock, and the two exterior surfaces become neutral; but the internal constitution, and the acting forces, are totally and *essentially* different. The two coatings of the pane would not, when separated, exhibit the appearances of the electrophorus; nor, when touched in their disjoined state, will they produce the same effects when joined. In the operation of coated glass, the constant or invariable part, the glass is not the *agent*, it is merely the *occasion* of the action, by *allowing* the accumulation. In the electrophorus, the electric, which is the constant invariable part, is the *agent producing* the accumulation. The electrophorus is an original, and a very ingenious and curious, electrical machine. Nothing has so much contributed to spread some general, though slight, acquaintance with the mechanical principles of electricity. The numerous dabblers in natural knowledge had been diverted from scientific pursuit by the variety of the singular and amusing effects of electricity, and had really attained very little connected knowledge. The effects of the electrophorus *forced* this knowledge upon them; because no use can be made of it without a pretty clear conception of the disposition of the electricity, and the kind and intensity of its action. It is therefore most ungrateful in the experimenters who have attained better views, to attempt to rob Mr. Volta of the real merit of discovery, by shewing that its effects are similar to those of Mr. Symmer's stockings, or of Cigna's plates, or of Franklin's charged or discharged glass panes. And the attempt destroys itself: for it shews the ignorance or inattention of its author; for the similarity is not real, as cannot but appear clear to any person who will examine things minutely, and scientifically.

The electricians are no less obliged to Mr. Volta for another machine, or instrument, from which the study of nature's operations has derived, or may derive, immense advantages. We mean the CONDENSER, or *collector of electricity*. This instrument consists of a smooth metal plate, furnished with an insulating handle, and a semi-conducting, or imperfectly insulating, plane. To examine a weak electricity with this apparatus, as that of the air in calm and hot weather, which is not generally sensible to an electrometer, the above-mentioned plate is to be placed upon the semi-conducting plane; and a wire, or some other conducting substance, must be connected with the metal plate, and extended in the open air, so as to absorb its electricity. The general effect is to render sensible an accumulation or deficiency of electric fluid so slight that it will not affect the most delicate electrometer; and it produces (at least in the opinion of Mr. Volta) this effect, by employing for the sole, a body which is an imperfect conductor, such as a plate of well dried marble, or well dried, but not baked, wood; or even a conducting body, covered with a piece of dry taffety or other silk. Mr. Volta, Cavallo, and others, who have written a great deal on the subject, have attempted to shew how these substances are preferable (and they certainly are preferable in a high degree) to more perfect insulators; but, not having taken pains to form precise notions of the disposition and action of the electric fluid in the situations afforded by the instrument, their reasonings have not been very clear. We think that an adequate conception of the essentials of an *electrical condensator*, may be acquired by means of the following considerations:

Furnish the cover of an electrophorus with a graduated electrometer, which indicates the proportional *degrees of electricity*; electrify it positively to any degree, suppose six, while held in the hand, at some distance over a metal plate placed on a wine-glass as an insulating stand, but communicating with the ground by a wire. Bring it gradually down toward the plate. Theory teaches, and we know it by experiment, that the electrometer will gradually subside, and perhaps will reach to 2° before the electricity is communicated in a spark. Stop it before this happens. In this state the attraction of the plate produces a compensation of four degrees of the mutual repulsion of the parts of the cover, by constipating the fluid on its under surface, and forming a deficient stratum above. Now we can suppose that the escape of the fluid from this body into the air begins as soon as electrified to the degree 6, and that it will fly to the plate with the degree 2, if brought nearer. If we can prevent this communication to the plate, by interposing an electric, we may electrify the cover again, while so near the metal plate, to the degree 6, before it will stream off into the air. If it be now removed from the plate, the fluid would raise the electrometer to 10, did it not immediately stream off; and an electric excitement of any kind which could only raise this body to the degree 6 by its intensity, will, by this apparatus, raise it to the degree 10, if only copious enough in extent. If we do the same thing when the wire is taken away which connects the plate with the ground, we know that the same diminution of the electricity of the cover cannot be produced by bringing it down into the neighbourhood of the plate below.

Here we see the whole theory of Mr. Volta's condenser. He seems to have obscured his conceptions of it by having his thoughts bent upon the electrophorus; and is led into fruitless attempts to explain the advantages of the imperfect conductor above the perfect insulator. But the apparatus is altogether different from an electrophorus, and is more analogous in its operations to a coated plate not charged nor insulated on the opposite side; and such a coated plate lying on a table is a complete condenser, if the upper coating be of the same size with the plate of the condenser. All the directions given by Mr. Volta for the preparation of the imperfect conductor shew, that the effect produced is to make them as perfect conductors as possible for any degree of electricity that exceeds a certain small intensity, but such as shall not

not ſuffer this very weak electricity to clear the firſt ſtep of the conduit. The marble muſt be thoroughly dried, and even heated in an oven, and either uſed in this warm ſtate, or varniſhed, ſo as to prevent the re-abſorption of moiſture. We know that marble of ſlender dimenſions, ſo as to be completely dried throughout, will not conduct till it has again become moiſt. A thick piece of marble is rendered ſo, ſuperficially only, and ſtill conducts internally. It is then in the beſt poſſible ſtate. The ſame may be ſaid of dry unbaked wood. Varniſhing the upper ſurface of a piece of marble or wood, is equivalent to laying a thin glaſs plate on it. Now this method, or covering the top of the marble, or of a book, or even the table, with a piece of clean dry ſilk, makes them all the moſt perfect condenſators. This juſt view of the matter has great advantages. It takes away the myſterious indiſtinctneſs and obſcurity which kept the inſtrument from improvement. We can now make one incomparably better and more ſimple than any propoſed by Volta. We need only the ſimple moveable plate. Let this be varniſhed on the under ſide with a moderately thick coat of the pureſt and hardeſt *vernis de Martin*, or coach-painters varniſh; and we have a complete condenſator by laying it on a table. If it be connected by a wire with the ſubſtance in which the weak and imperceptible electricity is excited, it will be raiſed (provided there be enough of it of that ſmall intenſity) in the proportion of the thickneſs of the varniſh to the fourth part of the diameter of the plate. This degree of condenſation will be procured by detaching the connecting wire from the inſulating handle of the condenſer, and then raiſing the condenſer from the table. It will then give ſparks, though the original electricity could not ſenſibly affect a flaxen fibre.

It muſt be particularly noted, that it can produce this condenſation only when there is electric fluid to condenſe; that is, only when the weak electricity is diffuſed over a greater ſpace than the plate of the condenſer. In this way it is a moſt excellent collector of the weak atmoſperic electricity, and of all diffuſed electricity. But to derive the ſame advantage from it *in many very intereſting caſes*, ſuch as the enquiry into the electricity excited in many operations of nature on ſmall quantities of matter, we muſt have condenſers of various ſizes, ſome not larger than a ſilver penny. To conſtruct theſe in perfection, we muſt uſe the pureſt and hardeſt varniſh, of a kind not apt to crack, and highly coercive. This requires experiment to diſcover it. Spirit varniſhes are the moſt coercive; but, by their difference of contraction by cold from that of metals, they ſoon appear froſty, and when viewed through a lens, they appear ſhivered; and are then uſeleſs. Oil varniſhes have the requiſite toughneſs, but are much inferior in coercion. We have found amber varniſh inferior to copal varniſh in this reſpect, as was previouſly noticed by Von Hauch. On the whole, we ſhould prefer the fineſt coach-painters varniſh, new from the ſhop, into which a pencil has never been dipped: and we muſt be particularly careful to clear our pencils of moiſture and all conducting matter, which never fails to taint the varniſh. We ſcarcely need remark, that the coat of varniſh on theſe ſmall condenſers ſhould be very thin, otherwiſe we loſe all the advantage of their ſmallneſs. Mr. Cavallo has ingeniouſly improved Volta's condenſer by connecting the moveable plate, after removal, with a ſmaller condenſer.

It will readily occur to the reader, that this inſtrument is not inſtantaneous in its operation, and that the application muſt be continued for ſome time, in order to collect the minute electricity which may be excited in the operations of nature. He will alſo be careful that the experiment be ſo conducted that no uſeleſs accumulation is made any where elſe. When we expect electricity from any chemical mixture, it never ſhould be made in a glaſs veſſel, for this will take a charge, and thus may abſorb the whole excited electricity, accumulating it in a neutral or inſenſible ſtate. Let the mixture be made in veſſels of a conducting ſubſtance, inſulated with as little contact as poſſible with the inſulating ſupport; for here will alſo be ſomething like a charge. Suſpend it by ſilk threads, or let it reſt on the tops of three glaſs rods, &c.

Whoever conſiders this apparatus, will perceive that its office is not to manifeſt a ſmall quantity of electricity, but to condenſe an expanded quantity of electricity into a ſmall ſpace: hence, if by means of this apparatus one expected to render more manifeſt than it generally is, when communicated immediately to an electrometer, the electricity of a ſmall tourmalin, or of a hair when rubbed, he would find himſelf miſtaken. It is Mr. Bennet's *doubler* that was intended to anſwer that end; viz. to multiply, by repeated *doubling*, a ſmall, and otherwiſe unperceivable, quantity of electricity, till it became ſufficient to affect an electrometer, to give ſparks, &c. The merit of this invention is certainly conſiderable; but the uſe of it is far from preciſe and certain; and for this principal reaſon, viz. becauſe it multiplies not only the electricity which is communicated to it from the ſubſtance in queſtion; but it multiplies alſo that electricity which in the courſe of the operation is almoſt unavoidably produced by accidental friction; or that quantity of electricity, however ſmall it may be, which adheres to the plates in ſpite of every care and precaution. Mr. Cavallo has, however, with great induſtry, ſearched out all its imperfections, and has endeavoured to remove them by ſeveral ingenious conſtructions. But Mr. Bennet's original inſtrument, or *doubler of electricity*, has received its greateſt improvement from the hand of Mr. Nicholſon, whereby the machine becomes leſs liable to the objections above-mentioned. In its improved ſtate, it conſiſts of two inſulated and immoveable plates about two inches in diameter, and a moveable plate alſo inſulated, which revolves in a vertical plane parallel to the two immoveable plates, paſſing them alternately. A correct view of the inſtrument is given at fig. 20, in the Electricity Plate III. of which the following is an explanation: The plate marked A, is conſtantly inſulated, and receives the communicated electricity. The plate B revolves; and, when it is oppoſite the plate A, the connecting wires at the end of the croſs piece D, touch the pins of A and C at E F, and a wire proceeding from the plate B, alſo touch the middle piece G, which is ſupported by a braſs, wooden, or other conducting pillar in connection with the earth. In this poſition, if electricity be communicated to the plate A, the plate B will acquire a contrary ſtate; and, paſſing forwards, the wires alſo moving with it by means of the ſame inſulating axis, the plates are again inſulated till the plate B is oppoſite to C, and then the wire at H touches the pin in C, connecting it with the earth, and communicating the contrary ſtate of electricity to that of B, but of the ſame kind with that of A. By moving the handle ſtill farther, B is again brought oppoſite to A; and, the connecting wires joining A and C, they both act upon B, which is connected with the earth as before, and nearly double its intenſity, whilſt the electricity of C is abſorbed into A; becauſe of the increaſed capacity of A, whilſt oppoſed to B, capable by its connection with the earth of acquiring a contrary ſtate, ſufficient to balance the influence of both the other plates. Thus by continuing to revolve the plate B, the proceſs is performed in a very expeditious manner. The ball I is made heavier on one ſide than the other, and ſcrewed upon the axis oppoſite to the handle, to counterbalance the plate B, which may therefore be ſtopped in any part of its revolution.

Mr. Nicholſon's beautiful mechaniſm for thus expediting the multiplication, has, however, the inconvenience of bringing the plates towards each other *edgewiſe*, which will bring on a ſpark or communication ſooner than may be deſired: but this is no inconvenience whatever in any philoſophical reſearch; becauſe, before this happens, the electricity has become very diſtinguiſhable

as to its kind, and the degree of multiplication is little more than an amuſement. The ſpark may even ſerve to give an indication of the original intenſity, by means of the number of turns neceſſary for producing it. If the fine wires, which form the alternate connections in ſo ingenious a manner, were tipped with little balls to prevent the diſſipation, it would be a great improvement. An alternate motion, like that of a pump-handle, might alſo be adopted with advantage. This would allow the plates to approach each other *face to face*, and admit a greater multiplication, if thought neceſſary.

There remains nothing more to notice of the apparatus, except that minutiæ which will occur to every perſon diſpoſed to engage in electrical experiments. Among ſuch we may notice ſome glaſs tubes about three feet long, and an inch and a half in diameter, one of which ſhould be cloſed at one end with a braſs cap and ſtop-cock, to rarefy or condenſe the incloſed air; ſome ſticks of ſealing-wax, or tubes of rough glaſs, or glaſs tubes covered with ſealing-wax, or cylinders of baked wood for producing the negative electricity; with proper rubbers, as black oiled ſilk, with amalgam upon it for the former, and ſoft new flannel, or hare-ſkins or cat-ſkins tanned with the hair on, for the latter; coated plates of glaſs for ſimilar uſes as the Leyden jar; metal rods as diſchargers; ſmall glaſs ſpheres or globes; inſulating ſtools, ſupported by pillars of glaſs covered with ſealing-wax, or of baked wood, to keep the electric fluid from paſſing to the earth; a pot of amalgam, &c. The beſt kind of amalgam is that of Dr. Higgins compoſed of zinc and quickſilver. If a little of the latter be added to melted zinc, it renders it eaſily pulverable, and more quickſilver muſt be added in due proportion for a very ſoft amalgam.

PRINCIPLES OR LAWS OF ELECTRICITY.

Modern electricians, with almoſt one conſent, appear to believe in the exiſtence of a fluid *ſui generis*, and to have adopted the Franklinian hypotheſis of the action of that fluid, by *attraction* and *repulſion*. There are ſome, however, whoſe diffident and ſcrupulous minds, not being as yet ſatisfied with the chemical theory of phlogiſton, fire, heat, or caloric, ſtill reject the doctrine of an electric fluid, and attempt to deduce the laws of the electrical phenomena, not from the preſence of any peculiar *ſubſtance*, but from peculiar *modes*; on the principle that ſound, and ſome concomitant motions, and other mechanical appearances, are the reſults of the elaſtic undulations of air; juſt as lord Bacon and others have explained the effects of fire by elaſtic undulations of the integrant particles of tangible matter. There ſeems nothing, however, of this kind, that can give any explanation of the motions, preſſures, and other mechanical appearances, of electricity. This requires, that every doctrine which claims the name of an explanation, ſhall be perfectly conſiſtent with the acknowledged laws of mechaniſm; and that the explanation ſhall conſiſt in pointing out thoſe mechanical laws, of which the facts in electricity are particular inſtances. It may not be difficult to preſent an intricate or complex phenomenon to our view, in ſuch a form, that it ſhall have ſome reſemblance to ſome other complex phyſical fact, more familiar, perhaps, though not better underſtood. But this will not ſtand againſt the eſtabliſhed law of electricity by *attraction* and *repulſion*; a circumſtance which admits of the moſt accurate examination and compariſon with any explanation that is attempted.

Many philoſophers, and among them ſome reſpectable mathematicians, have ſupported the doctrine of Du Faye, Symmer, Cigna, &c. who employ two fluids as agents in all electrical operations. It muſt be confeſſed that there are ſome appearances where the explanation by means of two fluids ſeems, at firſt ſight, more palpable and eaſier conceived. But whenever we attempt to obtain *meaſures*, and to ſay what will be the preciſe kind and degree of the electricity, we find ourſelves obliged to aſſign to the particles of thoſe fluids actuating mechanical forces preciſely equivalent to thoſe of the ſingle fluid only.

Mr. Profeſſor Ruſſel, of the univerſity of Edinburgh, in his theory, conſiders the electrical phenomena as the reſults of the action of a ſubſtance which may be called an *electrical fluid*, connected with bodies by attractive and repulſive forces acting at a diſtance, and diminiſhing as the diſtance increaſes. Mr. Ruſſel ſpeaks of the electric fluid as a compound of ſeveral others; and, particularly, as containing elementary fire, and deriving from it a great elaſticity, or mutual repulſion of its particles. This, however, is different from the elaſticity or mutual repulſion of the particles of air, becauſe it acts at a diſtance; whereas the particles of air act only on the adjoining particles. By this conſtitution, bodies containing more electric fluid than the ſpaces around them repel each other; and the particles of this electric fluid attract the particles of other bodies with a force which diminiſhes by diſtance. The characteriſtic ingredient of this fluid is ELECTRICITY *properly ſo called*. This is united with the elaſtic fluid by chemical affinity, which Mr. Ruſſel calls *elective attraction*, a term lately introduced into chemiſtry. This he ſuppoſes to extend to all diſtances, but not preciſely by the ſame law as the mutual repulſion of the particles of the other fluid, and in general, it repreſſes the repulſions of that fluid while in this ſtate of compoſition. This *electricity*, moreover, attracts the particles of other bodies, but with certain elections. Non-electric or conducting bodies are attracted by it at all diſtances; but electrics act on it only at very ſmall and inſenſible diſtances. At ſuch diſtances its particles alſo attract each other. The phenomena of light and heat are conſidered as marks of partial decompoſition, and as proofs of the preſence of elementary fire in the compound: the ſmell peculiar to electricity, and the effect on the organ of taſte, are proofs of decompoſition and of the complex nature of the fluid. Bodies or conductors containing electric fluid, repel each other at conſiderable diſtances, but, if forced very near, attract each other. Electrics can contain it only in conſequence of the *electricity* in the compound. Part of this electricity muſt be attached to the ſurface in a non-elaſtic ſtate; becauſe when it is brought ſo near as to be attracted, its particles are within the ſpheres of each other's action, and this redoubled attraction overcomes the repulſion occaſioned by its union with the other ingredient; and the electric fluid is partly decompoſed, and the *electricity*, properly ſo called, adheres to the ſurface of the electric, *as the water of damp air adheres to a cold pane of glaſs in our windows*. Alſo, by this conſtitution, electric fluid may appear in two ſtates; elaſtic, like air, when entire; and unelaſtic, like water, when partly decompoſed by the attraction of electrics. But the attentive reader will eaſily ſee, that all this intricate combination of different kinds of attraction and repulſion is nothing but mere accommodations of hypothetical forces to the phenomena. This, and the more recent though ſimilar theory of M. de Luc, have, for theſe reaſons, fallen to the ground.

The laws of electrical phenomena, founded on the principles of attraction and repulſion, are accommodated to the fact, that bodies in their natural ſtate, having their natural quantity of electric fluid, are altogether inactive on each other, by making this natural quantity ſuch, that its mutual repulſion exactly balances its attraction for the common matter. Hence it follows, that the electric phenomena muſt be deduced from a *redundancy* or *deficiency* of electric fluid. This is the Franklinian doctrine. The redundant ſtate of a body is called by Dr. Franklin POSITIVE OR PLUS ELECTRICITY, and the deficient ſtate is called NEGATIVE OR MINUS ELECTRICITY. When a body contains more than its natural quantity, or leſs, it will be redundant in the one caſe, and deficient in the other. Theſe different conditions exhibit different appearances, which conſtitute the action of the electric fluid. And hence, in the firſt caſe, wherever the electric fluid

fluid is redundant, there will be an efflux of the contained fluid; and on the other hand, if the body contains leſs than its natural quantity of fluid, there will be an influx from without. But this efflux or influx may be prevented, either by ſurrounding the body with ſubſtances, through the pores of which the fluid cannot move at all, or by the body itſelf being of this conſtitution. And thus we ſee, that the very circumſtance of being impervious to the fluid, or completely permeable, renders the body capable or incapable of exhibiting electrical phenomena, if ſurrounded by permeable bodies. This circumſtance is alone ſufficient to conſtitute the difference between *electrics per ſe*, and *non-electrics*; and here a numerous claſs of phenomena receive an explanation by this hypothetical conſtitution of the electric fluid. All electrics *per ſe* are bodies fit for confining electricity in bodies which are rendered capable, (by whatever means) of producing electrical phenomena; and no conductor, or ſubſtance which allows the electricity to paſs through it, can be made electric by any of the means which produce that effect in *inſulators*. And it is well known, that the electricity of electrics is vaſtly more durable than that of non-electrics in ſimilar ſituations. When the tendency to efflux or influx is induced, as hereafter ſhewn, by a due proportion of the redundancy and deficiency of electric fluid, the part of the body where this obtains is by no means in its natural ſtate, and may contain either more or leſs than its natural quantity. But it neither acts like an over-charged nor like an under-charged body, and is therefore called *neutral*. Such, for example, is noticed in the plates and covers of the electrophorus.

It may be proper to point out ſome of the habitudes that indicate which end of the conductor is electrical by the redundancy of electric fluid. It is generally believed, that the remote end of a conductor which is electrified by glaſs, excited by rubbing it with flannel or amalgamated leather, is electrical by redundancy. No difference has been obſerved in the attractions and repulſions; but there are other marks of diſtinction which are conſtant, and undoubtedly ariſe from a difference in the mode of action of thoſe mechanical forces. If a glaſs mirror, covered with tin-foil, be made to touch the remote end of the conductor, and ſlowly drawn tranſverſely, ſo that the conductor draws a line as it were acroſs it: this mirror being laid down with the foiled ſide undermoſt, the duſt, which ſettles on it in the courſe of a day or two, will be chiefly collected along this line, ſomewhat in the form of the fibres of a feather. But if the conductor was rendered electrical by the globe covered with ſealing-wax, the duſt will be collected along this line in little ſpots like a row of beads. The appearances will be reverſed if the mirror has been paſſed acroſs the end of the conductor which is neareſt to the excited electric. In ſhort, in whatever way the drawing point has been electrified, if it repel a ball which has touched excited glaſs, the line will be feathered; but if it attract ſuch a ball, the line will be ſpotted. There are many ways of making this appearance much more remarkable; but we mention this, becauſe the circumſtances which occaſion the difference, whatever it be, are the moſt ſimple poſſible. Nothing is communicated; and therefore the effect muſt ariſe from a ſubſtance or power reſiding in the body. If it be a ſubſtance *ſui generis*, the electric action muſt ariſe from a different diſtribution of this ſubſtance; from a redundancy and deficiency of it in the different portions of the conductor. Without pretending to ſay which is redundant, we ſhall ſuppoſe, with Dr. Franklin, that the electricity of excited glaſs is ſo; and hence the words *redundant*, and *poſitive*, are uſed alike to diſtinguiſh this ſtate of electricity.

When an inſulated body is brought very near to an electrified body, a ſpark is obſerved to paſs between them, accompanied with a noiſe which is called the *ſnap*; from whence is inferred a *transference* of electrical matter. When a body has imparted electricity to another, it conſtantly repels it, unleſs that other has afterwards imparted all its electricity to other bodies. This fact, from which there is no exception, is an immediate conſequence of the theory. Before the transference ſuppoſed by it, one of the bodies was in its natural ſtate; after the transference, both bodies contain redundant fluid, or redundant matter; therefore they muſt mutually repel.

All the phenomena of communicated electricity muſt be more remarkable or forcible, in proportion to the conducting power of the bodies. A very imperfect conductor, ſuch as glaſs or ſealing-wax, will impart or receive fluid only between the very neareſt parts; whereas a metalline body is inſtantly affected through its whole extent. This deduction is perfectly agreeable to the whole train of electric experiments. The finger receives a ſtrong ſpark from a large metalline electrified body, which diſcharges *every part of it* of a portion of its electricity. But an excited globe, which ſhews, by its action on a diſtant body, as great a degree of electricity, will give only a very ſmall ſpark; and it is found not to be affected at any conſiderable diſtance from the point of its ſurface from which the transference was made. The whole electricity of a perfect conductor is diſcharged by touching it; but a non conductor will ſucceſſively give ſparks, if touched in many different parts; and it may be ſeen by a nice electrometer, that each contact takes away the electricity only from a very ſmall ſpace round it: and it is farther highly deſerving of notice, that ſome time after a ſpark has been obtained from a particular ſpot of the electric, a ſecond ſpark may be obtained from it, the electricity of the neighbouring parts having been gradually diffuſed over it.

If an electrified conducting body touch any thing communicating with the ground by perfect conductors, all its electricity muſt diſappear, and none can appear in the body touched by it; for the maſs of the earth bears ſuch an unmeaſurable proportion to that of the greateſt body that we can electrify, that when the redundancy or deficiency is divided between them, it muſt be imperceptible in both. Hence the deſcent of all lightning into the earth; and hence the neceſſity of *inſulation*, as it is called, or the ſurrounding by non-conductors every body which we would have exhibit electric appearances.

Any unelectrified body will be firſt attracted by an electrified body, will touch it, and will then be repelled. The *neutral* body is rendered electrical by induction. It is, *in conſequence of this*, attracted, comes near enough to receive a ſpark, or even touches it, and is then electrified by communication; and, *in conſequence of this*, it is repelled. This has been confirmed by an endleſs train of experiments. It was firſt taken notice of by ſir Iſaac Newton. Otho Guericke mentions many inſtances of the repulſion, but did not obſerve that it was an univerſal law. Newton was ſo ſtruck with it as to engage in a conſiderable train of experiments in the early part of his life, while meditating on the power of gravity; but even his ſagacious mind did not obſerve the whole proceſs of nature in his experiments. He obſerved, that the light bodies which roſe and adhered to the rubbed plate of glaſs were ſoon after repelled by it; but did not obſerve, that the ſame piece would again riſe to the glaſs after it had touched the table. This fact is now the foundation of many experiments, which the itinerant electricians vie with each other in rendering amuſing. There is frequently a ſeeming capriciouſneſs in thoſe attractions and repulſions. A pith ball, or a down feather, hung by ſilk, will cling to the conductor, or otherwiſe electrified body, and will not fly off again, at leaſt for a long while. This happens when thoſe bodies are ſo dry as to be almoſt non-conductors. They acquire a poſitive and negative pole, like an iron nail adhering to a magnet, and are not repelled till they become almoſt wholly poſitive or negative. This never happens with conducting light bodies.

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We have ſeen, that the transference of electricity is deſultory, and that the change made in the electric ſtate of the communicating bodies is always conſiderable. It appears to keep ſome ſettled ratio to the whole electric power of the body. When the form of the parts where the communication takes place, and other circumſtances, remain the ſame, the transference increaſes with the ſize of the bodies; and all the phenomena are more vivid in proportion. When the conductor is large, the ſpark is very bright, and the ſnap very loud. This ſnap alone ſeems to indicate ſome material agent. It is occaſioned by a ſonorous undulation of the air, or of ſome elaſtic fluid, which ſuddenly expands, and as ſuddenly collapſes again. But ſuch is the rapidity of the undulations, that when it is made in cloſe veſſels it does not exiſt long enough, in a very expanded ſtate, to affect the column of water, ſupported in a tube by the elaſticity of the air, for the purpoſe of a delicate thermometer or barometer; juſt as a muſket-ball will paſs through a looſe hanging ſheet of paper without cauſing any ſenſible agitation.

The ſpark is accompanied by intenſe heat, which will kindle inflammable bodies, will melt, explode, and calcine, metals. It alſo produces ſome very remarkable chemical effects. It calcines metals even under water or oil; it renders Bolognan phoſphorus luminous; it decompoſes water, and makes new compoſitions and decompoſitions of many gaſiform fluids; it affects vegetable colours; it blackens the calces of biſmuth, lead, tin, luna cornea; it communicates a very peculiar ſmell to the air of a room, which is diſtinct from all others; and in the calcination of metals, it changes remarkably the ſmells with which this operation is uſually accompanied; it affects the tongue with an acidulous taſte; it agitates the nervous ſyſtem. When we compare theſe appearances with ſimilar chemical and phyſiological phenomena, which naturaliſts never heſitate in aſcribing to the action of material ſubſtances, tranſferable from one body, or one ſtate of combination, to another, we can ſee no greater reaſon for heſitating in aſcribing the electric phenomena to the action of a material ſubſtance; which we may call *a fluid*, on account of its connected mobility, and *electric fluid*, on account of its diſtinguiſhing effects.

Having taken this comprehenſive view of the ancient and preſent ſtate of the ſcience of electricity, it would be abſurd to traverſe the wild and barren waſtes of thoſe authors who have ſet up unfounded theories and fanciful hypotheſes; or to bewilder and perplex the reader with the unintereſting and deſultory controverſies which have been the conſequence, merely to arrive by circumlocution at thoſe legitimate facts which are now eſtabliſhed by the teſt of experiment and rational demonſtration. Thoſe who delight in the clear and convincing language of mathematical diſcuſſion, may ſee the Franklinian theory ſifted through all the moſt ſtriking features of electrical phenomena, in the work of M. Æpinus, of the imperial academy of St. Peterſburgh; as well as in thoſe of our illuſtrious countrymen, the Hon. Mr. Cavendiſh, and earl Stanhope. We are convinced that the *reſults* of their labours, clearly and methodically arranged, cannot but be moſt ſatisfactory and pleaſing to the bulk of our readers, becauſe they will thereby obtain an ample knowledge of all the phenomena, without the coſt of that labour and time which it is not always convenient to beſtow: and theſe phenomena having been moſt accurately and neatly claſſed in the Inſtitutes of Natural Philoſophy, recently publiſhed by the Rev. Dr. Enfield, we ſhall avail ourſelves of that mode, and ſtate them as follows: From what has been premiſed, we are warranted to conclude, 1. That the earth, and all bodies with which we are acquainted, contain a certain quantity of that exceedingly elaſtic fluid, which is called the *electric fluid*.—This certain quantity, ſuppoſed to belong to all bodies, may be called their natural ſhare or ſtate; and ſo long as each body contains neither *more*, nor *leſs*, than this quantity of the electric fluid, it lies dormant, and produces no effect. 2. When a body becomes poſſeſſed of more, or leſs, than this natural quantity, it is inſtantly *electrified*, and is capable of exhibiting appearances which are aſcribed to the action of *electricity*.—This equilibrium could never be diſturbed, or, if it were diſturbed, would be immediately reſtored, and therefore be inſenſible; but that ſome bodies do not admit the paſſage of the electric fluid through their pores, or along their ſurfaces, though others do. 3. When therefore a body has acquired an additional quantity of electric matter; or loſt a part of what naturally belonged to it, and is at the ſame time ſurrounded by bodies through which it *cannot* paſs, it muſt remain in that ſtate, and is thence ſaid to be *inſulated*.—The doctrine which reſults from theſe definitions, and from the facts previouſly ſtated, will be found exemplified in the following propoſitions:

I. The electric fluid, being excited, becomes perceptible to the ſenſes.—Let a glaſs tube be rubbed with the hand, or with a leathern cuſhion; the electric fluid being thus excited, will attract light ſubſtances, and give a lucid ſpark to the finger, or any metallic ſubſtance, brought near it. The glaſs tube is the *electric*, and all thoſe bodies which are capable, by any means, to produce ſuch effects, are alſo *electrics*. The hand, or any other body that rubs an electric, is called the *rubber*.

Reſpecting the theory of electricity, there are two different hypotheſes, one that there is only *one* fluid, and the other that there are *two*. Dr. Franklin's hypotheſis is the former, and depends on the following principles: 1. That all terreſtrial bodies are full of the electric fluid. 2. That the electric fluid violently repels itſelf, and attracts all other matter. 3. By exciting an electric, the equilibrium of the electric fluid contained in it is deſtroyed, and one part contains more than its natural quantity, and the other leſs. 4. Conducting bodies, connected with that part which contains more electric fluid than its natural quantity, receive it, and are *charged* with more than their natural quantity; this is called *poſitive* electricity: if they be connected with that part which has leſs than its natural quantity, they part with ſome of their own, and contain leſs than their natural quantity; this is called *negative* electricity. 5. When one body poſitively and another negatively electrified are connected by any conducting ſubſtance, the fluid in the body which is poſitively electrified ruſhes to that which is negatively electrified, and the equilibrium is reſtored. Theſe are the principles of *poſitive* and *negative* electricity. The other hypotheſis is, that there are *two* diſtinct fluids, ſuggeſted by M. Du Faye, upon his diſcovery of the different properties of excited glaſs, and excited reſins, ſealing-wax, &c. The following are the principles of this theory: 1. That the two powers ariſe from two different fluids which exiſt together in all bodies. 2. That theſe fluids are ſeparated in non-electrics, by the excitation of electrics, and from thence they become evident to the ſenſes, they deſtroying each others effects when united. 3. When ſeparated they ruſh together again with great violence, in conſequence of their ſtrong mutual attraction as ſoon as they are connected by any conducting ſubſtance. Theſe are the principles of *vitreous* and *reſinous* electricity.—*But the theory is unfounded.*

II. The electric fluid paſſes eaſily along the ſurfaces of ſome bodies; whilſt other bodies do not convey it: the former are called *conductors*, the latter *non-conductors*, or *electrics*.—The metallic cylinder being fixed upon glaſs ſupporters, and placed near the electric machine, will, by means of pointed wires, receive the electric fluid from the glaſs cylinder, and the fluid will be diffuſed over the whole ſurface of the metallic cylinder, from whence it cannot paſs through the glaſs ſupporters which are electric, but may be conveyed away by any metallic or other *conducting* ſubſtances, brought near, or into contact with it. This metallic cylinder is the *prime conductor*.

III. Some conductors are more perfect than others; and the electric fluid will always pass through that which is most perfect. Hence the fluid will pass through a wire held in the hand.—The following bodies are conductors and electrics, put down in the order of their degrees of perfection: *Conductors*; gold, silver, copper, brass, iron, tin, quicksilver, lead, the other metals, ores, charcoals, water, ice, snow, salts, soft stones, smoke, steam: *Non-conductors*, or *electrics*; glass, and all vitrifications, even those of metals; precious stones, resins, gums, amber, sulphur, baked wood, bituminous substances, wax, silk, cotton, feathers, wool, hair, paper, air, oil, hard stones. Many electrics become conductors when heated, and *all*, when moistened.

An exhausted glass vessel, on being rubbed, shews no signs of electricity upon its external surface. But the electric power of a glass cylinder is the strongest when the air within is a little rarefied. If the air be condensed, or the cylinder be filled with some conducting substance, it is incapable of being excited. Nevertheless, a solid stick of glass, sealing-wax, sulphur, &c. may be excited. The same substance, by different preparations, is sometimes a conductor, and at others an electric. A piece of wood just cut from a tree is a good conductor; let it be baked, and it becomes an electric; burn it to charcoal, and it is a good conductor again; lastly, let this coal be reduced to ashes, and these will be *impervious* to electricity. Such changes are also observable in many other bodies; and very likely in all substances there is a gradation from the best conductors to the best non-conductors of electricity.

IV. Non-conductors retain the fluid on a small part of their surface where the friction has acted; conductors diffuse it over all their surface, and therefore cannot confine it, unless they be surrounded entirely by non-conductors, that is, be *insulated*. This is constantly seen from the partial distribution of the fluid on an excited electric, and its universal diffusion over a conductor. If a finger, or any other conductor, be presented to an excited glass, cylinder, tube, &c. it will receive a spark, and in that spark, a small part only of the electricity of the electric; because the excited electric, being a non-conductor, cannot convey the electricity of all its surface to that point to which the conductor has been presented. But if any conducting substance be brought to a charged metallic conductor, it will receive in one spark nearly the whole of the electricity accumulated upon it. The small part which remains is very trifling in comparison of the first spark, and is called the *residuum*.—It was stated above that a body is said to be *positively electrified*, when it has excited or thrown upon it a greater quantity of the electric fluid than its natural share; and that a body is *negatively electrified*, when it has a less quantity of the electric matter than is natural to it.

V. The electric fluid may be excited by rubbing, by pouring a melted electric into another substance, by heating and cooling, and by evaporation.—In working the electrical machine, the fluid is excited by friction. Rubbing is the general mean by which all electric substances that are at all excitable may be excited. Whether they be rubbed with electrics of a different sort, or conductors, they always shew signs of electricity, and in general stronger when rubbed with conductors, and weaker when rubbed with electrics.—When sulphur is melted into an earthen vessel, if the vessel be supported by a conducting substance, the sulphur, when cold and separated from the vessel, is strongly electrical, and will attract light bodies.—If sulphur be melted into glass vessels, when cold, the glass, whether supported by electrics or not, will be positively electrical, and the sulphur negative.—Melted sealing-wax, when poured into sulphur, becomes positively electrified, and the sulphur negative.—Melted sealing-wax poured into glass cups acquires a negative electricity; upon being separated, the glass is positive.—Sulphur melted into metal cups, shews no signs of electricity till it is separated from the cup; then the cup is negative, and the sulphur is positive.—If a stick of sealing-wax be broken into two pieces, the extremities that were contiguous will be found electrified, one positively, and the other negatively.

The tourmalin, a stone which is generally of a deep red, or purple colour, about the size of a walnut, and found in the East Indies, while kept in the same degree of heat, shews no signs of electricity, but will become electrical by increasing or diminishing its heat, and stronger in the latter than in the former case. Its electricity does not appear all over its surface, but only on two opposite sides, which may be called its *poles*, and they are always in one right line with the center of the stone, and in the direction of the strata; in which direction the stone is absolutely opaque, though on the other side it is semi-transparent. Whilst the tourmalin is heating, one of its sides, (which we will call A,) is electrified plus; the other, (called B,) minus. But when it is cooling A is minus, and B is plus. If this stone be excited by friction, then both its sides at once may be made positive. If a tourmalin be cut into several parts, each piece will have its positive and negative poles, corresponding to the positive and negative sides of the stone from which it was cut.—These properties are now found to belong to several hard and precious stones as well as to the tourmalin.

Electricity may be produced by the evaporation of water in this manner: upon an insulating stand, as a wine glass, place an earthen vessel, as a crucible, a basin, &c. and put into it three or four lighted coals. Let a wire be put with one end among the coals, and with the other let it touch a very sensible pith-ball or Canton's electrometer. Then pour in a spoonful of water at once upon the coals, which will occasion a quick evaporation; and at the same time the electrometer will diverge.

VI. The electric fluid may be lodged in electrics, or in insulated conductors, in a greater quantity than naturally belongs to them; that is, they may be *positively* electrified.—In working the electrical machine, the cylinder acquires more than its natural quantity of fluid by excitation; the conductor, by communication: for, while there is a free conveyance of electric fluid from the earth to the rubber, by means of a conducting supporter, the conductor will be highly electrified. The electric matter with which the prime conductor is loaded, is not *produced* by the friction of the cylinder against the rubber. It is only *collected* by that operation from the rubber, and all the bodies that are contiguous to it. If, therefore, the rubber be well insulated, the friction of the cylinder will produce but little electricity; for in that case the rubber can only part with its own share, which is very inconsiderable. In this situation, if the finger be presented to the rubber, sparks will be seen to dart from it to the rubber, to supply the place of that electric matter which had passed from it to the cylinder: if the conductor be also insulated, these sparks will cease as soon as it is fully loaded.

VII. The electric fluid being accumulated on any body, will pass to any conductor brought near to that body: if it pass from, or be received by, *pointed* wires, it will be conveyed in a continued stream; if it pass from, or be received by, a surface which has no sharp points, it will be discharged with an instantaneous explosion or spark.—Let the fluid be received from the conductor upon a pointed wire, and upon a brass ball, and this result appears. The electric fluid will also be diffused through the surrounding atmosphere, by wires placed upon the conductor. Hence arises the necessity of keeping the whole surface of the conductor free from points. When a conductor is electrified by communication, its whole electric power is discharged at once, on the near approach of a conductor communicating with the earth; whereas an excited electric, in the same circumstances, loses its electric power only in the parts near to the conductor.

VIII. If conductors be insulated, they will retain a greate

greater or leſs quantity of the electric fluid, (the power of the machine being given,) proportional to the extent of ſurface in the conductor.—This reſult appears by obſerving the difference in the magnitude and diſtance of ſparks taken from a ſmall conductor, and of thoſe taken from a large one. There is a limit, however, beyond which this propoſition will not hold true, but which, experiment has not yet ſufficiently aſcertained. For it is certain, that if the conductor be very long, it will diſcharge itſelf over the cylinder back to the rubber long before it is fully charged. The late Mr. G. C. Morgan aſſerts, that by the moſt powerful excitation of a cylinder fourteen inches in diameter, the ſpark afforded by a conductor eight inches in diameter, and twelve feet long, did not equal half the length of that procured from the ſame cylinder with a conductor of equal diameter, but ſhortened to ſix feet. And he ſuggeſts that a conductor of half that length even, and about ſixteen inches in diameter, would have yielded a longer ſpark than either of the preceding. See *Morgan's Lect. on Elect.* vol. i. p. 54, &c.

IX. A body may be deprived of part of its natural portion of electric fluid; that is, be *negatively* electrified.—If the rubber which communicates the fluid to the glaſs cylinder, and from thence to the conductor, be inſulated, becauſe by working the machine a quantity of its fluid is conveyed away, and it cannot receive a freſh ſupply through its ſupporter, it will be in an *exhauſted* or *negative* ſtate. If negative electricity be required, then the chain which connects the rubber with ſurrounding objects, and conſequently with the earth, the great reſervoir of the electric fluid, muſt be removed from the inſulated rubber, and hung to the prime conductor; for in this caſe the electricity of the conductor will be communicated to the ground, and the rubber will appear ſtrongly negative. Another conductor may be connected with the inſulated rubber, and then as ſtrong negative electricity may be obtained from this as poſitive can be in the caſe before-mentioned.—The patent machine of Mr. Nairne is admirably adapted for the purpoſes both of poſitive and negative electricity.

X. When bodies are negatively electrified, they receive the electric fluid from other bodies brought near them.—Let two inſulated conductors, one of which is connected with the glaſs cylinder, the other with the rubber, be electrified; whilſt they are in this ſtate let them be brought near each other; a ſpark will paſs from that which (by Prop. VI.) is poſitively, to that which (by Prop. IX.) is negatively, electrified.—Let two perſons ſtanding on glaſs feet be electrified, firſt both poſitively, or both negatively, they will not, on contact, communicate the fluid to each other; but let them be electrified, the one poſitively and the other negatively, by making a communication from one to the conductor, and from the other to the rubber, on contact, the former will give, and the latter receive, a ſpark.

XI. From a *pointed* body poſitively electrified, the fluid will be ſeen to ſtream out, towards any electrified body brought near it, in a conical pencil of rays; whereas in paſſing from the unelectrified body to a pointed body negatively electrified, it will form a globular flame, or ſtar, about its point.—This reſult is made obvious by obſerving, in a dark room, the different appearances of the electric fluid at the extremity of a pointed wire, when the point is preſented to an inſulated conductor poſitively, and when it is preſented to one negatively, electrified; or when ſuch a wire is fixed upon a conductor poſitively or negatively electrified. Within a *luminous conductor* electrified poſitively, (viewed in a dark room,) the electric fluid will be ſeen paſſing in the form of a pencil from one wire, and received in the form of a ſtar upon the other; and the reverſe, if it be electrified negatively.

XII. If two bodies be electrified, both poſitively, or both negatively, they repel each other; but if one be electrified poſitively, and the other be negatively or not at all electrified, they attract each other.—Thus, light feathers, or hair, connected with the conductor, appear repellent, but are attracted by bringing any non-electrified body near them. The hair of a perſon electrified becomes repellent. In the graduated or Henley's electrometer, the ball is repelled according to the degree in which the conductor is electrified. Downy feathers, paper figures, threads of flax, thiſtle down, gold leaf, braſs duſt, or other light bodies, brought near to the conductor, are alternately attracted and repelled. But this will not take place if the bodies be laid on a plate of glaſs.

Two bells being ſuſpended by wires from a braſs rod connected with the conductor, and a third by a ſilk cord, and two ſmall balls of braſs ſuſpended by a ſilken thread between the bells, the electric fluid will be communicated from the conductor to the outer bells, and by the balls to the middle bell, and from thence conveyed by a chain to the earth: the balls in receiving and communicating the fluid are attracted and repelled ſucceſſively, and produce ringing: exactly on the ſame principle as the experiment made with the Leyden phial and ſix bells, as ſhewn in the Electricity Plate I. fig. 9.

Let water flow from a capillary tube, from which, before it is electrified, it paſſes in drops; upon being electrified, the particles of fluid will be ſeparated, and their motion accelerated. Theſe appearances will be preſented, whether the conductor be poſitively or negatively electrified.

Mr. Symmer's electricity of ſilk ſtockings illuſtrates this propoſition. He had been accuſtomed to wear two pair of ſilk ſtockings, a white pair under black ones. When theſe were pulled off together, no ſigns of electricity appeared, but on pulling off the black ones from the white, he heard a ſnapping noiſe, and in the dark perceived luminous ſparks. On this ſubject he has related a number of very curious experiments on the attraction and repulſion of the ſtockings, and upon their different ſtates of electricity.

Since it is found that rubbed glaſs electrifies any inſulated conductor poſitively, it may be determined whether any body is electrified poſitively or negatively, by bringing it near to a pith-ball, or down-feather, poſitively electrified, and obſerving whether the ball or feather be *attracted*, or *repelled*, by the body. Bring a pith-ball or down-feather, ſuſpended by a ſilken thread and poſitively electrified by any rubbed glaſs ſurface, near to another pith-ball or feather ſuſpended by a flaxen thread from a conductor connected with the cylinder; then bring the ſame near to a conductor connected with the rubber, and the kind or meaſure of the electricity will be ſeen. Thus was the invention and utility of the *electrometer* ſuggeſted.

XIII. From the ſharp points of electrified bodies there proceeds a current of air.—A wire, with ſharp points bent in oppoſite directions, and ſuſpended on the point of a perpendicular wire inſerted in the conductor, will be carried round by the current of air proceeding from the points. Let ſeveral pieces of imboſſed or gilt paper be ſtuck like vanes into the ſide of a cork, through the center of which a needle paſſes; ſuſpend the whole by a magnet, and preſent one of the vanes to the point of a wire inſerted in the conductor; they will be put into motion.

The rapid diſſipation of the electric fluid by ſharp points, and the impoſſibility of making any conſiderable accumulation in a body which has any ſuch points projecting beyond other parts of its ſurface, is one of the moſt abſtruſe phenomena in electricity. The diſſipation is attended with many remarkable circumſtances, which have greatly the appearance of the actual eſcape of ſome material ſubſtance. A ſtream of wind blows from ſuch a point, and quickly electrifies the air of a room to ſuch a degree, that an electrometer in the fartheſt corner of the room is affected by it. This diſſipation in a dark place is, in many inſtances, accompanied by a bright train of light diverging from the point like a firework. Dr. Franklin is therefore very anxious to reconcile this appearance

pearance with his theory of plus and minus electricity, but does not expreſs himſelf well ſatisfied with any explanation which had occurred to him. From the beginning, he ſaw that he could not conſider the ſtream of wind as a proof of the eſcape of the electric fluid, becauſe the ſame ſtream is obſerved to iſſue from a ſharp negative point; which, according to his theory, is not diſperſing, but abſorbing it. The Hon. Mr. Cavendiſh ſeems to have given the firſt ſatisfactory account of this phenomenon. To ſee it in its full force, the phenomenon itſelf muſt be carefully obſerved. The ſtream of wind is plainly produced by the eſcape of ſomething from the point itſelf, which hurries the air along with it; and this alſo draws a great deal of the ſurrounding air, eſpecially from behind, in the ſame manner as the very ſlender thread of air from a blow-pipe hurries along with it the ſurrounding air and flame from a conſiderable ſurface on all ſides. It is in this manner that it gathers the whole of a large flame into one maſs, and, at laſt, into a very point. If the ſmoke of a little roſin thrown on a live coal be made to riſe quietly round a point projecting from an electrified body, continually ſupplied from an electrical machine, the vortices of this ſmoke may be obſerved to curl in from all ſides, along the wire, forming a current of which the wire is the axis, and it goes off completely by the point. But if the wire be made to paſs through a cork fixed in the bottom of a wide glaſs tube, and if its point project not beyond the mouth of the tube, the afflux of the air from behind is prevented, and we have no ſtream; but if the cork be removed, and the wire ſtill occupy the axis of the tube, but without touching the ſides, we have the ſtream very diſtinctly; and ſmoke which riſes round the far end of the tube is drawn into it, and goes off at the point of the wire. Now it is of importance to obſerve, that whatever prevents the formation of this ſtream of wind prevents the diſſipation of electricity from the point. If the point project a quarter of an inch beyond the tube, or if the tube be open behind, the ſtream is ſtrong, and the diſſipation ſo rapid, that even a very good machine is not able to raiſe a Henley's electrometer, ſtanding on a conductor, a very few degrees. If the tube be ſlipped forward, ſo that the point is juſt even with its mouth, the diſſipation of electricity is next to nothing, and does not exceed what might be produced by ſuch air as can be collected by a ſuperficial point. If the tube be made to advance half an inch beyond the point which it ſurrounds, the diſſipation becomes inſenſible. All theſe facts put it beyond a doubt that the air is the cauſe, or, at leaſt, the occaſion of the diſſipation, and carries the electricity off with it, in this manner rendering electrical the whole air of a room.

It has been demonſtrated that two ſpheres, connected by an infinitely extended, but ſlender, conducting canal, are in electrical equilibrium, if their ſurfaces contain fluid in the proportion of their diameters. In this caſe, the ſuperficial denſity of the fluid and its tendency to eſcape are inverſely as the diameters. Now if, in imagination, we gradually diminiſh the diameter of one of the ſpheres, the tendency to eſcape will increaſe in a greater proportion than any that we can name. We know, that when the prime conductor of a powerful table-machine has a wire of a few inches in length projecting from its end, and terminating in a ball of half an inch in diameter, we cannot electrify it beyond a certain degree; for when arrived at this degree, the electricity flies off in ſucceſſive burſts from this ball. Being much more overcharged than any other part of the body, the air ſurrounding the ball becomes more overcharged by communication, and is repelled, and its place ſupplied by other air, not ſo much overcharged, which ſurrounded the other parts of the body, and is preſſed forwards into this ſpace by the general repulſion of the conductor and the confining preſſure of the atmoſphere; otherwiſe, being alſo overcharged, it would have no tendency to come to this place. Half a turn of the cylinder is ſufficient to accumulate to a degree ſufficient for producing one of theſe exploſions, and we have two of them for every turn of the cylinder. A point may be compared to an incomparably ſmaller ball. The conſtipation of the fluid, and its tendency to eſcape, muſt be greater in the ſame unmeaſurable proportion. This denſity and mutual repulſion cannot be diminiſhed, and muſt even be increaſed, by the matter of the wire forming a cone, of which the point is the apex; therefore, if there were no other cauſe, we muſt ſee that it is almoſt impoſſible to confine a collection of particles, mutually repelling, and conſtipated, as theſe are, in a fine point.

But the chief cauſe ſeems to be a certain chemical union which takes place between the electric fluid and a correſponding ingredient of the air. In this ſtate of conſtipation, almoſt completely ſurrounded by the air, the little maſs of fluid muſt attract and be attracted with very great force, and more readily overcome the force which keeps the electric fluid attached to the laſt ſerics of particles of the wire. It unites with the air, rendering it electric in the higheſt degree of redundancy. It is therefore ſtrongly repelled by the maſs of conſtipated fluid which ſucceeds it within the point. Thus is the electrified air continually thrown off, in a ſtate of electrification, that muſt rapidly diminiſh the electricity of the conductor. Hence the uninterrupted flow, without noiſe or much light, when the point is made very fine. When the point is blunt, a little accumulation is neceſſary before it attains the degree requiſite for even this minute exploſion; but this is ſoon done, and theſe little exploſions ſucceed each other rapidly, accompanied by a ſputtering noiſe, and trains of bright ſparks. The noiſe is undoubtedly owing to the atoms of the highly electrified fluid. Theſe are, in all probability, rarefied of a ſudden, in the act of electrification, and immediately collapſe again in the act of chemical union, which cauſes a ſonorous agitation of the air. This electrified air is thus thrown off, and its place is immediately ſupplied by air from behind, not yet electrified, and therefore ſtrongly drawn forward to the point, from which they are thrown off in their turn. This rapid expanſion and ſubſequent collapſing of the air is verified by the experiments of Mr. Kinnerſly, related by Dr. Franklin, and is ſeen in numberleſs experiments made with other views in later times, and not attended to. Perhaps it is produced by the great heat which accompanies, or is generated in, the transference of electricity, and it is of the ſame kind with what occaſions the burſting of ſtones, ſplitting of trees, exploding of metals, &c. by electricity. The expanſion is either inconſiderable, or it is ſucceſſively produced in very ſmall portions of the ſubſtance expanded; for when metal is exploded in cloſe veſſels, or under water, there is but a minute portion of gaſeous matter produced; and in the diſſipation by a very fine point, ſufficiently great to give full employment to a powerful machine, the ſtream of wind is but very faint, and nine-tenths of this has been dragged along by the really-electrified thread of wind in the middle.

From a collation of all the appearances of electricity, we muſt form the ſame conception of the forces which operate round a point that is negatively electrified, not diſperſing, but drawing in, electric fluid. It is more completely under-charged than any other part of a body, and attracts the fluid in the ſurrounding air, and the air in which it is retained, with incomparably greater force, It therefore deprives the contiguous air of its fluid, then repels it, and produces a ſtream like the over-charged point.

If a conducting body be brought near to any part of an overcharged body, the fronting part of the firſt is rendered undercharged; and this increaſes the charge of the oppoſite part of the overcharged body. It becomes more overcharged in that part, and ſooner attains that degree of conſtipation that enables the fluid to quit the ſuperficial ſeries of particles, and to electrify ſtrongly the

contiguous air. The explosion is, therefore, made in this part in preference to any other; and the air thus exploded is strongly attracted by the fronting part of the other body, and must fly thither in preference to any other point. If, moreover, the fronting part be prominent or pointed, this effect will be produced in a superior degree; and the current of electrified air, which will begin very early, will increase this disposition to transference in this way by rarefying the air; a change which the whole course of electric phenomena shews to be highly favourable to this transference, although we cannot perhaps form any very adequate notion how it contributes to this effect. This seems to be the reason why a great explosion and snap, with a copious transference of electricity, is generally preceded by a hissing noise like the rushing of wind, which swells to a maximum in the loud snap itself.

XIV. Some bodies upon being rubbed, are electrified positively, and others negatively; and the same bodies are capable of being electrified positively, or negatively, as they are rubbed with different substances.—Thus smooth glass becomes positively electrified by being rubbed with any substance hitherto tried, except the back of a living cat; rough glass becomes positively electrified by being rubbed with dry oiled silk, sulphur, and metals; negatively, with woollen cloth, sealing-wax, paper, the human hand. White silk becomes positively electrified by being rubbed with black silk, metals, black cloth; negatively, with paper, hairs, the hand. Black silk will be positively electrified with red sealing-wax; negatively, with hare's skin, metals, the hand. Sealing-wax will be positively electrified with the hand, leather, woollen cloth, paper, hare's skin. Baked wood will be positively electrified with silk; negatively, with flannel. If these and other substances, being electrified, be brought near to a pith-ball or down-feather, as described Prop. XII. it will appear whether they are electrified positively or negatively.

XV. Bodies insulated, if placed within the influence of an electrified body, will be electrified, at the part adjacent to that body, in the manner *contrary* to that of the electrified body.—Bring a conductor (without pointed wires) near to the glass cylinder, whilst the machine is working; if the conductor be not insulated, it will be negatively electrified till it is brought so near as to receive sparks from the cylinder: if the conductor be insulated, it will, in the same situation, be electrified negatively, in the parts nearest the cylinder, and positively in the parts more remote; as may be seen by bringing an excited glass tube (which is positively electrified) near to a ball suspended from the conductor. Let two pith-balls be so suspended by flaxen threads as to be in contact when unelectrified; on being brought near to a body electrified positively, they will repel each other, being electrified negatively: if the balls be suspended in the same manner by silken threads, they will, in the same situation, be positively electrified.

Let P C, fig. 21, in the Electricity Plate III. be an electrified prime conductor, and A B a metallic body placed within its atmosphere, but beyond the striking distance. Now, from the principles already explained, it is evident that the electrical atmosphere of the prime conductor must be *positive* or *negative*. If it be *positive*, then the adjacent part A of the metallic body A B, will be found to be electrified negatively; the remote part B, will be electrified positively; and there will be a certain point D, in its natural state, or not electrified at all.—If the prime conductor be charged with *negative* electricity, then A will be positive, B negative, and still some point, as D, will be found unelectrified, which is called the *neutral* point.

Earl Stanhope has demonstrated, by a considerable number of experiments, that the neutral point D, is the fourth point of an harmonical division of the line C A B. Consequently, the points C, A, and B, being given, the neutral point D, may be always found. For, by the proportion assumed by his lordship, as the whole line B C is to the part C A, so is the remote end B D to the middle term D A; therefore, by composition, B C + C A (B A + 2 A C) : C A :: B D + D A (B A) :: A D. Thus, if B A be 40 inches, and C A 36, then A D is equal to 12½ inches.—From the nature of this proportion, it is evident, that the neutral point D can never be farther from A than half the distance between A and B, supposing the electrified conductor P C to be removed to an infinite distance. It is likewise evident, that the evanescent position of the neutral point D must be A, when the end A of the metallic body A B comes into contact with the charged body, P C.

From the above considerations, lord Stanhope has, with great ingenuity, proved by an elaborate mathematical demonstration, illustrated and confirmed by a great variety of experiments, that the denfity of an electrical atmosphere superinduced upon any body must be inverfely as the fquare of the diftance from the charged body.

Let a circular plate compofed of rofin and fulphur, or of fealing-wax, be negatively electrified by rubbing it with flannel; whilft it is in this ftate, let a metallic plate of the fame form and fize, having a glafs handle faftened to its center, be placed, by means of the handle, on the electrified plate; then receive a fpark from the metallic plate with the finger: after which the metallic plate, being removed by the glafs handle, will be found to be pofitively electrified. This is the origin and action of the electrophorus.

Let one fide of a plate of glafs be electrified pofitively, the other fide will attract light bodies, being negatively electrified.—Let a plate of glafs be placed between two metallic plates about two inches in diameter fmaller than the plate of glafs, and let the plates be fupported by a conductor; upon pofitively electrifying the upper metallic plate, by means of a wire connected with the prime conductor, the fluid, not being able to pafs along the glafs, will be accumulated upon the part contiguous to the upper metallic plate; whilft the lower metallic plate, being within the electric influence of the upper, will be negatively electrified.

XVI. When any electric fubftance is electrified, it will continue in that ftate till fome conductor conveys away the accumulated, or reftores the deficient, fluid; which will be done more or lefs rapidly, according to the degree of conducting power in the conductor, and the number of points in which it touches the electric.—When the metallic plate in an electrophorus is electrified, (as fuggefted Prop. XV.) by fetting it upon the electric plate, touching it with the finger, and feparating it fucceffively, many fparks may be obtained, without again exciting the electric plate; for this plate being negatively electrified, the metallic plate, on being touched with the hand, becomes pofitively electrified, and the electric plate remains long in its negative ftate, becaufe, not being a conductor, its deficiency will be flowly fupplied from the air where its furface is not covered. See this fully exemplified in the explanation and figure of the electrophorus, p. 419.

If a glafs veffel, a common drinking-glafs, for inftance, held in the hand, receive the electric fluid on the infide from a wire, or chain, fixed on the conductor, pith-balls, placed under the veffel upon a conducting fupporter, will continue long in motion.—Let a plate of glafs be electrified in the manner defcribed in Prop. XV. Becaufe one fide of the plate is pofitively electrified, and the other negatively, if a communication is made from one metallic plate to the other by means of fome conductor, part of the accumulated fluid will fuddenly pafs to the fide which is deficient; upon a fecond application of the plates of metal to the glafs, there will be a fecond explofion.

XVII. If a glafs plane, or cylindrical veffel, *coated* on both fides with tin-foil, or any other conducting fubftance, be *charged*, that is, pofitively electrified on one fide, and confequently negatively electrified on the other;

a communication being made from one ſide to the other by ſome conductor, the plane, or veſſel, will be ſuddenly *diſcharged*, with an exploſion.—There is a ſtrong attraction (compare Prop. XII. and XV.) between the fluids on oppoſite ſides of the glaſs, or the fluid which is accumulated on one ſide makes a powerful effort towards the other ſide where the fluid is deficient; but the ſubſtance of the glaſs itſelf being *impervious* to the electric fluid, the accumulated fluid cannot paſs to the deficient ſide till a communication is made between them by ſome conducting ſubſtance. When ſuch a communication is made, becauſe the metallic coating touches the whole ſurface of the electrified glaſs, the whole quantity of redundant fluid eaſily paſſes from the ſide which was poſitively electrified to the other.

Let a plate of glaſs, coated with tin-foil (except about one inch and a half from the edge), be charged, as deſcribed Prop. XV. Upon making a communication from one ſide to the other by the diſcharging-rod, there will be a ſudden diſcharge. The ſame may be done with the *Leyden phial*. Charge a jar coated on the inſide with water, ſhot, or braſs duſt, and held on the outſide by the hand, then diſcharge it in a dark room.

If two equal circular braſs plates, one of which is ſuſpended by a long metallic rod from the conductor parallel to the horizon, and the other, ſupported by a conductor, is placed parallel and oppoſite to the firſt, be electrified; the plate of air between them will be charged by the braſs plates.

Let one coated jar be ſuſpended by a wire under another; let the upper jar be charged by taking ſparks from the conductor; the lower uninſulated jar will be charged with the electric fluid which paſſes from the ſide negatively electrified of the upper jar.—A coated jar cannot be charged unleſs its outer ſurface be connected with ſome conductor. For without ſuch a conductor, the electric fluid cannot paſs from or to the outer ſurface, which is neceſſary in order to charge the jar.

When a coated glaſs veſſel is charged, the charge of electric fluid is in the glaſs, and not in the coating.—Lay a plate of glaſs between two metallic plates, as deſcribed Prop. XV. Having charged the plate of glaſs, remove the upper plate of metal by a glaſs handle, with ſome non-conducting ſubſtance, as ſilk; remove the electrified glaſs plate, and place it between two other plates of metal unelectrified and inſulated; the plate of glaſs thus coated afreſh will ſtill be charged.

The diſcharge of a plate of glaſs, Leyden phial, &c. is made by reſtoring the equilibrium which was deſtroyed by the charging; and it is effected by forming a communication between the overloaded and the exhauſted ſide; and if the communication be made by metal, or other good conductors, the equilibrium will be reſtored with violence, the redundant electricity on one ſide will ruſh with great rapidity through the metallic communication to the exhauſted ſide, and a large exploſion will be made, that is, the flaſh of electric light will be very viſible, and the report will be very loud.

XVIII. If the conductor be electrified poſitively, that ſide of the jar with which it has a communication will be electrified poſitively, the other, negatively.—Charge one Leyden jar on the inſide poſitively, and another negatively, and obſerve, in a dark room, the different appearances of the electric fluid upon the point of a wire brought near to the ball which is connected with the inner ſide of each jar: when the point is preſented to the jar poſitively electrified on the inner ſide, it will exhibit the appearance of a ſtar; when preſented to the other, that of a pencil.—Obſerve the different appearances, in a dark room, when with the ſame charged jar the point is preſented towards the ſide poſitively, and towards the ſide negatively, electrified.

Between two jars, charged one negatively and the other poſitively, ſuſpend by a ſilken ſtring a cork ball, from which ſhort threads hang freely; the ball will paſs with a rapid motion from one to the other, and, being firſt attracted towards the jar poſitively electrified, then towards the other, it will receive the fluid from the former, and communicate it to the latter, till both are diſcharged. If both be charged in the ſame manner, the cork will remain at reſt.—If, after a jar is charged, the uncoated part of the jar be moiſtened by the breath, or by ſteam, the jar placed upon a conductor will be gradually diſcharged, and the fluid will be ſeen, in a dark room, to flaſh ſtrongly from one ſide to the other: if the jar be inſulated, the flaſhes will be greateſt on the ſide poſitively electrified.—Let a diſcharging rod be applied without its balls to a charged jar, in ſuch manner as to diſcharge the jar gradually: the point which approaches towards the ſide poſitively electrified, will, in a dark room, exhibit ſtar; the other point, a cone or pencil.

Within the receiver of an air-pump place two well-poliſhed braſs balls, the lower ſupported on a braſs ſtem by the plate of the pump, the other fixed on a ſtem which is moveable in the neck of the receiver: let the balls be brought within the diſtance of four or five inches from one another; then let the upper ball be connected with the conductor, and electrified poſitively: a lucid atmoſphere will, in a dark room, appear on the lower ſurface of the upper ball; whereas if the upper ball be negatively electrified, the lucid atmoſphere will be ſeen on the lower ball.—This laſt experiment eſtabliſhes the theory of a *ſingle* electric fluid: for if there were *two* contrary fluids, there muſt in this experiment be an atmoſphere about each ball, attracting each other.

XIX. The electric fluid can be conveyed through an inſulated conductor of any length, and its paſſage from one ſide of a charged jar to the other, is apparently inſtantaneous, through whatever length of a metallic or other good conductor it is conveyed.—Let a long wire, paſſing round a room, ſuſpended by ſilk cords, be a part of the circuit of communication from one ſide of a charged jar to the other, the diſcharge will be apparently at the ſame inſtant in which the communication from one ſide to the other is completed. Let any number of perſons make a part of the circuit of communication; the fluid will paſs inſtantaneouſly through the whole circuit.—The ſhock of the Leyden jar has been tranſmitted through wires of ſeveral miles in length, without taking any ſenſible ſpace of time. Dr. Prieſtley relates ſeveral curious experiments made with a view of aſcertaining this point ſoon after the diſcovery of the Leyden phial. See *Prieſtley's Hiſt. of Electricity*.

XX. The ſudden diſcharge of a charged jar gives a painful ſenſation to any animal placed in the circuit of communication, called the *electric ſhock*.—The diſcovery of the effects of electricity, as exhibited by the Leyden jar, immediately raiſed the attention of all the philoſophers in Europe. The account which ſome of them gave of the firſt experiments to their friends, border very much on the ludicrous. M. Muſchenbroek, who tried the experiment with a glaſs bowl, told M. Reaumur, in a letter written ſoon after the experiment, that he felt himſelf ſtruck in his arms, ſhoulder, and breaſt, ſo that he loſt his breath; and was two days before he recovered from the effects of the blow and the terror. He added, that he would not take a ſecond ſhock for the whole kingdom of France.—M. Allamand, who made the experiment with a common beer-glaſs, ſaid, that he loſt his breath for ſome moments, and then felt ſuch an intenſe pain all along his right arm, that he was apprehenſive of bad conſequences; but it ſoon went off without any inconvenience.—Notwithſtanding the parade made by theſe philoſophers, the ſhock was probably not, by any means, ſtronger than what many children of ſix or ſeven years old would bear without the ſmalleſt heſitation. Their deſcriptions muſt have ariſen through terror impreſſed on the mind by the novelty of the phenomenon, or the love of the marvellous.

The force of the electric ſhock may be increaſed, by

increaſing the ſurface of the coated glaſs. A battery being charged, a fine metallic wire brought into the circuit of the ſhock will be melted.—If a plain piece of metal be placed upon one of the rods of the diſcharger, and upon the other a needle with the point oppoſite to the ſurface of the metal; upon diſcharging the battery, the ſurface of the piece of metal will be marked with coloured circles, occaſioned by thin laminæ of metal raiſed in the exploſion.—If a piece of leaf gold be put between two pieces of glaſs, and the whole faſt bound together, the metal will be melted, and a metallic ſtain will be ſeen on both glaſſes.—If a ſhock be ſent through a needle, it will give it magnetic polarity.—An animal, or plant, may be killed, by being placed in the circuit of a battery.

Perſons not thoroughly converſant in electricity, ſhould be very cautious in uſing large batteries; they ſhould be ſure that they are perfect maſters of a ſmall force, before they meddle with a greater. Such a force of electricity as may be accumulated in batteries is not to be trifled with, ſince the conſequences, if not fatal, may be great and laſting. A large ſhock, taken through the arms and breaſt, which an operator is moſt in danger of receiving, might poſſibly injure the lungs, or ſome other vital part: and if the ſhock were taken through the head, which may eaſily happen when a perſon is ſtooping over the apparatus in order to adjuſt it, it might affect his intellects for the remainder of life. The ingenious profeſſor Richmann, of the imperial academy of St. Peterſburgh, was thus inſtantaneouſly killed by an accidental ſtroke from his large electrical battery.

XXI. If the circuit be interrupted, the electric fluid will become viſible; and where it paſſes, it will leave an impreſſion upon any intermediate body.—Let the fluid paſs through a chain, or through any metallic bodies placed at ſmall diſtances from each other; the fluid, in a dark room, will be viſible between the links of the chain, or between the metallic bodies.

If the circuit be interrupted by ſeveral folds of paper, a perforation will be made through it, and each of the leaves will be protruded by the ſtroke from the middle towards the outward leaves. Let a card be placed under wires which form the circuit, where the circuit is interrupted for the ſpace of an inch: the card will be diſcoloured. If one of the wires be placed under the card, and the other above it, the direction of the fluid may be ſeen.—Spirits of wine, or gunpowder, being made part of the circuit, may be fired.—Inflammable air may alſo be fired by an electric gun. Many ingenious experiments of this kind have been lately made by von Hauch, inventor of the balance diſcharging electrometer. "We ſee, by ſuch experiments, (ſays this philoſopher,) the wonderful advances which have been made in the ſcience of electricity within the laſt forty years, from the time of the invention of Hauſen's glaſs globes, to the erection of the electrical machine now in the Teylerian muſeum at Haerlem. The former was ſcarcely ſufficient to attract the lighteſt bodies; whereas the latter approaches near to nature in its ſtrength, in its awful and wonderful effects; and ſeems to favour the poſſibility of the idea, that there are natural powers capable of impelling heavy bodies with prodigious force; and which, connected by the hand of cultivated and enlightened man, may, ſome centuries hence, baniſh the uſe of gunpowder, as the latter, a few centuries ago, baniſhed the uſe of bows and arrows."

XXII. The atmoſphere is electrified, ſometimes *poſitively*, and ſometimes *negatively*.—Let a kite be ſent up into the air with cord conſiſting of copper thread twiſted with twine; let the lower end of the cord be inſulated by a ſilk line: a metallic conductor ſuſpended from the lower end of the cord will be poſitively or negatively electrified. The air at ſome diſtance from houſes, trees, maſts of ſhips, &c. is generally electrified poſitively; particularly in froſty, clear, and foggy, weather.

The following general laws have been deduced by Mr. Cavallo, from a great number of experiments made during two years in almoſt every degree of the atmoſphere, from 15° to 80° of Fahrenheit's thermometer: 1. The air appears to be electrified at all times; its electricity is conſtantly poſitive, and much ſtronger in froſty than in warm weather; but it is by no means leſs in the night than in the day-time. 2. The preſence of the clouds generally leſſens the electricity of the kite. 3. When it rains, the electricity of the kite is generally negative; and very ſeldom poſitive. 4. The aurora borealis ſeems not to affect the electricity of the kite. 5. The electrical ſpark, taken from the ſtring of the kite, or from any inſulated conductor connected with it, eſpecially if it does not rain, is very ſeldom longer than a quarter of an inch, but it is exceedingly pungent. When the index of the electrometer is not higher than 20°, the perſon that takes ſpark will feel the effect of it in his legs; it appearing more like the diſcharge of an electric jar, than the ſpark taken from a prime conductor. 6. The electricity of the kite is in general ſtronger or weaker, according as the ſtring is longer or ſhorter; but it does not keep any exact proportion to it. The electricity, for inſtance, brought down by a ſtring of a hundred yards, may raiſe the index of the electrometer to 20°, when, with double that length of that ſtring, the index of the electrometer will not go higher than 25°. 7. When the weather is damp, and the electricity is pretty ſtrong, the index of the electrometer, after taking a ſpark from the ſtring, or preſenting the knob of a coated phial to it, riſes ſurpriſingly quick to its uſual place, but in dry and warm weather it riſes exceedingly ſlow.

XXIII. The electric fluid and lightning are the ſame ſubſtance: their properties and effects are conſtantly obſerved to be the ſame.—Flaſhes of lightning are generally ſeen to form irregular lines in the air; the electric ſpark, when ſtrong, has the ſame appearance. Lightning ſtrikes the higheſt and moſt pointed objects; ſeizes in its courſe the beſt conductors; ſets fire to bodies; diſſolves metals; rends to pieces ſome bodies; deſtroys animal life; in all which it agrees (as has been ſhewn) with the phenomena of electric fluid: both cauſes have the ſame power of making iron magnetic. Lightning has been known to ſtrike men with blindneſs. Dr. Franklin produced a ſimilar effect on a pigeon by the electrical fluid. Laſtly, the lightning being brought from the clouds to an electrical apparatus, by a kite or wire, will exhibit all the appearances of the electric fluid.

Take a Leyden phial, five inches in diameter, and thirteen inches in height; on the inſide let the coating riſe till its upper edge be two inches and a half from the rim of the veſſel; on the outſide let the coating riſe no higher than one inch from the bottom. When the phial is thus coated, let it be charged, and a ſpark will paſs from the tin-foil on the outſide to that on the inſide; but its form will reſemble that of a tree, whoſe trunk will increaſe in magnitude and brilliancy, and conſequently in power, as it approaches the edge, owing to ramifications which it collects from all parts of the glaſs. Within two inches of the edge, it becomes one body, or ſtream, and along that interval its greateſt force acts.—When two clouds, or the two correſpondent parts of a cloud, have their equilibrium reſtored by a diſcharge, the appearances are exactly ſimilar to thoſe of the preceding experiment. Each extremity of the flaſh is formed by a multitude of little ſtreams, which gather into one body, whoſe power is undivided in that interval only which ſeparates the poſitive from the negative.

XXIV. Buildings may be ſecured from the effects of lightning, by projecting a pointed iron rod higher than any part of the building, and continuing it, without interruption, to the ground, or the neareſt water.—The electric fluid will, by means of the pointed rod, be gradually conveyed from the cloud to the earth by a continued ſtream, and thus prevent the effects of a ſudden and violent exploſion.

Let

Let a board, ſhaped like the gable end of a houſe, be fixed perpendicularly upon an horizontal board: in the perpendicular board let a hole be made, about an inch ſquare and a quarter of an inch deep; in this hole let a piece of wood nearly of the ſame dimenſions be ſo inſerted as to fall eaſily out of its place, and let a wire be faſtened diagonally to this ſquare piece of wood; let another wire, terminated by a braſs ball, be faſtened to the perpendicular board, with its ball above the board, and its lower end in contact with the diagonal wire in the ſquare piece of wood; let the communication be continued by a wire to the bottom of the perpendicular board. If the wires in this ſtate be made part of a circuit of communication, on diſcharging the jar the ſquare piece of wood will not be diſplaced; but if the communication be interrupted by changing the direction of the diagonal wire, the ſquare piece of wood will, upon the diſcharge, be driven out of its place.—If, inſtead of the upper braſs ball, a pointed wire be placed above the perpendicular board, the diſcharge will be drawn off without an exploſion.

The following directions are given by earl Stanhope, to perſons erecting conductors for lightning: The rods muſt be made of ſuch ſubſtances as are, in their nature, the beſt conductors of electricity; and muſt not be interrupted, and perfectly continuous. They muſt be of ſufficient thickneſs, and muſt be perfectly connected with the common ſtock of electricity, that is, the earth, or neareſt water. The upper extremity of the rods muſt be finely tapered, and as acutely pointed as poſſible: they muſt be very prominent, and ſeveral feet above the chimneys. Each rod muſt be carried in the ſhorteſt convenient direction from its upper end to the common ſtock. There ſhould be no prominent bodies of metal on the top of the building propoſed to be ſecured, but ſuch as are connected with the conductor by ſome proper metallic communication. There ſhould be a ſufficient number of ſubſtantially-erected high and pointed rods. See Principles of Electricity, by Charles viſcount Mahon, now earl Stanhope.

To the ſame work, the reader muſt be referred for an account of a diſcovery made by his lordſhip in the ſcience of electricity, which he denominated the *returning ſtroke*, by which, he aſſerts, that perſons may be killed, and other miſchief enſue, by lightnings at a conſiderable diſtance from the flaſh. It is proper alſo to obſerve, that ſeveral reſpectable electricians, though, willing to admit the fact as diſcovered by earl Stanhope, yet do not think that the danger attending the returning ſtroke can ever be great or formidable. Dr. Hutton's obſervations on this phenomenon, are as follow: "To underſtand properly the meaning of the *returning ſtroke*, it muſt be premiſed that, according to the noble author's experiments, an inſulated ſmooth body, immerged within the electrical atmoſphere, but beyond the ſtriking diſtance of another body, charged poſitively, is at the ſame time in a ſtate of threefold electricity. The end next to the charged body acquires negative electricity; the farther end is poſitively electrified; while a certain part of the body, ſomewhere between its two extremes, is in a natural, unelectrified, or neutral, ſtate; ſo that the two contrary electricities balance each other. (See Prop. XV. and the figure.) It may farther be added, that if the body be not inſulated, but have a communication with the earth, the whole of it will be in a negative ſtate. Suppoſe then a braſs ball, which may be called A, to be conſtantly placed at the ſtriking diſtance of a prime conductor; ſo that the conductor, the inſtant when it becomes fully charged, explodes into it. Let another large or ſecond conductor be ſuſpended, in a perfectly inſulated ſtate, farther from the prime conductor than the ſtriking diſtance, but within its electrical atmoſphere: let a perſon ſtanding on an inſulated ſtool touch this ſecond conductor very lightly with a finger of his right hand; while, with a finger of his left hand, he communicates with the earth, by touching very lightly a ſecond braſs ball fixed at the top of a metallic ſtand, on the floor, which may be called B. Now while the prime conductor is receiving its electricity, ſparks paſs (at leaſt if the diſtance between the two conductors is not too great) from the ſecond conductor to the right hand of the inſulated perſon; while ſimilar and ſimultaneous ſparks paſs out from the finger of his left hand into the ſecond metallic ball B, communicating with the earth. At length, however, the prime conductor, having acquired its full charge, ſuddenly ſtrikes into the ball A, of the firſt metallic ſtand, placed for that purpoſe at the ſtriking diſtance. The exploſion being made, and the prime conductor ſuddenly robbed of its elaſtic atmoſphere, its preſſure or action on the ſecond conductor, and on the inſulated perſon, as ſuddenly ceaſes; and the latter inſtantly feels a ſmart returning ſtroke, though he has no direct or viſible communication (except by the floor) with either of the two bodies, and is placed at the diſtance of five or ſix feet from both of them. This returning ſtroke is evidently occaſioned by the ſudden re-entrance of the electric fluid naturally belonging to his body and to the ſecond conductor, which had before been expelled from them by the action of the charged prime conductor upon them; and which returns to its former place in the inſtant when that action or elaſtic preſſure ceaſes. When the ſecond conductor and the inſulated perſon are placed in the denſeſt part of the electrical atmoſphere of the prime conductor, or juſt beyond the ſtriking diſtance, the effects are ſtill more conſiderable; the returning ſtroke being extremely ſevere and pungent, and appearing conſiderably ſharper than even the main ſtroke itſelf, received directly from the prime conductor. Lord Stanhope obſerves, that perſons and animals may be deſtroyed, and particular parts of buildings may be much damaged, by an electrical returning ſtroke, occaſioned even by ſome very diſtant exploſion from a thunder cloud; poſſibly at the diſtance of a mile or more. It is certainly not difficult to conceive that a charged extenſive thunder cloud muſt be productive of effects ſimilar to thoſe produced by the prime conductor; but perhaps the effects are not ſo great, nor the danger ſo terrible, as have been apprehended. If the quantity of electric fluid naturally contained, for example, in the body of a man, were immenſe or indefinite, then the eſtimate between the effects producible by a cloud, and thoſe cauſed by a prime conductor, might be admitted; but ſurely no electrical cloud can expel from a body more than the natural quantity of electricity which it contains. On the ſudden removal therefore of the preſſure by which this natural quantity had been expelled, in conſequence of the exploſion of the cloud into the earth, no more, at the utmoſt, than his whole natural ſtock of electricity can re-enter his body. And perhaps we have no reaſon to ſuppoſe that this quantity is ſo great, as that its ſudden re-entrance into his body ſhould deſtroy or injure him. Allowing therefore the exiſtence of the returning ſtroke, as ſufficiently aſcertained, and well illuſtrated, in a variety of circumſtances, by the noble author's experiments, the magnitude and danger of it do not ſeem to be ſo alarming as he apprehends." See Hutton's Dict. vol. ii. p. 370.

XXV. The electric fluid paſſes eaſily through a *vacuum*.—The air being a non-conductor, in proportion as it is removed, the effort of the electric fluid on the ſurface of the body poſitively electrified to paſs to the next conductor, meets with leſs reſiſtance, and therefore is diffuſed over a greater ſpace.—To exemplify this, let a jar be charged *in vacuo*. Let a *luminous conductor* be placed in the circuit, and obſerve the fluid paſſing through it. Let a *vacuum* be made a part of the circuit in diſcharging a phial.—Or, make a *vacuum* in a double barometer, and let the fluid paſs from one leg to the other by connecting one of the veſſels of mercury with the conductor.—The electric fluid may be made to paſs through a large tube three feet in length, and four or five inches in diameter,

if

if, being well exhauſted, one end of it be connected with a large conductor.—The preceding experiments muſt be performed in a dark room.

From the reſemblance between theſe electrical appearances, and the atmoſpherical phenomena of the *aurora borealis*, meteors, &c. it is inferred, that theſe phenomena are produced by the electric fluid. The ſucceſs of the foregoing experiments depends, it is highly probable, upon the air in the jar, tube, &c. being rarefied in a high degree; for Mr. W. Morgan, who was deeply ſkilled in calculations and political arithmetic, has ſhewn, that a *perfect vacuum* is abſolutely impermeable to the electric fluid. See Phil. Tranſ. vol. lxxv.

XXVI. Some fiſhes have the property of giving ſhocks analogous to thoſe of artificial electricity; namely, the *torpedo*, the *gymnotus electricus*, the *ſilurus electricus*, and the *tetrodon electricus*.—If the torpedo, whilſt ſtanding in water, or out of water, but not inſulated, be touched with one hand, it generally communicates a tremulous motion or ſlight ſhock to the hand. If the torpedo be touched with both hands, at the ſame time, one hand being applied to its *under*, and the other to its *upper*, ſurface, a ſhock will be received exactly like that occaſioned by the Leyden phial. When the hands touch the fiſh on the oppoſite ſurfaces, and juſt over the electric organs, then the ſhock is the ſtrongeſt; but no ſhock is felt, if both hands are placed upon the electric organs of the ſame ſurface; which ſhews that the upper and lower ſurfaces of the electric organs are in oppoſite ſtates of electricity; anſwering to the *plus* and *minus* ſides of a Leyden phial, or coated plate.—The ſhock given by the torpedo when in air, is about four times as ſtrong as when in water; and when the animal is touched on both ſurfaces by the ſame hand, the thumb being applied to one ſurface, and the middle finger to the oppoſite, the ſhock is felt much ſtronger than when the circuit is formed by both hands. This power of the torpedo is conducted by the ſame ſubſtances which conduct electricity, and is interrupted by thoſe ſubſtances which are non-conductors of electricity. A circuit may be made of ſeveral perſons joining hands, and the ſhock will be felt by them all at the ſame time; but the ſhock will not paſs through the leaſt interruption of continuity, not even the diſtance of the two hundredth part of an inch. No elective attraction or repulſion could be ever obſerved to be produced by the torpedo, nor, indeed, by any of the electric fiſhes. The ſhocks of the torpedo ſeem to depend on the will of the animal.

The gymnotus electricus, or electrical eel, poſſeſſes all the electric properties of the torpedo, but in a ſuperior degree. When ſmall fiſh are put into the water wherein the gymnotus is kept, they are generally ſtunned or killed by the ſhock; and then they are ſwallowed, if the animal be hungry. The ſtrongeſt ſhock of the gymnotus will paſs a very ſhort interruption of continuity in the circuit. When the interruption is formed by the inciſion made by a pen-knife on a ſlip of tin-foil that is paſted on glaſs, and that ſlip is put into the circuit, the ſhock, in paſſing through that interruption, will ſhew a ſmall but vivid ſpark, plainly to be ſeen in a dark room. The gymnotus ſeems alſo to be poſſeſſed of a ſort of *new ſenſe*, by which he knows whether the bodies preſented to him are conductors or not. This fact was aſcertained by a great number of experiments made by Mr. Walſh.

The ſilurus electricus is known to have the power of giving a ſtrong ſhock; but not ſo powerful as that of the gymnotus. The fourth electrical fiſh was found on the coaſt of Johanna, one of the Comoro iſlands, in latitude 12° 13′ ſouth, by lieut. William Paterſon, in 1786. It is the Tetrodon electricus of the Linnæan ſyſtem; and an account of it was firſt publiſhed in the 76th vol. of the Phil. Tranſ. For the very curious and intereſting natural hiſtory of theſe electrical fiſhes, and figures of them, ſee the articles GYMNOTUS, RAJA, SILURUS, and TETRODON.

When electricity is ſtrongly communicated to inſulated animal bodies, the pulſe is quickened, and perſpiration increaſed; and, if they receive or part with their electricity on a ſudden, a painful ſenſation is felt at the place of communication. But what is more extraordinary is, that the influence of the brain and nerves upon the muſcles ſeems to be of an *elective* nature. We are indebted for this diſcovery to M. GALVANI, a learned Italian, who denominated that part of the ſcience, ANIMAL ELECTRICITY; and, which, from his name, ſubſequent writers have choſen to denominate GALVANISM. We ſhall give the principal of his obſervations, together with ſome illuſtrative experiments.

1. The nerve of the limb of an animal being laid bare, and ſurrounded with a piece of tin-foil, if a communication be formed between the nerve thus armed, and any of the neighbouring muſcles, by means of a piece of zinc, ſtrong contractions will be produced in the limb. 2. If a portion of the nerve which has been laid bare be armed as above, contractions will be produced as powerfully, by forming the communication between the armed and bare part of the nerve, as between the armed part and muſcle. 3. A ſimilar effect is produced by arming a nerve, and ſimply touching the armed part of the nerve with the metallic conductor. 4. Contractions will take place if a muſcle be armed, and a communication be formed by means of the conductor between it and a neighbouring nerve. The ſame effect will be produced if the communication be formed between the armed muſcle and another muſcle which is contiguous to it. 5. Contractions may be produced in the limb of an animal, by bringing the pieces of metal into contact with each other at ſome diſtance from the limb, provided the latter make part of a line of communication between the two metallic conductors. 6. Contractions can be produced in the amputated leg of a frog, by putting it into water, and bringing the two metals into contact with each other at a ſmall diſtance from the limb. 7. The influence which has paſſed through, and excited contractions in, one limb, may be made to paſs through, and excite contractions in, another limb. 8. The heart is the only involuntary muſcle in which contractions can be excited by theſe experiments. 9. Contractions are produced more ſtrongly the farther the coating is placed from the origin of the nerve. 10. Animals which were almoſt dead have been found to be conſiderably revived by exciting this influence. 11. When theſe experiments are repeated upon an animal that has been killed by opium, or by the electric ſhock, very ſlight contractions are produced; and no contractions whatever will take place in an animal that has been killed by corroſive ſublimate, or that has been ſtarved to death. 12. Zinc appears to be the beſt exciter when applied to gold, ſilver, molybdena, ſteel, or copper. The latter metals, however, excite but feeble contractions when applied to each other. Next to zinc, in contact with theſe metals, tin and lead, and ſilver and lead, appear to be the moſt powerful exciters. Theſe facts are exemplified by the following experiments:

Place the limb of an animal, a frog, for inſtance, upon a table; hold with one hand the principal nerve previouſly laid bare, and in the other hold a piece of zinc; let a ſmall plate of lead or ſilver be then laid upon the table, at ſome diſtance from the limb, and a communication be formed, by means of water, between the limb and the part of the table where the metal is lying. If now, the ſilver be touched with the zinc, contractions will be produced in the limb the moment that the metals come into contact with each other. The ſame effect will be produced, if the two pieces of metal be previouſly placed in contact, and the operator touch one of them with his finger.

Let two amputated limbs of a frog be taken; let one of them be laid upon a table, and its foot be folded in a piece of ſilver; let a perſon lift up the nerve of this limb with a ſilver probe, and another perſon hold in his hand a

piece of zinc, with which he is to touch the ſilver including the foot; let the perſon holding the zinc in one hand, catch with the other the nerve of the ſecond limb, and he who touches the nerve of the firſt limb, is to hold in the other hand the foot of the ſecond; let the zinc now be applied to the ſilver, including the foot of the firſt, and contractions will be immediately excited in both limbs.

Take a living flounder, lay it flat in a pewter plate, or upon a ſheet of tin-foil, and put a piece of ſilver, as a ſhilling, or a half-crown, upon the fiſh. Then, by means of a piece of metal, complete the communication between the pewter plate, or tin-foil, and the ſilver piece, on doing which the animal will give evident tokens of being affected.

Let a perſon lay a piece of zinc upon his tongue, and a half-crown, or other ſilver, by the ſide of it; on forming a communication between thoſe two metals, by bringing their two edges into contact, he will perceive a peculiar ſenſation, a kind of cool ſub-acid taſte, not exactly like, and yet not much different from, that produced by artificial electricity.

In a *medical* view, electricity has been adminiſtered for various diſeaſes. Cavallo has taken great pains in aſcertaining the caſes in which electricity has been ſucceſſfully applied. We are informed by that gentleman, that *rheumatic diſorders*, even of long ſtanding, are relieved, and generally quite cured. Deafneſs, the tooth-ach, ſwellings in general, inflammations of every ſort, palſies, ulcers, cutaneous eruptions, the St. Vitus' dance, ſcrophulous tumours, cancers, abſceſſes, nervous head-achs, the dropſy, gout, agues, and obſtructions, have been all conſiderably relieved, and in many inſtances perfectly cured, by the application of the electrical ſhock, which is to be thrown on the diſeaſed part. This remedy, however, ſhould be reſorted to with great caution; and never applied but under the direction of a regular-bred phyſician.

Animal electricity naturally ſuggeſted *animal magnetiſm*. The firſt notice of the action of electric influence upon the nervous ſyſtem, was brought forward at Paris, by Meſmer and his pupil Deſlon. The ſurpriſe and aſtoniſhment with which, from its novelty, it was accompanied, evidently influenced the powers of the mind. It ſeemed to affect the whole animal economy, and, for a time, excited the moſt extraordinary emotions. Theſe paſſions evidently reſulted more from the influence of the imagination, than from any of the pretended powers of animal electricity. Hence quacks and empirics took advantage of the public credulity, and covering their impoſitions under the faſcinating veil of myſtery, pretended that its occult virtue could change averſion into love, and love into averſion; that it could create pain, heal wounds, and cure diſeaſes, as if by enchantment. The whole of this myſtery, however, and its conſequent fraud, is now unveiled by the experiments of Galvani and his followers, who have clearly defined the operation of electricity upon the animal ſyſtem, and thus introduced a valuable acquiſition to medical practice.

XXVII. There is a conſiderable *analogy*, and *difference*, between magnetiſm and electricity.—The power of electricity is of two ſorts, poſitive and negative; bodies poſſeſſed of the ſame ſort of electricity, repel each other, and thoſe poſſeſſed of different ſorts attract each other. In magnetiſm, every magnet has two poles; poles of the ſame name repel each other, and the contrary poles attract each other.—If a thin glaſs plate coated with red ſealing-wax, be ſet on poſitive and negative globes, and we ſprinkle (from a conſiderable height) a fine powder of black ſealing-wax, and then agitate the plate gently with a glaſs rod, the particles of wax powder will gradually arrange themſelves into curve lines, diverging from the point over one of the globes, and converging to the point over the other, preciſely like the curves formed by iron-filings ſprinkled on a paper held over a magnet. Each little rag of wax becomes electrical by poſition, acquires two poles, and the poſitive pole of one attracts the negative pole of another; and they adhere in a certain determinate poſition, nearly a tangent to the curve, and indicates the law of magnetic action. When in this ſtate, if a hot brick be held over the plate till the wax ſoften a little, the particles of black wax will adhere to the red coating, and give a permanent ſpecimen of the action.

In electricity, when a body in its natural ſtate is brought near to one electrified, it acquires a contrary electricity, and becomes attracted by it. In magnetiſm, when a ferruginous ſubſtance is brought near to one pole of a magnet, it acquires a contrary polarity, and becomes attracted by it.

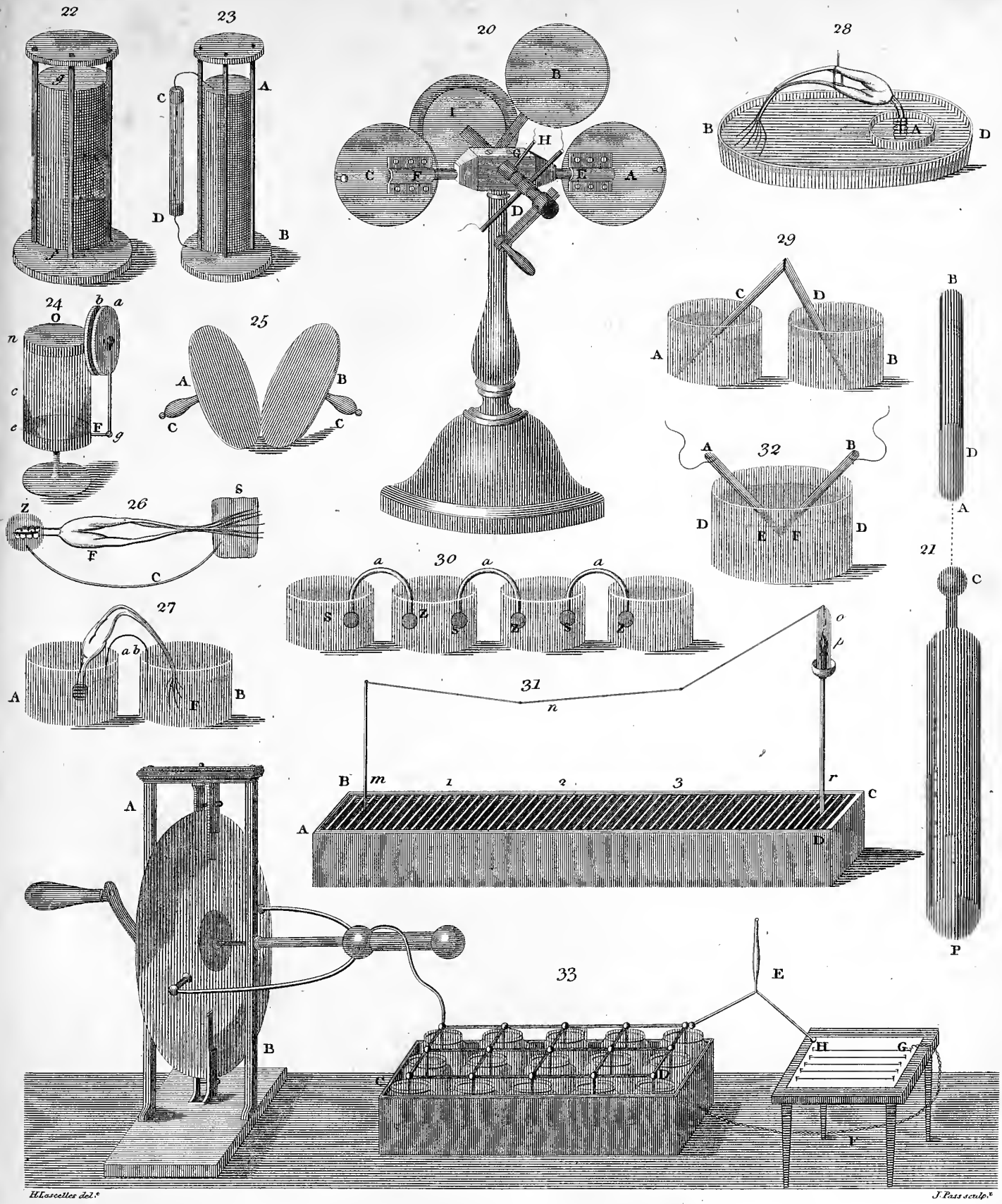
One ſort of electricity cannot be produced by itſelf. In like manner, no body can have only one magnetic pole. The electric virtue may be retained by electrics, but it eaſily pervades non-electrics. The magnetic virtue is retained by ferruginous bodies, but it eaſily pervades other bodies. On the contrary, the magnetic power differs from the electric, in that it does not affect the ſenſes with light, ſmell, taſte, or noiſe, as the electric does. Magnets attract only iron, whereas the electric power attracts bodies of every ſort.—The electric virtue reſides on the ſurface of electrified bodies, but the magnetic is internal.—A magnet loſes nothing of its power by magnefying other bodies, but an electrified body loſes part of its electricity by electrifying other bodies. See the article MAGNETISM.

LAWS OF ANIMAL ELECTRICITY, OR GALVANISM.

The diſcovery of the electric influence on the animal fibre, and the conſequent experiments publiſhed by Galvani, ſoon drew the attention of philoſophers in all parts, to the inveſtigation of ſo curious and intereſting a phenomenon. It was long contended that this ſecret operation of nature aroſe from a principle altogether different and diſtinct from that of electricity; and, inaſmuch as this principle appeared to be brought into action by the agency of metals, it was believed that all the phenomena reſulted from a *particular fluid* inherent in metallic bodies, which could only be communicated to animal ſubſtances by the force of touch. In the year 1800, however, theſe fallacious hypotheſes were removed, by means of the ingenious apparatus, or pile, of M. Volta, profeſſor of philoſophy in the univerſity of Pavia, with which he was enabled clearly to demonſtrate, that the galvanic influence was neither more nor leſs than an excitation of the common electric fluid.

This apparatus conſiſts of a number of copper or ſilver pieces or plates, with an equal number of plates compoſed of zinc, and a ſimilar number of pieces of card, leather, paſteboard, or woollen cloth, which ſhould be ſoaked in water ſaturated with common ſalt, muriat of ammonia, or nitre. The ſilver or copper may be pieces of money, and the plates of zinc may be caſt of the ſame ſize. A *pile* is then formed, by placing a piece of ſilver on a correſponding one of zinc, and on them a piece of wet cloth, or card: which is to be repeated alternately, till the number required be piled up in regular ſucceſſion. But, as the pieces are apt to tumble down, unleſs properly ſecured, it will be adviſable to ſupport them by means of three rods of glaſs, or baked wood, fixed into a flat wooden pedeſtal, and touching the pieces of metal at three equidiſtant points. Upon theſe may be made to ſlide a ſmall circular piece of wood, perforated with three holes, to receive the glaſs rods at top, which will ſerve to keep the pile firm, and the different layers in cloſe contact. The moiſtened pieces of cloth ſhould be ſomewhat ſmaller than thoſe of the metal, and gently ſqueezed before they are applied, to prevent the ſuperfluous moiſture from inſinuating itſelf between the pieces of metal. Thus conſtructed the apparatus is called the *Voltaic pile*, and will afford a perpetual current of the animal-electric fluid, through any conductor that communi-

cates



H. Lascelles del.t J. Pass sculp.t

The Galvanic Apparatus.

London. Published as the Act directs March 1. 1804. by J. Wilkes

cities between the uppermoſt and loweſt plate; and, if one hand be applied to the latter, and the other to the higheſt metal, an electric ſhock will be perceived, which may be repeated as often as the contact is renewed. The intenſity of the charge, however, is ſo low, that it cannot penetrate the dry ſkin; it will therefore be neceſſary to wet both hands, and to graſp a piece of metal in each, in order to produce the deſired effect: its power may be conſiderably increaſed, both by an elevation of temperature, and by augmenting the number of pieces that compoſe the pile. Thus twenty pieces of each will emit a ſhock, that is very perceptible in the arms; if one hundred be employed, a very ſevere but tremulous and continued ſenſation will extend even to the ſhoulders; and, if the ſurface of the ſkin be broken, the action of the electric fluid will be uncommonly painful. The ſenſation of a ſhock with this apparatus, does not materially differ from that produced by two ſimple coated plates; but it may be effected in various ways, eſpecially if one or both hands be applied in a wet ſtate to the loweſt plate of the pile; or any part of the face be brought in contact with a wire communicating with the top piece. Or if a wire be held between the teeth, ſo as to reſt upon the tongue, that organ, as well as the lips, will become convulſed, the ſpark will appear before the eye, and a very pungent taſte will be perceived in the mouth.—See figures of the Voltaic pile in the Electricity Plate III. fig. 22, and 23.

As the apparatus loſes its energy, in proportion as the ſubſtances laid on each other become dry, M. Volta endeavoured to prevent this effect by incloſing the pile in wax. He contrived to incloſe in this way two columns, each compoſed of twenty plates, which acted perfectly well during ſeveral weeks, and which, he had reaſon to expect, would continue to do ſo for the ſpace of ſeveral months. The particular combination which he conſiders as the moſt uſeful, is a battery formed by a range of glaſſes, or cups, ſimilar to that of the Leyden jars, and containing warm water or brine. Into each of theſe a plate of ſilver, and another of zinc, are plunged, but without reciprocally touching each other. Between theſe glaſſes, or cups, metallic communications are eſtabliſhed, and diſpoſed in ſuch a way as that, provided they reach, on the one hand, the zinc contained in one of the glaſſes, they ſhould reach the ſilver in the other; and that from the zinc in the latter they ſhould extend to the ſilver in the one by which it is followed; and thus conſecutively throughout the whole of the aſſemblage. When any one places himſelf in the range of the battery, between the firſt and the laſt of the glaſſes, he feels the ſhock. It is eſſential that the plates of metal, plunged in the fluid, ſhould have, at the leaſt, a ſquare inch of ſurface. With reſpect to the communications from one of the glaſſes, or cups, to another, they may have as ſmall an extent as the operator may wiſh. This is called the *Voltaic battery*.

In the ſitting of the French national inſtitute, on the 7th of November, 1801, M. Volta read a memoir, containing the detail and reſults of his new experiments made by this apparatus; which tended to bring freſh and ſtriking evidences of the identity of the galvanic and electric fluids, agreeably to the hypotheſis he had invariably maintained. Theſe proofs were ſo ſatisfactory, that the gold medal was unanimouſly decreed to the learned profeſſor of Pavia. A ſtriking feature adduced by Volta was, that if two diverſe metals, inſulated, and poſſeſſing their natural quantity only of electricity, be brought in contact, it will be found that, as ſoon as they are withdrawn from this contact, they will poſſeſs different ſtates of electricity, or, in other words, one of them will be in the poſitive, the other in the negative, ſtate. Thus, in the mutual contact of copper and zinc, the copper becomes negative, as to its electricity, and the zinc poſitive. The development of the electric fluid is conſequently independent of any humid conductor. All the other facts connected with this leading one, the inſtitute aſcertained to be inconteſtible. The reſult was therefore declared to be, "that the fluid to which the muſcular contractions, and the phenomena of the pile, are aſcribable, notwithſtanding it has long been conſidered as a *particular* fluid, is merely the common *electric fluid*, put in action by a cauſe, the nature of which is unknown, but the effects of which we evidently ſee."

This intereſting diſcovery ſoon gave riſe to ſeveral others, which are principally due to our own countrymen. Mr. Carliſle, and Mr. Nicholſon, ſucceeded in the ſame experiments in England, that profeſſor Volta had made in Italy and France. At a very early part of the inveſtigation, the pile having been formed, and the contacts ſecured by placing a drop of water upon the upper plate of the pile, a diſengagement of gas was obſerved round the conducting wire. The gas, though minute in quantity, ſeemed to Mr. Nicholſon to have the ſmell of hydrogen, when the wire of communication was ſteel. This, with ſome other facts, led him to propoſe to break the circuit, by the ſubſtitution of a tube of water between two wires. Accordingly, a braſs wire through each of two corks was inſerted at the oppoſite ends of a glaſs tube about half an inch in diameter, filled between the corks with water: the diſtance between the points of the wires in the water, was about an inch and three quarters. This compound diſcharger was applied ſo that the external ends of its wire were in contact with the two extreme plates of a pile of thirty-ſix half-crowns with correſpondent pieces of zinc and paſteboard. A ſtream of minute bubbles immediately began to flow from the point of the lower wire in the tube, which communicated with the ſilver, and the oppoſite point of the upper wire became tarniſhed, firſt deep orange, and then black. On reverſing the tube, the gas came from the other point, which was now loweſt, while the upper, in its turn, became tarniſhed and black. Reverſing the tube again, the phenomena again changed their order. In this ſtate the whole was left for two hours and a half. The upper wire gradually emitted whitiſh filmy clouds, which, towards the end of the proceſs, became of a pea-green colour, and hung in perpendicular threads from the extreme half-inch of the wire, the water being rendered ſemi-opaque by what fell off, and in a great part lay, of a pale green, on the lower ſurface of the tube, which, in this diſpoſition of the apparatus, was inclined about forty degrees to the horizon. The lower wire, three quarters of an inch long, conſtantly emitted gas, except when another circuit, or complete wire, was applied to the apparatus; during which time the emiſſion of gas was ſuſpended. When this laſt-mentioned wire was removed, the gas re-appeared as before. The product of gas, during the whole two hours and a half, was two-thirtieths of a cubic inch. It was then mixed with an equal quantity of common air, and exploded by the application of a lighted waxed thread.

Meſſrs. Carliſle and Nicholſon were led, by reaſoning on the firſt appearance of hydrogen, to expect a decompoſition of water; but it was with no little ſurpriſe that they found the hydrogen extricated at the contact with one wire, while the oxygen fixed itſelf in combination with the other wire at the diſtance of almoſt two inches. As the diſtance between the wires formed a ſtriking feature in this reſult, it became deſirable to aſcertain whether it would take place to greater diſtances. When a tube three quarters of an inch in diameter, and thirty-ſix inches long, was made uſe of, the effect failed, though the very ſame wires, inſerted into a ſhorter tube, operated very briſkly. The experiment being tried with tincture of litmus in place of water, and the oxydating wire, namely, from the zinc ſide, being loweſt in the tube, it changed the tincture red in about ten minutes as high as the upper extremity of the wire. The other portion remained blue. Hence it ſeems either an acid was formed, or that a portion of the oxygen combined with the litmus, ſo as to produce the effect of an acid.

It may be here offered as a general remark, that the

electric pile with a card, or with woollen cloth, continues in order for about two days, or ſcarcely three; that, from a ſeries of glaſſes ſet up by Mr. Carliſle, as well as from the pile itſelf, it appears that the ſame proceſs of decompoſition of water is carried on between each pair of plates, the zinc being oxyded on the wet face, and hydrogen given out; that the common ſalt is decompoſed, and exhibits an efflorescence of ſoda round the edges of the pile, exuded, moſt probably, by the hydrogen: and that, on account of the corroſion of the ſurfaces of the zinc, it is neceſſary to renew them previouſly to each conſtruction of the pile. This may be done by ſcraping or grinding. By theſe and other accurate experiments, Mr. Nicholſon aſcertained that the electricity of the zinc was plus, and that of the ſilver minus, whichever of them were at the top of the pile. The electric ſpark was even rendered viſible; ſo that there remained no doubt of the *identity* of the electric and galvanic fluids.

The decompoſition of water, and oxydation of metallic wire, ſuggeſted other experiments. Two ſmall wires of platina were inſerted, as before, in a ſhort tube. When the connection with the pile was formed, the wire from the ſilver gave a plentiful ſtream of gas, and that from the zinc a ſmaller one. In four hours, neither turbidneſs, oxydation, nor tarniſh, appeared. The larger ſtream was naturally ſuppoſed to be hydrogen, the ſmaller oxygen. With thick gold leaf, inſtead of platina, the reſult was the ſame, only the extremity of the ſlip connected with the zinc acquired a coppery or purpliſh tinge. A braſs wire was ſubſtituted for one of the ſlips of gold. When the former was joined to the ſilver end, the two ſtreams were extricated as before; but, when joined to the zinc, it became oxyded, as when both the wires were of braſs.

The ſimple decompoſition of water by platina wires, without oxydation, offered a means of obtaining the gaſes ſeparate from each other. This was tried with a pile of ſixty-eight ſets. A wire from each end of the pile paſſed under ſeparate phials full of water inverted in a faucer of water. A cloud of gas aroſe from each wire, but moſt from the ſilver or minus ſide. Bubbles were extricated from all parts of the water, and adhered to the whole internal ſurface of the veſſels. The proceſs was continued for thirteen hours, after which the wires were diſengaged, and the gaſes decanted into ſeparate bottles. On meaſuring the quantities, which was done by weighing the bottles, it was found that the quantities of water diſplaced by the gaſes were, reſpectively, ſeventy-two grains by the gas from the zinc ſide, and 142 grains by the gas from the ſilver ſide; ſo that the whole volume of gas was 1·17 cubic inches, or near an inch and a quarter. Theſe are nearly the proportions in bulk of what are ſtated to be the component parts of water. The gas from the zinc ſide being tried with one meaſure of nitrous gas, contracted to 1·25, and did not contract more by the addition of another meaſure; the gas from the ſilver ſide, by the ſame treatment, contracted to 1·6. The air of the room, on trial, contracted to 1·28. From the ſmallneſs of the quantity, no attempt was made to detonate the air from the zinc ſide; but a portion of that from the ſilver ſide, being mixed with one ſide of atmoſpheric air, gave a loud detonation. Theſe, and ſimilar experiments ſubſequently made by other philoſophers with the ſame intention, fully eſtabliſh the capacity of the Voltaic pile as a chemical agent for the decompoſition of water.

Several curious experiments on the deflagration of metals were afterwards made with the Voltaic pile; in which diſcs of flannel moiſtened with a ſolution of muriat of ammonia, gave conſiderable force. On this principle, a pile conſiſting of thirty-ſix pair of plates of ſilver and zinc, had the intenſity to deflagrate gold, ſilver, copper, tin, lead, and zinc, with a ſurpriſing facility. The gold burned with a vivid white light, inclining ſomewhat to blue; and there was left on the upper plate a copious oxyd of a deep brown colour, inclining a little to purple. The ſilver gave a vivid flame of a greeniſh hue, and extremely brilliant; the colour was ſomewhat like that of a pale emerald, and the light more intenſe than that from the gold; its oxyd was that of a blackiſh hue. The copper preſented phenomena ſimilar to thoſe which attended the deflagration of the gold. The lead gave a very vivid light, of a dilute bluiſh purple. The tin afforded a light ſimilar to that of the gold, but burned with leſs energy, probably on this account, that the leaves were thicker. The zinc gave a bluiſh white flame, which was edged at the moment of contact with red; it was more difficult of deflagration than any of the preceding metals; but the plates were at the ſame time much thicker. Theſe experiments ſerve to ſhew the great intenſity with which the electric fluid can be given out by the Voltaic pile.

The numerous experiments which now followed, rather tended to incline the public mind to a belief, that the faculty of performing chemical proceſſes, and the power of decompoſing water, belonged peculiarly to the Voltaic pile. But this ſuppoſition, before the cloſe of the year 1801, was effectually done away by an intereſting paper on the *identity* of the galvanic and electric fluids, which was read by Dr. Hyde Wollaſton before the royal ſociety of London, and publiſhed in their Tranſactions. By this paper it appeared that the doctor had ſucceeded in decompoſing water by the means of common electricity, as rapidly as by the pile of Volta. He had obviated the difficulty which was cauſed by the fluid paſſing, in a greater or leſs degree, in the form of ſparks, by employing a gold wire, and a ſilver wire, inſulated in the oppoſite ends of a glaſs tube, and preſenting to each other as fine a point as they could poſſibly be made to receive. The tube in which they were inſerted contained the water to be decompoſed, and conſtituted a part of an electric circuit. As this paper tends to illuſtrate, in a moſt ſatisfactory manner, the primary cauſe of the galvanic and electric phenomena in the decompoſition of water, &c. we ſhall give it in the author's own words:

"Notwithſtanding the power of M. Volta's electric pile is now known to be proportional to the diſpoſition of one of the metals to be oxydated by the fluid interpoſed, a doubt has been entertained by many perſons, whether this power ariſes from the chemical action of the fluid on the metal; or, on the contrary, whether the oxydation itſelf may not be occaſioned by electricity, ſet in motion by the contact of metals that have different conducting powers. That the oxydation of the metal is the primary cauſe of the electric phenomena obſerved, is, I think, to be inferred from the following experiments, which exhibit the galvanic proceſs reduced to its moſt ſimple ſtate.

1. If a piece of zinc and a piece of ſilver have each one extremity immerſed in the ſame veſſel, containing ſulphuric or muriatic acid diluted with a large quantity of water, the zinc is diſſolved, and yields hydrogen gas, by the decompoſition of the water: the ſilver, not being acted upon, has no power of decompoſing water; but, whenever the zinc and ſilver are made to touch, or any metallic communication is made between them, hydrogen gas is alſo formed at the ſurface of the ſilver. Any other metal beſide zinc, which, by the aid of the acid employed, is capable of decompoſing water, will ſucceed equally, if the other wire conſiſts of a metal on which the acid has no effect.

2. If zinc, iron, or copper, be employed with gold, in dilute nitric acid, nitrous gas will be formed, in the ſame manner, and under the ſame circumſtances, as the hydrogen gas in the former experiment.

3. Experiments analogous to the former, and equally ſimple, may alſo be made with many metallic ſolutions. If, for inſtance, the ſolution contains copper, it will be precipitated by a piece of iron, and appear on its ſurface. Upon ſilver merely immerſed in the ſame ſolution, no ſuch effect is produced; but as ſoon as the two metals are

are brought into contact, the ſilver receives a coating of copper. In the explanation of theſe experiments, it is neceſſary to advert to a point eſtabliſhed by means of the electric pile. We know that when water is placed in a circuit of conductors of electricity, between the two extremities of a pile, if the power is ſufficient to oxydate one of the wires of communication, the wire connected with the oppoſite extremity affords hydrogen gas. Since the extrication of hydrogen, in this inſtance, is ſeen to depend on electricity, it is probable that, in other inſtances, electricity may be alſo requiſite for its converſion into gas. It would appear, therefore, that in the ſolution of a metal, electricity is evolved during the action of the acid upon it; and that the formation of hydrogen gas, even in that caſe, depends on a tranſition of electricity between the fluid and the metal. We ſee, moreover, in the firſt experiment, that the zinc, without contact of any other metal, has the power of decompoſing water; and we can have no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the contact of the ſilver produces any new power, but that it ſerves merely as a conductor of electricity, and thereby occaſions the formation of hydrogen gas. In the third experiment alſo, the iron by itſelf has the power of precipitating copper, by means, I preſume, of electricity evolved during its ſolution; and here likewiſe the ſilver, by conducting that electricity, acquires the power of precipitating the copper in its metallic ſtate. The explanation here given receives additional confirmation from comparative experiments which I have made with common electricity; for it will be ſeen that the ſame transfer of chemical power, and the ſame apparent reverſion of the uſual order of chemical affinities in the precipitation of copper by ſilver, may be effected by a common electrical machine. The machine with which theſe experiments were conducted, conſiſts of a cylinder ſeven inches in diameter, with a conductor on each ſide ſixteen inches long, and three inches and a half diameter, each furniſhed with a ſliding electrometer, to regulate the ſtrength of the ſpark received from them.

4. Having a wire of fine ſilver, 1-120th of an inch in diameter, I coated the middle of it, for two or three inches, with ſealing-wax, and, by cutting through in the middle of the wax, expoſed a ſection of the wire. The two coated extremities of the wire, thus divided, were immerſed in a ſolution of ſulphat of copper placed in an electric circuit between the two conductors; and ſparks, taken at one-tenth of an inch diſtance, were paſſed by means of them through the ſolution. After one hundred turns of the machine, the wire which communicated with (what is called) the negative conductor, had a precipitate formed on its ſurface, which, upon being burniſhed, was evidently copper; but the oppoſite wire had no ſuch coating. Upon reverſing the direction of the current of electricity, the order of the phenomena was of courſe reverſed; the copper being ſhortly re-diſſolved by aſſiſtance of the oxydating power of poſitive electricity, and a ſimilar precipitate formed on the oppoſite wire.

5. A ſimilar experiment made with gold wires 1-100th of an inch diameter, in a ſolution of corroſive ſublimate, had the ſame ſucceſs. The chemical agency, therefore, of common electricity is thus proved to be the ſame with the power excited by chemical means; but, ſince a difference has been obſerved in the comparative facility with which the pile of Volta decompoſes water, and produces other effects of oxydation and de-oxydation of bodies expoſed to its action, I have been at ſome pains to remove this difficulty, and can at leaſt produce a very cloſe imitation of the galvanic phenomena by common electricity. It has been thought neceſſary to employ powerful machines and large Leyden jars for the decompoſition of water; but, when I conſidered that the decompoſition muſt depend on duly proportioning the ſtrength of the charge of electricity to the quantity of water, and that the quantity expoſed to its action at the ſurface of communication depends on the extent of that ſurface, I hoped that, by reducing the ſurface of communication, the decompoſition of water might be effected by ſmaller machines, and with leſs powerful excitation, than have hitherto been uſed for that purpoſe; and in this hope I have not been diſappointed.

6. Having procured a ſmall wire of fine gold, and given it as fine a point as I could, I inſerted it into a capillary glaſs tube; and, after heating the tube ſo as to make it adhere to the point, and cover it in every part, I gradually ground it down, till, with a pocket lens, I could diſcern that the point of the gold was expoſed. The ſucceſs of this method exceeding my expectations, I coated ſeveral wires in the ſame manner, and found, that when ſparks from the conductors before-mentioned were made to paſs through water, by means of a point ſo guarded, a ſpark paſſing to the diſtance of one-eighth of an inch would decompoſe water, when the point expoſed did not exceed 1-700th of an inch in diameter. With another point, which I eſtimated at 1-1500th, a ſucceſſion of ſparks, one-twentieth of an inch in length, afforded a current of ſmall bubbles of air. I have ſince found that the ſame apparatus will decompoſe water with a wire one-fortieth of an inch diameter, coated in the manner before-deſcribed, if the ſpark from the prime conductor paſſes to the diſtance of four-tenths of an inch of air.

7. In order to try how far the ſtrength of the electric ſpark might be reduced by a proportional diminution of the extremity of the wire, I paſſed a ſolution of gold in *aqua regia* through a capillary tube, and, by heating the tube, expelled the acid. There remained a thin film of gold lining the inner ſurface of the tube, which, by melting the tube, was converted into a very fine thread of gold, through the ſubſtance of the glaſs. When the extremity of this thread was made the medium of communication through water, I found that the mere current of electricity would occaſion a ſtream of very ſmall bubbles to riſe from the extremity of the gold, although the wire, by which it communicated with the poſitive or negative conductor, was placed in abſolute contact with them. Hence it appears, that the decompoſition of water may take place by common electricity as well as by the electric pile, although no diſcernible ſparks are produced. The appearance of two currents of air may alſo be imitated by occaſioning the electricity to paſs by fine points of communication on both ſides of the water; but, in fact, the reſemblance is not complete; for, in every way in which I have tried it, I obſerved, that each wire gave both oxygen and hydrogen gas, inſtead of their being formed ſeparately, as by the electric pile. I am inclined to attribute the difference in this reſpect to the greater intenſity with which it is neceſſary to employ common electricity: for, that poſitive and negative electricity, ſo excited, have each the ſame chemical power as they are obſerved to have in the electric pile, may be aſcertained by other means. In the precipitation of copper by ſilver, an inſtance of de-oxydation by negative electricity has been mentioned: the oxydating power of poſitive electricity may be alſo proved by its effect on vegetable blue colours.

8. Having coloured a card with a ſtrong infuſion of litmus, I paſſed a current of electric ſparks along it, by means of two fine gold points, touching it at the diſtance of an inch from each other. The effect, as in other caſes, depending on the ſmallneſs of the quantity of water, was moſt diſcernible when the card was nearly dry. In this ſtate, a very few turns of the machine were ſufficient to occaſion a redneſs at the poſitive wire, very manifeſt to the naked eye. The negative wire, being afterwards placed on the ſame ſpot, ſoon reſtored it to its original blue colour. By M. Volta's apparatus, the ſame effects are produced in much leſs time. Beſide the ſimilarity which has thus been traced between the effects of electricity excited by the common machine and thoſe obſerved from the electric pile, I think it appears alſo pro-

bable that they originate from the ſame ſource. With regard to the latter, its power is now known to depend on oxydation; ſo alſo does the excitement in the former appear very much to depend on the ſame proceſs.

9. I have found that, by uſing an amalgam of ſilver, or of platina, which are not liable to be oxydated, I could obtain no electricity. An amalgam of tin, on the contrary, affords a good degree of excitement. Zinc acts ſtill better; but the beſt amalgam is made with both tin and zinc, a mixture which is more eaſily oxydated than either metal ſeparately.

10. But, as a further trial whether oxydation aſſiſts in the production of electricity, I mounted a ſmall cylinder, with its cuſhion and conductor, in a veſſel ſo contrived that I could at pleaſure change the contained air. After trying the degree of excitement in common air, I ſubſtituted carbonic gas, and found that the excitement was immediately deſtroyed, but that it returned upon readmiſſion of atmoſpheric air. In conformity to this hypotheſis, we find that the metal oxydated is, in each caſe, in a ſimilar ſtate of electricity; for the cuſhion of the machine, by oxydation of the amalgam adhering to it, becomes negative; and, in the ſame manner, zinc oxydated by the accumulated power of an electric pile, or ſimply by action of an acid, is alſo negative. This ſimilarity in the means by which electricity and galvaniſm appear to be excited, in addition to the reſemblance that has been traced between their effects, ſhews that they are both eſſentially the ſame, and confirms an opinion that has already been advanced by others, that all the differences diſcoverable in the effects of the latter, may be owing to its being leſs intenſe, but produced in much larger quantity."

While theſe reſearches were going on in England, ſimilar experiments were made by profeſſor Van Marum at Haerlem, by help of the grand Teylerian machine. This able electrician aſſerts, that relatively to the compariſon of the ſenſations, or ſhocks, communicated by the diſcharge of a battery, charged to different degrees of tenſion, by the contacts of the conductor of the electrical machine, with thoſe of charges of the ſame tenſion by means of the pile, he was convinced, by repeated experiments, that there is no perceptible difference in the ſhocks communicated by the diſcharges of the battery, whether charged by the machine, or by the pile, provided the tenſions of the charge are equal. He flatters himſelf that he has proved, in the moſt deciſive manner, by experiments on a large ſcale, the identity of the current of the fluid put in motion by the Voltaic pile, and of that to which an impulſion is given by an electrical machine. The *identity* of the currents of each apparatus having been thus clearly eſtabliſhed, and placed beyond any doubt, it follows as a direct conſequence of all the above-cited experiments, that there can no longer be any pretence for *the action of a particular fluid*, which had been inconſiderately ſuppoſed to reſide in the Voltaic column. Theſe experiments, added to thoſe made by profeſſor Volta himſelf, prove that the action of the above column, or pile, produced by the contact of two metals which touch each other, can be no other than an electrical effect. As the reſults they furniſh are conſtantly explained by the action of two diverſe metals, or of two different ſubſtances which are employed, the ſuppoſition of a *particular* fluid is entirely done away; and, conſequently, the true denomination of the Voltaic pile, ought in future to be called *electric*, and not *galvanic*.

The general opinion relative to animal electricity, which the naturaliſts of Italy, Great Britain, Germany, and France, formed after repeating the experiments of Galvani, was, that the metallic influence is not imparted to the muſcles, until after it has been communicated to the nerves. This concluſion appears to have been dictated by the effects to which the nervous parts, as well as the organs of the ſenſations, are ſubjected in galvanic experiments. It receives an additional ſupport from the aſſurance given by Humboldt, that it is impoſſible to produce the contractions, in a portion of the muſcle prepared in ſuch away as to diveſt it entirely of every nervous ramification. It is, notwithſtanding, certain, that the coatings of the muſcles alone have been ſometimes efficacious in the production of the galvanic effect; and this would be an inconteſtible proof of an irritation independent of the nerves, if it were not likewiſe certain, that this irritation is capable of penetrating into the internal tiſſue of the organs, in which the nerves are concealed. It would, however, be too raſh to circumſcribe to the nervous and ſenſible fibres, the impreſſion of the metallic ſtimulus, ſeeing that, independently of ſeveral rational arguments which prove the contrary of this aſſertion, experiments have demonſtrated that the action of galvaniſm is directed both to the vaſcular and nervous ſyſtems.

Several galvanic experiments and obſervations have been recently publiſhed by M. Bichat, phyſician to the Hotel Dieu in Paris, and author of a celebrated work on anatomy. In ſpeaking of the influence of the deſtruction of the brain on that of the heart, after having proved, conformably to obſervation and experience, that it is not immediately by the interruption of the cerebral action that the heart ceaſes to act, he confirms this fundamental *datum* of phyſiology and pathology, by a ſeries of galvanic experiments, which demonſtrate that the heart is in all caſes independent of the brain.

"Theſe experiments," he obſerves, "were made with the moſt ſcrupulous attention, becauſe ſeveral very reſpectable authors have advanced a contrary opinion, and have endeavoured to prove that the heart, together with the other muſcles of organic life, do not differ, as to their ſuſceptibility to the galvanic influence, from the different muſcles of animal life. I ſhall therefore detail the obſervations I have made on animals with red and cold blood.

"1. In ſeveral experiments made on frogs, I coated the brain, on the one hand, with lead, and the heart and muſcles of the inferior extremities, on the other, with a long lamina of zinc, the upper end of which touched the heart, and the lower end the muſcles. Having, by the means of ſilver, eſtabliſhed a communication between the coatings of the muſcles and thoſe of the brain, the movements of the limbs conſtantly followed; but I could not perceive any acceleration in the contractions of the heart, when it ſtill continued to beat; and when its action had entirely ceaſed, it did not diſplay the ſmalleſt movement. Whichever may be the voluntary muſcle that is coated at the ſame time with the heart, with a view to a compariſon of the phenomena they exhibit at the moment of the metallic communication, there is conſtantly a marked and decided difference.

"2. In the caſe of other frogs, I coated, with a common metallic wire, on the one hand, the cervical part of the ſpinal marrow, in the upper region of the heart, to the end that the coating might be above the part where the nerves which proceed from the great intercoſtal nerve, and thence to the heart, originate; and, on the other hand, the heart, and any one of the voluntary muſcles. I conſtantly noticed a reſult ſimilar to the one which attended the preceding experiment, whenever the communication was eſtabliſhed. There were invariably violent agitations in the voluntary muſcles, without any viſible alteration in the contractile movements of the heart.

"3. I endeavoured to denudate the nerves which lead to the heart of frogs. Several greyiſh filaments, ſcareely perceptible, with the nature of which, I muſt acknowledge, I am not fully aequainted, were coated with a metallic ſubſtanee, at the ſame time that the heart was made to reſt on a ſubſtance of a ſimilar nature. When the communication was eſtabliſhed by means of a third metal, not the ſmalleſt ſenſible effect was to be perceived. It appears to me that theſe trials, which had been partly made before I engaged in them, are well calculated to

decide, in a poſitive manner, whether the brain has any direct influence on the heart, more particularly when they are repeated with the precautions which were taken by me, to coat ſucceſſively, and alternately, the internal and external ſurfaces, and the ſubſtance even of the latter organ. In each of theſe experiments the natural diſpoſition was preſerved between the different parts which ſerve to unite the heart with the brain.

"4. There is another mode of making the experiment, which conſiſts, in the firſt place, in detaching the heart from the breaſt. Secondly, in bringing it in contact with two different metals, at two points of its ſurface, or with portions of fleſh coated with metals. And, thirdly, in eſtabliſhing a communication between the coatings, by means of a third metallic ſubſtance. In theſe caſes, Humboldt obſerves that he has ſeen the movements produced. I muſt confeſs, notwithſtanding, that although I have frequently repeated theſe experiments, with a ſtrict adherence to the forms preſcribed, I could never perceive any ſuch reſult.

"I proceed now to experiments made on animals with red and warm blood. It became the more neceſſary to try them, becauſe the mode of the contractibility of animals with red and cold blood, differs eſſentially from that of animals with red and warm blood.

"1. In the courſe of the winter of the year 1798, I was authorized to make different experiments on the bodies of the unfortunate perſons who had been guillotined. Theſe bodies were brought to me about twenty minutes after the execution had taken place. In ſeveral of them the motive faculty was extinguiſhed; while, in others, I was enabled to excite it, with a greater or leſs degree of facility, in all the muſcles, by the ordinary methods which are reſorted to on theſe occaſions. It was more particularly manifeſted in the muſcles of animal life, by means of the galvanic proceſſes. I could never ſucceed, however, in the production of the ſmalleſt movement, when I coated, either the ſpinal marrow and the heart, or the latter organ and the nerves it receives from the ganglions, by the great intercoſtal, or from the brain, by the *par vagum*. Notwithſtanding this, when mechanical exciters were applied, in a direct and immediate way, to the fleſhy fibres, contractions enſued. 'Did this ariſe from the nervous filaments of the heart having been for ſome time inſulated from the brain? But, in ſuch a caſe, why did thoſe belonging to the voluntary muſcles, which were likewiſe inſulated, favour the production of the galvanic phenomena? The following experiments will clear up this doubt.

"2. In experiments made on dogs and guinea-pigs, I coated, with two metallic ſubſtances, in the firſt place, the brain and heart; next, the trunk of the ſpinal marrow and the latter organ; and, finally, that organ and the nerve of the *par vagum*, from which it receives ſeveral nerves. The two coatings having been made to communicate, there was not the ſmalleſt apparent reſult: I could not perceive that the movements were re-produced, after they had ceaſed; nor that they were accelerated during their continuance.

"3. The cardiac nerves of two dogs having been coated, both in their anterior and poſterior filaments, another coating was applied to the heart, ſometimes at its anterior ſurface, and at others at its poſterior ſurface, and at others, again, at its *faſciculi*. The communication, as in the preceding experiment, did not produce any apparent movements. In experiments of this deſcription, the communication ought not to be made until a certain portion of time has elapſed after the coating has been placed on the heart, to the end that what is merely the effect of metallic irritation, may not be aſcribed to galvaniſm.

"4. Humboldt obſerves, that when the heart is ſuddenly detached from the cavity of the pericardium, taking care that ſeveral of its inſulated nerves ſhould ſtill remain attached to the viſcus, contractions may be produced by coating the latter with a metallic ſubſtance, and by touching the coating with another metal. I tried this experiment repeatedly, but without ſucceſs, except in one particular inſtance, which was attended by feeble contractions. On the other hand, I ſucceeded, almoſt invariably, in producing contractions in animals with red and warm blood, when I took out the heart, and brought it in contact, at two different points, with metallic ſubſtances, between which a communication was eſtabliſhed. It appears to me that this is the only mode of producing on that organ, efficaciouſly and demonſtratively, the galvanic phenomena. It does not, however, prove what is the object of my preſent reſearches, namely, whether the brain has a direct influence on the heart. If, indeed, we grant that the galvanic phenomena have, on theſe two kinds of muſcles, an equal influence, what is proved by this fact? Nothing more than that theſe phenomena are, in their ſucceſſion, governed by laws which are altogether different from thoſe of the phenomena of the nerves with which theſe muſcles correſpond."

Having diſcuſſed this important phyſiological queſtion, M. Bichat proceeds to treat of the influence the deſtruction of the vital energy of the brain has on that of the reſpective organs, which he divides into thoſe of animal life, and thoſe of organic life. He enquires, in the firſt place, whether the interruption of the organic functions, is a direct effect of the ceſſation of the cerebral action. After having proved, as he had already done in the preceding article, both by obſervation and experience, that all the internal functions are, in the ſame way with the action of the heart, withdrawn from the direct aſcendancy of the brain, and that, conſequently, their interruption cannot be immediately derived from the deſtruction of that organ; and after having eſtabliſhed, anatomically and ſubſtantially, that the organic functions are not ſubjected to the immediate influence of the brain, ſeeing that the greater part of the viſcera by which theſe functions are performed, receive few, if any, of the vertebral nerves, but are rather ſupplied with the nervous filaments ariſing from the ganglions, ſuch as are obſerved in the liver, kidneys, pancreas, ſpleen, inteſtines, &c. he demonſtrates the truth of the principle he has eſtabliſhed, by experiments on living animals. Theſe experiments were made on the ſtomach, inteſtines, bladder, uterus, &c. of animals with warm blood, and were conſtantly attended by a reſult ſimilar to the above.' They were afterwards repeated on cold-blooded animals; and juſtified the general inference which he draws, namely, that "with relation to the galvanic fluid, as well as in every other point of view, there is an enormous difference between the muſcles of animal life, and thoſe of organic life."

The arrangement of galvanic combinations, its chemical proceſſes, and general laws, may be ſummed up as follows: Two diſſimilar metals, with an interpoſed fluid; or a ſingle metal, expoſed to the action of two different fluids; or any one of the conducting ſubſtances on which unequal actions can be induced by different fluids; conſtitute a ſimple galvanic combination. A ſeries of ſuch combinations is denominated a galvanic battery.

When two metals are employed, they produce the greateſt effect, when the particular quality of one of them renders it extremely difficult of oxydation, while the other unites with oxygen with the greateſt facility. If, upon a poliſhed plate of ſteel, water be laid, under the common temperature of the atmoſphere, in the courſe of two or three days the ſurface will be conſiderably oxydated. This is occaſioned by the decompoſition of the water. If, upon a ſimilarly moiſtened ſurface of ſteel a plate of zinc be placed, at the end of two or three days the ſurface of the ſteel will be found covered with a white powder, which is the oxyd of zinc. When it is wiped off, the ſteel will ſtill poſſeſs its original poliſh. This proves that the zinc unites more readily with oxygen than does the iron; but if a plate of ſilver be ſubſtituted to the zinc, then the ſteel will be oxydated. Conſequently, ſilver is more difficult of oxydation than ſteel, and ſteel than zinc.

Silver

Silver and zinc, or gold and zinc, form the moſt perfect galvanic combination. All metalic bodies are excellent conductors of electricity; but, when oxydated, they become non-conductors. In this change of capacity electricity is given out. A piece of zinc, placed in a weak ſolution of ſulphuric acid, is ſubjected to but a trifling alteration, compared to the change which enſues when it is brought in contact with a piece of ſilver. This curious phenomenon was firſt noticed by Dr. Aſhe; and was by him advanced as an argument in favour of galvaniſm being the reſult of a chemical operation.

A plate of ſilver, and a plate of zinc, with a piece of cloth, or of any bibulous ſubſtance, moiſtened in water, placed between them, conſtitute a ſimple galvanic combination. In this caſe the zinc becomes oxydated on the portion of its ſurface which is in contact with the wet medium. If a prepared frog be ſubſtituted for the moiſtened cloth, the humidity on its ſurface will produce ſimilar effects on the zinc; and when the circuit is completed between the ſilver and zinc, by any ſubſtance which is a conductor of electricity, the muſcles of the frog will be thrown into action. Theſe contractions will be renewed every time the circuit is completed. By a *prepared frog* is underſtood, a frog divided into two portions by a pair of ſciſſars, through the middle of its body and ſpine, the viſcera being removed, and the lower part ſkinned. The ſciatic nerves riſe very high up in the ſpine in this animal, and are very diſcernible when it is thus arranged. When it is intended to arm the nerves, after the introduction of a pair of pointed ſciſſars beneath them, the ſpine is cut through without dividing them. A portion of the inferior part of the ſpine ſhould be afterwards ſeparated; ſo as to leave room for the nerves to be covered by a piece of tin-foil. This is what is denominated *arming*, or *coating*, the nerves. In ſome experiments, it is more convenient to ſeparate the lower extremities, and employ the crural nerve.

If a ſingle metal be employed, it muſt be of ſuch a deſcription as not to be eaſily acted upon by water. Thus, if a ſilver cup, nearly filled with a weak ſolution of nitric acid, be placed in a glaſs veſſel containing common water, a ſimple galvanic combination will be formed; ſeeing that the inſide of the ſilver veſſel will become oxydated by the acid, while its external ſurface will not undergo any change. If a prepared frog be made to form the circuit between the two fluids, immediately on its completion the convulſions will be produced. The more active the fluid which is employed, the more powerful will be the effects. Thus, ſalt water is better than common water; and acid and water than ſalt and water. Volta aſcribes this difference to the conducting powers of the fluids, and not to any changes induced in the metallic bodies employed.

After a certain period, the metal the moſt liable to oxydation has its ſurface oxydated; and till this is removed the galvanic operation ceaſes. Whenever a metal becomes oxydated, its capacity for electricity is diminiſhed: oxygen cannot enter into union with a metallic ſubſtance, without the electricity which conſtituted a portion of the metal being given out. A metal which is in a ſtate of giving out electricity, will evince poſitive ſigns of the electric fluid, and occaſion a ſenſible electroſcope to diverge with the ſame ſtate of electricity as is produced by excited glaſs.

In the ſeries of metals, of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, tin, lead, zinc, each will become poſitive by its combination with that which precedes it, and negative with that by which it is followed. Thus, gold and ſilver form a ſimple galvanic combination. If a fluid be employed which will act on the ſilver, and not on the gold, as happens with the nitric acid; in this caſe the ſilver will be the oxydable metal, and will therefore give out a portion of its combined electricity. This equally applies to copper and iron, to iron and tin, &c. Silver, when combined with gold, exhibits poſitive ſigns; but when it is arranged with copper, it evinces negative ſigns.

As all metals, with the exception of gold, undergo ſome ſmall changes on the application of an oxydating fluid, the moſt perfect galvanic combination is conſtituted, when one of the metals undergoes the greateſt change, and the other the leaſt. When zinc and copper are employed with a ſolution of a muriat of ammonia, the muriatic acid acts upon the zinc, and a portion of ammonia attacks the copper. In this way the galvanic effect is not ſo powerful as if gold had been employed. All ſubſtances which are conductors of electricity are likewiſe conductors of galvaniſm, and in preciſely the ſame order: the moſt perfect conductors being metallic ſubſtances; next charcoal, muſcular fleſh, &c. nearly in the following order:

CONDUCTORS.—All the metals.—Minerals containing metals not oxydated.—Vegetable coal.—Mineral coal.—Carbonated blend.—Aluminous ſchiſt.—Inflammable ſchiſt.—Siliceous ſubſtances containing carbon.—Grey manganeſe, ariſing from the carbon it contains.—Muſcular fleſh.—Membranes, nerves, ligaments, and blood-veſſels, whether moiſt or dry.—Morells and muſhrooms.—White of an egg.—Water, blood, juices of plants.—Cellular tiſſue of vegetables.—Spirit of wine.—Wine, beer, acids, alkaline ſolutions, ſoft ſoap, and flame, (doubted by ſome.)

NON-CONDUCTORS.—Oxyds of metals.—Oxyds of carbon.—Gaſes.—Perioſteum.—Hair.—Epidermis and cuticle.—Fibres of wood.—Glaſs.—Amber.—White of an egg hardened.—Oil, reſins, and gums.

Volta divides the conductors of electricity into two claſſes, dry, and moiſt. The dry conductors he ranks in the firſt claſs; and the moiſt conductors in the ſecond. When a moiſt conductor and a dry conductor are brought into contact, a diſturbance of the electrical fluid takes place. The mode in which this diſturbance is produced, he does not venture to conjecture; and it is oftentimes ſo low as ſcarcely to be detected by any means at preſent known.

Mr. Pepys has contrived an ingenious apparatus to be adapted to Bennet's electroſcope, ſhewn at O, fig. 24, in the Electricity Plate III. for the purpoſe of evincing all ſuch ſmall ſtates of electricity, developed in galvanic experiments. With this view, inſtead of the tin-foil coatings within-ſide the glaſs, he has ſubſtituted two plates, *n*, *e*, forming an acute angle, which, by a regulating ſcrew, can be adjuſted to any required diſtance from the gold leaves. The angular part is ſecured to the bottom; the open part perpendicularly upwards; and the gold leaves, repreſented oppoſite *c*, hang between them. By this ingenious mode of approximating the coatings to the gold leaves, the reſiſtance being diminiſhed, a weaker intenſity of electricity ſuffices for their diſturbance.—Owing to its ſuperior ſenſibility, this inſtrument is now generally denominated the *Galvanometer*.

Mr. Read, well known by his valuable obſervations on atmoſpherical electricity, is the firſt who applied the galvanic condenſer to this electroſcope; to the end that it ſhould alſo evince ſmaller intenſities of electricity. The very minute portion of the fluid given out by the ſingle contact of two different metals, does not produce any diſturbance of the gold leaves; but when ſeveral minute portions are accumulated, a ſeparation of the leaves will take place. The electroſcope, in its ſimple ſtate, will be as much charged the firſt time as if the contact had been made a thouſand times, and cannot therefore acquire a greater quantity of the fluid than ſuffices to place it *in equilibrio* with the metallic plates. This portion being inadequate to the production of any divergency of the gold leaves, Mr. Read applied the principle of the electrical doubler to the above inſtrument, by which means he was enabled to charge an intervening plate of air. By thus accumulating every minute portion of the

electric

electric fluid imparted by the metallic plate, and by apparently condenſing and increaſing its intenſity, he ultimately ſucceeded in producing marked ſigns of diſturbance. The conſtruction of this apparatus is ſhewn in the ſame figure; where a circular braſs plate, *b*, about four inches in diameter, is ſoldered to the braſs cap of Bennet's electroſcope, O; and, at a right angle with the plane of the cap, a ſimilar braſs plate, *a*, connected with a braſs rod, F, and moveable about the joint, *g*, completes the apparatus. The latter plate, *a*, is non-inſulated, and is never in contact with the plate *b*, being placed at ſuch a diſtance as to allow a thick card to paſs between. Conſequently there will be a plate of air between *a* and *b*; and the charging of this plate of air is preciſely on the principles deſcribed in the explanation of the Leyden phial.

Fig. 25, in the ſame engraving, repreſents two metallic plates, A and B, about ſix inches in diameter, with inſulating handles, as at C C. One of theſe plates is made of zinc, and the other of copper. When they are brought frequently into contact, and when, on each ſeparation, one of them, for inſtance, the zinc plate, is, by its inſulating handle, made to touch the cap of the electroſcope O, fig. 24, each portion of the electricity communicated to the cap, becomes equally diffuſed throughout the whole metallic medium in contact with it, the plate, *b*, participating of the effect. The ſurrounding air is ſo feebly acted on by this very ſmall intenſity, that unleſs its reſiſtance be conſiderably diminiſhed, no ſenſible effects will be produced. The very ſmall plate of air between the two plates *a b*, becoming influenced by this weak ſtate of electricity, the proportion of the fluid it receives on the ſide oppoſed to the plate *b*, it gives out at the ſide contiguous to the plate *a*, which, not being inſulated, admits it with facility. In this way *a* may be conſidered as the coating of the outſide of the jar, and *b* as the inſide coating. On every ſucceſſive charge the plate of air becomes additionally acted upon. So long as the plates *a* and *b* are preſerved in this ſtate, no ſeparation of the gold leaves, repreſented oppoſite *c*, takes place. When a Leyden phial is charged, and then placed on an inſulating ſtand, if a communication be formed with the external coating and an electroſcope, no diſturbance will take place. The air in the external ſurface being in a preciſe balance with the air on the internal ſurface, no change can take place on one ſide ſo long as the other ſide is kept inſulated. Thus it is with the condenſer: the inſtant the plate *a* is ſeparated from the plate *b*, the electricity which had been imparted and received by the intervening plate of air, being now expoſed to the atmoſpheric maſs, moves in the direction in which it meets with the leaſt reſiſtance. This direction is the metallic cap of the electroſcope; and, according to the quantity thus regurgitating, the gold leaves *c*, become diverged. The ſtate of electricity is always poſitive, if the zinc plate be applied; and negative, if the application of the copper-plate be made.

If either the zinc or the copper-plate, be applied to the part of the cap *n*, which is directly oppoſite to the plate *b*, the effects will be ſtronger than when it is applied nearer to the plate *b*. This obſervation was firſt made by Mr. Read; and ſeems to accord with Volta's notion as to moto-electric power. It is a further confirmation of the idea, that the real conductors of electricity are replete with that principle; and that the firſt effects produced, are occaſioned by the diſturbance of the natural electricity of the body. It is well known to be a common property of all univerſally diffuſed fluids, to be more powerfully acted upon in the part which is in a line of direction with the impelling power. This is the caſe with the tranſmiſſion of ſound through ſolids or fluids, and alſo with the apparent motion of light. The ſucceſſive impulſes acting at *n*, the natural electricity of the plate *b*, will alſo more powerfully diſturb the intervening plate of air, than when the contact is made at any other part of the cap. In ſuch a caſe, the motion communicated to the electricity of the plate *b*, will be weakened in proportion to the obliquity of the direction. This fact is eaſily proved, by the greater number of contacts requiſite in one direction than in the other. It would perhaps be more correct to call this inſtrument a *galvaniſcope*, ſeeing that it does not ſo correctly meaſure the powers of a battery as one hereafter mentioned, which may therefore be more properly regarded as a galvanometer. When two diſſimilar metals are employed, ſuch as a plate of ſilver and a plate of zinc, after frequent uſe, the zinc becomes changed on its ſurface, loſes its metallic ſplendour, and has an oxydated appearance. The experiments of Aſhe and Fabroni alſo tend to prove certain chemical changes effected by the contact of two diſſimilar metals with an interpoſed fluid. Suppoſe Z, fig. 26, in the Electricity Plate III. to repreſent a plate of zinc; S, a plate of ſilver; and F, a prepared frog lying between them. Upon completing the circuit between the ſilver and zinc plates, by means of the conductor C, the muſcles of the frog are inſtantly thrown into violent convulſions; and theſe actions are repeated as often as the contact is made, or the circuit complete, by the conducting wire and the two metals. When the prepared frog is in a deſiccated ſtate, without any humidity on the portions in contact with the two plates, no contractions enſue.

The muſcular fibres of a frog are ſo extremely ſenſible to the influence of electricity, as to form the moſt delicate electroſcope hitherto known. The great ſenſibility of the gold-leaf electroſcope of Mr. Bennet, is well known; but, notwithſtanding the improvement of Mr. Read's condenſer, it evinces no diſturbance by the ſimple contact of two diſſimilar metals. But when the plate of zinc, and the ſimilar plate of copper, with inſulating handles, as ſhewn at fig. 25, are brought into contact about twenty times, and one of the plates applied, on each contact, to the condenſer; upon removing the latter, the leaves of gold are ſeen to diverge. The ſtate of electricity with which they diverge, is invariably poſitive, if the zinc plate be applied to the electroſcope; and negative, if the application be on the ſide of the copper-plate. In this caſe, the plates muſt be at leaſt five or ſix inches in diameter. Yet we ſee, on the other hand, that a very minute portion of zinc and ſilver will produce violent convulſions in the limbs of a frog.

If ten perſons moiſten their hands with ſalt and water, and form a circuit, by holding the hands of each other; and if, in this circuit, a prepared frog be placed, one of the perſons holding the animal by the feet, and another by the ſpine, at the ſame time that the firſt perſon in the circuit has in his diſengaged hand a half-crown, and the laſt perſon a plate of zinc held in the ſame way, each time the two metals are brought in contact, the frog will become convulſed.

Gren has remarked how the ſenſations of ſeeing and taſting may at the ſame time be produced, by a very ſtriking experiment, which is as follows: "The muſcular motion, as well as the ſenſations of ſeeing and taſting, may be produced at the ſame inſtant, by means of the electric ſtream. Let four perſons ſtand upon a ſomewhat imperfect conductor, and communicate between themſelves in this way: let the firſt perſon hold in his right hand, well moiſtened, a cylinder of zinc, and touch with the finger of his left hand the point of the finger of the ſecond perſon, who, again, ſhould touch with his finger the bare eye ball of the third: now, let the latter hold the legs of a prepared frog in his well-moiſtened hand, at the ſame inſtant that the fourth perſon, with his moiſtened right hand, lays hold of the rump of the frog, holding in his moiſtened left hand a cylindrical piece of ſilver. If the firſt and laſt of the perſons who form this ſeries bring this zinc and ſilver into contact, and in this way complete the circuit, the perſon whoſe tongue is touched will perceive an acidulous taſte; the touched eye of the third perſon will perceive a flaſh of light; and

the thighs of the frog, which are held by the third and fourth perſons, will be violently convulſed."

Aldini and Humboldt have both obſerved, that, if the legs of a prepared frog be immerſed in mercury, and the nerves be brought in contact with the external ſurface of that fluid, the convulſion will take place every time the circuit is formed. From this experiment theſe phyſiologiſts have deduced, that diſſimilar metals are no ways neceſſary. The celebrated Volta properly obſerves that, although one metal is thus apparently employed, the different ſtates in which the mercury is found, conſtitute what may be conſidered as two diſſimilar metals. As mercury, the inſtant it is expoſed to the air, becomes oxydated, a part of the animal being in contact with the fluid in its metallic ſtate, and the ſciatic nerve being equally ſo with the oxydated ſurface, convulſions will neceſſarily enſue. From all the experiments hitherto brought forward, in which convulſions have been produced by the influence of diſſimilar metals, it would appear that the diſengaged electricity is from the oxydated ſurface of the metal; and that the muſcular fibres of the frog are, in conſequence of their exquiſite ſenſibility, convulſed by the tranſmiſſion of the electricity from the non-oxydated plate to the oxydated plate.

It has been already obſerved, that a ſimple galvanic combination may either conſiſt of two diſſimilar metals, and an interpoſed fluid, or of a ſingle metal placed between two different fluids, one of which acts on the metal without its being influenced by the other. Let A B, fig. 27, in the ſame engraving, repreſent two glaſſes, one filled with a diluted ſolution of nitrous acid, and the other with water. If theſe two veſſels be connected by a copper arc, *a b*, a ſimple galvanic combination will be formed. The part of the copper in the diluted ſolution of nitrous acid will be oxydated, while the portion in the veſſel of water will not be acted on. If one of the extremities of a prepared frog, as at F, be placed in one of the liquids, as ſoon as the other extremity is brought in contact with the liquid in the other veſſel, convulſions will enſue. This effect is more ſtrongly produced in the experiment repreſented at fig. 28, in which B D is a glaſs diſh filled with a ſolution of the ſulphure of pot-aſh; and A, a ſilver cup, or a ſalt-cellar, placed within-ſide, and nearly filled with a weak ſolution of nitric acid. By this arrangement a *perfect* galvanic combination is produced; as ſoon as a prepared frog is made to form a communication between one of the fluids and the other, it will be convulſed.

Upon the principles of ſimple galvanic combinations, many curious phenomena are explicable. Formerly, in applying copper ſheets to the bottoms of ſhips, it being the uſage to employ iron bolts, it was obſerved that the copper ſoon became looſened in the part where the two metals were in contact. This arrangement conſtituted a ſimple galvanic combination of two diſſimilar metals, and an interpoſed fluid. In this caſe the interpoſed fluid was the ſea-water, or a ſolution of the muriat of ſoda, and the metallic ſubſtances, the iron and copper. In a ſimilar arrangement, the iron, the moſt oxydable metal, in becoming oxydated in the part more immediately in contact with the copper, is ſoon deſtroyed, and detached from the latter ſubſtance. In 1795, Creve firſt ſhewed that, in every ſimple galvanic combination, water is decompoſed. The oxygen, in theſe combinations, enters into union with the metal; and the hydrogen is evolved.

The diſcoloration of a ſilver ſpoon, in the act of eating eggs, is a curious galvanic operation. Mr. Carliſle, by a very ingenious analyſis, has proved the exiſtence of ſulphur, both in the yolk and in the albumen of an egg. A tea-ſpoon left immerſed in either of theſe ſubſtances, undergoes no diſcoloration; but the above remarkable phenomenon takes place in the act of eating the egg; the bowl of the ſpoon which is moſt in the mouth, being always found to be diſcoloured. In this caſe the galvanic combination conſiſts of the ſulphurated ſolution, the ſilver tea-ſpoon, and the ſaliva. In every galvanic operation Creve has ſhewn that water is decompoſed. The naſcent hydrogen, readily uniting with the ſulphur, forms ſulphurated hydrogen gas, which produces the diſcoloration. It is this gas, evolved from our coals in the act of combuſtion, which occaſions a ſimilar tarniſh to the ſilver employed for domeſtic purpoſes.

Mr. Davy, chemical profeſſor at the royal inſtitution of London, obſerves, that charcoal poſſeſſes a ſimilar property with metals, of forming a galvanic combination with two diſſimilar fluids. Suppoſing, according to him, A and B, fig. 29, to repreſent two glaſſes, one filled with nitric acid, and the other with water: if a communication be formed, by means of an angular piece of charcoal C D, a galvanic combination will be produced. Charcoal is an exeellent conductor of electricity, and ranks next to metallic ſubſtances. It has been aſſerted, that it was firſt employed by Fontana as a conductor of galvaniſm; but the earlieſt experiment was made by Volta.

Humboldt having noticed that the Lydian ſtone is a conductor, ſuſpected it to poſſeſs that property in conſequence of a certain portion of carbon it contains. On burning it with cauſtic pot-aſh, in an open veſſel, the pot-aſh became mild, and effervеſeed with acids. A proof was thus obtained of its having acquired carbonic acid. From this obſervation we may perceive how delicate a teſt galvaniſm is, in detecting carbon in a ſubſtance in which the preſence of that prineiple was not even ſuſpected. So great, at the ſame time, is the ſenſibility of galvaniſm to good conducting media of this deſcription, that it evinces inſtantaneouſly the exiſtenee of the ſmalleſt portion of carbon. All ſubſtances which have this principle diffuſed through them, become galvanic conductors.

Some perſons have ſuppoſed galvaniſm to differ from electricity, becauſe the conducting powers of charcoal have been found to be greater for the former than for the latter principle. This is, however, far from being the caſe. Charcoal preſerves the ſame rank in the order of conductors, both for electricity and for galvaniſm. That it is found ſuperior to metals, in the deflagration of the latter ſubſtances by galvanic proceſſes, does not depend upon its conducting power, but upon its aiding principle of combuſtion.

Volta has obſerved, that various parts of animals can be excited without the aid of metals; and ſeveral ingenious methods have been propoſed by Galvani for this purpoſe. In the opuſculi of Milan, an account is given of Aldini's experiments, made in the preſence of the inſtitute of Bologna, in 1794. A prepared frog having been immerſed in a ſtrong ſolution of the muriat of ſoda, and removed from thence, the learned profeſſor held one of the extremities in his hand, and allowed the other to hang freely down. While the animal was in this poſition, he raiſed up the nerves with a glaſs rod, on ſuddenly removing which, as often as the nerves touched the muſcular parts, convulſions were produced.

Animal ſubſtances, as conductors of electricity, have their capacities proportioned to their conducting powers. No change can be induced in theſe ſubſtances, without an adequate change in their capacities. Both the muſcular fibre, and the nervous ſubſtance, in their healthy living ſtate, and connected with the ſources by which their energies are preſerved, are, with reſpect to electricity, in a preciſe balance with each other. When a portion of animal ſubſtance is detached and ſeparated, changes are induced, and decompoſitions effected. In cold-blooded animals, the proceſs being very ſlow, the muſcular fibres remain for a long time ſuſceptible to ſo pervading a ſtimulus as electricity. When the ſubſtance is immerſed in a ſolution of the muriat of ſoda, the nervous and muſcular parts ſeem not to undergo equal changes. The part which is the moſt rapidly acted on, will leave the other in a negative ſtate of electricity; and, on the communication being formed, convulſions will be produced. If the communication be made through the medium of a warm-blooded

blooded animal, ſimilar effects will enſue. A curious experiment was tried by La Grave, and related in the Memoirs of the Galvanic Society of Paris. A ſeries of galvanic combinations having been formed of brain and muſcle, cut into ſlices, and layers of hat, moiſtened in ſolution of the muriat of ſoda, evident galvanic effects were induced.

Animal ſubſtances are ſuperior conductors to thoſe which belong to the vegetable kingdom. The ſubſtances which conſtitute the intermediate link between animals and vegetables, ſuch as muſhrooms and morells, preſerve the ſame order in their conducting powers. Gehler, in his Philoſophical Dictionary, firſt remarked this curious circumſtance, which is not dependent on their humid ſtate, ſince, when they are cut and dried, they are found to be good conductors.

Valli was the firſt to notice that a ligature applied to a nerve, prevents the muſcle from being convulſed by metals. Trattori obſerved, that this is not an invariable conſequence. Valli, in his ſubſequent obſervations, diſcovered, that if the ligature be made cloſe to the inſertion of the nerve in the muſcle, it entirely impedes its movements; but if at a diſtance, the experiment ſucceeds perfectly well. However a nerve may be lacerated, if a ſmall fibre of communication be left, the convulſions will be produced. When the nerves of warm-blooded animals are applied to the nerves of cold-blooded animals, the contractions do not take place. Thus, the crural nerve of a mouſe being applied to the crural nerve of a frog, and the nerves ſeparated by about the half of a line, the contractions do not enſue. But if a nerve of the ſame frog be divided, and the parts ſeparated about a line from each other, upon completing the circuit, the contractions will take place.

After pointing out theſe ſimple galvanic combinations, it will be proper to advert to the effect of an increaſe of the ſeries of metals. Volta obſerves, that "a ſeries of this nature reſembles an electric battery, weakly charged, acting inceſſantly, and which charges itſelf after each exploſion." Inſtead of conſiſting of inſulating plates or electric ſtrata, it is armed with conductors. The firſt arrangement he terms a *couronne de taſſes*, conſiſting of glaſs tumblers, half filled with water, or ſalt and water, and forming a regular union by a ſeries of metallic arcs, as repreſented at fig. 30, in which the plates marked S, are either of ſilver or copper, and thoſe marked Z, of zinc. The arcs *a*, *a*, *a*, may be formed of any ſubſtance which is a good conductor of electricity; and the two metals in each glaſs ſhould be ſoldered to the metallic arc, in any part above the one which is immerſed in the liquid. Volta remarks, that alkaline ſolutions are employed with the beſt effect, when one of the metals is tin, and the other ſilver or copper. If zinc be ſubſtituted for tin, then ſalt-water is preferable. When thirty or forty of theſe glaſſes are arranged, one of the experimenter's hands being placed in the fluid contained in the firſt claſs, and the other hand in the laſt of the ſeries, a ſhock is experienced. As often as the circuit is completed, the ſame ſenſations recur.

Mr. Cruickſhank, chemiſt at Woolwich, has conſiderably improved the conſtruction of the Voltaic pile. This is repreſented in the Electricity Plate III. at fig. 31; where A B C D is a wooden trough formed of hard baked mahogany; about thirty inches long. Withinſide, fifty grooves are cut in the ſides and bottom, at equal diſtances from each other. Theſe grooves ſhould be of a thickneſs correſponding to the metallic plates in the Voltaic pile. The plates are cemented ſeparately in each of the grooves, ſo that the fluid will not paſs out of one cell into the other. The plates conſiſt of zinc ſoldered to copper; and in whatever direction the firſt of them is cemented into the box, all the others muſt preſerve the ſame order. Suppoſing the copper ſide of the firſt to be towards B; all the others ſhould be ſo placed in the box as to have their copper ſides towards B, and their zinc ſurfaces towards C. When they are thus arranged, the end C D is called the zinc end of the battery; and the end A B the copper end. In this ſtate the inſtrument is complete. This conſtruction poſſeſſes many advantages which the pile does not. The fluid is applied with greater facility. The apparatus is more convenient for experiments; it continues to be active conſiderably longer; and is attended with little or no trouble in cleaning. In the Voltaic pile, after it has been once uſed, the zinc ſurface of the plates becomes oxydated; inſomuch, that before they can again be uſed, they muſt be ſcraped or filed, which is a tedious and troubleſome operation. In the trough every ſucceſſive operation cleans the plates, by diſſolving the oxydated ſurface of the zinc.

Volta ſuppoſed the fluid employed to act merely as a conductor; and that the differences in fluids depend entirely on their different conducting powers. It has been ſhewn, by the experiments of Aſhe, Creve, Fabroni, and others, that the fluid acts chemically on the eaſieſt oxydable metal; and that thoſe fluids produce the moſt active effects, which influence the metallic ſubſtance the moſt powerfully. Thus acids, alkalies, neutral ſalts, &c. act more powerfully than ſimple water. Acid ſolutions are ſtill more powerful than the former. One part of nitric acid, blended with about twenty parts of water, forms a very active mixture. As this mixture evolves nitrous gas, it is injurious to reſpiration; beſides which, the nitric acid is very expenſive. Sulphuric acid, combined with water, anſwers very well, but its action is too quick. In operating on the zinc, it diſengages ſuch quantities of hydrogen gas, as to be very troubleſome, and is frequently attended with ſuch evolutions of heat, as to looſen the cement. About an ounce of the muriatic acid, or ſpirit of ſalt of the ſhops, blended with a pint of water, conſtitutes a convenient mixture, which acts tranquilly and uniformly, decompoſing the water ſo ſlowly, that the hydrogen gas which is evolved does not annoy the operater; the trough, by the employment of this acid mixture, is kept uniformly clean.

When, for any experiment, ſeveral batteries are requiſite inſtead of one, they ſhould be placed in preciſely the ſame order as if two, three, or more, batteries, were to conſtitute one trough only; obſerving, throughout the whole of the ſeries, that the zinc ſurface of one of the plates ſhould be conſtantly oppoſite to the copper ſurface of the next plate in the ſeries; and that the troughs ſhould be connected to each other by ſome metallic ſubſtance. A ſlip of copper ſheeting, about half the width of the trough, anſwers this purpoſe very well.

On the continent, the Voltaic pile ſtill continues to be employed; the advantages of Mr. Cruickſhank's trough, perhaps, not being as yet known. To render its action more permanent, Monſ. Iſam has ſubſtituted to the moiſtened cloths, ſalt juſt ſufficiently moiſtened to be formed into a layer. He obſerves, that a pile thus formed, retains its powers for a month. The quantity of metallic ſubſtance deſtroyed by the acid is very trivial; ſince it only acts when the circuit is completed. A trough, however, will, with due care, laſt ten or twelve years, if it even be employed ſeveral hours daily. The fluid, when poured in, ſhould not aſcend higher than about a fourth of an inch from the top of the plates; and when the trough is filled, it ſhould, as well as the upper ſurface of the plates, be wiped dry.

When a ſingle metal is employed, ſuch as copper, the plates are cemented in the ſame manner: in one of the cells ſimple water is introduced; and in the other a ſolution of nitric acid. This battery is by no means ſo powerful as when zinc is employed with copper, and one fluid only. So, likewiſe, if plates of gold and ſilver be ſoldered together, a ſolution of nitric acid will be found to anſwer, becauſe it will oxydate the ſilver, and not the gold. Any metallic combinations may be formed, if the fluid which is employed will act on one of the metals, and not on the other: their powers will, however, be feeble, becauſe their

their changes are trivial when compared to thofe of a combination of filver or copper with zinc. The latter of thefe metals oxydates fo readily, as to give out its combined electricity with greater facility than any other metal. In an extenfive battery, filver plates would become expenfive; and, as copper only lofes one-fifth of the power, or, in other words, as eighty plates of filver and zinc are equal in power to about 100 plates of copper and zinc, the difference is amply compenfated by the faving.

Soon after the important communication of Volta on the felf-charging power of his moto-electric apparatus, the celebrated French chemifts, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, and Thenard, fuppofing, *à priori*, that the effects would be in proportion to the metallic furfaces expofed, conftructed plates of zinc and copper about nine or ten inches in diameter. The plates which had been previoufly employed, rarely exceeded the fize of half-a-crown. As one of thefe large plates expofed a furface about forty times greater than that of the fmall plates, it was expected that the effects produced from ten fuch plates would have equalled the effects of four hundred of the fmaller ones; but, to their great furprife, they found that the fenfations were the fame, from an equal number of each; and that the extent of furface did not make any fenfible difference. The power appeared to be regulated by the number of the plates, and not to be influenced by the furfaces expofed. They were equally furprifed, when they found that a feries of ten large plates, the effects of which on the human frame could with difficulty be perceived, poffeffed a power of burning finely-drawn wires, and of deflagrating laminated metals, fuch as gold and filver leaves, equal to that of four hundred fmaller plates, the fum of whofe furfaces was equal to the furface of the larger ones. Thefe curious facts led to an important deduction, that "the influence of the galvanic fluid on the human frame, is in proportion to the feries, or number of the plates employed; while its effects on metals are in the ratio of the furfaces expofed."

In difcharging a galvanic battery, the fenfation will be in proportion to the number of plates between the points of contact. We will fuppofe the trough, A B C D, fig. 31, to conift of fixty plates. If, between B and 1, there are fifteen plates; and between 1 and 2; 2 and 3; and 3 and C, the fame number; and if one of the hands be applied at B, and the other at C, the whole force of the battery will be communicated. But if one of the hands be applied at B, and the other at 1, only one-fourth of the fhock will be felt; and it is confequently in proportion to the number of the plates between the two hands. In this way a given power of electricity is divided into any required minute portions, with an accuracy which cannot be imitated on the common electrical apparatus.

When a communication is formed between B and C, it appears, on a tranfient view, to controvert what has been already ftated, relative to the neceffity of connecting the zinc fide and the copper fide of the fame identical plate, in order to produce a difchargc; feeing that the charges of all the plates are thus communicated. Upon a little reflection, it will, however, be obvious, that this is a neceffary refult, and a powerful confirmation of the doctrine already laid down. When one of the hands is applied at B, fuppofing the latter to be what is termed the copper part of the trough, and the end C the zinc part, the hand at B is not only in contact with the copper furface of the firft plate, but, on account of the regular chain of conducting media, it is alfo connected with the copper furfaces of the other plates. In the fame way the hand at C, which touches the zinc furface of the fame plate, is, by a fimilar channel of communication, in conducting union with the zinc furfaces of all the plates towards B. Let us fuppofe the plates alone, from B to 1, to be under the galvanic action; and the cells from 1 to C to be filled with pieces of charcoal: upon forming the communication between B and C, the united powers of only fifteen plates will be tranfmitted. Now, the plates from 1 to C, in this cafe, act merely as conducting media. It is precifely the fame when all the cells are filled with an acid folution. This fluid keeps up the connection of the chain from plate to plate; and they then reciprocally act as conducting media to each other. From thefe obfervations may be perceived the neceffity of the cells being infulated in fuch a way as that the fluid cannot pafs from one to the other. If fuch a communication fhould exift, there would then be a connecting medium from the copper furface to the zinc furface of the fame plate. On this account it is neceffary that each plate fhould be well cemented in the apparatus. When a battery is carelefsly made, the appearance of the plates will evince the non-infulation of the cells. As was before obferved, the oxydifying procefs can only continue in proportion as the decompofed electricity is difengaged. Thus the plates which conftantly have a connecting and conducting medium from the copper furface to the zinc furface, are rapidly oxydated; while the other plates merely undergo changes, at each of the inftants when the circuits are completed.

In combining feveral batteries, care fhould be taken that they be nearly of equal force. If an imperfect battery be interpofed, the united power of the whole will be merely equal to the fame feries of the imperfect one. In procefles of deflagration, a battery confifting of fmall plates fhould not be ranged with a battery having large large plates, the effects of the latter being diminifhed confiderably by the former.

In difcharging the Voltaic pile, as fhewn at fig. 22, in the engraving, the whole charge goes off at once. If one hand be placed at *f*, and the other at *g*, the whole fhock is inftantly communicated. This pile Volta calls a moto-electric apparatus: its power of electrification continues as long as the pieces or difcs of cloth or pafteboard remain moift; as foon as they become dry, its power ceafes. This pile has been improved by Mr. Nicholfon, for the more obvious operation of decompofing water. It occurred to him, that if the fhock were to be tranfmitted through an interrupted circuit in water, the fact of the decompofition would be clearly afcertained. With this view he conftructed an apparatus, repreferted at fig. 23, in which A B repreferts the Voltaic pile, and C D a glafs tube filled with water, a wire proceeding from the upper part of the pile into the tube at C, and ending at *e*, while another wire paffes from the bottom of the pile through the end D towards *f*, leaving an interruption oppofite *ef*. The apparatus having been thus arranged, one of the wires was obferved rapidly to give out a gas, which, on examination, proved to be hydrogen; while the other became oxydated. When wires of gold or platina were employed, thefe being non oxydable metals, oxygen was, as well as the hydrogen gas, given out. It was invariably remarked, that the wire connected with the zinc end of the battery gave out oxygen, and the other wire hydrogen, gas; as more particularly defcribed in the experiments made by Meffrs. Carlifle and Nicholfon, mentioned above. Perhaps the arrangement repreferted as affixed to the trough, fig. 31, may be more convenient. A wire, *r*, which flides on one of the plates, fupports a brafs cup, in the center of which is a pair of brafs pincers holding a piece of gold wire; over thefe pincers a glafs tube is placed, having, at its extremity, *o*, a piece of gold wire fealed in with a glafs, which fhould not touch the wire at *p*. The tube and brafs cup being filled with water, a wire, *onm*, connected with the top of the glafs tube, joins the other end of the battery, by which means the circuit is completed, and the decompofition goes on. As the gafes are difengaged, they rife up to the top of the glafs tube, and, preffing the water into the cup, the procefs will go on till the whole of it is preffed beneath the upper wire. The operation then ceafes.

The decompofition of water by electricity, according to the mode adopted by Van Marum, is a very tedious procefs. Dr. Wollafton's method above defcribed, by

the means of very ſmall gold wires, ſucceeds in decompoſing water by the electrical machine, nearly in the ſame manner as is effected by galvaniſm. Van Marum's method is by an interrupted exploſion; while, in the caſe of Dr. Wollaſton's, the production is tranquil and progreſſive.

The decompoſition of water by the galvanic pile, is of great uſe in the elucidation of its decompoſition by electricity, which has excited ſo much the attention of philoſophers. It has appeared difficult to comprehend how an electrical exploſion ſhould effect a decompoſition of water; and, when it has been decompoſed, ſhould occaſion its re-compoſition. By the galvanic operation, we find this to be occaſioned by the paſſage of a conſtant current of a ſmall intenſity of electricity, paſſing through an imperfectly conducting medium. The reſiſtance it meets with occaſions the ſeparation of the conſtituent parts of the water, the actual ſubſtance of which is pervaded by this ſubtile principle, which thus breaks the bond of union of its conſtituent parts. When theſe gaſes are inflamed by the electric ſpark, it is not the electricity which directly occaſions the exploſion; it being produced by the caloric elicited from other ſubſtances, by the interrupted paſſage of the electric fluid.

It is a curious and remarkable fact, that inflammable fluids, ſuch as oil, alcohol, &c. cannot be decompoſed by the galvanic proceſs, unleſs by the medium of the paſſage of a ſpark. Thus, in the preceding engraving, at fig. 32, let us ſuppoſe C D to repreſent a glaſs veſſel half filled with alcohol; let A B be two pieces of well-prepared charcoal, one of them connected, by means of a wire, with the zinc end of a powerful battery, and the other piece joined in the ſame way to the copper extremity. As often as the ends E F, which are immerſed in the alcohol, are brought into contact, a brilliant ſpark is produced, and bubbles of air are given out. Upon continuing the proceſs, provided the battery be very powerful, the ſpirits will almoſt boil. The air, which is rapidly diſengaged, when collected in a receiver, proves to conſiſt of carbonic acid gas, and hydro-carbonat gas. As alcohol is compoſed of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, at the inſtant of decompoſition new combinations take place. The naſcent hydrogen, uniting with the carbon, conſtitutes the hydro-carbonat; and the remaining portion of carbon, blended with the oxygen, forms the carbonic acid. The ſame reſults follow the decompoſition of oil.

The decompoſition of water by galvaniſm is governed by the laws which apply to animal ſubſtances. The rapidity of the decompoſition is in proportion to the number of the plates, and not to the ſurface; till we reach the limits particularized in ſpeaking of the influence of ſmall plates. In the battery of ſix hundred ſmall plates before deſcribed, the decompoſition is by no means equal to a battery of ſixty plates each of which has a ſurface of four inches.

We are told that it was with the celebrated electrical apparatus at Haerlem, made by Mr. Cuthbertſon, that the beautiful metallic oxyds were firſt ſtruck upon paper, each of the metals having produced its peculiar characteriſtic tint. The mode of performing theſe curious experiments is repreſented in the Electricity Plate III. fig. 33. A B is a plate electrical machine, on the ſame principle with that in the Teylerian muſeum at Haerlem; C D a battery expoſing a coated ſurface of about eighteen feet; and G H a fine metallic wire, ſecured by pins in ſuch a way as to be raiſed from the paper about one-eighth of an inch. The frame of wires is connected with the battery by means of the chain F. Upon diſcharging the battery by the rod E, the wire explodes, and is diſſipated in the air. Having been diſperſed in every direction, a portion of it ſtrikes on the paper, on which it impreſſes beautiful rays. Gold wire gives a purple tint, copper a bright green, tin a greeniſh yellow, lead a pale green, &c.

A powerful charge of electricity oxydates a conſiderable length of metallic wire; while galvaniſm acts on ſucceſſive portions of the metal, whenever it is excited by a conducting medium. Electricity produces all its effects by one ſudden and violent diſcharge; while galvaniſm operates by its continual current. It is on this account, that the ſenſations produced by their diverſe actions, are materially different. The electric ſhock, from a very ſmall jar, operates on the body by a ſudden and percuſſive effect; while the one which follows the galvanic proceſs ſeems to ariſe from a conſtant current, attended by a jarring and tremulous ſenſation.

All finely-drawn metallic wires are rapidly burnt by means of a large galvanic battery, the powers of which are in general aſcertainable by the extent of fine ſteel wires, ſuch as the pendulum ſprings of watches, which the battery will inſtantly render red-hot. This conſtitutes the moſt correct *galvanometer*; while the other, on which we have already touched, ought to be termed a *galvaniſcope*. A powerful battery will induce a red heat on ſeveral inches of the above ſteel wire.

To deflagrate finely laminated metals, good charcoal is the beſt medium which can be employed. As the ſubſtance of the metallic leaves, when laminated, is much thinner than that of any wires which can be drawn, the deflagrations are more brilliant, and the light extremely vivid. Gold leaf, having the thickneſs of the 1-282,000th part of an inch only, is not merely deflagrated, but is likewiſe completely oxydated, and reduced to a purple powder. Silver leaf, which is thicker than gold leaf in the proportion of ſeven to four, is likewiſe converted into an oxyd, and exhibits a beautiful greeniſh light. We thus ſee that, by the powers of galvanic electricity, two metals which reſiſt the utmoſt force of our furnaces, are rapidly oxydated.

Copper leaf has a thickneſs nearly five times greater than that of gold leaf. In its deflagration, red ignited particles of copper are detached, on this account, that copper requiring a very high temperature before it fuſes, the ignition takes place firſt. The copper, before it melts, is conſtantly red-hot, which is not the caſe with tin, lead, &c. The Dutch ſilver leaf, a compoſition of tin and zinc, about ten times as thick as gold leaf, is deflagrated with rapidity. Tin-foil, which is alſo a compoſition of tin and zinc, is about three hundred times thicker than gold leaf. Narrow ſlips of this ſubſtance are alſo eaſily deflagrated. In ſhort, all metals, if in a due ſtate of tenuity, are capable of being deflagrated.

In a medical view, galvanic electricity certainly merits our attention beyond any mere philoſophical reſearch; inaſmuch as its peculiar excitation of the animal functions, offers an inſtantaneous and powerful ſtimulus in many caſes, where other means cannot be ſo readily applied. In the preſent ſtate of our knowledge of the principles of galvaniſm, it has not been aſcertained whether any particular corporeal derangements are the cauſes or effects of a change in the reſpective capacities of the diſeaſed parts for electricity. The aſcertainment of this point would be a conſiderable deſideratum in medicine. The action of galvaniſm on the muſcular and nervous ſyſtems, is found to be more violent, in proportion to its intenſity, than that of common electricity. The charge of a galvanic battery, ſo feeble as not to be able to diſturb a gold-leaf electroſcope, when propelled through the head, is ſaid to produce a ſtronger ſenſation than the one which is experienced from one hundred times the ſame intenſity, produced by a Leyden phial.

In an age like the preſent, when a ſlow and progreſſive progreſs in the ſciences is too apt to be conſidered as a ſtationary ſtate; in an age, in ſhort, when a deſire ſeems manifeſted to collect the fruits before the flowers are formed, the experiments which have, from the moment they were conceived and made, promiſed a ſpeedy and immediate application to the healing art, cannot have failed to attract the particular attention of the public, by whom ſuch an application was in a manner an-

ticipated. It is thus that galvaniſm has been occaſionally recommended as the criterion of death, and at other times as a powerful and ſalutary ſtimulus in the diſeaſes of the nerves. But, when an idea was in the firſt inſtance formed of the electric fluid and its properties, was it not immediately thought, that, in its action on the human body, it would ſupply a remedy for all the diſeaſes to which it is ſubject? In the ſame way, after having noticed the galvanic phenomena, it has been ridiculouſly imagined that two pieces of metal, employed in a particular way, would, as it were by enchantment, recall to life thoſe who have periſhed by aſphyxy, reſtore ſight to the blind, re-eſtabliſh, in all caſes of paralyſis, the uſe of the limbs; and, in a word, produce more ſalutary effects than the faculty have been enabled to obtain, from the multitude of chemical, mechanical, and other, remedies, which have been employed for ſo many ages. Such was the ſhort-lived deluſion of *metallic tractors*.

Dr. Grapengieſſer, in his late celebrated work on Medical Electricity, publiſhed at Berlin, recommends galvaniſm in the following caſes: 1. In palſies of the extremities, occaſioned by the debility or ceſſation of the nervous action, and in thoſe even which have been primarily determined by other cauſes, ſuch as the compreſſion of the brain, the repercuſſion of an exanthematic affection, or a rheumatic affection, when theſe cauſes have been advantageouſly combated by the uſual means. 2. Galvaniſm is indicated in caſes of a debility of ſight, and in the gutta ſerena, when theſe complaints are ſolely aſcribable to a want of excitability in the optic nerve. 3. It is calculated for deafneſs ariſing from a nervous debility, and for particular buzzings in the ears. In the caſe of deafneſs, the cauſe is ſometimes very difficult to aſcertain; but is invariably of the utmoſt importance. With reſpect to the latter ſymptom, when it ariſes, as frequently happens, from the galvanic application, it is not attended by any particular inconvenience, when it ceaſes with the operation itſelf. But when it continues for ſeveral hours after, it is a bad omen. In ſome caſes this application produces in the ears a ſenſation of ſound ſimilar to that of boiling water; to that of the whiſtling of the winds; of the ringing of bells; or of the loud chirping of birds. 4. Galvaniſm appears to be calculated for the treatment of hoarſeneſs, and for that of aphony ariſing from a defect of nervous action. Should theſe ſymptoms follow an inflammation, or ſupervene after the fatigue occaſioned either by ſinging or by crying, it will ſuffice to make the application of the battery, or even of the ſimple apparatus, to the moiſtened ſkin. But if they ſhould appear to be the reſult, either of catarrhal, exanthematous, rheumatic, arthritic, or venereal, affections, the preferable mode would be, to apply the moſt ſimple apparatus to the wounds of veſicatories. It is true that this apparatus acts leſs forcibly; but it has this advantage, which is eſſential in the above-cited caſes, that the patient will be enabled to bear its action much longer. This author alſo apprehends that galvaniſm may likewiſe be ſucceſsfully employed, as a reſolutive, in certain chronical caſes of ſciatica; in the white ſwellings of the joints; in tumors of the glands of the neck; and in incipient caſes of meliceris and atheroma. He obſerves that he derived ſome advantage from it, in a caſe of metaſtaſis, accompanied by inflammation, at the articulations of the elbow and thigh; but that he conſiders galvaniſm, which is in all caſes a powerful ſtimulant of the vital forces, to be principally a powerful mean to be employed, as an auxiliary at the leaſt, in the treatment of many of the diſeaſes of the nervous ſyſtem. Independently of its ſtimulating action, when it is applied over veſicatories, it operates as a powerful derivative.

Valuable, however, as the galvanic influence may appear to be as an auxiliary to medicine, and *ſafe* as may be its application in judicious hands; yet being unqueſtionably the very ſame agent as that which operates in medical electricity, the ſame caution, and perhaps a greater, becomes neceſſary in the uſe of it, ſeeing that its force upon the animal economy is ſuppoſed to be more powerful, and its intenſity greater on the vital organs. As it is admitted on all hands, that an injudicious treatment of the patient by common electricity is extremely dangerous, ſo it follows that the application of the electric fluid from the Voltaic pile can never be ſafe, unleſs directed by perſons of ſkill and knowledge in medical ſcience.

An account is given by Mr. Sprenger, of Jena, of his method of adminiſtering galvaniſm in caſes of deafneſs. A ſmall ball is applied to the external orifice of the ear, and a much larger one is held in the patient's hand. The communication is then formed and interrupted alternately, by the means of machinery, once in every ſecond, for about four minutes daily, for a fortnight or more. He aſſerts, that he has thus reſtored the ſenſe of hearing to forty-five perſons, and to four of them that of ſmelling alſo. Thoſe who were completely deaf experienced relief, with ſcarcely any exception; but a partial deafneſs did not appear to receive the ſame benefit.

Several curious experiments on the treatment of diſeaſes by galvanic electricity, have been recently made by the members of the ſchool of medicine in Paris. The following is a brief ſtatement of the one which appears to be moſt intereſting. The firſt conſideration was the application of the effects of the pile of Volta to the animal economy; and the concluſions which were drawn were to this effect: 1. That, in the employment of the above pile, the galvanic influence penetrates and affects the nervous and muſcular organs, more profoundly than the common apparatus, the latter being calculated by the cuſtomary meaſure of medical electricity. 2. That the effects of the pile produce powerful contractions, and ſtrong ſenſations of pricking and burning, in parts which are, by their diſeaſed ſtate, rendered inſenſible to ſparks, and even to electrical ſhocks. 3. That the duration of this action is ſuch, as to warrant a hope that an efficacious excitement, capable of being ſucceſsfully employed in the treatment of caſes of paralyſis, may be found in the Voltaic pile.

In the application of this apparatus it was likewiſe obſerved, that the effects produced appeared to be proportionate to the extent of the points of contact; inſomuch that the moſt powerful excitation enſued, when the commotion was effected by the meeting of the conductors emanating from the galvanic pile, with metallic conductors fixed on the diſeaſed part, the contact being of a greater or leſs extent.

The experiment above alluded to was made under the immediate direction of M. Halle. A patient, the whole of whoſe muſcles on the left ſide of the face were in a palſied ſtate, in conſequence of a fluxion brought on by the action of cold, had been electrified ſeveral times, but felt neither ſenſation nor contraction when the ſpark was directed to the affected part. Indeed, he was ſcarcely ſenſible of a ſlight contraction in the great zygomatic muſcle, when the application of the electricity was made by commotion. This individual was ſubjected to the galvanic action of a pile conſtructed with fifty metallic plates; and a communication was eſtabliſhed between different points of the diſeaſed cheek and the two extremities of the pile, by means of metallic chains and exciters. At the inſtant of contact, all the muſcles of the face became contracted. The patient felt not only a pain, but a very diſagreeable ſenſation of heat. The eye was convulſed; the tears flowed involuntarily; and a pain and ſwelling enſued at the different points which had been touched. Occaſional applications of the galvanic influence for about ſix months, effected a cure.

Vaſſalli-Eandi, in his Report on the Action of Galvaniſm, and on the Application of this Fluid, and of Electricity, to Medicine, has the following remarks: "I conſider galvaniſm as a modification of electricity; a modification which renders this fluid more active; as the ſmall

ſmall flame ſeparated by the blow-pipe is far more ardent than the large one from which it is taken. I have read to the academy of Turin ſeveral experiments, which ſeem to ſupport this compariſon between electricity and galvaniſm. Animals which were only ſtunned by the ſtrongeſt ſparks from a magic picture, were killed in leſs than three minutes by a very weak degree of galvaniſm. The fluid of a pile compoſed of twenty-five plates of ſilver and zinc, of the ſize of a crown piece, intermixed with pieces of paſteboard moiſtened in water ſaturated with muriat of ammonia, oxydates the metals in decompoſing the water, while it is ſcarcely ſenſible in the fingers, and gives only ſmall ſparks. The brilliant electric ſparks which excite in our bodies a ſtrong ſenſation of pricking, neither oxydate the metals, nor decompoſe the water, if they do not communicate a ſhock. Having made the galvanic current to paſs through the body of a frog, its fluids were decompoſed, and I ſaw it ſwell up ſo much, that it could no longer plunge into the water, though poſſeſſed of great vitality, which I never obſerved to be the caſe in frogs when tormented by ſtrong electric ſparks. All theſe facts, to which many more of a ſimilar kind might be added, confirm the great activity of galvaniſm when compared with electricity. Hence it reſults, that the electric fluid of the Voltaic pile may be very uſeful in caſes in which common electricity would not have ſufficient activity.

Mr. C. H. Wilkinſon, in his Elements of Galvaniſm, publiſhed in 1804, gives the following details, as reſulting from his medical practice of galvanic electricity: "When paralytic affections ariſe from organic defect, as in caſes of palſy of the lower extremities, from diſeaſed ſpine, no good effects can be expected to reſult from the application of galvaniſm. In caſes of hemiplegia, or palſy on one ſide, ariſing from the preſſure of extravaſated fluid in or upon the brain, the ſtimulus of galvaniſm would, it appears to me, be injurious, in conſequence of its action increaſing the extravaſation. In one caſe, of a perſon about the age of thirty, of a full plethoric temperament, who ſuffered the loſs of the uſe of one of the ſides, from an apoplectic attack, I applied gentle ſhocks of galvaniſm through the ſide of the brain oppoſite to the affected part of the body. Upon the third day, a conſiderable giddineſs took place; and the veſſels of the eyes became turgid. I immediately diſcontinued the application, and in a few days theſe unfavourable ſymptoms diſappeared.

"Theſe caſes are but few in number, when compared with thoſe which ariſe from a defective energy in the brain itſelf. In theſe latter inſtances galvaniſm has often proved of very conſiderable advantage. By the means of galvaniſm, I have never ſucceeded in perfectly reſtoring the patient to his original ſenſibility; but have, in many inſtances, conſiderably aſſiſted the powers of motion. Very ſoon after the application of galvaniſm, an areolous redneſs is perceived; and, if it be perſevered in too long, veſications and ſubſequent ulcerations are produced. Theſe ſymptoms, which are a little troubleſome for the moment, do not require any particular treatment in their cure. The part of the body to which the conducting wire from the copper ſide of the battery is applied, is always the moſt powerfully acted on; and, if the conducting wires be kept in contact with the metallic leaves, for the ſpace even of half a minute, without being removed, the one from the copper ſide will produce an acute pricking ſenſation, very much reſembling the bite of a leech.

"In ſome caſes, attention ought to be paid to this difference between the ends of the battery. When it is wiſhed to act on one part of the body more powerfully than on the other, the conducting wire from the copper end ſhould be placed on that particular part. This difference in power correſponds with the effects experienced from the charged Leyden jar, in the caſe of which the part of the body connected with the negative ſide of the jar is more powerfully acted on than the part connected with the poſitive ſide. In recent caſes of hemiplegia, very good effects are ſoon perceived. After a few applications, a ſenſation of returning warmth is felt; and the action of the muſcles of the arm reſtored, as often as the circuit is completed. The effects of this principle, when it is applied to the human body, are not ſo painful as thoſe of electricity, notwithſtanding its actions are more powerful. By preventing the muſcles from remaining conſtantly in a ſtate of torpid inactivity, the loſs of ſubſtance which would otherwiſe take place is guarded againſt.

"From the reports of the foreign practitioners, it would appear that galvaniſm is a ſpecific in caſes of *deafneſs*. Its ſucceſs, in theſe caſes, ſeems to depend on the cauſe which occaſions the defect of hearing. In that of perſons born deaf, and neceſſarily dumb, it ſeems to ariſe from the diſeaſed ſtate of the ſemicircular canals, which, inſtead of being filled with a fluid capable of tranſmitting impreſſions, contain an inelaſtic caſeous-like ſubſtance. Under theſe circumſtances, no good effect can be expected to be derived from galvaniſm. It is fortunately in the particular ſpecies of deafneſs which can rarely be relieved by any other means, that galvaniſm is moſt advantageouſly employed, namely, in a defective energy of the auditory nerve. This ſpecies of deafneſs is aſcertainable by the common practice of placing a ſonorous body in contact with the teeth. If the communication of ſound ſhould not be thus rendered more diſtinct, we may conclude that the defect originates in the nerve; ſeeing that, provided the deafneſs had been owing to any derangement of the other parts of the ear, the ſound, tranſmitted by the medium of the teeth, through the connecting bony ſubſtance, to the ſeat of hearing, would have been diſtinctly perceived. When one ear only is affected, it is not neceſſary to introduce the apparatus into the meatus of the other. In theſe caſes I have directed its paſſage through the affected ear, and to the hand on the other ſide. This is conveniently done by immerſing the hand in a glaſs of water, in which the conducting wire is placed.

"In involuntary actions of the muſcles, I know of no remedy ſo efficacious as galvaniſm. In a contracted ſtate of the fingers, or hands, however violently the latter may be clenched, on the application of this principle for the ſpace of a few minutes, it rarely fails to induce a relaxation. In caſes of cramp, if of long continuance, and even of tetanus, or locked jaw, it has afforded relief in a ſhort ſpace of time. In contractions of the joints, and in all caſes of rigidity, it is found a very advantageous ſtimulus, which will greatly contribute to the reſtoration of motion. In the ſtiffneſs of the joints, occaſioned by the gout, it has come under my obſervation that the ſtimulus of galvaniſm, conjointly with the fleſh-bruſh, has been attended by the happieſt effects.

"Perhaps in no caſe are the advantages of galvaniſm more ſenſibly experienced, than in indolent tumors, or ſcrophulous ſwellings, which have long remained ſtationary. By the influence of this principle, tumors of this kind have in a few days been brought either into a ſtate of ſuppuration or reſolution. Many ſwellings are of ſuch a nature, that their removal by either of theſe means is deſirable. I have frequently applied the galvanic principle with the utmoſt ſucceſs in inguinal tumors, which had reſiſted every other curative intention. The obtuſe aching ſenſation, generally attendant on theſe indolent tumors, is very ſpeedily removed. In ſcrophulous affections of the neck, it has been found very beneficial.

"When the extraordinary influence of the principle of galvaniſm, on the muſcular fibres of dead animals, was firſt obſerved, it was natural to expect that great advantages would reſult from its employment in thoſe particular caſes in which life is not extinguiſhed, but its influence on the animal organization merely ſuſpended. The divided part of an animal, when cut off from the ſources which might be deemed abſolutely requiſite to the ſupport

port of its living energies, ſtill evinces manifeſt ſigns of the exiſtence of a vital principle, when rouſed into action of galvaniſm. Thus the muſcular contractions induced by the influence of a ſmall portion of electricity, were ſtrongly manifeſted in the experiment on the frog, which led Galvani to his important diſcovery. Though the frog, in Galvani's experiment, was at a diſtance from the machine, and not at all connected with it, yet as often as the muſcles were touched with the diſſecting knife, upon a ſpark being drawn from the prime conductor of the electrical machine, the muſcles of the frog were ſet in motion. But Mr. Wilkinſon has placed this fact in a ſtronger point of view, by a very curious experiment on an ox's head, which was thrown into convulſive motions by the influence of ſix galvanic batteries. 'When the head is warm, and has not been long ſeparated from the body of the animal, (ſays this writer,) the convulſive actions are very conſiderable. The eyes open ſpontaneouſly, and the pupils become dilated. The ears and horns move with a conſiderable force; and when the tongue is drawn out, and even ſecured to the table by perforating it with an iron ſkewer which is made to penetrate into the wood more than half an inch, I have frequently obſerved a retraction of that organ, ſo powerful as to detach the ſkewer from the table, and to throw it up into the air, to the diſtance of nearly a yard. When I ſubjected an entire ſheep to the galvanic influence, the motions reſembled the convulſive ſtruggles of animals in an epileptic ſtate, and were much more powerful than the natural actions. The horſes recently killed, which I likewiſe galvanized, required two perſons to reſtrain the motions of each of the legs.'

"When life is merely *ſuſpended*, and the principle of irritability *not deſtroyed*, the ſtimulus of galvaniſm, prudently employed, may rouſe the dormant energies of vitality, and reſtore the ſyſtem to its active ſtate. Fortunately, in moſt caſes of aſphyxia, the principle of irritability is not in any degree leſſened. An animal, whether drowned in water or in hydrogen gas, exhibits nearly the ſame ſymptoms. When expoſed to either of theſe media, the pulſe ſoon becomes weak and frequent; the animal feels at the breaſt an anxiety which it ſtruggles to relieve; and theſe difficulties increaſe until it falls down without ſenſe or motion.

"In caſes of ſuſpended animation, whether from drowning, ſtrangling, or expoſure to noxious gaſes, the body ſhould be diveſted of its clothing, and placed in a warm bed, nearly approaching to the natural temperature. If it can be procured, air, with an increaſed proportion of oxygen, ſhould be introduced into the lungs; and, at the ſame inſtant, very gentle galvanic ſhocks ſhould be paſſed through the body, in ſuch a direction as to influence the heart. By combining this principle with the other uſual means, the moſt advantageous effects may be expected. In the caſe of Forſter, a condemned criminal, five or ſix hours after his execution, ſuch motions were produced by the galvanic apparatus, as to lead the practitioners who were preſent, to ſuppoſe that, at this late period, even a recovery might, by perſeverance, have poſſibly enſued. The general idea that, in caſes of hanging, the vertebræ are diſlocated, is erroneous. Very few inſtances have occurred of any organic derangement; inſomuch, that whether the death be occaſioned by hanging or drowning, the cauſe is merely ſuffocation.

"I have conſtantly entertained a perſuaſion, that complete death takes place from the arteries being emptied of their contents. In the laſt convulſive agonies, thoſe arterial terminations, which do not admit the paſſage of red blood, having loſt their reſiſting power, ſuffer the whole of the blood to be emptied into the venous ſyſtem. In this way the energy of every part of the body is deſtroyed."

Galvanic experiments were very lately made by Mr. Carpue, in the preſence of Dr. Pearſon, and other medical gentlemen, on the body of Michael Carney, a criminal, executed for murder. The principal object was to aſcertain whether galvaniſm, applied immediately to the nerves, could excite action in the internal parts, and particularly thoſe ſubſervient to *reſpiration*. With this view an opening was firſt made into the windpipe, and about three pints of oxygen gas thrown into the lungs; the phrenic nerve was then expoſed to conductors applied to it, and to the inſide of the rectum, the lungs being at the ſame time occaſionally inflated; *yet no action could be excited in the diaphragm*: the nerves do not ſeem to be conductors of the galvanic fluid. Conductors applied to the inſide of the rectum and noſtrils, excited very conſiderable contractions in the right auricle, more than three hours after death; *yet the ventricles were perfectly motionleſs*. Theſe experiments were conducted with perfect accuracy and ſcience; but no new fact appears to have been aſcertained, favourable to the ſtimulus of the reſpirable organ. This reſult ſeems therefore to manifeſt one general and ſerious fact—namely, that when the functions of animal life are annihilated, the active powers and influences of nature, aided even by the moſt ingenious artifice of man, are incompetent to reſtore the action of the lungs, or what is termed *reſpiration*. This experiment indiſputably proves, that how much ſoever electricity might agitate and diſturb *dead matter*, it has no power whatever in the revivification of human life.

ELEC'TRIDES, in ancient geography, iſlands in the Adriatic ſea, which received their name from the quantity of amber (*electrum*) which they produced. They were at the mouth of the Po, according to Apollonius of Rhodes: but ſome hiſtorians doubt of their exiſtence. *Plin. Mela.*

ELECTRI'FEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *electrum*, amber, and *fero*, to bear.] Bearing amber, producing amber.

ELEC'TRINE, *adj.* [from *electrum*, Lat.] Belonging to amber.

ELECTRO'METER, *ſ.* An inſtrument for meaſuring or aſcertaining the ſtrength or intenſity of the electric fluid, whether accumulated by an electrical machine, or generated ſpontaneouſly in the atmoſphere, &c. See the preceding article ELECTRICITY, p. 414–419.

ELECTRO'PHORUS, *ſ.* The moſt ſimple, yet by ſome called *perpetual*, electrical machine. See ELECTRICITY, p. 417.

ELEC'TROSCOPE, *ſ.* An inſtrument conſtructed of very delicate materials, ſo as to be influenced by the ſmalleſt portions of electricity; for inſtance, of fine flaxen or ſilver threads, with or without pith-balls, as invented by Mr. Canton; or ſlips of gold leaf, as firſt contrived by Mr. Bennett. Theſe inſtruments have uſually been termed *electrometers*, but improperly, becauſe they are by no means calculated to meaſure intenſe electricity. They merely ſhew, by their eaſy diſturbance, the preſence of ſmall portions of electricity; as is implied by the word *electroſcope*. For the adoption of this diſtinctive term in electricity, we are indebted to Beccaria.

ELEC'TRUM, *ſ.* [from ἥλεκτος, Gr. the ſun, becauſe of its bright ſhining colour, or from ἕλκω, to draw, becauſe of its magnetic power.] Medical name of amber.

ELEC'TRYON, a king of Argos, ſon of Perſeus and Andromeda. He was brother to Alcæus, and father to Alcmene. He ſent his ſons againſt the Teleboans, who had ravaged his country, and they were all killed except Lycimnius. Upon this, Electryon promiſed his crown and daughter in marriage to him who could undertake to puniſh the Teleboans for the death of his ſons. Amphitryon offered himſelf and ſucceeded. Electryon inadvertently periſhed by the hand of his ſon-in-law. *Apollod.*

ELEC'TUARY, *ſ.* [*electarium*, Lat. *Cælus Aurel.* which is now written *electuary*.] A form of medicine made of conſerves and powders, in the conſiſtence of honey—*Electuaries* made up with honey or ſyrup, when the conſiſtence is too thin, ferment; and when too thick, candy. By both which the ingredients will be altered or impair-

ed. *Quincy.*—We meet with divers *electuaries*, which have no ingredient, except ſugar, common to any two of them. *Boyle.* See PHARMACY.

ELEEMO'SYNA CARUCARUM, or *pro aratris*, or *aratri*, *ſ.* in our ancient cuſtoms, a penny which king Ethelred ordered to be paid for every plough in England, towards the ſupport of the poor. Sometimes it is alſo called *eleemoſyna regis*, becauſe firſt appointed by the king.

ELEEMOSYNA'RIUS, *ſ.* The almoner or officer who received the eleemoſynary gifts and rents, and diſpoſed of them to charitable and pious uſes.

ELEEMO'SYNARY, *adj.* [ελεημοσυνη, Gr.] Living upon alms; depending upon charity. *Not uſed.* Relative to charitable donations.—Which your majeſty muſt entertain in the higheſt degree for thoſe great perſonages, whoſe reſpectable names ſtand upon your *eleemoſynary* liſt. *Cheſterfield.*—The *eleemoſynary* ſort (of corporations) are ſuch as are conſtituted for the perpetual diſtribution of free alms. *Blackſtone.*

ELEEMO'SYNARY, *ſ.* A place in a monaſtery, where the oommon alms were laid up; alſo the almoner's office, to which peculiar rents were allowed.

E'LEGANCE, or ELEGANCY, *ſ.* [*elegantia*, Lat.] Beauty rather ſoothing than ſtriking; beauty without grandeur; the beauty of propriety, not of greatneſs.—St. Auguſtine, out of a kind of *elegancy* in writing, makes ſome difference. *Raleigh.*—Any thing that pleaſes by its nicety. In this ſenſe it has a plural.—My compoſitions in gardening are altogether Pindarick, and run into the beautiful wildneſs of nature, without the nicer *elegancies* of art. *Spectator.*

E'LEGANT, *adj.* [*elegans*, Lat.] Pleaſing by minuter beauties.—Trifles themſelves are *elegant* in him. *Pope.*—There may'ſt thou find ſome *elegant* retreat. *London.*—Nice; not coarſe; not groſs.—Polite with candour; *elegant* with eaſe. *Pope.*

E'LEGANTLY, *adv.* In ſuch a manner as to pleaſe.—Now read with them thoſe organic arts which enable men to diſcourſe and write perſpicuouſly, *elegantly*, and according to the fitteſt ſtile of lofty, mean, or lowly. *Milton.*

In a poem *elegantly* writ,
I will not quarrel with a ſlight miſtake. *Roſcommon.*

Neatly; nicely; with minute beauty; with pleaſing propriety.—Whoever would write *elegantly*, muſt have regard to the different turn and juncture of every period: there muſt be proper diſtances and pauſes. *Pope.*

ELE'GIA, *ſ.* [ελεγεια, Gr. are elegiac verſes, from ελεγος, mourning: but what has that to do with this plant?] In botany, a genus of the claſs dioecia, order triandria, natural order calamariæ, (junci, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: ſpathes within ſpathes, remote, one-valved, coriaceous, lanceolate, deciduous; ſpadix filiform, jointed, with an ament at each joint; ament looſe, with pedicelled florets, diſtinguiſhed by a bracte; bracte briſtle-ſhaped, membranaceous, flat, longer than the florets; perianthium proper, of ſix, briſtle-ſhaped, chaffy, looſe, leaflets. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments three, very ſhort; antheræ incumbent, oval, larger than the perianthium. II. Female, on a diſtinct individual. Calyx, ſpathe as in the male, but ſhorter; ſpadix as in the male; ament with a compound raceme; perianthium proper, ſix-leaved; valves, the three outer lanceolate, channelled, petaloid, equal; corolla, none; piſtillum, germ ſomewhat oblong; ſtyles three, filiform, the length of the perianthium; ſtigmas ſimple.

Elegia, firſt diſtinguiſhed by Linnæus from the genus reſtio, and afterwards immerſed in it by him, is ſettled by Thunberg to be diſtinct from reſtio, in a diſſertation on that genus. There is, however, but one ſpecies, Elegia juncea: it is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and has the habit of a ruſh; the ſtems are ſeveral, about a foot high, round, ſmooth, filled, as it were, like thoſe of a ruſh; hard, ſtrong, very ſimple, ſcarcely ſo thick as a quill, with a ſimple joint. There are ſcarcely any leaves, but two or three leafy ſheaths towards the root, imbricated over each other, and of a brown colour; there is alſo a rudiment of a ſimilar ſheath towards the middle of the ſtem; the ſpathe is terminal, and divided into other interior ones, which are alſo compound; the parts of fructification are not very eaſily made out, but are moſt clear in the female flowers.

ELEGI'AC, *adj.* [*elegiacus*, Lat.] Uſed in elegies. Pertaining to elegies. Mournful; ſorrowful:

Let *elegiac* lay the woe relate,
Soft as the breath of diſtant flutes. *Gay.*

ELEGIAM'BIC, *adj.* A ſort of verſe uſed in Horace's Epodes.

ELEGIO'GRAPHER, *ſ.* [*elegiographus*, Lat. ελεγειογραφος, of ελεγεια, and γραφω, Gr. to write.] A writer of elegies.

ELE'GIT, *ſ.* [from the words in the writ, *elegit ſibi liberari*, Lat.] A writ of execution founded on the ſtat. Will. II. c. 13. Edw. I. c. 18. that lies for him who hath recovered debt or damages, or upon a recognizance in any court againſt one not able in his goods to ſatisfy the ſame; directed to the ſheriff, commanding him to make delivery of a moiety of the party's land, and all his goods, beaſts of the plough excepted. And the creditor ſhall hold the ſaid moiety of the land ſo delivered unto him, until his whole debt and damages are paid and ſatisfied; and, during that term, he is tenant by elegit. *Co. Lit.* 289.

Upon an elegit, the ſheriff is to deliver one half of all houſes, lands, meadows, and paſtures, rents, reverſions, and hereditaments, wherein the defendant had any ſole eſtate in fee, or for life, into whoſe hands ſoever the ſame do afterwards come; but not of a right only to land, an annuity, copyhold lands, &c. *Plowd.* 224. And by it the plaintiff, &c. elects *omnia bona & catalla* of the defendant, *præter boves & aſros de caruca ſua*; and alſo a moiety of all the lands which the defendant had at the time of the judgment recovered; but it ought to be ſued within a year and a day after the judgment. *F. N. B.* 267. But though by this ſtatute the lands of the debtor are made liable, as well as his perſonal eſtate, yet if the creditor takes out an elegit, and it appears to the ſheriff that there are goods and chattels ſufficient of the debtor's to ſatisfy the debt, he ought not to extend the lands. 2 *Inſt.* 395. But an elegit executed upon goods only, is not a *fieri facias*, for a *fieri facias* is executed by ſale by the ſheriff; but the elegit by the appraiſement of the goods by a jury, and delivery to the party. 1 *Lev.* 92.

Upon this writ the ſheriff is to impanel a jury, who are to make enquiry of all the goods and chattels of the debtor, and to appraiſe the ſame, and alſo to enquire as to his lands and tenements; and, upon ſuch inquiſition, the ſheriff is to deliver all the goods and chattels, (except the beaſts of the plough,) and a moiety of the lands, to the party, and muſt return his writ, in order to record ſuch inquiſition in that court, out of which the elegit iſſued; and, when the jury have found the ſeiſin and value of the land, the ſheriff, and not the jury, is to ſet out and deliver a moiety thereof to the plaintiff, by metes and bounds. *Cro. Car.* 319.

All writs of execution may be good, though not returned, except an elegit; but that muſt be returned, becauſe an inquiſition is to be taken upon it, and that the court may judge of the ſufficiency thereof. 4 *Rep.* 65. It has been ruled, that if more than a moiety of the lands is delivered on an elegit by the ſheriff, the ſame is void for the whole. 2 *Salk.* 563. And the ſheriff cannot ſell any thing, but what is found in the inquiſition; and, therefore, if he ſell a term for years, &c. miſ-recited in the inquiſition, as to the commencement thereof, the ſale is void. 4 *Rep.* 74.

In debt upon bond, the defendant before the trial conveyed his lands to another, &c. but he himself took the profits; notwithstanding this conveyance, a moiety of his lands was extended on an elegit. *Dyer*, 294. If two persons have each of them a judgment against one debtor, and he who hath the first judgment brings an elegit, and hath the moiety of the lands delivered to him in execution, and then the other judgment creditor sues out another elegit, he shall have only a moiety of that moiety which was not extended by the first judgment. *Cro. Eliz.* 483. When lands are once taken in execution on an elegit, and the writ is returned and filed, the plaintiff shall have no other execution. 1 *Lev.* 92. And if the defendant hath lands in more counties than one, and the plaintiff awards an elegit to one county, and extends the lands upon the elegit, and afterwards files the writ, he cannot, after that, sue out an elegit into the other counties; but he may immediately after entry of the judgment upon the judgment-roll, award as many elegits into as many counties as he thinks fit, and execute all, or any of them, at his pleasure. 1 *Lil. Abr.* 509.

E'LEGY, *s.* [*elegus*, Lat.] A mournful song.—He hangs odes upon hawthorns, and *elegies* upon brambles, all forsooth deifying the name of Rosalind. *Shakespeare.*—A funeral song:

So on Meander's banks, when death is nigh,
The mournful swan sings her own *elegy*. *Dryden.*

A short poem without points or affected elegancies.

ELE'I, a people of Elis in Peloponnesus. They were formerly called *Epei*. In their country was the temple of Jupiter, where also were celebrated the Olympic games, of which they had the superintendance. Their horses were in great repute, hence *Elei equi*, and *Elea palma*. *Lucan.*

ELEI'THIAS, anciently a magnificent city of the Thebais, or Upper Egypt, where are the ruins of a spacious temple, supposed to have been dedicated to Isis. In several compartments of the ruined walls are a great variety of curious paintings, which plainly indicate the hand of a master. Some oxen at plough are represented as harnessed by the horns, and driven by the man who holds the plough; and in another compartment there is a plough drawn by four men, harnessed two and two. The paintings are at this day so perfect, that M. Costaz, who published an account of these antiquities in 1802, declares that the grain scattering from the sower's hand, is plainly seen to be barley, which was employed in making bread long before wheat, which this author supposes was not in common use in Egypt till the reign of Ptolemy Soter. Among all the paintings there is no instrument resembling a harrow; but oxen are seen treading out the corn, exactly as mentioned in Dent. xxv. 4.

ELE'LEUS, a surname of Bacchus, from the word ελελευ, which the Bacchanals loudly repeated during his festivals. *Ovid.*

E'LEMENT, *s.* [*elementum*, Lat.] The first or constituent principle of any thing.—Simple substances are either spirits which have no manner of composition, or the first principles of bodies, usually called *elements*, of which other bodies are compounded. *Watts.*—The four elements, usually so considered, until the late improvements in chemistry, were earth, fire, air, water, of which our world is compounded. When used alone in common speech, *element* commonly means the air.—The king is but a man: the violet smells to him as it doth to me; and the *element* shews to him as it doth to me. *Shakespeare.*—The heavens and the earth will pass away, and the *elements* melt with fervent heat. *Peter.*

The king,
Contending with the fretful *elements*,
Bids the wind blow the earth into the sea,
Or swell the curled waters. *Shakespeare.*

The proper habitation or sphere of any thing; as water of fish.—They shew that they are out of their *element*, and that logic is none of their talent. *Baker.*—An ingredient; a constituent part:

Who set the body and the limbs
Of this great sport together, as you guess?
——One sure that promises no *element*
In such a business. *Shakespeare.*

The letters of any language. The lowest or first rudiments of literature or science.—With religion it fareth as with other sciences; the first delivery of the *elements* thereof must, for like consideration, be framed according to the weak and slender capacity of young beginners, *Hooker.*—We, when we were children, were in bondage under the *elements* of the world. *Gal.* iv. 3.

Democritus stands at the head of the elementary philosophers, in which he is followed by Epicurus, and many others after them of the Epicurean and corpuscular philosophers. Among those who hold the elements corruptible, some will have only one, and some several. Of the former, the principal are, Heraclitus who held fire, Anaximenes air, Thales Milesius water, and Hesiod earth, as the only element. Hesiod is followed by Bernardin, Telesius; and Thales by many of the ancient chemists. Among those who admit several corruptible elements, the principal are the Peripatetics; who, after their leader Aristotle, contend for four elements, viz. fire, air, water, and earth. Aristotle took the notion from Hippocrates; Hippocrates from Pythagoras; and Pythagoras from Ocellus Lucanus, who, it seems, was the first author of it. The Cartesians admit only three elements, fire, air, and earth. See CARTESIAN PHILOSOPHY.—Sir Isaac Newton observes, that it seems probable that God, in the begining, formed matter in solid, massive, hard, impenetrable, moveable, particles, of such sizes and figures, as most conduced to the end for which he formed them; and that these primitive particles, being solids, are incomparably harder than any porous body compounded of them; even so hard as never to wear out; no ordinary power being able to divide what God made one in the first creation. While the particles remain entire, they may compose bodies of one and the same nature and texture in all ages; but should they wear away, or break in pieces, the nature of things, depending on them, would be changed; water and earth, composed of old worn particles, and fragments of particles, would not be of the same nature and texture now, with water and earth composed of entire particles in the beginning. And, therefore, that things may be lasting, the changes of corporeal things are to be placed only in the various separations, and new associations and motions, of those permanent particles; compound bodies being apt to break, not in the midst of solid particles, but where those particles are laid together, and only touch in a few points. It seems to him, likewise, that these particles have not only a *vis inertiæ*, with the passive laws of motion thence resulting, but are also moved by certain active principles; such as gravity, and the cause of fermentation, and the cohesion of bodies.

To E'LEMENT, *v. a.* To compound of elements.—Whether any one such body be met with, in those said to be *elemented* bodies, I now question. *Boyle.*—To constitute; to make as a first principle:

Dull sublunary lover's love,
Whose soul is sense, cannot admit
Of absense, 'cause it doth remove
The thing which *elemented* it. *Donne.*

ELEMEN'TAL, *adj.* Produced by some of the elements:

Soft yielding minds to water glide away,
And sip with nymphs their *elemental* tea. *Pope.*

Arising from first principles.—Leeches are by some accounted poison, not properly, that is by temperamental contrariety, occult form, or so much as *elemental* repugnancy;

nancy; but inwardly taken, they faſten upon the veins, and occaſion an effuſion of blood. *Brown.*

ELEMENTA'RITY, or ELEMEN'TARINESS, *ſ.* Containing rudiments or firſt principles; the ſimplicity of nature, or abſence of compoſition; being uncompounded.—A very large claſs of creatures in the earth, far above the condition of *elementarity*. *Brown*,

ELEMEN'TARY, *adj.* Uncompounded; having only one principle or conſtituent part.—The *elementary* ſalts of animals are not the ſame as they appear by diſtillation. *Arbuthnot.*—Initial; rudimental.—It is probable, that before the time of Ariſtotle there were *elementary* treatiſes of geometry, which are now loſt. *Reid.*

ELEMEN'TATED, *adj.* Made up of the elements, compoſed of the elements. *Not much uſed. Scott.*

ELE'MI, or ELEMNI, *ſ.* called *gum-elemi*, a dry reſinous ſubſtance, brought from the Eaſt Indies and Ethiopia; an inferior ſort is the produce of a ſpecies of olive-tree in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; the *amyris ſelemifera. Linn.* The elemi tree is alſo called *myrobalanus Zeylanicus*; *elemnifera curaſſavica arbor*; *kækuria.* What we have from the eaſt is wrapped in flag-leaves; is ſoftiſh, ſomewhat tranſparent; of a pale whitiſh yellow colour, inclining to green; inflammable, and of an agreeable flavour when melting; to the taſte it is bitteriſh; it diſſolves totally in rectified ſpirit of wine; by diſtillation with water, about one ounce of eſſential oil is obtained from ſixteen of the gum.

ELEMI'FERA, *ſ.* in botany. See AMYRIS.

ELEN'CH, or ELENCHUS, *ſ.* [*elenchus*, Lat. from ελεγχος, Gr.] In antiquity, a kind of ear-rings ſet with large pearls. In logic, a vicious or fallacious argument, which deceives under the guiſe of truth; the ſame with what is now called *ſophiſm.*—Diſcover the fallacies of our common adverſary, that old ſophiſter, who puts the moſt abuſive *elench* on us. *Decay of Piety.*

ELENC'TICAL, *adj.* [*elencticus*, Lat. of ελεγκτικος, of ελεγχω, Gr. to refute.] That ſerves to convince or confute.

ELEN'GI; *ſ.* in botany. See MIMUSOPS.

E'LENT, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles north-north-weſt of Brugg.

ELEOSAC'CHARUM, *ſ.* [of ελαιον, Gr. oil, and *ſaccarum*, Lat. ſugar.] A mixture of oil and ſugar together, which is uſed with the diſtilled oils, to make them mix with aqueous fluids for preſent uſe.

ELEOSELI'NUM, *ſ.* in botany. See APIUM.

E'LEOTS, *ſ.* Some name the apples in requeſt in the cyder countries ſo; not known by that name in ſeveral parts of England. *Mortimer.*

E'LEPH, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Benjamin. *Joſh.* xviii. 28.

E'LEPHANT, *ſ.* [*elephas*, Lat.] The largeſt of all quadrupeds, for whoſe ſagacity, faithfulneſs, prudence, and even underſtanding, ſee the article ELEPHAS.

The *elephant* hath joints, but not for courteſy;
His legs are for neceſſity, not flexure. *Shakeſpeare.*

Ivory; the teeth of elephants:

High o'er the gate, in *elephant* and gold,
The crowd ſhall Cæſar's Indian war behold. *Dryden.*

E'LEPHANT (knights of), *ſ.* An order of knighthood in Denmark, conferred upon perſons of quality and merit. It is alſo called *the order of St. Mary.* Its inſtitution is ſaid to have been owing to an officer among the Daniſh croiſes having killed an elephant, in an expedition againſt the Saracens, in 1184; in memory of which king Canutus inſtituted this order, the badge of which is a towered elephant, with an image of the Virgin Mary encircled with rays, and hung on a blue ribbon, like the George in England.

E'LEPHANT MOUNTAIN, a mountain on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the iſland of Ceylon: ſeventy-four miles ſouth-eaſt of Candy.

E'LEPHANT'S FOOT. See ELEPHANTOPUS.

ELEPHAN'TA, a ſmall iſland in the Indian Sea, on the weſtern coaſt of Hindooſtan, about five miles from Bombay, ceded to the Engliſh by the Mahrattas. Its proper name is *Gali Pouri*; but the Portugueſe, while in their poſſeſſion, gave it the name of *Elephanta*, from the figure of an elephant, as large as life, coarſely, but correctly, ſculptured out of very hard and durable black ſtone, ſtanding on a platform near the landing-place, at the foot of a mountain. In the interior of the iſland is a moſt curious Hindoo temple, cut or mined in the ſolid rock, and decorated with images of the ancient Brahmin idol worſhip; for particulars of which, ſee the article HINDOOSTAN.

ELEPHANTIA'SIS, *ſ.* [from ελεφας, Gr. the elephant.] A horrible cutaneous diſorder, in which the legs grow ſcaly, rough, and wonderfully large, like the legs of an elephant.

ELEPHANTI'NA, or ELEPHAN'TINE, a beautiful iſland of the Nile, famous for the ruins of an ancient temple; ſituated near Syene, at the ſouthern extremity of Upper Egypt, and forming part of the falls or cataracts which terminate the navigation of the Nile in Egypt. See p. 353, of this volume.

ELEPHAN'TINE, *adj.* [*elephantinus*, Lat.] Pertaining to the elephant. In Roman antiquity, it was an appellation given to the books wherein were regiſtered the tranſactions of the ſenate and magiſtrates of Rome, of the emperors or generals of armies, and of the provincial magiſtrates; the births and claſſes of the people, and other things relating to the cenſus. They were ſo called, as being made of leaves of ivory or elephants tuſks.

ELEPHAN'TIS, a poeteſs who wrote laſcivious verſes. *Martial.*—A princeſs by whom Danaus had two daughters. *Apollod.*—An iſland in the river Nile, in Upper Egypt; with a town of the ſame name, called *Elephantina. Strabo.*

ELEPHANTO'MACHI. See ETHIOPIA.

ELEPHAN'TOPUS, *ſ.* ELEPHANT'S FOOT; [ſo named by Vaillant, from the ſhape of the lower leaves in the firſt ſpecies.] In botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia ſegregata, natural order of compoſitæ capitatæ, (corymbiferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: involucre of three broad, ſharp, leaflets, many-flowered, large, permanent, without an umbel; perianthium partial, four-flowered, oblong, imbricate; ſcales lance-ſubulate, mucronate, upright, of which the four longer are equal. Corolla: compound tubular; corollets hermaphrodite, five or four, equal, diſpoſed in a ſingle circle; proper one-petalled, tubular; border narrow, five-parted, nearly equal. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very ſhort; antheræ cylindric, tubular. Piſtillum: germ ovate, crowned; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigmas two, ſlender, ſpreading. Pericarpium: none; calyx unchanged. Seeds: ſolitary, compreſſed; down briſtle-form. Receptaculum: naked.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, four-flowered; corolla tubular, hermaphrodite; receptaculum naked; down briſtle-form.

Species. 1. Elephantopus ſcaber, or rough-leaved elephant's foot: leaves oblong, ſcabrous. This ſends out from a perennial root many oblong rough leaves, which ſpread near the ground; between theſe, in the ſpring, ariſes a branching ſtalk, little more than a foot high. The ſide-branches are ſhort, and generally terminated by two heads of flowers, each on a ſhort peduncle. The florets are of a pale purple colour. Dillenius deſcribes it more particularly: height commonly eighteen inches or two feet; ſtem rigid, round, and hairy, the thickneſs of the little finger at the bottom; leaves embracing, much wrinkled, hirſute, with hairs over the whole ſurface, ſerrate, but the ſerrature frequently not very conſpicuous, becauſe the leaves are ſo much wrinkled and bent. From the axils of theſe, towards the top, ſpring forth the flowering branches, terminated by leafy heads collected in bundles; each having two or three leaves under it,

inſtead

inſtead of a common calyx; in the boſom of theſe is the flower, the proper calyx of which conſiſts of many narrow, ſharp-pointed, pungent, ſcales, and contains three, four, or five, florets, very pale purple, tubular, commonly divided into five narrow ſegments. Seeds cylindric-compreſſed, crowned with dry white ſegments inſtead of a pappus. According to Browne, it riſes generally from half a foot to three or four feet in height; and is generally adorned with a great number of flowers, gathered into pretty large heads, at the extremities of the branches. The ſeeds are of an oblong form, each crowned with five little briſtles. The common peduncles are very long, and terminate the branches; but, at the ſeparations of them, there is always a ſmaller head growing to the ſtem, without any ſupporter. It is ſuppoſed to be a native of both Indies; Mr. Miller received it from ſeveral parts of America. Browne ſays, it is frequent enough on the north ſide of the iſland of Jamaica. Vaillant gave this plant the name of *elephantopus*, becauſe he took it to be the ſame with the *ana ſchovadi* of the Hortus Malabaricus, which ſignifies the foot-ſtep of an elephant. The accurate Dillenius, however, is doubtful of this; and, perhaps, after all, the Eaſt-Indian and Weſt-Indian plants may be different ſpecies. This is a perennial plant, and flowers at the end of ſummer, and beginning of autumn; but rarely produces ſeeds in England. It was cultivated in the botanic garden at Chelſea in 1695. Browne ſays, that it is accounted a good vulnerary, and much uſed in conſumptive caſes in the Eaſt Indies. The leaves are frequently uſed, inſtead of carduus benedictus, among the inhabitants of the French Weſt-India iſlands.

2. Elephantopus tomentoſus, or woolly-leaved elephant's foot: leaves ovate, tomentoſe. Root-leaves four inches long and three broad, having many tranſverſe nerves; they ſpread flat on the ground, and from among them riſes a ſtiff ſtalk, about a foot high, dividing into ſeveral branches, and terminated by two flowers, which make little appearance; they come out in July, but the ſeeds never ripen in this country. It grows naturally in South Carolina; and frequently comes up as a weed in earth ſent over thence with other plants. Linnæus remarks, that it is very nearly allied to the preceding.

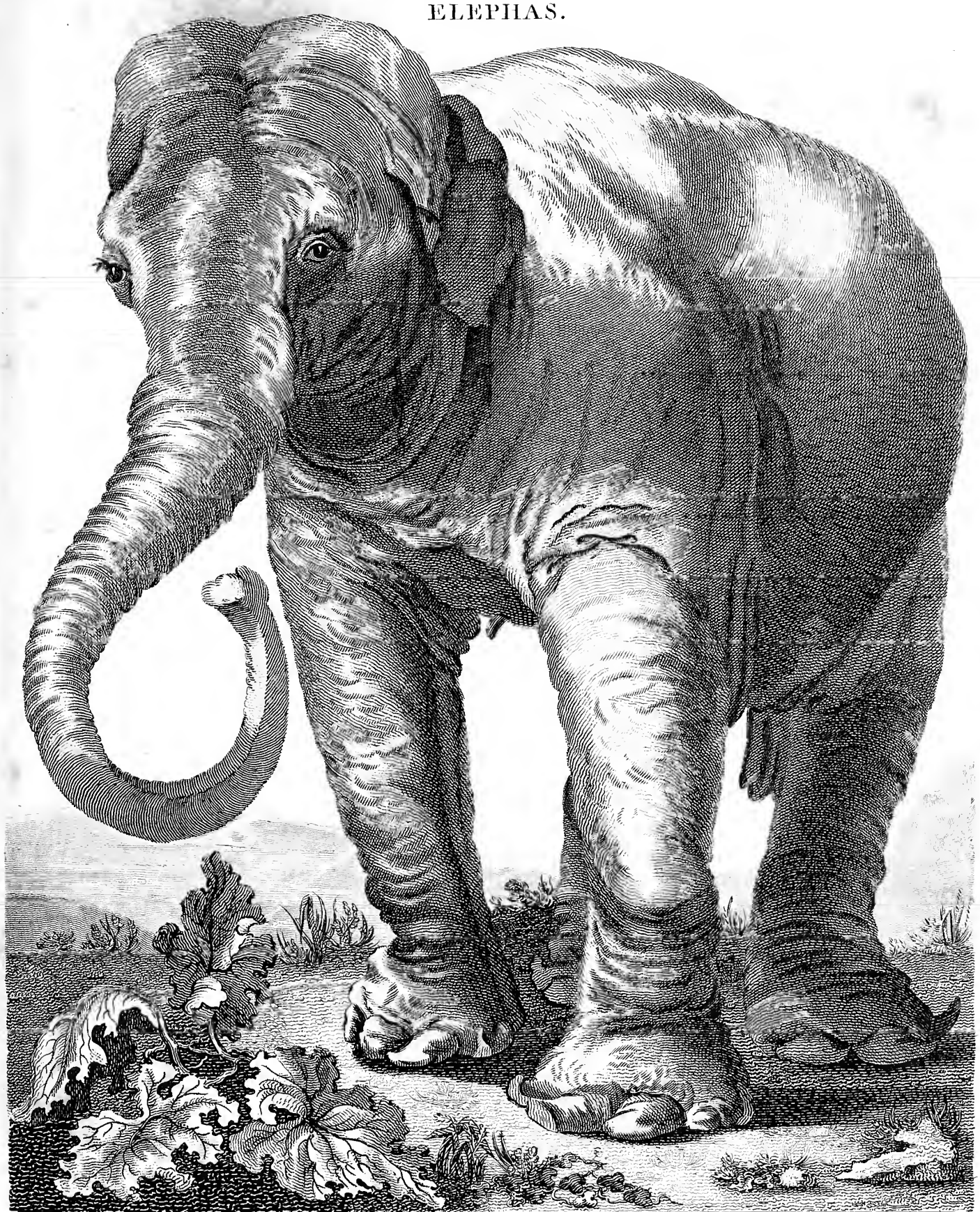
3. Elephantopus ſpicatus, or ſpike-flowered elephant's foot: leaves ovate-lanceolate, ſerrate, ſcabrous; bundles of flowers ſeſſile, lateral; ſtem branched. This generally riſes to the height of fifteen or twenty inches, ſometimes more. At firſt coming up it has many leaves, five inches long, and an inch and a half broad where broadeſt; beginning very narrow, they continue ſo for two inches, and end in a round point; they are hard, ſmooth, dark-green, and indented about the edges. From among theſe a round, ſtrong, green, ſtalk riſes, four feet high, with an embracing leaf at each joint; it has branches towards the top, ſtanding round at every joint, divided into others, which are beſet with ſmaller leaves; from the axils of theſe come out the flowers, without any peduncle, ſtanding in ſeveral green leaves; the corollets are white. Linnæus has called the corollets *ligulate*, whereas they are plainly tubular, equally and deeply five-cleft; he was, perhaps, led into the miſtake, from the two outmoſt ſegments being ſometimes glued together. Native of Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, and Guiana.

4. Elephantopus anguſtifolius, or rough-leaved elephant's foot: ſtem-leaves linear-lanceolate entire, villoſe; flowers glomerate, in ſeſſile and peduncled bundles; ſtem ſimple. Native of Jamaica: Sloane found it about Mount Diablo very plentifully.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants are propagated by ſeeds, which ſhould be ſown on a hot-bed in the ſpring; and, when the plants are come up, they muſt be tranſplanted into pots filled with freſh light earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanners' bark, obſerving to water and ſhade them until they have taken root; then you ſhould let them have a large ſhare of freſh air in warm weather, and they will require to be frequently refreſhed with water. The firſt, having a perennial root, if it is planted in a pot, and ſheltered in the winter from froſt, may be preſerved ſeveral years, and will annually flower; but the ſecond ſort ſeldom continues longer than two years.

E'LEPHAS, *ſ.* [ελεφας, Gr. אלף *eleph*, Heb.] The ELEPHANT; in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of bruta. The characters are theſe: it has no *foreteeth* in either jaw, and the tuſks are very long; probocis or trunk long and prehenſile; body ſomewhat naked. Linnæus deſcribes this animal as follows: "The mighty elephant inhabits the torrid zone in Aſia and Africa, in ſwampy places, and by the ſides of rivers; feeds on the leaves and branches of young trees, particularly plantains, eating even the wood; devours grain voraciouſly; is gregarious, docile, long-lived, ſagacious, though the brain is ſmall; proboſcis long, extenſile, contractile, furniſhed at the end with a hook, ſerving the purpoſe of a hand, with which it takes its food and drink, and which being cut off, the animal dies; is afraid of mice, leſt when aſleep they ſhould creep into the trachea; urines backwards; copulates like other quadrupeds; the female is gravid a year; the young ſuck the mother with the lips; carries a turret on its back, its guider ſitting upon the neck; moves quickly; ſwims dexterouſly: is armed for war by the Indians, and was formerly by the Romans, with ſcythes. It is the largeſt of all known quadrupeds, ſometimes weighing 4500 pounds; body cinereous, ſometimes reddiſh or white, thinly ſet with hairs; proboſcis flat beneath, tip truncate; eyes ſmall; tuſks, which are only in the upper jaw, far extended beyond the mouth, reſemble horns, marked with curled fibres; theſe are the ivory of the ſhops, and ſometimes weigh 150 pounds each; ears large, pendulous, dentate; ſkin thick, callous, almoſt impenetrable by muſket-balls, and yet ſenſible of the ſting of flies; teats two, near the breaſt; knees flexible; neck ſhort; hoofs five on each fore-foot, four on each hind-foot." The admeaſurements of different naturaliſts have aſcertained the largeſt elephant hitherto known, to be as follows: from the front to the origin of the tail, ſixteen feet long; from the end of the trunk twenty-five feet, and about fourteen feet high. The circumference of the neck ſeventeen feet, and the circumference of the body at the groſſeſt part twenty-five feet; the tail about ſix feet long, and two and a half in circumference. The circumference of the legs about ſix feet. Theſe are the dimenſions of the largeſt ever meaſured. But the animal differs in ſize in different countries. The muzzle is very different from that of any other quadruped; it is nothing but the origin of its long trunk which hangs between the two large tuſks; the mouth appears behind the trunk, which ſerves in place of an upper lip, and the under lip terminates in a point. The trunk readily performs all the functions of a ſtrong and dexterous arm; it is about eight feet long, five feet and a half in circumference near the mouth, and one foot and a half near the extremity: it is a pipe of an irregular conical figure, and widened at the end: the ſuperior ſide of the trunk is convex, and furrowed tranſverſely; and the inferior ſide is flat, and has two longitudinal rows of ſmall protuberances reſembling the tentacula of the ſilk-worm. The upper part of the trunk correſponds with the extremity of the noſe in other quadrupeds, and anſwers the ſame intention; the inferior part ſerves as an upper lip, including the noſtrils at the ſame time. For the trunk is a continued canal, divided into two cavities by a longitudinal partition: theſe cavities aſcend along the forepart of the upper jaw, where they make a turn inward, and deſcend into the palate, and then terminate in two ſeparate orifices; they have likewiſe each a ſeparate orifice at the end of the trunk. At the place where theſe cavities make a turn, and before they enter into the bones of the head, there is a moveable cartilaginous plate ſituated in ſuch a manner as enables the animal to ſhut the canal, and to prevent the water with which

ELEPHAS.



H. Delaney del.t J. Pass sculp.t

The Elephant.

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which it occaſionally fills the trunk from entering into the paſſage of the noſe, where the organs ſerving for the ſenſation of ſmell are placed. The elephant can move the trunk in all directions; he can extend or ſhorten it at pleaſure, without altering the diameters of the two canals within. By this means reſpiration is not interrupted, whatever be the ſituation of the trunk; and the water is allowed to remain till the animal chooſes to throw it out by an exſpiration. Each canal is lined with a ſmooth ſtrong membrane, and the ſurface of the trunk is covered with another ſtrong membrane or ſkin. The ſubſtance contained between the exterior and interior membranes, is a compoſition of longitudinal and tranſverſe muſcles, which ſerve to extend and contract the length of the trunk. At the extremity there is a concave protuberance, in the bottom of which are the two paſſages of the noſtrils. The inferior part of the protuberance is thicker than the ſides, and the ſuperior part is ſtretched out like a finger about five inches long; which, together with the edges of the whole extremity of the trunk, aſſumes different figures according to the neceſſities of the animal. It is by this organ that the animal lays hold of food or other ſubſtances; which he manages with as much dexterity as a man does his hand, taking up grains of corn, or the ſmalleſt blades of graſs, and conveying them to his mouth. When he drinks, he thruſts his trunk into the water, and fills it by drawing in his breath and exhauſting the air: when the trunk is thus filled with water, he can either throw it out to a great diſtance, or drink it by putting the end of the trunk in his mouth. The longevity of the elephant, though not well aſcertained, is nevertheleſs aſſerted to be of very conſiderable duration. It is ſaid that ſome have lived in a domeſtic ſtate upwards of one hundred and thirty years; and in a ſtate of nature they are ſuppoſed to live upwards of two hundred years, and to be capable of propagating their ſpecies until they are one hundred and twenty years old. No quadruped beſides the elephant is furniſhed with a trunk; though the proboſces of the tapiir and great ant-eater approach ſomewhat towards it. In the inſect tribes, however, great numbers are diſtinguiſhed by this conformation.

The elephants of Aſia and of Africa, appear to be two very diſtinct ſpecies; and have been noticed and deſcribed as ſuch by ſeveral modern writers. The Aſiatic elephants are divided by the natives of Bengal into two caſts, the *koomareah*, and the *merghee*; without any regard to the appearance, ſhape, or ſize, of the tuſks; as theſe circumſtances ſerve merely to characterize ſome varieties, as well as the difference of ſex or age. The koomareah caſt is a deep-bodied, ſtrong, compact, elephant, with a large trunk, legs ſhort, but thick in proportion to the ſize of the animal. The merghee caſt, when full grown, is taller than the former, but has not ſo compact a form, nor is he ſo ſtrong, or ſo capable of bearing fatigue; his legs are long, he travels faſt, has a lighter body, and his trunk is both ſhort and ſlender, in proportion to his height. A large trunk is always eſteemed a great beauty in an elephant; ſo that the koomareah is preferred, not only for this, but for its ſuperior ſtrength, by which it can undergo greater fatigue, and carry heavier loads than the merghee. As there appears, however, no predilection in any of theſe elephants to have connection with his own particular kind, from an indiſcriminate intercourſe ſeveral varieties are produced, partaking of the qualities of their reſpective progenitors. This mixed breed is in greater or leſs eſtimation, in proportion as it partakes of the qualities of the koomareah, or merghee, caſt.

Of the African breed of elephants we have the following account in Park's Travels: "Elephants are very numerous in the interior of Africa, and appear to be a diſtinct ſpecies from thoſe found in Aſia. Blumenback, in his figures of objects of natural hiſtory, has given good drawings of a grinder of each; and the variation is evident. M. Cuvier alſo has given, in the Magazin Encyclopedique, a clear account of the difference between them. As I never examined the Aſiatic elephant, I have choſen rather to refer to thoſe writers, than advance this as an opinion of my own. It has been ſaid, that the African elephant is of a leſs docile nature than the Aſiatic, and incapable of being tamed. The negroes certainly do not at preſent tame them; but when we conſider that the Carthaginians had always tame elephants in their armies, and actually tranſported ſome of them to Italy in the courſe of the Punic wars; it ſeems more likely that they ſhould have poſſeſſed the art of taming their own elephants, than have ſubmitted to the expence of bringing ſuch vaſt animals from Aſia. Perhaps, the barbarous practice of hunting the African elephants for the ſake of their teeth, has rendered them more untractable and ſavage, than they were found to be in former times.

"The greater part of the ivory which is ſold on the Gambia and Senegal rivers, is brought from the interior country. The lands towards the coaſt are too ſwampy, and too much interſected with creeks and rivers, for ſo bulky an animal as the elephant to travel through, without being diſcovered; and when once the natives diſcern the marks of his feet in the earth, the whole village is up in arms. The thoughts of feaſting on his fleſh, making ſandals of his hide, and ſelling the teeth to the Europeans, inſpire every one with courage; and the animal ſeldom eſcapes from his purſuers; but in the plains of Bambarra and Kaarta, and the extenſive wild of Jallonkadoo, the elephants are very numerous; and, from the great ſcarcity of gunpowder in thoſe diſtricts, they are leſs annoyed by the natives. Scattered teeth are frequently picked up in the woods, and travellers are very diligent in looking for them. It is a common practice with the elephant, to thruſt his tuſks under the roots of ſuch ſhrubs and buſhes as grow in the more dry and elevated parts of the country, where the ſoil is ſhallow. Theſe buſhes he eaſily overturns, and feeds on the roots, which are, in general, more tender and juicy than the hard woody branches, or the foliage; but when the teeth are partly decayed by age, and the roots more firmly fixed, the great exertions of the animal, in this practice, frequently cauſes them to break or fall off.

"There are certain ſeaſons of the year, when the elephants collect into large herds, and traverſe the country in queſt of food or water; and as all that part of the country, to the north of the Niger, is deſtitute of rivers, whenever the pools in the woods are dried up, the elephants approach towards the banks of that river. Here they continue until the commencement of the rainy ſeaſon, in the months of June or July; and, during this time, they are much hunted by ſuch of the Bambarrans as have gunpowder to ſpare. The elephant hunters ſeldom go out ſingly; a party of four or five join together; and, having each furniſhed himſelf with powder and ball, and a quantity of corn-meal in a leather bag, ſufficient for five or ſix days proviſion, they enter the moſt unfrequented parts of the wood, and examine with great care every thing that can lead to the diſcovery of the elephants. In this purſuit, notwithſtanding the bulk of the animal, very great nicety of obſervation is required. The broken branches, the ſcattered dung of the animal, and the marks of his feet, are carefully inſpected; and many of the hunters have, by experience and obſervation, become ſo expert in their ſearch, that as ſoon as they obſerve the foot-marks of an elephant, they will tell almoſt to a certainty at what time it paſſed, and at what diſtance it will be found. When they diſcover a herd of elephants, they follow them at a diſtance, until they perceive ſome one ſtray from the reſt, and come into ſuch a ſituation as to be fired at with advantage. The hunters then approach with great caution, creeping amongſt the long graſs, until they have got near enough to be ſure of their aim. They then diſcharge all their pieces at once, and throw themſelves on their faces among the graſs. The wounded elephant immediately applies his trunk to the different

wounds; but being unable to extract the ball, and seeing nobody near him, he becomes quite furious, and runs about amongst the bushes, until, by fatigue and loss of blood, he has exhausted himself, and affords the hunters an opportunity of firing a second time at him, by which he is generally brought to the ground. The skin is now taken off, and extended with pegs, to dry; and such parts of the flesh as are most esteemed are cut up into thin slices, and dried in the sun, to serve for provisions on some future occasions. The teeth are struck out with a light hatchet, which the hunters always carry along with with them; not only for that purpose, but also to enable them to cut down such trees as contain honey; for, though they carry with them only five or six days provisions, they will remain in the woods for months, if they are successful; and support themselves upon the flesh of such elephants as they kill, and wild honey."

Mr. Browne, too, in his travels through part of the interior of Africa to the kingdom of Fur, informs us that "the elephant is seen, in the places he frequents, in large herds of four or five hundred. The natives hunt him on horseback, having singled out a straggler from the herd; or aim at him with spears from the trees; or make pits into which he falls. The African elephant is smaller than the Asiatic, and probably a different species. The flesh is an article of food in great esteem with them; and the fat forms a valuable unguent."

The method of taking wild elephants in the East-Indies, is thus related by John Corse, esq. first published in the third volume of the Asiatic Researches. "In the month of November, when the weather has become cool, and the swamps and marshes, formed by the rains in the five preceding months, are lessened, and some of them dried up, a number of people are employed to go in quest of elephants. At this season the males come from the recesses of the forest, into the outskirts, whence they make nocturnal excursions into the plains in search of food, and where they often destroy the labours of the husbandman, by devouring and trampling down the rice, sugar-canes, &c. A herd of elephants, from what I can learn, has never been seen to leave the woods: some of the largest males often stray to a distance, but the young ones always remain in the forest under the protection of the *palmai*, or leader of the herd, and of the larger elephants. The *goondahs*, or large males, come out singly, or in small parties, sometimes in the morning, but commonly in the evening, and they continue to feed all night upon the long grass, that grows amidst the swamps and marshes, and of which they are extremely fond. As often, however, as they have an opportunity, they commit depredations on the rice-fields, sugar-canes, and plantain-trees, which oblige the farmers to keep regular watch, under a small cover, erected on the tops of a few long bamboos, about fourteen feet from the ground: and this precaution is necessary to protect them from the tigers, with which this province abounds. From this lofty station the alarm is soon communicated from one watchman to another, and to the neighbouring villages, by means of a rattle with which each is provided. With their shouts and cries, and noise of the ratties, the elephants are generally scared, and retire. It sometimes, however, happens, that the males advance even to the villages, overturn the houses, and kill those who unfortunately come in their way; unless they have had time to light a number of fires: this element seems to be the most dreaded by wild elephants, and a few lighted whisps of straw or dried grass, seldom fail to stop their progress. To secure one of the males, a very different method is employed from that which is taken to secure a herd: the former is taken by *koomkees*, or female elephants trained for the purpose; whereas the latter is driven into a strong enclosure, called a *keddah*.

"As the hunters know the places where the elephants come to feed, they advance towards them in the evening with four koomkees, the number allotted to each hunting party. When the nights are dark, the male elephants are discovered by the noise they make in cleaning their food, by whisking and striking it against their fore-legs; but by moon-light they can be seen distinctly at some distance. As soon as they have determined on the goondah they mean to secure, three of the koomkees are conducted slowly by their *mahotes* (drivers), at a moderate distance from each other, near to the place where he is feeding; the koomkees advance very cautiously, feeding as they go along, and appear like wild elephants, that had strayed from the jungle or forest. When the male perceives them approaching, if he takes the alarm and is viciously inclined, he beats the ground with his trunk, showing marks of displeasure, and that he will not allow them to approach nearer: if they persist, he will attack and gore them with his tusks: for which reason they take care to retreat in good time. But should he be amorously disposed, which is generally the case, he allows the females to approach, and sometimes he even advances to meet them.

"When from these appearances the mahotes judge that he will become their prize, they conduct two of the females, one on each side close to him, and make them advance backwards, and press gently with their posteriors against his neck and shoulders: the third female then comes up and places herself directly across his tail; in this situation, so far from suspecting any design, he begins to toy with the females, and caress them with his trunk. While thus engaged, the fourth female is brought near, with ropes and proper assistants, who get under the belly of the third female, and put a slight cord (the *chilkah*), round his hind legs; should he move, it is easily broken, in which case, if he takes no notice of this slight confinement, nor appears suspicious of what was going forward, the hunters then proceed to tie his legs with a strong cord (called *bundah*), which is passed alternately, by means of a forked stick, and a kind of hook, from one leg to the other, forming the figure 8; and as these ropes are short, for the convenience of being more readily put around his legs, six or eight are generally employed, and they are made fast by another cord, (the *dagbearee*,) which is passed a few turns perpendicularly between his legs, where the folds of the bundahs intersect each other. A strong cable, (the *phand*,) with a running noose, sixty cubits long, is next put round each hind leg immediately above the bundahs, and again above them, six or eight additional bundahs, according to the size of the elephant, are made fast, in the same manner as the others were: the putting on these ropes generally takes up about twenty minutes, during which the utmost silence is observed, and the mahotes, who keep flat upon the necks of the females, are covered with dark-coloured cloths, which serve to keep them warm, and at the same time do not attract the notice of the elephant. While the people are thus employed in tying the legs of the goondah, he caresses sometimes one, and sometimes another, of the seducers, *kootnee*, by which his desires are excited, and his attention diverted from the hunters; and in these amorous dalliances he is indulged by the females. But if his passions should be so roused, before his legs are properly secured, as to induce him to attempt leaping on one of the females, the mahote, to insure his own safety, and prevent him gratifying his desires any farther, makes the female run away, and, at the same time, by raising his voice and making a noise, he deters the goondah from pursuing; this however happens very seldom; for he is so secured by the pressure of a koomkee on each side, and one behind, that he can neither turn himself, nor see any of the people, who always keep snug under the belly of the third female that stands across his tail, and which serves both to keep him steady, and to prevent his kicking the people who are employed in securing him; but in general he is so much taken up with his decoyers, as to attend very little to any thing else. In case of accidents, however, should the goondah break loose, the people upon the first

alarm can always mount on the backs of the tame elephants, by a rope that hangs ready for the purpoſe, and thus get out of his reach. When his hind legs are properly ſecured, they leave him to himſelf, and retire to a ſmall diſtance: as ſoon as the koomkees leave him, he attempts to follow, but finding his legs tied, he is rouſed to a ſenſe of his ſituation, and retreats towards the jungle or foreſt; the mahotes follow at a moderate diſtance, on the tame elephants, accompanied by a number of people, who, as ſoon as the goondah paſſes near a tree, make a few turns of the phands, or long cables, that are trailing behind him, around its trunk; his progreſs being thus ſtopt, he becomes furious, and exerts his utmoſt force to diſengage himſelf, nor will he then allow any of the koomkees to come near him, but is outrageous for ſome time, falling down and goring the earth with his tuſks. If by theſe exertions the phands are broken, which ſometimes is effected, and he eſcapes into the thick jungle, the mahotes dare not advance for fear of the other wild elephants, and are therefore obliged to leave him to his fate; and in this hampered ſituation, it is ſaid, he is ungenerouſly attacked by the other wild elephants.

"As the cables are very ſtrong and ſeldom give way, when he has exhauſted himſelf by his exertions, the koomkees are again brought near, and take their former poſitions, viz. one on each ſide, and the other behind. After getting him nearer the tree, the people carry the ends of the long cables around his legs, then back and about the trunk of the tree, making, if they can, two or three turns, ſo as to prevent even the poſſibility of his eſcape. For ſtill farther ſecurity, as well as to confine him from moving to either ſide, his fore-legs are tied exactly in the ſame manner as the hind-legs were, and the phands are made faſt to trees or ſtakes driven deep into the earth. During the proceſs of tying both the hind and fore legs, the fourth koomkee gives aſſiſtance where neceſſary, and the people employed cautiouſly avoid going within reach of his trunk; and when he attempts to ſeize them, they retreat to the oppoſite ſide of the koomkees, and get on them, if neceſſary, by means of the rope above-mentioned, which hangs ready for them to lay hold of. Although, by theſe means, he is perfectly ſecured and cannot eſcape, yet as it would be both unſafe and inconvenient to allow him to remain in the verge of the jungle, a number of additional ropes are afterwards put on, for the purpoſe of conducting him to a proper ſtation. When the goondah has become more ſettled, and ate a little food with which he is ſupplied as ſoon as he is taken, the koomkees are again brought near, and a ſtrong rope, *phara*, is then put twice round his body like a girth, and tied behind his ſhoulder; then the long end is carried back cloſe to his rump and there faſtened, after a couple of turns more have been made round his body. Another cord is next faſtened to the phara, and from thence carried under his tail like a crupper (*dooblah*), and brought forward and faſtened by a turn or two, to each of the pharas, or girths, by which the whole is connected, and each turn of theſe cords ſerves to keep the reſt in their places. After this, a ſtrong rope (the *tooman*) is put round his buttocks, and made faſt on each ſide to the girth and crupper, ſo as to confine the motion of his thighs, and prevent his taking a full ſtep. Theſe ſmaller ropes being properly adjuſted, a couple of large cables (the *dools*), with running nooſes, are put round his neck, and after being drawn moderately tight, the nooſes are ſecured from running cloſer, and then tied to the ropes on each ſide forming the girth and crupper already mentioned; and thus all theſe ropes are connected and kept in their proper places, without any riſk of the nooſes of the dools becoming tight, ſo as to endanger the life of the elephant, in his exertions to free himſelf. The ends of theſe cables are made faſt to two koomkees, one on each ſide of the goondah, by a couple of turns round the belly, cloſe to the ſhoulder, like a girth, where a turn is made, and it is then carried acroſs the cheſt and faſtened to the girth on the oppoſite ſide. Every thing being now ready, and a paſſage cleared from the jungle or wood, all the ropes are taken from his legs, and only the tooman remains round his buttocks to confine the motion of his hind legs: the koomkees pull him forward by the dools, and the people from behind urge him on. Inſtead of advancing in the direction they wiſh, he attempts to retreat farther into the jungle, he exerts all his force, falls down and tears the earth with his tuſks, ſcreaming and groaning; and by his violent exertions often bruiſes himſelf very much, and inſtances happen of their ſurviving theſe violent exertions only a few hours, or at moſt a few days. In general, however, they ſoon become reconciled to their fate, will eat immediately after they are taken, and, if neceſſary, may be conducted from the verge of the jungle as ſoon as a paſſage is cleared. When the elephant is brought to his proper ſtation and made faſt, he is treated with a mixture of ſeverity and gentleneſs, and in a few months (if docile) he becomes tractable, and appears perfectly reconciled to his fate. It appears ſomewhat extraordinary, that though the goondah uſes his utmoſt force to diſengage himſelf when taken, and would kill any perſon coming within his reach, yet he never, or at leaſt ſeldom, attempts to hurt the females that have enſnared him, but on the contrary ſeems pleaſed, (as often as they are brought near, in order to adjuſt his harneſſing, or move and ſlacken thoſe ropes which gall him,) ſoothed and comforted by them, as it were, for the loſs of his liberty. All the elephants, ſoon after they are taken, are led out occaſionally for exerciſe by the koomkees, which attend for that purpoſe.

"Having thus related the manner in which the male elephants, called goondahs, are ſecured, I ſhall next deſcribe the methods I have ſeen employed for ſecuring a herd of wild elephants. Female elephants are never taken ſingly, but always in the herd, which conſiſts of young and old of both ſexes. This noble, docile, and uſeful, animal, ſeems naturally of a ſocial diſpoſition, as a herd in general conſiſts of from about forty to one hundred, and is conducted under the direction of one of the oldeſt and largeſt females, called the *palmai*, and one of the largeſt males. When a herd is diſcovered, about five hundred people are employed to ſurround it, who divide themſelves into ſmall parties, called *chokeys*, conſiſting generally of one mahote and two coolies, at the diſtance of twenty or thirty yards from each other, and form an irregular circle in which the elephants are incloſed: each party lights a fire, and clears a foot-path to the ſtation that is next him, by which a regular communication is formed through the whole circumference from one to the other. By this path reinforcements can immediately be brought to any place where an alarm is given. The firſt circle (the *dawkee*), being thus formed, the remaining part of the day and night is ſpent in keeping watch by turns, or in cooking for themſelves and companions. Early next morning, one man is detached from each ſtation, to form another circle in that direction where they wiſh the elephants to advance. When it is finiſhed, the people, ſtationed neareſt to the new circle, put out their fires, and file off to the right and left, to form the advanced party, thus leaving an opening for the herd to advance through; and by this movement both the old and new circle are joined, and form an oblong. The people from behind, now begin ſhouting and making a noiſe with their rattles, *tomtoms*, or drums, &c. to cauſe the elephants to advance; and as ſoon as they are got within the new circle, the people cloſe up, take their proper ſtations, and paſs the remaining part of the day and night as before. In the morning the ſame proceſs is repeated, and in this manner the herd advances ſlowly in that direction, where they find themſelves leaſt incommoded by the noiſe and clamour of the hunters, feeding, as they go along, upon branches of trees, leaves of bamboos, &c. which come in their way. If they ſuſpected any ſnare, they could eaſily break through the circle; but this inoffenſive animal,

mal, going merely in queſt of food, and not feeing any of the people who ſurround him, and who are concealed by the thick jungle, advances without ſuſpicion, and appears only to avoid being peſtered by their noiſe and din. As fire is the thing elephants ſeem moſt afraid of in their wild ſtate, and will ſeldom venture near it, the hunters always have a number of fires lighted, and particularly at night, to prevent the elephants coming too near.

" In this manner the herd is gradually driven to the *keddah*, or place where they are to be ſecured. As the natives are extremely ſlow in their operations, they ſeldom bring the herd above one circle in a day, except on an emergency, when they exert themſelves and advance two circles. The ſeaſon is then ſo mild, that the people ſleep at night by the fires they have lighted, and an accident ſeldom happens except to ſtragglers about the outſkirts of the wood, who are ſometimes carried off by tigers. The keddah, or place where the herd is to be ſecured, is differently conſtructed in different places: here it conſiſts of three encloſures, communicating with each other by means of narrow openings or gateways. The outer encloſure, where the elephants are to enter, is the largeſt; the middle one is generally, though not always, the next in ſize; and the third or inner is the ſmalleſt: theſe proportions, however, are not always adhered to in making of a keddah, nor indeed does there appear to me any reaſon for making three encloſures; but as my intentions are merely to relate facts, I ſhall proceed to obſerve, that when in the third or laſt encloſure, the elephants are then only deemed ſecure: here they are kept ſix or eight days, and are regularly, though ſcantily, fed from a ſcaffold on the outſide, cloſe to the entrance of an outlet called the *roomee*, which is about ſixty feet long and very narrow, and through which the elephants are to be taken out one by one. Theſe encloſures are all pretty ſtrong, but the third is the ſtrongeſt; nor are the elephants deemed ſecure, as already obſerved, till they have entered it. This encloſure has, like the other two, a deep ditch on the inſide; and, upon the bank of earth that is thrown up from the excavation, a row of ſtrong palliſades of middle-ſized trees is planted, ſtrengthened with croſs bars, which are tied to them about the diſtance of fourteen inches from each other; and theſe are ſupported on the outſide by ſtrong poſts like buttreſſes, having one end ſunk in the earth, and the other preſſing againſt the croſs bars to which they are faſtened. When the herd is brought near to the firſt encloſure, or *baigcote*, which has two gateways towards the jungle, through which the elephants are to advance, (theſe as well as the other gateways, are diſguiſed with branches of trees and bamboos, ſtuck in the ground ſo as to give them the appearance of a natural jungle,) the greateſt difficulty is to get the herd to enter this firſt or outer encloſure; for, notwithſtanding, the precautions taken to diſguiſe both the entries as well as the paliſade which ſurrounds this encloſure, the palmai, or leader, appears to ſuſpect ſome ſnare, from the difficulty and heſitation with which in general ſhe paſſes into it; but, as ſoon as ſhe enters, the whole herd implicitly follows. Immediately, when they are all paſſed the gateway, fires are lighted round the greateſt part of the encloſure, and particularly at the entries, to prevent the elephants from returning. The hunters from without then make a terrible noiſe by ſhouting, beating of tomtoms, firing cartridges, &c. to urge the herd on to the next encloſure. The elephants, finding themſelves enſnared, roar, and make a noiſe; but, ſeeing no opening except the entrance to the next encloſure, and which they at firſt generally avoid, they return to the place through which they lately paſſed, thinking, perhaps, to eſcape, but now find it ſtrongly barricaded, and, as there is no ditch at this place, the hunters, to prevent their coming near and forcing their way, keep a line of fire conſtantly burning all along where the ditch is interrupted, and ſupply it with fuel from the top of the paliſade, and the people from without make a noiſe, ſhouting, and hallooing to drive them away. Whenever they turn, they find themſelves oppoſed by burning fires, except towards the entrance of the ſecond encloſure, or *doobraze-cote*. After traverſing the baigcote for ſome time, and finding no chance of eſcaping but through the gateway into the next encloſure, the leader enters, and the reſt follow: the gate is inſtantly ſhut, by people who are ſtationed on a ſmall ſcaffold immediately above it, and ſtrongly barricaded, fires are lighted, and the ſame diſcordant din made and continued, till the herd has paſſed through another gateway into the inner encloſure, or *rajecote*, the gate of which is ſecured in the ſame manner as the former. The elephants, being now completely ſurrounded on all ſides, and perceiving no outlet through which they can eſcape, appear deſperate, and in their fury advance frequently to the ditch, in order to break down the paliſade, inflating their trunks, ſcreaming louder and ſhriller than any trumpet, ſometimes grumbling like the hollow murmur of diſtant thunder, but, wherever they make an attack, they are oppoſed by lighted fires, and by the noiſe and ſhouts of the hunters. As they muſt remain ſome time in this encloſure, care is always taken to have part of the ditch filled with water, which is ſupplied by a ſmall ſtream, either natural, or conducted through an artificial channel from ſome neighbouring reſervoir. The elephants have recourſe to this water to quench their thirſt and cool themſelves after their fatigues, by ſucking the water into their trunks, and then ſquirting it over every part of their bodies. While they remain in this encloſure, they continue ſulky, and ſeem to meditate their eſcape; but the hunters build huts, and form an encampment, as it were, around them, cloſe to the paliſade; watchmen are placed, and every precaution uſed, to prevent their breaking through.

" When the herd has continued a few days in the keddah, the door of the roomee is opened, into which ſome one of the elephants is enticed to enter, by having food thrown firſt before, and then gradually further on into the paſſage, till the elephant has advanced far enough to admit of the gate being ſhut. Above this wicker-gate, or door, two men are ſtationed on a ſmall ſcaffold, who throw down the food. When the elephant has paſſed beyond the door, they give the ſignal to a man who, from without, ſhuts it by pulling a rope, and they ſecure it by throwing two bars that ſtood perpendicular on each ſide, the one acroſs the other; and then two ſimilar bars are thrown acroſs each other behind the door next to the keddah, ſo that the door is in the center: for farther ſecurity, horizontal bars are puſhed acroſs the roomee, through the openings of the paliſades, both before and behind thoſe croſſes, to prevent the poſſibility of the doors being forced. The roomee is ſo narrow, that a large elephant cannot turn in it; but, finding his retreat thus cut off, he advances, and exerts his utmoſt force to break down the bars, which were previouſly put acroſs a little farther on in the outlet, by running againſt them, ſcreaming and roaring, and battering them, like a ram, by repeated blows of his head, retreating and advancing with the utmoſt fury. In his rage, he riſes and leaps upon the bars with his fore-feet, and ſtrives to break them down with his huge weight. In February, 1788, a large female elephant dropt down dead in the roomee, from the violent exertions ſhe made. When the elephant is ſomewhat fatigued by theſe exertions, ſtrong ropes, with running nooſes, are placed in the outlet by the hunters; and as ſoon as he puts a foot within the nooſe, it is immediately drawn tight, and faſtened to the paliſades. When all his feet have been made pretty faſt, two men place themſelves behind ſome bars, that run acroſs the roomee, to prevent his kicking them, and with great caution tie his hind-legs together, by paſſing a cord alternately from the one to the other, like the figure 8, and then faſtening theſe turns as above deſcribed. After this,

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the phara, dools, &c. are put on in ſucceſſion, in the ſame manner as on the goondah, only that here the people are in greater ſecurity. While theſe ropes are making faſt, the other hunters are careful not to go too near, but keep on the outſide of the paliſade, and divert his attention as much as they can, by ſupplying him with graſs, and ſometimes with plantain-leaves and ſugar-canes, of which he is remarkably fond, by preſenting a ſtick, giving him hopes of catching it, or by gently ſtriking or tickling his proboſcis. He frequently, however, ſeizes the ropes with his trunk, and endeavours to break them, particularly thoſe with which his feet are tied, and ſometimes tries to bite them through with his grinders; but the hunters then goad him with ſharpened bamboos, or light ſpears, ſo as to make him quit his hold. Thoſe who are employed in putting the ropes round his body, ſtand above him, on a ſmall kind of platform, conſiſting of a few bars run acroſs through the openings of the paliſades, and, as an elephant cannot ſee any thing that is above, and rather behind his head, they are very little incommoded by him, although he appears to ſmell them, and endeavours to reach them with his trunk. When the whole apparatus is properly ſecured, the ends of the two cables (*dools*), which were faſtened round his neck, are brought forward to the end of the roomee, where two female elephants are waiting; and to them theſe cables are made faſt. When every thing is ready, the door, at the end of the outlet, is opened, the croſs bars are removed, and the paſſage left clear. The ropes, that tied his legs to the paliſades, are looſened, and, if he does not advance readily, they goad him with long poles, ſharpened at the ends or pointed with iron, and urge him on with their noiſe and din, and, at the ſame time, the females pull him gently forward: as ſoon as he has cleared the roomee, his conductors ſeparate, ſo that if he attempts to go to one ſide, he is prevented by the elephant, that pulls in the oppoſite direction, and *vice verſa*. The bundahs, which tie his hind legs, though but looſely, yet prevent his going faſt; and, thus ſituated, he is conducted like an enraged bull, that has a cord faſtened to his horns on each ſide, ſo that he cannot turn either to the right or left to avenge himſelf. In like manner is this noble animal led to the next tree, as the goondahs, before-mentioned, were. Sometimes he becomes obſtinate, and will not advance; in which caſe, while one of his conductors draws him forward, the other comes behind and puſhes him on: ſhould he lie down, ſhe puts her ſnout under and raiſes him up, ſupporting him on her knee, and with her head puſhing him forward with all her ſtrength, the hunters likewiſe aſſiſt by goading him, and urging him forward by their noiſe and din: ſometimes they are even obliged to put lighted torches near, in order to make him advance. In conducting ſmall elephants from the roomee, only one cable and one koomkee are made uſe of. As ſoon as each elephant is ſecured, he is given in charge to the mahote, or keeper, who is appointed to attend and inſtruct him; and, under him, there are from two to five coolies, according to the ſize of the elephant, in order to aſſiſt and to ſupply food and water, till he becomes ſo tractable as to bring the former himſelf. Theſe people erect a ſmall hut immediately before him, where the mahote, or one of the coolies, conſtantly attends, ſupplies him with food, and ſoothes and careſſes him by a variety of little arts. By degrees he advances cautiouſly to his ſides, and ſtrokes and pats him with his hand, ſpeaking to him all the while in a ſoothing tone of voice, and, in a little time, he begins to know his keeper, and obey his commands. Thus the mahote becomes familiar to him, and at length gets upon his back from one of the tame elephants, and, as the animal becomes more tractable, he advances gradually forward towards his head, till at laſt he is permitted to ſeat himſelf on his neck, from which place he afterwards regulates and directs all his motions. While they are training in this manner, the tame elephants lead out the others in turn, for the ſake of exerciſe, and likewiſe to eaſe their legs from the cords with which they are tied, and which are apt to gall them moſt terribly, unleſs they are regularly ſlacked and ſhifted. In five or ſix weeks the elephant becomes obedient to his keeper, his fetters are taken off by degrees, and generally, in about five or ſix months, he ſuffers himſelf to be conducted by the mahote from one place to another: care, however, is always taken not to let him approach his former haunts, leſt a recollection of the freedom he there enjoyed, ſhould induce him again to recover his liberty. This obedience to his conductor ſeems to proceed partly from a ſenſe of generoſity, as it is, in ſome meaſure, voluntary; for, whenever an elephant takes fright, or is determined to run away, all the exertions of the mahote cannot prevent him, even by beating or digging the pointed iron hook into his head, with which he directs him; on ſuch an occaſion the animal totally diſregards theſe feeble efforts, otherwiſe he could ſhake or pull him off with his trunk, and daſh him in pieces. Accidents of this kind happen almoſt every year, eſpecially to thoſe mahotes who attend the large goondahs, but ſuch accidents are in general owing to their own careleſſneſs and neglect. It is neceſſary to treat the males with much greater ſeverity than the females to keep them in awe; but it is too common a practice among the mahotes, either to be negligent in uſing proper meaſures to render their elephants docile, or to truſt too much to their good-nature, before they are thoroughly acquainted with their diſpoſitions. The iron hook, with which they direct them, is pretty heavy, about ſixteen inches long, with a ſtraight ſpike advancing a little beyond the curve of the hook, ſo that altogether it is like the boat-hook which ferrymen or boatmen uſe, faſtened to a long pole."

The natural hiſtory of this animal has been till lately very ill underſtood. Much of abſurdity and indecorous fable has in conſequence been impoſed on the credulous public, particularly concerning the mode of propagation and geſtation of the elephant. De Feynes and Tavernier, J. C. Wolfe, and the comte de Buffon, aſſure us, with great gravity, that theſe monſtrous animals embrace like man and woman: that "the male makes a pit or hollow in the ground, and aſſiſts his conſort to lay herſelf on her back; and, in caſe he finds her perfectly compliant and agreeable, very complaiſantly helps her up again after the buſineſs is finiſhed, (for ſhe cannot poſſibly riſe of herſelf,) by throwing his trunk round her neck!"—"Theſe animals," ſays Tavernier, "cannot intermix in any other manner: they require, therefore more time and conveniency for this operation than other quadrupeds; and it is perhaps for this reaſon that they never copulate but when they enjoy full liberty, and have every neceſſary article at their command. The female muſt not only conſent, but ſolicit the male, by a poſition which ſhe never aſſumes unleſs when ſhe thinks herſelf in perfect retirement."

M. Bles, and the comte de Buffon alſo aſſure us, that "elephants obſerve the greateſt delicacy in their amours, abhorring nothing ſo much as to be ſeen on thoſe occaſions. The troop divide themſelves into couples, ſteal off into the moſt ſecret receſſes of the foreſt, and there give way to all the impulſes of nature."—The mode of connection, ſays Buffon, "cannot be like that of other quadrupeds, becauſe the female hath the vagina placed near the middle of the belly; and on the other hand, the male organ is by no means proportioned to the magnitude of the animal's body, nor capable of being extended to ſo long an interval: naturaliſts as well as travellers agree, that the penis does not exceed that of a horſe, either in length or diameter." But it is plain that theſe naturaliſts and travellers, any more than comte de Buffon himſelf, had never ſeen, or correctly examined, the living animals, or they would not have impoſed ſuch unfounded ſtories upon the credulity of their readers.

"The approach of the ſeaſon of love," argue theſe writers, "is very eaſily known, becauſe for ſome days before it happens, an oily liquor is ſeen to flow from a ſmall hole on each ſide the head, in both ſexes. The domeſtic female on theſe occaſions ſometimes makes her eſcape, and joins the wild males in the woods. Some days afterward her cornack or keeper goes in queſt of her, and calls her by her name till ſhe comes. She ſubmits to him with complacence, and allows herſelf to be conducted home, and ſhut up in the ſtable. From caſes of this kind, it has been aſcertained, that the female elephant brings forth at the end of nine months." This opinion was alſo adopted by Mr. Pennant, becauſe he appeared to have no better information. See Encyclopædia Britannica, vol. vi. p. 549, 550, &c.

But the advances recently made in ſcience and literature have not only detected theſe impoſitions, but have afforded likewiſe the moſt ſatisfactory accounts of the natural hiſtory and economy of this noble animal. In the "*Anatomique d'un Elephant*," by Peter Camper, profeſſor of anatomy in the Athenium of Amſterdam, publiſhed at Paris, in folio, in 1802, with twenty ſuperb engravings, the phyſiology of the elephant is clearly defined. The information derived from this ſource, is likewiſe conſiderably aided by "Obſervations on the Manners, Habits, and Natural Hiſtory, of the Elephant," by John Corſe, eſq. publiſhed in the Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London for 1799; and to whom the world is indebted for the preceding account of the method of taking wild elephants. By a reſidence of more than ten years in Bengal, and by having the elephant-hunters for five years under his abſolute direction, viz. from 1792 to 1797, he was peculiarly qualified to render the ſubject of this article particularly intereſting and inſtructive.

"The elephant (ſays Mr. Corſe) has been declared to poſſeſs the ſentiment of modeſty in a high degree; and, by ſome, his ſagacity was ſuppoſed to excite feelings for the loſs of liberty, ſo acute, as to cauſe him to refuſe to propagate his ſpecies while in ſlavery, leſt he ſhould entail on his progeny a fate ſimilar to his own; whilſt others have aſſerted, that he loſt the power of procreation in the domeſtic ſtate. So circumſtanced, I was deſirous of taking advantage of my ſituation, and of making ſuch experiments and obſervations, as might tend to render more perfect the natural hiſtory of this uſeful animal. The young of the elephant, at its birth, is about thirty-five inches high; and, as a knowledge of its progreſſive growth forms the beſt criterion by which we can judge of the age of this animal, I ſhall here note ſome obſervations made on this ſubject, till the elephant has attained its full ſize; for, after this period, till ſigns of old age appear, I do not know any marks by which a tolerable gueſs can be made of the number of its years, unleſs we could examine the teeth accurately; and, even then, there would be much uncertainty. The following obſervations, of the gradual increaſe of growth, were made upon a young elephant belonging to Mr. Stephen Harris, which was accurately meaſured from time to time, and upon a female elephant of my own, till I left Tiperah. Mr. Harris's clephant, at its birth, October 16, 1789, was thirty-five inches high.

	Feet.	Inches.
In one year he grew 11 inches, and was	3	10 high.
In the 2d year 8	4	6
In the 3d year 6	5	0
In the 4th year 5	5	5
In the 5th year 5	5	10
In the 6th year $3\frac{1}{2}$	6	$1\frac{1}{2}$
In the 7th year $2\frac{1}{2}$	6	4

"Except during his fourth and fifth years, the above meaſurement ſhews a gradual decreaſe in the proportion of growth for every year; and there was no opportunity of tracing the growth of this elephant farther than its ſeventh year. Another elephant, ſix feet nine inches high at the time ſhe came into my poſſeſſion, was ſuppoſed to be fourteen years old; but, as the accuracy of the hunters cannot be depended on, it will be proper to take Mr. Harris's elephant, whoſe age is exactly known, as a ſtandard; and, judging from its annual increaſe, this will lead us to conſider the elephant, at the time I received her, to be only eleven years old; giving a period of four years, for the addition of five inches. I have made a greater allowance of time, on account of this elephant being a female, and Mr. Harris's a male, which there is much reaſon to believe grows faſter.

"During the next five years, before ſhe was covered, ſhe grew only ſix inches; but, what is extremely curious, while pregnant, ſhe grew, in twenty-one months, five inches; and, in the following ſeventeen months, though again pregnant, ſhe grew only half an inch; at which time ſhe was ſent from Comillah, as I was then preparing to leave India. At this time ſhe was about nineteen years old, and had, perhaps, attained her full growth. Her young one was then (November 1796) not twenty months old; yet he was four feet five inches and a half high, having grown eighteen inches ſince his birth; which is the greateſt progreſſive growth, in the elephant, that I have known. Theſe obſervations, when applied to the general growth of elephants, are to be taken with ſome allowance; ſince, during the ſtate of the firſt pregnancy, there is ſo great an irregularity in the growth of female elephants, as alone occaſions conſiderable difficulty, even ſuppoſing the progreſſive growth nearly equal in the ſpecies. It is probable, however, that this is not by any means equal; for, as elephants vary greatly in ſize, and as males are generally much taller than females, we muſt conclude they either grow faſter, or are longer in attaining their full growth. But it may be ſafely aſſerted, that elephants, like moſt quadrupeds, propagate their ſpecies before they have acquired their full growth. Many females have been known, when taken while pregnant, to have grown ſeveral inches higher before delivery; and, as it has been ſtated, that the female elephant on which my obſervations were made, could not exceed ſixteen years when ſhe received the male, it is probable the wild female elephants are in heat before that period.

"If, from the above data, it may be allowed to form a probable conjecture, elephants attain their full ſize between eighteen and twenty-four years of age. The height of the elephant, I believe, has been often much exaggerated. In India, the height of females is, in general, from ſeven to eight feet; and that of males, from eight to ten feet, meaſured at the ſhoulder. I have never heard but of one elephant, on good authority, that much exceeded ten feet; this was a male belonging to Aſoph ul Dowlah, vizier of Oude. His dimenſions were as follow: meaſured on the 18th of June, 1796.

	Feet.	Inch.
From foot to foot, over the ſhoulder . . .	22	$10\frac{1}{2}$
From the top of the ſhoulder, perpendicular height	10	6
From the top of the head, when ſet up, as he ought to march in ſtate	12	2
From the front of the face to the inſertion of the tail	15	11

"Captain Sandys, of the Bengal eſtabliſhment, ſhewed me a liſt of about one hundred and fifty elephants, of which he had the management during the war with Tippoo Sultaun, in Myſore, and not one of them was ten feet, and only a few males nine feet and a half high. I was very particular in aſcertaining the height of the elephants employed at Madras, and with the army under marquis Cornwallis, where there were both Ceylon and Bengal elephants; and I have been aſſured, that thoſe of Ceylon were neither higher, nor ſuperior, in any reſpect, to thoſe of Bengal.

"The Madras elephants have been ſaid to be from ſeventeen

ſeventeen to twenty feet high; but, to ſhew how much the natives of India are inclined to the marvellous, and how liable Europeans themſelves are to miſtakes, I will relate a circumſtance that happened to myſelf. Having heard, from ſeveral gentlemen who had been at Dacca, that the nabob there had an elephant about fourteen feet high, I was deſirous to meaſure him; eſpecially as I had ſeen him often myſelf, during the year 1785, and then ſuppoſed him to be above twelve feet. After being at Tiperah, and having ſeen many elephants caught, in the years 1786, 1787, and 1788, and finding all of them much inferior in height to what I ſuppoſed the nabob's elephant, I went to Dacca, in 1789, determined to ſee this huge animal meaſured. At firſt, I ſent for the *mahote* or driver, to aſk ſome queſtions concerning this elephant; he, without heſitation, aſſured me he was from ten to twelve cubits, that is, from fifteen to eighteen feet, high; but added, he could not, without the nabob's permiſſion, bring me the elephant to be examined. Permiſſion was accordingly aſked, and granted: I had him meaſured exactly, and was rather ſurpriſed to find he did not exceed ten feet in height. The Eaſt-India company's ſtandard, for ſerviceable elephants, is ſeven feet and upwards, meaſured at the ſhoulder, in the ſame manner as horſes are. At the middle of the back they are conſiderably higher; the curve or arch of which, particularly in young elephants, makes a difference of ſeveral inches.

"It has been ſtated by Buffon, and others, that the ſagacity of the elephant is ſo great, and his memory ſo retentive, that when once he has received an injury, or been in bondage, and afterwards eſcapes, it is not poſſible, by any art, again to entrap him. Great as my partiality is for this noble animal, whoſe modes of life and general ſagacity I have had ſo many opportunities of obſerving, yet a regard to truth compels me to mention ſome facts, which contradict that opinion. The following hiſtory of an elephant taken by Mr. Leeke, of Longford Hall, Shropſhire, while reſident at Tiperah, contains many intereſting particulars on this ſubject. The elephant was a female, and was taken at firſt, with a herd of many others, in 1765, by rajah Kiſhun Maunick, principal zemindar of Tiperah, who, about ſix months after, gave her to Abdoor Rezah, a man of rank in the diſtrict. In 1767, the rajah ſent a force againſt Abdoor Rezah, for ſome refractory conduct; who, in his retreat to the hills, turned her looſe into the woods, after having uſed her above two years as a riding elephant. In January, 1770, ſhe was retaken by the rajah; but, in April, 1771, ſhe broke looſe from her pickets, or faſtenings, in a ſtormy night, and eſcaped to the hills. On the 25th of December, 1782, ſhe was driven by Mr. Leeke's elephant hunters into a keddah, as above deſcribed; and, the day following, when Mr. Leeke went to ſee the herd that had been ſecured, this elephant was pointed out to him by the hunters, and particularly by a driver who had had charge of her for ſome time, and well recollected her. They frequently called to her by name; to which ſhe ſeemed to pay ſome attention, by immediately looking towards them, when her name, *Juggut-Peauree*, was repeated; nor did ſhe appear like the wild elephants, which were conſtantly running about the keddah in a rage, but ſeemed perfectly reconciled to her ſituation. From the 25th of December to the 13th of January, (a ſpace of eighteen days,) ſhe never went near enough the outlet (or roomee) to be ſecured; from a recollection, perhaps, of what ſhe had before ſuffered. Orders, however, had been given not to permit her to enter the outlet, had ſhe been ſo inclined, as Mr. Leeke wiſhed to be preſent when ſhe was taken out of the keddah. On the 13th of January, 1783, Mr. Leeke went out, when there were only herſelf, another female, and eight young ones, remaining in the enclofure. After the other female had been ſecured, by means of the koomkees, or female decoyers, ſent in for that purpoſe, the hunters were ordered to call *Juggut-Peauree*. She immediately came to the ſide of the ditch, within the enclofure; on which, ſome of the drivers were deſired to carry in a plantain-tree, the leaves of which ſhe not only took from their hands, with her trunk, but opened her mouth, for them to put a leaf into it, which they did, ſtroking and careſſing her, and calling to her by name. Mr. Leeke, ſeeing the animal ſo tame, would not permit the hunters to attempt tying her; but ordered one of the trained elephants to be brought to her, and the driver to take her by the ear, and order her to lie down. At firſt, ſhe did not like the koomkee to go near her, and retired to a diſtance, ſeemingly angry; but, when the drivers, who were on foot, called to her, ſhe came immediately, and allowed them to ſtroke and careſs her, as before; and, in a few minutes after, permitted the trained females to be familiar. A driver, from one of theſe, then faſtened a rope round her body, and inſtantly jumped on her back; which, at the moment, ſhe did not like, but was ſoon reconciled to it. A ſmall cord was next faſtened round her neck, for the driver to put his feet in, who, ſeating himſelf on the neck, in the uſual manner, drove her about the keddah, the ſame as any of the tame elephants. After this, he ordered her to lie down, which ſhe inſtantly did; nor did ſhe riſe till ſhe was deſired. He fed her from his ſeat, gave her his ſtick to hold, which ſhe took with her trunk, and put into her mouth, kept, and then returned it, as ſhe was directed, and as ſhe formerly had been accuſtomed to do. In ſhort, ſhe was ſo obedient, that had there been more wild elephants in the keddah, to tie, ſhe would have been uſeful in ſecuring them. Mr. Leeke himſelf then went up, took her by the ear, and bade her lie down; a command ſhe inſtantly obeyed.

"I have known ſeveral other inſtances of elephants being taken a ſecond time; and was myſelf a witneſs both of the eſcape and retaking of one, as follows: In June, 1787, *Jattra-Mungul*, a male elephant, taken the year before, was travelling, in company with ſome other elephants, towards Chittigong, laden with a tent and ſome baggage, for our accommodation on the journey. Having come upon a tiger's track, which elephants diſcover readily by the ſmell, he took fright, and ran off to the woods, in ſpite of the efforts of his driver. On entering the wood, the driver ſaved himſelf, by ſpringing from the elephant, and clinging to the branch of a tree under which he was paſſing; when the elephant had got rid of his driver, he ſoon contrived to ſhake off his load. As ſoon as he ran away, a trained female was diſpatched after him, but could not get up in time to prevent his eſcape; ſhe, however, brought back his driver, and the load he had thrown off, and we proceeded, without any hope of ever ſeeing him again. Eighteen months after this, when a herd of elephants had been taken, and had remained ſeveral days in the enclofure, till they were enticed into the outlet, there tied, and led out in the uſual manner, one of the drivers, viewing a male elephant very attentively, declared he reſembled the one which had run away. This excited the curioſity of every one to go and look at him; but, when any perſon came near, the animal ſtruck at him with his trunk, and, in every reſpect, appeared as wild and outrageous as any of the other elephants. At length, an old hunter, coming up and examining him narrowly, declared that he was the very elephant that had made his eſcape about eighteen months before. Confident of this, he boldly rode up to him on a tame elephant, and ordered him to lie down, pulling him by the ear at the ſame time. The animal ſeemed quite taken by ſurpriſe, and inſtantly obeyed the word of command, with as much quickneſs as the ropes, with which he was tied, permitted; uttering, at the ſame time, a peculiar ſhrill ſqueak through his trunk, as he had formerly been known to do; by which he was immediately recognized by every perſon who had ever been acquainted with this peculiarity.

"Thus we ſee that this elephant, for the ſpace of eight or ten days, during which he was in the keddah, and

and even while he was tying in the outlet, appeared equally wild and fierce as the boldeſt elephant then taken; ſo that he was not even ſuſpected of having been formerly taken, till he was conducted from the outlet. The moment, however, he was addreſſed in a commanding tone, the recollection of his former obedience ſeemed to ruſh upon him at once; and, without any difficulty, he permitted a driver to be ſeated on his neck, who, in a few days, made him as tractable as ever. Theſe, and ſeveral other inſtances which have occurred, clearly evince, that elephants have not the ſagacity to avoid a ſnare into which they have, even more than once, fallen; nor that, if domeſtic females were ſuffered to ſtray into the woods in queſt of the males, they would ever return, at the call of their cornack, to ſlavery again. Beſides, in what part of thoſe immenſe foreſts ſhould he go to find them?

"The general idea that tame elephants would not breed, has doubtleſs prevented trials being made, to aſcertain whether, under particular circumſtances, this ſuppoſed reluctance could be got the better of. I was however convinced, from obſervation, as well as from ſome particular facts, that elephants had their ſeaſons in which they were in heat; I ſhall, therefore, firſt mention the circumſtances which induced me to attempt breeding from tame elephants, and then relate the ſucceſs of the experiments inſtituted for this purpoſe. The circumſtances to which I allude, happened in January, 1790, at a keddah near to Comillah, the capital of Tiperah. Meſſrs. Henry Buller and George Dowdeſwell, of Chittigong, being then on a viſit at Comillah, accompanied me and ſeveral others, to ſee a herd of elephants which had been lately taken. Our viſitors then propoſed a trial being made, of tying the wild elephants immediately, in the keddah, in the manner practiſed at Chittigong, inſtead of waiting till they were enticed, one after another, into the narrow outlet, there to be ſecured, and led out in the uſual manner. This mode they recommended ſo earneſtly, from a conviction of its ſuperior utility, that Mr. John Buller, to whom the keddah belonged, aſſented to the trial being made, and gave orders for the trained females, and proper aſſiſtants, to go directly within the encloſure. Having but few trained females preſent, it was judged adviſable to ſend in a fine male elephant, taken many years before, and thoroughly broke in, to aſſiſt them, as well as to keep the herd in awe. He had no ſooner entered the encloſure, and been brought near the herd, than, diſcovering one of the females to be in heat, impelled by deſire, and eager to cover her, he daſhed through the herd, regardleſs of the orders and ſevere diſcipline of the driver, and had nearly accompliſhed his purpoſe. The driver, being alarmed for his own ſafety, exerted in vain all his ſtrength, to turn him, and bring him from among the wild elephants; but the drivers of the trained females, coming ſpeedily to his aſſiſtance, ſoon ſurrounded this furious animal, and ſeparated him from the herd. In reſentment, however, of his diſappointment, he attacked a ſmall koomkee, with ſuch violence as completely overturned her and her rider; and, had he not been of the ſpecies called *mucknah*, which have not the long tuſks, he moſt probably would have transfixed, and killed her on the ſpot: fortunately, neither ſhe nor her driver received any conſiderable hurt. This accident prevented the trial being then made, to tie the wild elephants in the manner propoſed.

"Reflecting on the diſobedience ſhown by an elephant remarkably docile, and which had been domeſticated for many years, when his paſſions were excited, and recollecting alſo, that a wild elephant had covered a female, in February, 1778, before many ſpectators, juſt after the herd had been ſecured in the encloſure, I was aſſured in my own mind, that it was not from any ſenſe of modeſty, either wild or tame elephants did not gratify their paſſions in public; but no opportunity offered of proſecuting this enquiry, till 1792. Having then taken upon myſelf the management of the elephant hunters, a very fine male was caught in November: he was both young and handſome, and alſo of a moſt docile diſpoſition; I therefore promiſed his driver a conſiderable gratuity, if he would get him into high order, ſo that I might have an opportunity of bringing his procreative powers to trial, with a tame female.

"In March, 1793, the driver of a favourite female elephant informed me, that ſhe had then ſigns of being in heat; and that, if the male and ſhe were kept together, and highly fed, an intimacy would probably ſoon take place. They were therefore, ſhortly after this, brought near to Comillah, where a ſpacious ſhed was erected for their accommodation. In the day they went out together to feed; they alſo brought home a load of ſuch ſucculent food as their drivers and attendants could collect. After their return, they ſtood together, ſlept near each other, and every opportunity was granted them to form a mutual attachment. It is always a good ſign, when an elephant lies down to ſleep, within a few months after he is taken; as it ſhews him to be of a good temper, not ſuſpicious, but reconciled to his fate. Elephants, particularly goondahs, have been known to ſtand twelve months at their pickets, without lying down to ſleep; though they ſometimes take a nap ſtanding. In this way a partiality took place, as was evident from their careſſing each other with their trunks; and this without ceremony, before a number of other elephants, as well as their attendants. Near the end of June, I was ſatisfied the male would not, even to regain his freedom, quit the object of his regard; I therefore ordered the keepers to picket the female, by one of her fore-legs only, in the houſe where they ſtood, but to leave the male at full liberty. Fearful, however, of hurting their ſuppoſed delicacy, and thinking the nearneſs and ſight of the attendants might poſſibly give umbrage to their modeſty, I deſired them to remain quiet in a little hut, erected on the outſide of the building appropriated to the elephants, where they could ſee equally well as if nearer.

"On the evening of the 28th of June, 1793, the male was let looſe from his pickets; and, ſoon after, he covered the female without any difficulty, although before this ſhe never could have received the male, being taken when very young, about five years and a half prior to this period. The male was then led quietly to his ſtall; but, early in the morning of the 29th, he became ſo troubleſome, that the drivers, in order, as they ſaid, to quiet him, but partly, I ſuſpect, to indulge their own curioſity, permitted him to cover her a ſecond time; which he readily did, before the uſual attendants, as well as a number of other ſpectators. About two in the afternoon of the ſame day, I was deſired to repair to the place where the elephants ſtood, as the male had been trying to get nearer the female. On this, I proceeded to the ſpot, with captain Gregory; when we arrived, I ordered the male to be freed from his ſhackles; and, after ſome time toying, and a few mutual careſſes, we had the ſatisfaction to ſee him cover the female. She remained perfectly ſtill during the coitus. When the male had finiſhed, he ſtood quietly by her ſide, while ſhe careſſed him with her trunk; and, as they then appeared well pleaſed, and gentle as uſual, I went up and patted them both, as I had formerly been accuſtomed to do, without the ſmalleſt apprehenſion. In the evening, they were both brought home to be fed; and, though only a few hours had elapſed ſince his laſt embrace, the male ſeemed inclined to make another attempt; to which I would have conſented, to gratify a croud of people then preſent, had I not learned, that he had covered the female in the open plain, about ten in the morning, when going out for food, in ſpite of the exertions of the drivers and attendants; at leaſt ſo they alleged, in excuſe for having permitted it, contrary to my orders. As he had already covered four times in about ſixteen hours, I was afraid a further indulgence might be prejudicial, and therefore

would not permit it; eſpecially as Mr. Imhoff, to whom he belonged, was abſent. That gentleman, however, returned two days after; but, when the two elephants were brought together, in order that Mr. Imhoff's curioſity might be indulged with ſo novel a ſight, the female, being no longer in heat, was ſo uncivil as to give the male a kick in the face, when he was uſing what ſhe then thought improper liberties; nor did ſhe afterwards permit him to cover her, though, when ſtanding together, they mutually indulged in a few careſſes.

"During the time they were kept together, the male never ſhowed ſigns of his paſſions being excited, by any exudation from the ducts of the glands near his temples; which has been conſidered as the ſign of a male elephant being peculiarly ready for the female. This, I am inclined to believe, is a vulgar error; as not one of the elephants I have ſeen cover, in a domeſtic ſtate, nor any of the males which were caught ſingly, or rather entrapped, by their deſire to have connexion with the tame females, had, at thoſe times, the ſmalleſt appearance of ſuch an exudation. Had this happened, in any one inſtance, during my reſidence in Tiperah, I muſt have known it; for, when this exudation takes place, the elephant has a dull heavy look, and it is dangerous for ſtrangers to go near him. I have ſeen elephants in this ſituation, after they had been many years caught; but, though they were then ſaid to have their paſſions excited, I have never known one to cover during the continuance of this exudation: nor have elephants, ſo far as I have been able to obſerve, any particular ſeaſons of love, like horſes. Of five inſtances of elephants covered at Tiperah, one received the male in February, another in April, a third in June, a fourth in September, and the fifth in October. Beſides theſe, an attempt was made by a tame male, to cover, in the month of January, a wild female, then in heat. When the female is in heat, the parts of generation ſhow it, by the fulneſs of the labia; and, if ſhe is placed near a male, ſhe endeavours, by careſſes, to excite his deſires. It may here be proper to obſerve, in refutation of what has been aſſerted by the comte de Buffon, and for the purpoſe of correcting the errors of other zoologiſts in ſo much miſrepreſented article of natural hiſtory, that the penis of a full-grown elephant is from two feet four to two feet ſix inches in length, and from fourteen to ſixteen inches in circumference. I cauſed the penis of two males to be meaſured, after their paſſions were excited, in order to aſcertain the real fact. On ſome occaſions, I have ſeen the penis abſolutely touch the ground, when the elephant has been walking.

"After the female had been covered by the male, as above related, there being then no other female ready, he was placed with an elephant which had had a young one about four years before, and ſome months ago was reported to have been in heat. It was thought, after ſome trial, that ſhe was likely to permit him to cover, as ſhe careſſed him occaſionally, and rouſed his paſſions; but ſhe would not allow him to gratify his deſire. The drivers, tired of this coyneſs, and ſtimulated perhaps by the hopes of another gratuity, were ſo brutal as to tie her, and let the male make an attempt upon her, while tied. His attempt, however, was to no purpoſe; though he continued his efforts till he appeared to be quite exhauſted. This being told me, I ſeverely reprimanded the people; and ordered the female to be left at full liberty to reject or receive the male, as ſhe might think proper. Here, however, was poſitive proof, that the male would have effected his purpoſe by force, when he found he could not obtain it any other way. He remained at Comillah till October, 1793, without my being able to procure a female that was in heat; he was then ſent to Calcutta.

"I now became extremely ſolicitous about the health of the female which was covered in June; and gave particular directions not to overheat her, but merely to give her as much food and exerciſe as were likely to keep her in the beſt condition, as ſhe was now known to be pregnant. In three months after ſhe was covered, ſhe became fuller, her fleſh felt ſofter, and her breaſts began to ſwell. Theſe marks of her being with young, were ſo evident to the driver, that he mentioned them of his own accord; which convinced me, that an elephant, three months after conception, may be known by the keepers to be pregnant. She was ſeven feet three inches high, when covered; but, after this increaſed ſo faſt, not in bulk only, but alſo in height, as to exceed ſeven feet eight inches, before ſhe brought forth. On the 16th of March, 1795, ſhe produced a fine male; juſt twenty months and eighteen days after ſhe was firſt covered. The young one was thirty-five inches and a half high; and had every appearance of having arrived at its full time, being the largeſt I had known produced in Tiperah. We have many young produced every year, by the females which are taken while breeding, and theſe ſeldom exceed thirty-four inches; this, however, may be owing to the weak and reduced ſtate the mothers are brought to, while breaking in.

"The young of the elephant, at leaſt all thoſe I have ſeen, begin to nibble and ſuck the breaſt ſoon after birth; preſſing it with the trunk, which, by natural inſtinct, they know will make the milk flow more readily into the mouth, while ſucking: but the young certainly never ſuck with the trunk, as aſſerted by ſome authors. Elephants never lie down to give their young ones ſuck; and it often happens, when the dam is tall, that ſhe is obliged, for ſome time, to bend her body towards her young, to enable him to reach the nipple with his mouth; conſequently, if ever the trunk was uſed to lay hold of the nipple, it would be at this period, when he is making laborious efforts to reach it with his mouth, but which he could always eaſily do with his trunk, if it anſwered the purpoſe. In ſucking, the young elephant always graſps the nipple (which projects horizontally from the breaſt) with the ſide of his mouth. I have very often obſerved this; and ſo ſenſible are the attendants of it, that, with them, it is a common practice to raiſe a ſmall mound of earth for the young one to ſtand on, and thus ſave the mother the trouble of bending her body every time ſhe gives ſuck, which ſhe cannot readily do when tied to her picket.

"Tame elephants are never ſuffered to remain looſe; as inſtances occur of the mother leaving even her young, and eſcaping into the woods; from which they never return of their own accord, as has been ſo confidently aſſerted. Another circumſtance deſerves notice: if a wild elephant happens to be ſeparated from her young, for only two days, though giving ſuck, ſhe never afterwards recognizes or acknowledges it. This ſeparation ſometimes happened unavoidably, when they were enticed ſeparately into the outlet of the keddah. I have been much mortified at ſuch unnatural conduct in the mother; particularly when it was evident the young elephant knew its dam, and, by its plaintive cries and ſubmiſſive approaches, ſolicited her aſſiſtance.

"Having mentioned a ſufficient number of inſtances, to prove the ability, as well as the inclination, of the elephant, to propagate his ſpecies in a domeſtic ſtate, and that without any ſigns of peculiar modeſty, and having aſcertained the period of geſtation to be twenty months and eighteen days, it may be neceſſary to obſerve, that it is a difficult matter to bring a male, which has been taken about the prime of life, into good condition to act as a ſtallion; for, being naturally bolder, and of a more ungovernable diſpoſition, than the female, he is not in general eaſily tamed, till reduced very low; and it requires conſiderable time, as well as much expence and attention, before he can be brought into ſuch high order as is requiſite. He muſt alſo be of a gentle temper, and diſpoſed to put confidence in his keeper; for he will not readily have connexion with a female, whilſt under the

influence of fear or diſtruſt. Of this I have ſeen many inſtances; nor do I recollect one male elephant in ten, which had been taken after having attained his full growth, much diſpoſed to have connexion with a female. This is a moſt convincing proof, that thoſe males which are taken early in life, and have been domeſticated for many years, more readily procreate their ſpecies than elephants taken at a later period. In their wild ſtate, however, they ſhow no reluctance; for, beſides all the males that are entrapped, from their deſire to have connexion with the trained females which, though not in heat, are carried out to ſeduce them, ſeveral inſtances have occurred, of wild elephants covering, immediately after being taken, in the keddah.

"On the 3d of April, 1795, a very fine male elephant covered a female twice, in the midſt of the wild herd, and before all the hunters. On the 4th, I ſaw him attempting to cover a third time, when he was ſuddenly diſturbed, by the noiſe the hunters made to drive away ſome of the herd which had come too near the paliſade. In conſequence of this interruption, he threw down firſt one and then another ſmall elephant, and gored them terribly with his tuſks, though they came between him and the female only for their protection: he had, before this, killed four, and wounded many others. When the poor animals were thrown down, conſcious of their impending fate, they roared moſt piteouſly; but, notwithſtanding their proſtrate ſituation, and ſubmiſſive cries, he unfeelingly and deliberately drove his tuſks through, and tranſfixed them to the ground; yet none of the large elephants, not even the dams of the ſufferers, came near to relieve them, or ſeemed to be ſenſibly affected. This ſavage animal had been then confined four days in the encloſure, along with the herd, upon a very ſcanty allowance of food, and could have but very little hope of eſcaping; yet here his paſſions were ſtronger than his fears. It was on account of this ſavage diſpoſition, the hunters had aſked permiſſion to ſhoot him, before I had either ſeen him or the herd, and thence judged he was a goondah, that had lately joined. Having never before known any elephant killed wilfully, in the keddah, by the larger males, and having no idea that he would commit ſuch terrible havock, I unluckily refuſed to grant their requeſt, being deſirous to ſave ſo ſtately an elephant. When the paliſade was finiſhed, I got him tied, and led out; but, not brooking reſtraint, he languiſhed about forty days, after he was ſecured, and then died. From this inſtance, as well as many concurring circumſtances, I am convinced that theſe goondahs generally leave the herd of their own accord, and join it when they think proper, or are induced to it from a female being in heat; yet it has been ſuppoſed, that they are driven from the herd, at an early period of life, by their ſeniors. This appears improbable, as it is not often that very large males are taken with an herd of elephants; for, depending on their own ſtrength, they ſtray ſingly, or in ſmall parties, from the woods into the plains, and even to the villages; and it is in theſe excurſions they are taken, by means of the trained females. As theſe goondahs are much larger, and ſtronger, than the males generally taken with the herd, it is not probable they would ſubmit to be driven from it, unleſs at an early period. I have ſeldom ſeen, in a herd of elephants, a male ſo large as may be commonly met with among two or three goondahs; but, if theſe laſt were driven from the herd when young, the very reverſe would be obſerved.

"In the courſe of this narrative, I have, in general, related only ſuch particulars concerning the elephant as came within my own knowledge, and which were either not known, or not publiſhed. To enter into a particular hiſtory of the elephant was not my intention; and, although the procreation of tame elephants has been proved, yet the expence incurred by breeding them, may deter others from making attempts of this kind. But it opens a field of curious enquiry to the naturaliſt; and, now that the facility with which it may be done is aſcertained, it ſuggeſts itſelf as a mode by which the breed of elephants may be improved, in ſize, ſtrength, and activity. In this way, any expence which might be incurred, would more than repay itſelf, in the future benefits to be derived from a ſuperior breed of elephants."

From the koomareah and merghee caſts of Aſiatic elephants above-deſcribed, the *ſunkareah* breed is produced, beſides other varieties. But the nearer an elephant approaches to the true koomareah, the more he is preferred, eſpecially by the natives, and the higher price he will conſequently bear. Europeans are not ſo particular, and will ſometimes prefer a merghee female for hunting and riding on, when ſhe is known to have good paces, and to be of a mild and tractable diſpoſition.

"The elephants for the ſervice of the Eaſt-India company, (ſays Mr. Corſe,) are generally taken in the provinces of Chittigong and Tiperah; but, from what I have heard, thoſe to the ſouthward of Chittigong, in the Burmah territories and kingdom of Pegu, are of a ſuperior breed. In confirmation of this opinion, I may obſerve, that the elephants taken to the ſouth of the Goomty river, which divides the province of Tiperah from eaſt to weſt, are generally better than thoſe taken to the north of that river; and, though elephants are taken at Pilibet, as far north as latitude 29 deg. in the vizier of Oude's territories, yet the vizier, and alſo the officers of his court, give thoſe taken in Chittigong and Tiperah a decided preference, they being much larger and ſtronger than the Pilibet elephant. Till the year 1790, Tiperah was a part of the Chittigong province; and, ſo ſenſible was the Bengal government of the ſuperiority of the ſouthern elephants, for carrying burdens, enduring fatigue, and being leſs liable to caſualties, that, in the late contracts for ſupplying the army with thoſe uſeful animals, the contractor was bound not to ſend any elephant to the military ſtations, taken north of the Chittigong province. Hence we may conclude the torrid zone to be the natural clime, and the moſt favourable for producing the largeſt, the beſt, and the hardieſt, elephant; and that, when this animal migrates beyond the tropics, the ſpecies degenerates. On the coaſt of Malabar, elephants are taken as far north as the territories of the coorgah rajah; but theſe are much inferior to the Ceylon elephant, and, from this circumſtance, the report of the ſuperiority of the Ceylon elephant to all others has probably originated. Moſt of the accounts we have had reſpecting the Aſiatic elephant, have been given by gentlemen who reſided many years ago on the coaſt of Malabar or Coromandel; where, at that time, they had but few opportunities of ſeeing the Chittigong or Pegu elephant.

"After premiſing theſe general obſervations, I may here obſerve, with reſpect to elephant's tuſks, that thoſe in ſome of the females are ſo ſmall as not to appear beyond the lip, whilſt in others they are almoſt as large as in one variety of the koomareah male, named *mooknah*. The largeſt tuſks, from which the beſt ivory is ſupplied, are taken from that variety of the male named *dauntelah*, or *toothy*, in conſequence of his large tuſks, and whoſe countenance, from this circumſtance, is the moſt oppoſite, in appearance, to that of the mooknah; which, as juſt obſerved, is hardly to be diſtinguiſhed, by his head, from a female elephant. Though there is a material difference in the appearance of a mooknah and a dauntelah, yet, if they are of the ſame caſt, *(zat,)* ſize, and diſpoſition, and perfect, that is, free from any defect or blemiſh, there is ſcarcely any difference in their price. An elephant is ſaid to be perfect, when his ears are large and rounded; his eyes full and lucid, of a dark hazle colour, free from ſpecks; the roof of his mouth, and his tongue, free from black ſpots of any conſiderable ſize; his trunk large, and his tail long. His head muſt be well ſet on, and carried rather high. The arch or curve of his back riſing gradually from the ſhoulder to the middle, and thence deſcending to the inſertion of the tail; and all his

his joints firm and ſtrong. The figure of the elephant given in the annexed engraving, is of the mooknah breed, and was tranſmitted to the editors as a real and ſtriking portrait of one which had been in the family of the nabob of Arcot upwards of a hundred years. His tuſks, which were never long, had fallen many years before his portrait was taken, as ſuppoſed, from extreme old age.

"The varieties between the mooknah and dauntelah are conſiderable, and for theſe there are appropriate names, according as the form of the tuſks varies from the projecting horizontal, but rather elevated, curve of the pullung daunt of the perfect dauntelah, to the nearly ſtraight tuſks of the mooknah, which point directly downwards. *Pullung* ſignifies a bed or cot, and *daunt*, teeth; and, from the tuſks projecting ſo regularly, and being a little curved and elevated at the extremities, the natives ſuppoſe a man might lie on them at his eaſe, as on a bed. When a dauntelah has never had but one tuſk, and this of the pullung ſort, he is ſaid to be a *goneiſh* or *ganeſa*, and will ſell to the Hindoo princes for a very high price, to be kept in ſtate, and worſhipped as the Hindoo god of wiſdom. I have ſeen elephants apparently of this kind; but, when accurately examined, the tuſk wanting appeared to me to have been loſt by accident, ſo that I cannot ſay I ever ſaw a male which had originally only one tuſk.

"A ſecond variety of the dauntelah is, when the large tuſks point downwards, projecting only a little way beyond the trunk; he is then ſaid to have *ſoor* or *choor daunt*; that is, hog's teeth. A third variety is the *puttel-dauntee*, whoſe tuſks are ſtraight, like thoſe of the mooknah, only much longer, and thicker. A fourth variety is the *ankoos-dauntee*, or crooked, where one tuſk grows nearly horizontal, like the pullung-daunt, and the other like the puttel-daunt. Beſides theſe, the elephant-keepers notice other varieties, which are leſs diſtinct."

The elephants of Ceylon, Cochin-china, &c. being of the true Aſiatic ſpecies, are more or leſs ſubject to the ſame varieties. Thoſe in China, as we are informed by ſir George Staunton, are brought from the neighbourhood of the equator, and are of a lighter and ſmaller breed than thoſe of Cochin-ehina. "Theſe, however diſcreet in their amours, (ſays ſir George,) are found to unite in the manner of other quadrupeds, notwithſtanding a formation apparently inconvenient on both ſides, but which accommodates itſelf to particular purpoſes." See Embaſſy to China, vol. ii. p. 312.

The mode of *dentition* in the elephant, is a new and intereſting ſubject of inveſtigation, which has been purſued with great labour and attention by Mr. Corſe. "All the tuſks in the male (ſays this writer) are fixed very deep in the upper jaw; and the root or upper part, which is hollow and filled with a core, goes as high as the inſertion of the trunk, round the margin of the naſal opening to the throat; which opening is juſt below the protuberance of the forehead. Through this opening the elephant breathes, and by its means he ſucks up water into his trunk; between it and the roots of the tuſks there is only a thin bony plate. The firſt or milk tuſks of an elephant never grow to any ſize, but are ſhed between the firſt and ſecond year, when not two inches in length. Theſe, as well as the firſt grinders, are named by the natives *dood-hau-daunt*, which literally ſignifies *milk teeth*. The tuſks which are ſhed have a conſiderable part of the root or fang abſorbed or decayed before this happens; as may be ſeen, by comparing one that has been ſhed, with another lodged in the ſocket of a young elephant, before it had cut the gum. The time at which the tuſks cut the gum, varies conſiderably. I have known a young one get his tuſks when about five months old; whereas, the tuſks of another did not cut the gum till he was ſeven months old. Thoſe tuſks which are deciduous, are perfect, and without any hollow in the root, in a fœtus which is come to its full time; at this period, the ſocket of the permanent tuſk begins to be formed, on the inner ſide of the deciduous tuſk. A young elephant ſhed one of his milk tuſks on the 6th of November, 1790, when near thirteen months old, and the other on the 27th of December, when above fourteen months old: they were merely two black-coloured ſtumps, when ſhed; but, two months afterwards the permanent ones cut the gum, and, on the 19th of April, 1791, they were an inch long, but black and ragged at the ends. When they became longer, and projected beyond the lip, they ſoon were worn ſmooth, by the motion and friction of the trunk.

"The permanent tuſks of the female are very ſmall, in compariſon with thoſe of the male, and do not take their riſe ſo deep in the jaw; but they uſe them as weapons of offenee, in the ſame manner as the male named mooknah; that is, by putting their head above another elephant, and preſſing their tuſks down into the animal. Theſe tuſks are never ſhed, except by accident, or extreme old age; and ſometimes they grow to a very large ſize in the male dauntelah. The largeſt I have known in Bengal, did not exceed ſeventy-two pounds, avoirdupois: at Tiperah, they ſeldom exceed fifty pounds; but both theſe weights are very inferior to that of the tuſks brought from other places to the India-houſe, where I have ſeen ſome near 150 pounds each. From what part of Aſia they came, I could not learn, but ſuſpect they were imported from Pegu to Caleutta, and thenee to London.

"The African elephant is ſaid to be ſmaller than the Aſiatic; yet I am credibly informed, by the ivory-dealers in London, that the largeſt tuſks generally come from Africa, and are of a better texture, and leſs liable to turn yellow, than the Indian ivory, after being manufactured. This probably is owing to the tuſks having lain longer in Africa, before they were imported, than thoſe brought from Aſia. In the latter country, moſt of the tuſks exported are taken from elephants immediately after their death; whereas, the Africans find many teeth in the deſert places which have been frequented by this animal. The intenſe heat of a vertical ſun will undoubtedly render the ivory firmer and harder, if the tuſks happen to lie on the ſcorching ſand, or in any other dry ſituation.

"The increaſe of the tuſk ariſes from circular layers of ivory, applied internally, from the core on which they are formed, ſimilar to what happens in the growth of the horns of ſome animals. When the tuſks of the living elephant are ſawn through, and the remaining portion expoſed ſome months to the air, this ſtructure is clearly ſhewn. If the period in which one of theſe circular layers is completed could be aſcertained, this might lead us to fix, with tolerable preciſion, the age of an elephant, by counting the circles in each tuſk. Cutting off a portion of the tuſks of a living elephant is a common practiee; it is done with a view to make the tuſks grow thicker, when they are too long and ſlender, and alſo ſometimes for the ſake of uniformity, when they grow in a wrong direction.

"With regard to the ſtructure of the grinders, it muſt be obſerved, that a grinder is compoſed of ſeveral diſtinct laminæ or teeth, each covered with its proper enamel; and that theſe teeth are merely joined to each other by the common oſſeous matter. This, being much ſofter than the enamel, wears away faſter by the maſtication of the food; and, in a few months after ſome of theſe teeth cut the gum, the enamel remains conſiderably higher, ſo that the ſurface of each grinder ſoon acquires a ribbed appearance, as if originally formed with ridges: this however is not the caſe, as may be ſeen by examining a grinder juſt cutting the gum, but both its ſides have a fluted form, owing to the junction of the different ſtrata. Theſe ſtrata, when firſt formed, have no firm attachment to each other, but always appear ſeparate and diſtinct, when contained in their bony ſockets within the jaw, after their membranes and ſoft parts are deſtroyed. Before any part of a grinder cuts the gum, there is a bony cruſt formed above the enamel, which gives a ſmoothneſs to the grinding ſurface. But, after the grinders cut the gum,

and

and the convex ſurface has been worn down by the trituration of the food, each lamina appears to have been formed on ſeveral points, which are covered by a ſtrong enamel. There are from four to eight of theſe points, joined together by the common bony matter, which fills up the ſpace between the enamelled portions. When the grinder, however, is farther advanced in the mouth, its foremoſt laminæ are gradually worn down by the maſtication of the food; and theſe enamelled points or denticuli diſappear, one after another, till the enamel, at laſt, runs quite acroſs the tooth, ſurrounding the central part on which it was formed, and taking the irregular indented plaited ſhape of the lamellæ. This bony centre, on which the enamel is formed, is harder than the matter which joins the teeth together, does not wear ſo faſt, and conſequently remains higher.

"The number of teeth of which a grinder is compoſed, varies from four to twenty-three, according as the elephant advances in years; ſo that a grinder, *or caſe of teeth*, in full grown elephants, is more than ſufficient to fill one ſide of the mouth; in proportion, however, as the foremoſt layers are worn away, the ſucceeding ones come forward, to ſupply their places. The denticuli of which each layer or tooth is compoſed, are much larger, and fewer in number, in old than in young elephants; in conſequence of this, the ſame number of laminæ generally fills the jaw of a young or of an old elephant; and, from three till fifty years, there are from ten to twelve teeth or laminæ in uſe, in each ſide of either jaw, for the maſtication of the food.

"When ſeveral of the anterior teeth of which a grinder is compoſed have been completely formed, and each tooth covered with its proper enamel, they become firmly united (beginning at the fore part) by the intervention of the common bony matter, which gradually fills up the interſtices between them. When the bodies of ſeveral of the anterior laminæ have been connected together, the inferior edge of each becomes united in the ſame manner, to the one next it, till the whole are thus gradually joined, and form a grinder or caſe of teeth. As ſoon as the anterior part of the grinder is thus firmly united, the fangs or roots are next added: theſe, at firſt, appear in the form of a thin curtain or lamella of bone; extending backwards, along ſome of the anterior laminæ, at their lower edges. A fang common to the three anterior teeth, firſt begins to be formed by the oſſification ſhooting acroſs from each ſide, in a circular direction, at the anterior portion of the firſt and the poſterior part of the third lamina. Theſe join and become longer, aſſuming a conical ſhape: the hollow is gradually filled up by ſucceſſive layers of the ſubſtance of the tooth, as the fang lengthens, till at laſt it becomes ſolid. This, however, does not happen, till the three layers to which the fang is attached are nearly worn away. When its oſſification is almoſt completed, another proceſs begins to take place, which is, the abſorption of the fang from its external ſurface.

"By the time that the anterior layers of the grinders are completely worn down, both the fangs and the alveolar proceſſes begin to be abſorbed. Their places are gradually ſupplied by the next laminæ of the grinder, and their fangs, coming forward in a conſtant ſucceſſion. When the laſt tooth of a grinder has advanced ſufficiently in the jaw to ſupply the place of its predeceſſor, the anterior tooth of the next ſucceeding grinder comes forward, to ſupply its place. From this peculiar manner in which the grinders are ſupplied from behind, *but never from beneath*, a preceding grinder, (as is the caſe in the human ſpecies, and in moſt other animals,) it muſt appear evident, that an elephant can never ſhed his teeth; but, from this regular ſucceſſion, he may, at one period, have only a ſingle grinder in each ſide of either jaw; at another, there may be one and part of a ſucceeding grinder; even a ſtill greater variety in the appearance of the grinders will take place, according as the anterior one is more or leſs worn away, and the waſte ſupplied by its ſucceſſor. In this manner, the growth of new teeth, to compoſe a ſucceeding grinder, and the oſſification and formation of the fangs, are conſtantly going on, in regular ſucceſſion; ſo that, after the ſecond year, the mouth of the elephant is conſtantly filled with as many laminæ of the grinders on each ſide as it can hold.

"While the grinders thus advance forward in the mouth, in regular ſucceſſion, the alveolus or ſocket of each advances along with them; and, as the anterior fangs are abſorbed or decayed, the ſame proceſs is going on in the alveoli. In like manner, the partition between this and the incipient alveolus of the next ſucceeding grinder will come forward in the jaw, in proportion as the grinder itſelf comes into uſe. In the partition between each alveolus there is a communication, which, in young elephants, is larger than in thoſe farther advanced in years; and it is probable, that this canal or ſinus between the different alveoli, admits the paſſage of an elongation of the membrane, from the anterior to the poſterior grinder. The time requiſite for the complete formation of one of theſe caſes of teeth, conſtituting a grinder, varies from two to ſix or eight years; and, when an elephant has attained its full ſize, a conſiderable number of the anterior laminæ muſt be worn away, and the fangs abſorbed, before the poſterior ones can be ſufficiently advanced to cut the gum.

"In the lower jaw, the ſame circumſtances take place; the teeth of the grinders riſe by the addition of their fangs, force their way through the alveoli, and cut the gum, as they advance forward in the jaw. The grinding ſurface in the lower jaw has rather a concave form, to adapt itſelf to that of the grinder in the upper jaw. The number of layers does not always correſpond with thoſe of the grinder in the upper jaw; but, like them, conſiſts of from four to about twenty-three teeth or laminæ. In the lower jaw, the portion of the alveolus which is attached to the inner plate, is thick and ſpongy; and, through the under part of this ſpongy ſubſtance, there is a large foramen, for tranſmitting the blood-veſſels and nerves which ſupply the teeth and lower jaw. The alveolus or ſocket of the grinder advances in the ſame manner in the lower as in the upper jaw; and, as the fangs are abſorbed, it is abſorbed alſo. In proportion as the fangs or roots are added to the grinder, it riſes through the alveolus, and cuts the gum; at the ſame time, the bottom of the alveolus, in which the grinder is formed, becomes more ſpongy, and ſhoots up between the fangs, firmly embracing them, and thus preventing the grinder from being ſhaken or diſturbed by the trituration of the food.

"The firſt ſet of grinders, or milk teeth, begin to cut the gum eight or ten days after birth; and the grinders of the upper jaw appear before thoſe of the lower one. Though this happens at firſt, yet, in a few months, the grinders in the lower jaw come forward faſter than thoſe of the upper. In about ſix weeks, the firſt ſet of grinders can be eaſily felt, conſiſting of four teeth, viz. one on each ſide of either jaw; and, as young elephants begin to eat graſs, or ſome ſoft ſucculent food, before they are three months old, we may conclude, that the firſt ſet of grinders have then completely cut the gum, and that dentition is not attended with any ſymptoms of pain, or irritation, in the ſyſtem. By a ſet I mean four, one grinder in each ſide of either jaw. The milk grinders are not ſhed, as the tuſks are, but are gradually worn away, during the time the ſecond ſet are coming forward; and, as ſoon as the body of the grinder is nearly worn away, the fangs begin to be abſorbed.

"I have not been able to aſcertain the exact time when the ſecond ſet of grinders make their appearance, as I could never get an elephant to open his mouth in ſuch a manner as to permit me to examine his teeth accurately; but, when the elephant is about two years old, the ſecond ſet are completely in uſe. At this period, the third ſet

begin to cut the gum. From the end of the ſecond to the beginning of the ſixth year, the third ſet come gradually forward, as the jaw lengthens, not only to fill up this additional ſpace, but alſo to ſupply the place of the ſecond ſet, which are, during the ſame period, gradually worn away, and their fangs abſorbed. From the beginning of the ſixth to the end of the ninth year, the fourth ſet of grinders come forward, to ſupply the gradual waſte of the third ſet. After this period, ſeveral other ſets are produced. In what time theſe ſucceeding grinders come forward, in proportion to their predeceſſors, I have not been able to aſcertain; but, from the data already given, I conclude, that every ſucceeding grinder takes at leaſt a year more than its predeceſſor to be completed; conſequently, that the fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and eighth, ſet of grinders, (a further ſucceſſion I have not been able to trace,) will take from five to eight years (and probably much longer) each ſet, before the poſterior lamina has cut the gum. All theſe circumſtances conſidered, I may venture to affirm, that the formation of the teeth and mode of dentition, in the elephant, has but little analogy with thoſe of any other quadruped; nature having, by a peculiar and wonderful contrivance, and in the moſt convenient manner, ſupplied this animal with a regular ſucceſſion of teeth, until he attains a very advanced period of life.

"The mode in which the elephant's grinders are originally formed, my ſhort ſtay at Tiperah did not allow me ſufficient opportunities to inveſtigate; but, ſince my return to England, I have had frequent converſations with Mr. Everard Home, F.R.S. upon that ſubject, who, from an examination of the teeth brought home by me, and ſome preparations in the late Mr. Hunter's collection, has been enabled to proſecute the ſubject with conſiderable ſucceſs."

The object of this gentleman was not only to explain the ſtructure of the elephant's teeth, and hence the different ſources and diſtinctions between *ivory* and *bone*; but alſo to ſhew the general principle upon which all teeth are formed, that have the enamel intermixed with the ſubſtance of the teeth; a ſubject which appears never before to have been inveſtigated.

"The teeth of the elephant (ſays Mr. Home) differ from others, in being compoſed of a great many flattened oval proceſſes; theſe, while growing, are detached; but, when completely formed, their baſes unite together, and make the body of the tooth, to which the fangs are afterwards added; and, as the fangs are lengthened, the tooth riſes in the jaw. This is what may be conſidered as the tooth itſelf, being compoſed of the ſame materials as the teeth of carnivorous animals; but, in addition, there is another ſubſtance, which unites all the proceſſes together, laterally, into one maſs; this is ſofter than the ſubſtance of the tooth, and, upon examination, proves to be ſimilar, in its texture and formation, to common bone. As teeth have been hitherto conſidered of the ſame texture with common bone; it is probable that nothing but the two ſubſtances being united in the ſame maſs, could have led me to the diſcovery of their differing materially from each other. It will therefore be proper to explain the circumſtances which firſt gave me the preſent view of the ſubject.

"To obtain an accurate knowledge of the different parts of the elephant's tooth, a longitudinal ſection was made, of one that was full grown. This ſection expoſed the lateral connection between the different proceſſes, and the intermediate ſubſtance which unites them into one maſs; it alſo ſhewed the mode in which the proceſſes are continued into the body of the tooth and fangs. That the internal ſtructure might be made more diſtinct, the ſurface of this ſection was poliſhed very highly, which led to the diſcovery of the proceſſes of the tooth having a more compact texture than the intermediate ſubſtance; for, although both had the ſame appearance after being ſawn, the proceſſes bore a poliſh, which the other did not, and were laminated, like ivory; while the other parts were porous, like the internal ſtructure of common bone. This led me to examine preparations of the elephant's teeth, in a growing ſtate, preſerved in ſpirit, which explained the mode of growth of theſe two ſubſtances to be different. In theſe preparations it was found, that the proceſſes of the tooth, which may be called *ivory*, were all formed upon ſo many portions of one common pulp, which had its origin in the jaw; and that the intermediate ſubſtance, which may be called *bone*, was formed upon a ſpecies of ligament ſituated immediately under the gum, from which, membranous elongations extended into the ſpaces between the proceſſes of the tooth.

"This ſtructure of tooth is not peculiar to the elephant, but common to the teeth of all animals whoſe food requires to be ground, or much bruiſed, before it is ſwallowed. In the elephant's tooth, from the largeneſs of its ſize, the parts are more diſtinct, and more readily contraſted with each other; but, in other animals, even thoſe of a ſmall ſize, as the ſheep, the different ſtructures are readily detected. It is ſingular that this ſtructure ſhould have eſcaped the accurate inveſtigation of the late Mr. Hunter; particularly as the formation of the teeth was one of the firſt objects he employed himſelf upon; and he continued to purſue it to the end of his life, marking the varieties which occur in different animals.

"A mixture of bony matter with the enamel and the ſubſtance of the tooth, is a ſtructure, as has been mentioned, not confined to the elephant, being common to all truly graminivorous quadrupeds. But the whole number of grinding teeth belonging to each ſide of the jaw being confined in a caſe of bone, ſo as to form one large grinding ſurface, and the teeth being puſhed forward from behind, inſtead of a ſecond ſet being formed immediately under the fangs of the firſt, as in other animals, are peculiarities not met with in any teeth hitherto deſcribed, except thoſe of the elephant, and the *ſus Æthiopicus*. It is curious that the Ethiopian hog ſhould differ ſo widely from all the others of its genus, in reſpect to its teeth; and ſhould be allied to the elephant in the ſtructure of its tuſks, the mode of formation of the grinding teeth, and the manner in which they ſucceed one another. From theſe circumſtances it appears, that the *ſus Æthiopicus*, in a natural ſtate, is ſupplied with a different kind of food from that of other hogs, and is an animal of greater longevity."

This ſingular mode of dentition has not been noticed by profeſſor Camper, in his ingenious work above-mentioned; but he has ſhewn that the ſtructure of the cranium is admirably adapted to afford a ſufficient extent of ſurface for the inſertion of the tuſks, the proboſcis, and muſcles, without unneceſſarily increaſing its weight; for otherwiſe the animal would never have been able to carry its head erect. We ſhall give a tranſlation of the account of this piece of mechaniſm as follows: "In order to include the encephalon within proper bounds, and to allow a ſufficient ſpace for the inſertion of the tuſks, proboſcis, and muſcles, without loading the head with a weight of oſſeous matter, the tables are ſeparated from each other by a great number of bony partitions, prolonged to the diſtance of ſeveral inches. The intervals, filled by an infinity of little cells more or leſs ſpacious, communicate with the throat by means of the euſtachian tube, and are charged with air, inſtead of blood or marrow, which are generally found in the diploë of the mammalia claſs. Perrault, Blair, and Daubenton, have remarked this ſtructure in the elephant, boar, and other quadrupeds: but M. Camper was the firſt to notice its analogy with the ſtructure of the cranium in birds. The oſtrich and the eagle, but above all the owl tribe, particularly the ſcreech-owl, have the tables of the ſkull ſeparated by numerous cells, perfectly ſimilar to thoſe which diſtinguiſh the elephant. The atmoſpheric air enters them in the ſame way; and this admirable mechaniſm, which birds particularly require to diminiſh the

weight of their bones, was neceſſary to the elephant, in order to lighten its head, which would have otherwiſe been much more heavy than the animal could have been able to ſupport."

What has been here ſtated of the proceſs of dentition in the elephant, we have endeavoured to illuſtrate by the annexed Engraving. Fig. 1, repreſents the deciduous or milk *grinder*, worn down to the fangs, with the action of abſorption or decay going on both in the fang and body of the grinder. Where the abſorption has taken place, the grinders and roots have a rough ulcerated appearance.

Fig. 2, is intended to repreſent a deciduous or milk *tuſk* of an elephant, with the proceſs of abſorption or decay taking place in the fang of the tuſk, in order to its being ſhed. A, the deciduous tuſk, projecting from its ſocket. B, the middle of the tuſk, where the decay has commenced. C, the crooked fang, which muſt be abſorbed, before the body of the deciduous tuſk can be ſhed, to make way for the permanent one. D, the ſmall rounded cavity, which is the incipient ſocket for the permanent tuſk, which is now to take place.

Fig. 3, exhibits the firſt and ſecond grinders in the lower jaw; A, is the anterior or milk grinder, repreſented above; this is ſeen to conſiſt of four laminæ; and as this is abſorbed, the others come forward to ſupply its place. B B, the two fangs not yet full grown, but being ſtill hollow at the points. C C, the ſecond grinder, conſiſting of nine teeth. D, the fang common to the three anterior ones, partly formed. E, the bony lamellæ or incipient roots, partly added to the next three teeth. F, the three poſterior teeth or laminæ, juſt beginning to unite.

Fig. 4, ſhews the inferior parts of the grinder in the lower jaw, and the manner in which each tooth or lamina is joined to the one next it. The three anterior teeth are completely joined to each other, and are partly ſeen within their common fang; but the junction of the three poſterior ones is not complete, except at the centre. The roots of theſe, at the lower part, are beginning to be formed; but, anteriorly, are farther advanced, and join the fang common to the three foremoſt teeth, as being firſt to come into uſe. A A, the nine teeth of which the grinder is compoſed. B, the three anterior teeth, completely joined to each other. C, three of the poſterior teeth, where the union is completed only in the middle. D D, the ſpace between the lamellæ of the ſeparate teeth, where they are approaching to join each other, and cover the enamel. E E E, the centres of the different teeth, which will afterwards be filled up, as the oſſification of the fangs advances.

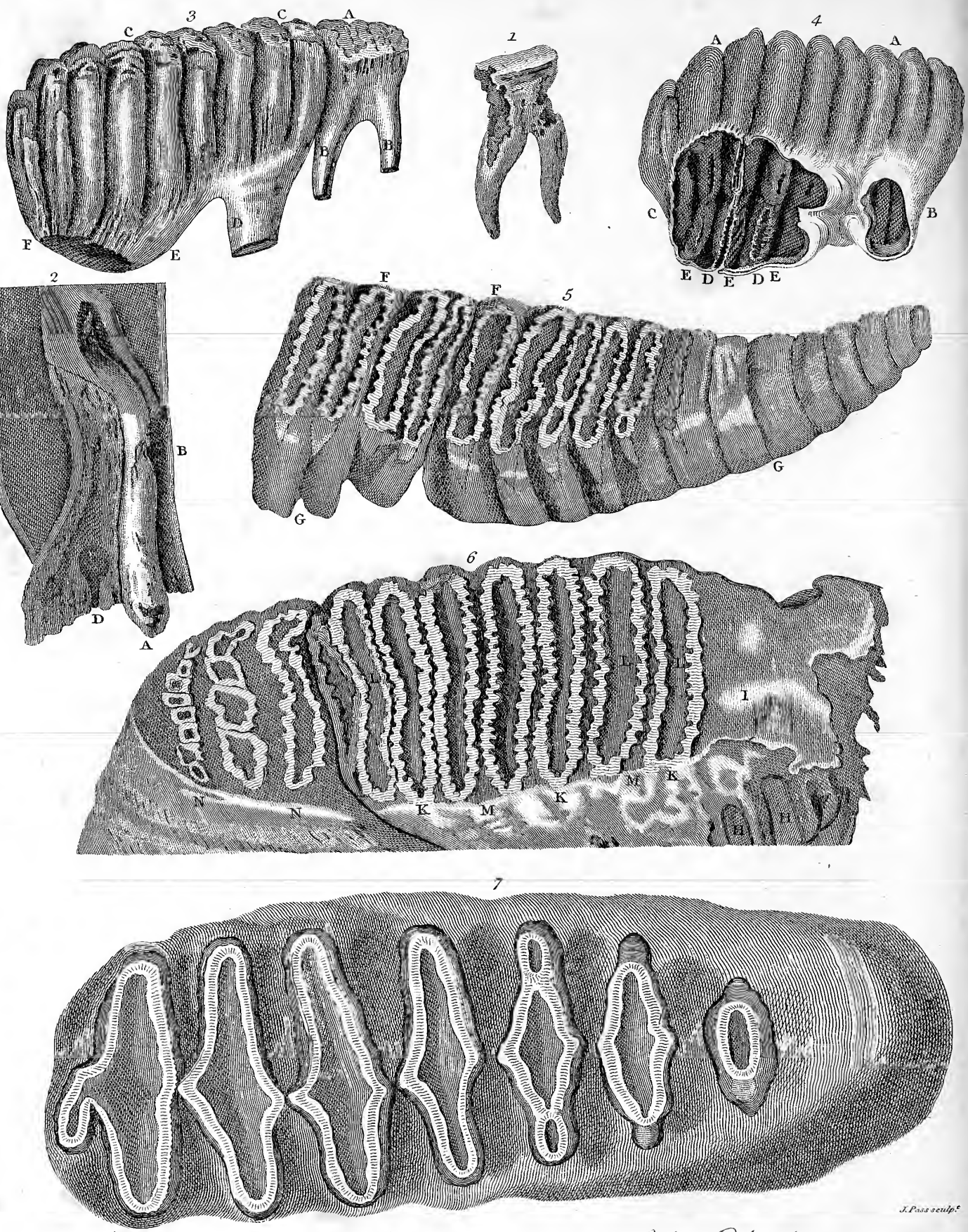
Fig. 5, ſhews the grinder of the lower jaw in its matured ſtate, and repreſents the gradual mode in which one ſet or caſe of teeth ſucceeds another, in proportion as the anterior ones are worn away and abſorbed. F F, ſhews the uneven ſurface of the grinder, with the enamel ſurrounding the bony matter of each tooth which has cut the gum, and come into uſe. G G, the fluted appearance of the grinder, by the junction of the different teeth of which it is compoſed.

Fig. 6, repreſents a grinder of the upper jaw, worn away almoſt to the fangs, even at the poſterior part: the anterior part completely worn away, and great part of the roots and their alveolar proceſſes abſorbed. In this grinder, the indented puckered form of the enamel is finely ſhewn, and alſo its ribbed ſurface. Of the three teeth of the ſucceeding grinder, which had laſt cut the gum, the aftermoſt tooth ſhews eight denticuli or points, each ſurrounded with its proper enamel: the next ſhews five denticuli; but the anterior tooth of this grinder has the centre completely ſurrounded with enamel. The appearance of this grinder is very happily repreſented; the poſterior teeth neareſt the gum being covered with a whitiſh bony cruſt above the enamel; but, nearer the roots, they are not yet joined together. H H, the alveolar proceſſes, which proceed from the alveolus, between the roots of the grinders. I, the ſmooth bony ſurface of the three anterior layers of the grinder, without enamel, which has been completely worn away. K K K, the enamel of the different teeth, ſurrounding their bony centres. L L L, the centres of the teeth of which a grinder is compoſed. M M, the bony matter which joins the teeth to each other. N N, the denticuli or points of the teeth, before they are much worn down; each point ſurrounded with its proper enamel.

There is an obvious variation between the teeth of the African and Aſiatic elephants. In the African elephant, the proceſſes of which the tooth is compoſed are not flattened ovals, as in the Aſiatic, but are in the form of an oblong ſquare or parallelopipedon, ſo that, in the middle line of the tooth, the proceſſes are in contact with each other, although at no other part; by this means, the middle line of the tooth is the hardeſt; the whole ſurface therefore does not wear regularly, as in the Aſiatic elephant, but with a ridge in the middle. To ſhew the true ſhape of each proceſs, it is neceſſary that the points ſhould be worn down to ſome depth, as repreſented in the grinder of an African elephant, at fig. 7, where indeed this is only the caſe with the four largeſt; the other three, which are leſs worn, ſhew the different thickneſſes of the proceſſes, nearer their termination on the upper ſurface of the tooth, having not been brought ſo much into uſe.

In remote ages great pains were taken in taming elephants for war. When Alexander penetrated into India, the natives oppoſed him upon the tame elephants, which they had trained to military diſcipline. The majeſtic elephant, on which Porus rode in his battle with Alexander, diſplayed a ſtrong attachment to his maſter. When the Indian monarch, exhauſted with fatigue, and covered with wounds, obſtinately refuſed to retire or yield himſelf a priſoner, and the Grecian ſoldiers preſſed hard upon him, his elephant ſtill obeyed his direction; and, though all his companions had fled, he ſtill defended his maſter, and attacked thoſe who approached againſt him, with firm and ardent courage. The Greeks, who at firſt beheld the elephant with terror, after triumphing over the nations of the eaſt, introduced them into their own armies. Either a part of thoſe very elephants which Alexander had brought from India, or others introduced ſoon after into Greece, were carried by Pyrrhus into Italy, when he went to oppoſe the Romans. His elephants, with the Macedonian tactics, rendered him, at firſt, no unequal match to the warriors of Rome. But Roman diſcipline, and Roman magnanimity, ſoon triumphed over his military ſkill, and his gigantic cavalry. The Carthaginians, as well as Pyrrhus, found them but weak aids againſt Roman valour. Elephants were often after that exhibited at Rome. In the circus they were at firſt driven about, and ſlain with darts. They were afterwards oppoſed to bulls, and to the rhinoceros. Pliny relates that a number of elephants, exhibited in the circus by Pompey, when they found themſelves deſtined to immediate death, made a vigorous, but ineffectual, effort to break through the iron railing in which they were incloſed: fruſtrated in the attempt, they, with a wailing tone, and, in a ſuppliant poſture, ſeemed to implore the compaſſion of the ſpectators; and ſo impulſively were the whole people ſaid to be affected with the diſtreſs and the ſenſibility ſhewn by thoſe majeſtic animals, that they with one aſſent aroſe, and imprecated deſtruction on the head of the magnificent general who had entertained them with ſuch an affecting ſpectacle; imprecations, ſays the hiſtorian, which ſoon after took effect.

The ſucceſſors of Alexander appear to have long continued the uſe of elephants in their armies. One of the brave Jewiſh brothers, the Maccabees, terminated his life in a glorious manner, by piercing the belly of an elephant, in the army of one of thoſe monarchs fighting againſt his countrymen, with a deadly wound, and ſuffering himſelf to be cruſhed to death under the falling maſs. Elephants trained to war among the Greeks, had turrets raiſed on their backs, from which troops of armed men annoyed



J. Pass sculp.

The permanent Teeth, or Grinders of the Elephant.

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annoyed the enemy; while a perſon ſitting on the neck, directed the motions of the elephant, and animated him to fight with his trunk. But, when ſcared or wounded, they diſdained all government, and ſpread confuſion, not leſs readily among their friends, than through the ranks of the adverſe army.

The eaſt is the great theatre on which the ſtrength, the ingenuity, and the generous qualities, of this noble animal have been diſplayed. The Indian princes eſtimate their power and grandeur by the number of their elephants. Many of the Indians are perſuaded that ſo majeſtic a body muſt be animated by the ſoul of a departed king or hero. In Siam, Pegu, and Laos, white elephants, and elephants with one tuſk, are viewed with peculiar veneration, as the living manes of deceaſed emperors. Each has a ſplendid habitation, a faithful domeſtic to attend him, golden veſſels, choice food, and ſplendid robes! They are ſubjected to no ſervile labours, and are taught to bow the knee to the emperor, but before none elſe.

In China, according to ſir George Staunton, the elephant is ſtill found as an appendage of greatneſs, both about the palaces, and in the cavalcades, of the emperor. It is there no leſs regarded for its docility and ſtrength, than for its diſpoſition to be uſeful and obedient to man in all its labours. In Cochin-China, according to the ſame author, elephants are trained for war, by placing ranks of ſoldiers, carved in wood, before them, whom they are taught to attack with great fury, ſeizing them with their trunks, toſſing them in the air, and trampling them under foot. In that country they alſo ſerve for food, and are preferred to the fleſh of the buffalo. See the article COCHIN-CHINA, vol. iv. p. 728.

During our war in India againſt Tippoo Sultaun, the marquis Cornwallis employed elephants to great advantage, in conveying the baggage and ſtores of the Engliſh army. "The great objection at firſt made to elephants being employed, (ſays major Dirom, in his Narrative of that Campaign,) was the difficulty of their ſubſiſtence; as it was ſuppoſed they could not live without a very large daily allowance of rice. This idea, which their keepers are intereſted and careful to inculcate, neceſſity and experience have at length ſet aſide. The elephant is not only the moſt powerful and moſt uſeful, but one of the moſt hardy animals that can be employed with an army. He carries a load equal to ſixteen bullocks, and without riſk of loſs or damage on the march. He ſubſiſts upon the leaves or ſmall branches of trees, on the ſugar-cane, or the plantain-tree: in ſhort, he lives upon forage which horſes and bullocks do not eat; any kind of grain will ſupport him, and he will work as long without grain as any other animal. The loſs of elephants, although they had their full ſhare of hardſhip and fatigue, was inconſiderable in proportion to that of cattle; and far from being an incumbrance, or an expedient of neceſſity to ſupply the want of bullocks, they will hereafter be conſidered as the firſt and moſt eſſential claſs of cattle that ought to be provided for the carriage of an Indian army."

A tame elephant is really the moſt docile, gentle, and obedient, of all animals. He forms an attachment to his keeper; comprehends ſigns; learns to diſtinguiſh the various flections of the human voice, as expreſſive of anger, approbation, or command; is even capable of being taught to underſtand the import of articulate language; adopts, in many inſtances, the manners and the ſentiments of mankind; diſcovers a ſenſe of duty, and of honour, and expects to be honeſtly dealt with; is generous, grateful, patient, magnanimous, and humane. Hence many ludicrous ſtories, compounded of truth and fable, have been related of the elephant, merely to place his ſentient acquirements in a pleaſing point of view. But there are ſufficient well-atteſted proofs of his docility and intelligence, without any neceſſity of reſorting to the marvellous. M. d'Obſonville relates an anecdote of an elephant which places him in a very amiable light. In the Laknaor, the capital of Soubah, during the rage of an epidemic diſtemper, the principal road to the palace gate was covered with ſick and dying people, extended on the ground, and incapable of moving, though at a time when the nabob was to paſs on his elephant. The indifference of the prince about the lives of his periſhing ſubjects, the haſte with which he was to paſs, and the towering motions and heavy ſteps of the elephant, ſeemed to threaten inevitable death to thoſe unhappy wretches who chanced to be in his way. But the generous quadruped, without receiving any command to the purpoſe, and even without ſlackening his pace, dexterouſly aſſiſted the poor creatures with his trunk, removing ſome, raiſing others, and ſtepping over the reſt; ſo that none ſuffered the ſlighteſt injury.

A ſtill more ſingular fact is related by the ſame author. An elephant, who, in the courſe of the war between the French and Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies in 1759, had received a wound by a cannon ball: after being once or twice conducted to the hoſpital to have his wound dreſſed, he conſtantly attended of himſelf at the proper time, till it was healed. That the ſurgeon might operate, he readily extended himſelf on the ground. He bore with patience the application even of a burning cauſtic to his wound. The acuteneſs of the pain would ſometimes force from him a plaintive groan; but to the hand who, by inflicting momentary torments, ſought to accompliſh his cure, he expreſſed none but emotions of gratitude. Gratitude is indeed repreſented by all who have had opportunities of obſerving his manners, as the moſt eminent feature in the character of the domeſtic elephant.

Yet, in a wild ſtate, the rage and fury of this animal is unſpeakable. A more convincing and affecting proof of it cannot be adduced, than that given by captain Edward Riou, in his Journal of a Journey from the Cape of Good Hope, publiſhed in 1792. "A large male elephant (ſays this writer) came one day up to the waggons. We inſtantly purſued and attacked him; when, after he had received ſeveral ſhot, and had twice fallen, he crept into a very thick thorny underwood. Thinking that we had fully done for him, Tjaart Vander Waldt, Lodewyk Prins, and Ignatius Mulder, advanced to the ſpot where he was hid, when he ruſhed out, in a furious manner, from the thicket, and with his trunk catching hold of Lodewyk Prins, who was on horſeback, pulled him off, and trod him to death; and, driving one of his tuſks through the man's body, threw him into the air, to the diſtance of thirty feet. The others, perceiving that there was no poſſibility of eſcaping on horſeback, diſmounted, and crept into the thicket to hide themſelves. The elephant having nothing now in view, but the horſe of Van der Waldt, followed it for ſome time: but turned about, and came to the ſpot near to where the dead body lay, looking about for it. At this inſtant our whole party renewed the attack, in order to drive him from the ſpot; when, after he had received ſeveral ſhots, he again eſcaped into the thickeſt of the wood. We now thought that he was far enough off, and had already begun to dig a grave for our unfortunate companion; at which we were buſily employed, when the elephant ruſhed out again, and driving us all away, remained by himſelf there on the ſpot. Tjaart Vander Waldt got another ſhot at him, at the diſtance of an hundred paces. We every one of us then made another attack upon him; and, having now received ſeveral more bullets, he began to ſtagger; then falling, the Hottentots, with a ſhot or two more, killed him, as he lay on the ground. The fury of this animal is indeſcribable. Thoſe of our party who knew any thing of elephant-hunting, declared, that it was the fleeteſt and moſt furious they had ever beheld." Truly aſtoniſhing it is, that an animal, ſo powerful and implacable in its wild ſtate, ſhould ſo eaſily be tamed; and ſo ſoon be made ſubſervient to the purpoſes and pleaſures of man!

With reſpect to the natural affection of theſe animals towards each other, the Dutch writers appear to have

given us the moſt authentic information. We are told by thoſe hiſtorians, that, in the iſland of Ceylon, now belonging to Great Britain, the elephants live in ſmall troops or families. In wandering from place to place, the males, who are armed with the largeſt tuſks, put themſelves at the head of the troop. Theſe are the firſt to face every danger. In ſwimming over any large river they lead the van, and ſeek out a landing-place; next follow the young elephants that have not yet attained their full growth, clinging together by the trunks; the reſt of the full-grown bring up the rear.

But the moſt ſtriking feature of ſexual regard in this animal, was exemplified in the manners of a male and female elephant, brought to Paris from the Hague, in 1797. The place allotted for their reception had been long prepared. It is a ſpacious hall in the muſeum of natural hiſtory, well aired and lighted. A ſtove is placed in it to warm it during the winter, and it is divided into two apartments, which have a communication with each other by means of a large door reſembling a portcullis. The encloſure round theſe apartments conſiſts of rails made of ſtrong thick beams; and a ſecond encloſure, breaſt high, runs round them, to keep the ſpectators at ſome diſtance, and preſerve them from accidents. The morning after their arrival, theſe animals were put in poſſeſſion of their new habitation. The firſt conducted to it was the male, who iſſued from his iron cage with precaution, and ſeemed to enter his apartment with a degree of ſuſpicion. His firſt care was to reconnoitre the place. He examined each bar with his trunk, and tried their ſolidity by ſhaking them. Care had been taken to place on the outſide the large ſcrews by which they are held together. Theſe he ſought out, and, having found them, tried to turn them, but was not able. When he arrived at the portcullis, which ſeparates the two apartments, he obſerved that it was fixed only by an iron bar, which roſe in a perpendicular direction. He raiſed it with his trunk, puſhed up the door, and entered into the ſecond apartment, where he received his breakfaſt. He ate quietly, and appeared to be perfectly eaſy. During this time people were endeavouring to make the female enter. It is proper here to mention the former mutual attachment of theſe two animals, and with what difficulty they were parted at the Hague, and induced to travel ſeparately. From the time of their departure they had not ſeen each other, not even at Cambray, where they paſſed the winter. They had however been ſenſible that they were near neighbours. The male never lay down, but always ſtood upright, or leaned againſt the bars of his cage, and kept watch for his female, who lay down and ſlept every night. On the leaſt noiſe, or the ſmalleſt alarm, he ſent forth a cry to give notice to his companion. The joy which they expreſſed on ſeeing each other, after ſo long a ſeparation, was very remarkable. When the female entered, ſhe ſent forth a cry expreſſive only of the pleaſure which ſhe felt at finding herſelf more at large. She did not at firſt obſerve the male, who was buſy feeding in the ſecond apartment. The latter alſo did not immediately diſcover that his companion was ſo near him; but the keeper having called him, he turned round, and immediately the two animals ruſhed toward each other, and ſent forth cries of joy ſo animated and loud, that they ſhook the whole hall. They breathed alſo through their trunks with ſuch violence, that the blaſt reſembled an impetuous guſt of wind. The joy of the female was the moſt lively; ſhe expreſſed it, by quickly flapping her ears, which ſhe made to move with aſtoniſhing celerity. She drew her trunk over the body of the male with the utmoſt tenderneſs. She, in particular, applied it to his ear, where ſhe kept it a long time, and, after having drawn it over the whole body of the male, ſhe would often move it affectionately towards her own mouth. The male did the ſame thing over the body of the female; but his joy was more concentrated. He ſeemed to expreſs it by his tears, which fell from his eyes in abundance! The ſociety of theſe two animals, their habits, their mutual tenderneſs, and their natural attachment, ſtill excited by the privation of liberty, may hereafter furniſh curious obſervations for the hiſtory of their ſpecies, ſhould they be able to endure the viciſſitudes of our climate. Theſe two elephants, which are natives of Ceylon, were brought to Holland when quite young. They are now about twenty years of age; and their height is from ſeven to eight feet. We might here remark, that all the elephants heretofore imported into Europe, however liberally fed, and carefully managed, have periſhed by a premature death. At St. Peterſburgh, though clothed, and kept in houſes warmed by ſtoves, and fed on rice, their moſt favourite food, they could not ſurvive the ſeverity of the climate.

The tuſks of the elephant have long been applied, under the denomination of ivory, to a variety of important uſes in the arts. In the country of Sogno, in Lower Ethiopia, the natives diſtil a water from the bones of the elephant's legs, which they eſteem an excellent remedy for aſthma, ſciatica, and ſeveral other complaints. The Giaghi regard the tail of this animal with religious veneration. When a chief or ſovereign dies, an elephant's tail is conſecrated to preſerve his memory. But a ſacred tail muſt always have been cut off from a living elephant, and at a ſingle ſtroke.

Over all the north of Aſia, and through ſeveral other parts of the globe, entire or partial ſkeletons of the elephant are occaſionally found in a foſſil ſtate. Grinders and tuſks are numerous throughout Siberia. Theſe were once aſcribed to an imaginary animal under the name of *mammoth*. In America too, there are large animal ſkeletons found in a foſſil ſtate, which, though their ſtructure appears ſomewhat different from that of the elephant, they approach, however, nearer to this than to any other known ſpecies, and are therefore now referred to this genus. See the article MAMMOTH.

We are greatly indebted to Mr. Corſe, and Mr. Everard Home, for the new and valuable information contained in this article.

E'LEPHAS, *ſ.* in botany. See RHINANTHUS.

E'LERO, a river of Piedmont, which runs into the Tanaro, near Carri.

ELESCHE'VI, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Tobolſk, on the Tchulim: eighty-four miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Tomſk.

ELET'TARI, *ſ.* in botany. See AMOMUM.

To E'LEVATE, *v. a.* [*elevo*, Lat.] To raiſe up aloft.—This ſubterranean heat or fire, which *elevates* the water out of the abyſs. *Woodward.*—To exalt; to dignify.—A gentleman of the popular faction had been long declaiming againſt any kind of honours, that tended to *elevate* a body of people into a diſtinct ſpecies from the reſt of the nation. *Shenſtone.*—To raiſe with great conceptions.—In all that great extent, wherein the mind wanders, in thoſe remote ſpeculations it may ſeem to be *elevated* with, it ſtirs not beyond ſenſe or reflection. *Locke.*

Now riſing fortune *elevates* his mind,
He ſhines unclouded, and adorns mankind. *Savage.*

To elate with vicious pride:

To miſchief ſwift, hope *elevates*, and joy
Brightens his creſt. *Milton.*

To leſſen by detraction. This ſenſe, though legitimately deduced from the Latin, is not now in uſe.—When the judgments of learned men are alleged againſt you, what do they but either *elevate* their credit, or oppoſe unto them the judgments of others as learned? *Hooker.*

E'LEVATE, *part. adj.* Exalted; raiſed aloft:

On each ſide an imperial city ſtood,
With tow'rs and temples proudly *elevate*
On ſeven ſmall hills. *Milton.*

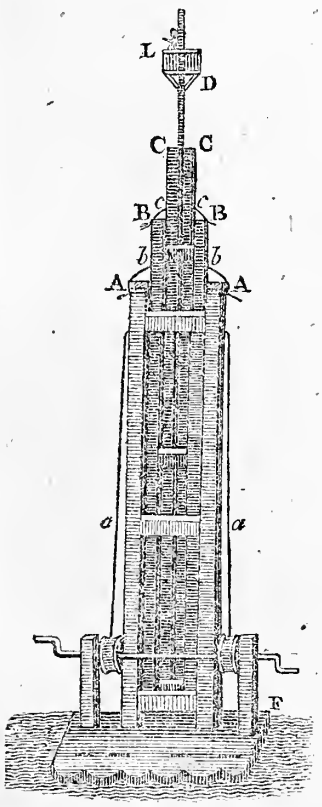
ELEVA'TION, *ſ.* [*elevatio*, Lat.] The act of raiſing aloft.—The diſruption of the ſtrata, the *elevation* of ſome, and

and depreſſion of others, did not fall out by chance, but were directed by a diſcerning principle. *Woodward.*—Exaltation; dignity.—Angels, in their ſeveral degrees of *elevation* above us, may be endowed with more comprehenſive faculties. *Locke.*—Exaltation of the mind by noble conceptions.—We are therefore to love him with all poſſible application and *elevation* of ſpirit, with all the heart, ſoul, and mind. *Norris.*—Exaltation of ſtyle.—His ſtyle was an elegant perſpicuity, rich of phraſe, but ſeldom any bold metaphors; and ſo far from tumid, that it rather wanted a little *elevation*. *Wotton.*—Attention to objects above us.—All which different *elevations* of ſpirit unto God are contained in the name of prayer. *Hooker.*—The height of any heavenly body with reſpect to the horizon.—Some latitudes have no canicular days, as thoſe which have more than ſeventy-three degrees of northern *elevation*, as Nova Zembla. *Brown.*

ELEVA'TOR, *ſ.* [from *eleviate.*] A raiſer or lifter up.

ELEVA'TOR, *ſ.* in anatomy, the name of ſeveral muſcles, ſo called from their ſerving to raiſe the parts of the body to which they belong. In ſurgery, it is an inſtrument for raiſing depreſſed or fractured parts of the ſkull. See SURGERY.

ELEVA'TOR, *ſ.* A machine for raiſing any thing to an height from the ſurface of the earth; lately invented by Dr. Collin, of the American Philoſophical Society, who was honoured with the Magellanian gold medal for this invention. The main body of the baſe is a rectangular ſolid floor, as repreſented in the figure. The pillars A A, ſtand vertical on the long diameter of the baſe, equally diſtant from its ends. Their feet enter into it, and are by ſtrong faſtenings incorporated with its body. Theſe pillars are pairs. Their inner ſides have grooves from top to bottom, which terminate by offsets in cylindric ſegments. Near the tops are central embraſures, whoſe ſides are fortified with iron plates that reach within the ſolid parts above and below. The pulleys are of metal, with ſteel axes and braſs naves for eaſy turning, and deep channels for ſecuring the cords. The pillars are joined by three pairs of ribs. Theſe are rectangular; and wide, but comparatively thin; placed horizontally, between the tops and embraſures, about the middles, and near the feet. Their ends are cloſely fitted within the pillars, and well faſtened. The piers B B, are more ſlender than A A, with ſhorter heads; but the length of their bodies is equal to the whole of theſe. They have ſimilar grooves, embraſures, pulleys, and joining ribs. Their faces are parallel rectangles. The backs of their bodies have tongues along the middles that fit the grooves of A A. Theſe are vertical rectangular ridges, and parts of the very pieces, formed by cutting down both ſides to a proper level. Theſe lower ſurfaces, being even and ſmooth, will thus move cloſe along the correſponding plain parts of A A, while the tongues glide in contact with the ſides of the grooves. The cords *a a*, are well paired in length and texture. They ply over the pulleys of A A, in the ſaid hollows behind the grooves; having their ends fixed under the feet of B B, and on the boxes of the windlaſs. This is well ſecured in the baſe, cloſe to and right beneath the pillars. The cords *b b* are faſtened by one end on the heads of A A. They paſs over the pulleys of B B, and reach as far below them as *a a* reach below the pulleys of A A, which is the diſtance of theſe pulleys from the baſe. Their other ends are tacked a little above the bottoms of the piers C C. Theſe piers are with their apparatus framed like B B; have leſs bulk and ſhorter heads. Their pulleys clear the tops of B B when the machine is down. The cords *c c* have the ſame length with *b b*, below the pulleys of C C; plying over theſe; faſtened on the heads of B B, and ſomewhat above the bottom of the pier D. This is a ſingle piece. It has two backs to fit the grooves of C C, formed like the backs of the other pieces. A frame is accurately fixed and poiſed on the top of D. In this the load L is placed, ſo that its center of gravity is exactly or very nearly over the center of the frame. When the power begins to wind the cords *a a*, theſe raiſe the piers B B. As they riſe, their pulleys recede from the tops of A A, and by ſtretching the cords *b b*, lift the piers C C. Theſe recede at the ſame time from the tops of B B, and lift the pier D. Thus while B B are wound up from the baſe to the height of the pulleys of A A, D riſes treble that height; and, however great may be the number of moving pieces, it multiplies the celerity and acquired elevation of the uppermoſt by that of the firſt. As the duration and celerity of all the movements is the ſame, the lengths of all the cords below the reſpective pulleys muſt be equal. As the whole acquired elevation is by thoſe parts of the piers which are drawn out of their folds, theſe ought to have a very great proportion. Therefore B B reach the baſe when down; and the heads of A A are but long enough to keep them ſafe in their grooves, when drawn up. Again, as the ends of the cords *b b* will be above the baſe according to the length of the heads of A A, the heads of B B are ſhortened, and the bodies of C C are prolonged below thoſe ends in order to ſave room, and yet afford theſe piers a ſecure depth in the grooves of B B, when drawn up. On the ſame principle the heads of C C are ſhortened, and a part of D left under the ends of *c c*. The pier D preſſes the cords *c c* by its own weight, and the load L. This preſſure cauſes an equal pulling, and conſequential reſiſtance in the tops of the piers B B. The pulleys of the piers C C muſt bear this double preſſure $= 2L + 2D$. Theſe therefore preſs the cords *b b*, with ſaid weight and their own $= 2L + 2D + CC$. This doubled $= 4L + 4D + 2CC$ is the preſſure on the pulleys of B B: but their heads are pulled up by $L + D$: the difference of theſe forces added to their own weight is the preſſure of theſe piers on the cords *a a*, $= 3L + 3D + 2CC + BB$. The power on the windlaſs muſt be equal to this. The form of the windlaſs determines, in combination with the preceding, the ſpeed of operation, and the degree of power. It admits various modes: for example, one might be placed on either ſide of the pillars, with long handles on the winches, by which eight men can work together. This model is intended to ſhew conſiderable effects from an eaſy apparatus; accordingly two men lift another, and three tiers of piers; they are aided by a ſufficient projection of the winches beyond the ſemidiameter of the boxes: this has ſuch proportion to the height of the pulleys in the pillars, and the equal length of the cords *a a* below them, that the whole winding is done by a few turns. The dimenſions of the piers are not ſpecified; but the machine has great ſtability, and the baſe is not extenſive.



This machine combines theſe advantages: ready approach to heights otherwiſe not acceſſible without great trouble; ſpeedy aſcent and deſcent; convenient folding for keeping under cover, and for eaſy conveyance. It can be applied to ſeveral uſeful purpoſes: quick hoiſting and lowering of things on many occaſions; particularly ſaving

of goods from upper ſtories in caſes of conflagration; high elevation and ſpeedy exchange of ſignals; theſe being light may be raiſed three hundred feet, and above interjacent hills; elevation of a perſon for taking views, and quick deſcent when required; as on reconnóitring an enemy within ſhot: a machine calculated for lifting him at leaſt one hundred feet by eight men can be light enough for carrying on a waggon by two horſes.

ELE'VE, *ſ.* [Fr.] Diſciple.—He attached himſelf to ſir Robert Walpole, and was one of his ableſt *eleves*. *Cheſterfield's Characters.*

ELE'VEN, *adj.* [ænbleꝑen, Sax.] Ten and one; one more than ten.—Had I a dozen ſons, and none leſs dear than Marcius, I had rather *eleven* die nobly for their country, than one voluptuouſly ſurfeit out of action. *Shakeſpeare.*

ELE'VENTH, *adj.* The next in order to the tenth.—In the *eleventh* chapter he returns to ſpeak of the building of Babel. *Raleigh.*

ELEU'SINE, *ſ.* in botany. See CYNOSURUS.

ELEUSI'NIA, *ſ.* A celebrated feſtival obſerved every fourth year by the Celeans, Phliaſians, as alſo by the Pheneatæ, Lacedæmonians, Parrhaſians, and Cretans; but more particularly by the people of Athens, every fifth year, at Eleuſis in Attica, where it was introduced by Eumolpus, B. C. 1356. It was the moſt celebrated of all the religious ceremonies of Greece, whence it is often called by way of eminence, μυστηρια, the myſteries. It was ſo ſuperſtitiouſly obſerved, that if any one ever revealed it, it was ſuppoſed that he had called divine vengeance upon his head, and it was unſafe to live in the ſame houſe with him. Such a wretch was publicly put to an ignominious death. This feſtival was ſacred to Ceres and Proſerpine; every thing contained a myſtery, and Ceres herſelf was known only by the name of αχθεια, from the ſorrow and grief (αχθος), which ſhe ſuffered for the loſs of her daughter. This myſterious ſecrecy was ſolemnly obſerved, and enjoined to all the votaries of the goddeſs; and if any one ever appeared at the celebration, either intentionally, or through ignorance, without proper introduction, he was immediately puniſhed with death. Perſons of both ſexes and all ages were initiated at this ſolemnity, and it was looked upon as ſo heinous a crime to neglect this ſacred part of religion, that it was one of the heavieſt accuſations which contributed to the condemnation of Socrates. The initiated were under the more particular care of the deities, and therefore their life was ſuppoſed to be attended with more happineſs and real ſecurity than that of other men. This benefit was not only granted during life, but it extended beyond the grave, and they were honoured with the firſt places in the Elyſian fields, while others were left to wallow in perpetual filth and ignominy. As the benefits of expiation were ſo extenſive, particular care was taken in examining the character of ſuch as were preſented for initiation. Such as were guilty of murder, though againſt their will, and ſuch as were convicted of witchcraft, or any heinous crime, were not admitted, and the Athenians ſuffered none to be initiated but ſuch as were members of their city. This regulation, which compelled Hercules, Caſtor, and Pollux, to become citizens of Athens, was ſtrictly obſerved in the firſt ages of the inſtitution, but afterwards all perſons, barbarians excepted, were freely initiated. The feſtivals were divided into great and leſs myſteries. The leſs were inſtituted from the following circumſtance: Hercules paſſed near Eleuſis while the Athenians were celebrating their myſteries, and deſired to be initiated. As this could not be done, becauſe he was a ſtranger; and as Eumolpus was unwilling to diſpleaſe him on account of his great power, and the ſervices which he had done to the Athenians, another feſtival was inſtituted without violating the laws. It was called μικρα, and Hercules was ſolemnly admitted to the celebration, and initiated. Theſe leſs myſteries were obſerved at Agræ near the Iliſſus. The greater were celebrated at Eleuſis, from which place Ceres has been called *Eleuſinia*. In later times the ſmaller feſtivals were preparatory to the greater, and no perſon could be initiated at Eleuſis, without a previous purification at Agræ. This purification they performed by keeping themſelves pure, chaſte, and unpolluted, during nine days, after which they came and offered ſacrifices and prayers, wearing garlands of flowers, called ισμερα, or ιμερα, and having under their feet Διος κωδιον, Jupiter's ſkin, which was the ſkin of a victim offered to that god. The perſon who aſſiſted was called υδρανος, from υδωρ, water, which was uſed at the purification, and they themſelves were called μυσται, the initiated. A year after the initiation at the leſs myſteries, they ſacrificed a ſow to Ceres, and were admitted in the greater, and the ſecrets of the feſtivals were ſolemnly revealed to them, from which they were called εφοροι, and εποπται, inſpectors. The inſtitution was performed in the following manner: The candidates, crowned with myrtle, were admitted by night into a place called μυστικος σηκος, the myſtical temple, a vaſt and ſtupendous building. As they entered the temple, they purified themſelves by waſhing their hands in holy water, and received for admonition that they were to come with a mind pure and undefiled, without which the cleanneſs of the body would be unacceptable. After this, the holy myſteries were read to them, from a large book, called πετρωμα, becauſe made of two ſtones, πετραι, fitly cemented together. After this, the prieſt, called ιεροφαντης, propoſed to them certain queſtions, to which they readily anſwered. After this, ſtrange and amazing objects preſented themſelves to their ſight, the place often ſeemed to quake, and to appear ſuddenly reſplendent with fire, and covered with gloomy darkneſs and horror. Sometimes thunders were heard, or flaſhes of lightning appeared on every ſide. At other times hideous noiſes and howlings were heard, and the trembling ſpectators were alarmed by ſudden and dreadful apparitions. This was called αυτοψια, intuition. After this, the initiated were diſmiſſed with the barbarous words of κογξ, ὀμπαξ. The garments in which they were initiated were held ſacred, and of no leſs efficacy to avert evils than charms and amulets. From this circumſtance, therefore, they were never left off before they were totally unfit for wear, after which they were appropriated for children, or dedicated to the goddeſs. The chief perſon that attended at the initiation was called ιεροφαντης, the revealer of ſacred things. He was a citizen of Athens, and held his office during life, though among the Celeans and Phliaſians it was limited to the period of four years. He was obliged to devote himſelf totally to the ſervice of the deities; his life was chaſte and ſingle, and he uſually anointed his body with the juice of hemlock, which is ſaid, by its extreme coldneſs, to extinguiſh the carnal appetite. The hierophantes had three attendants; the firſt was called δαδουχος, torch-bearer, and was permitted to marry. The ſecond was called κηρυξ, a crier. The third adminiſtered at the altar, and was called ο επι βωμω. The hierophantes is ſaid to have been a type of the powerful Creator of all things, δαδουχος of the Sun, κηρυξ of Mercury, and ο επι βωμω of the Moon. There were, beſides theſe, other inferior officers, who took particular care that every thing was performed according to cuſtom. The firſt, called βασιλευς, was one of the archons; he offered prayers and ſacrifices, and took care that there was no indecency or irregularity during the celebration. Beſides him there were four others called επιμελητοι, curators, elected by the people. One of them was choſen from the ſacred family of the Eumolpidæ, the other was one of the Ceryces, and the reſt were from among the citizens. There were alſo ten perſons who aſſiſted at this and every other feſtival, called ιεροποιοι, becauſe they offered ſacrifices. This feſtival was obſerved in the month Boedromion or September, and continued nine days, from the 15th till the 23d. During that time it was unlawful to arreſt any man, or preſent any petition on pain of forfeiting a thouſand drachmas,

drachmas, or, according to others, on pain of death. It was alſo unlawful for thoſe who were initiated to ſit upon the cover of a well, to eat beans, mullets, or weazels. If any woman rode to Eleuſis in a chariot, ſhe was obliged, by an edict of Lycurgus, to pay ſix thouſand drachmas. The deſign of this law was to deſtroy all diſtinction between the richer and poorer ſort of citizens. The firſt day of the celebration was called αγορμος, aſſembly, as it might be ſaid that the worſhippers firſt met together. The ſecond day was called αλα δε μυσται, to the ſea, you that are initiated, becauſe they were commanded to purify themſelves by bathing. On the third day ſacrifices, and chiefly a mullet, were offered; as alſo barley from a field of Eleuſis. Theſe oblations were called θυα, and held ſo ſacred, that the prieſts themſelves were not, as in other ſacrifices, permitted to partake of them. On the fourth day they made a ſolemn proceſſion, in which the καλαθιον, holy baſket of Ceres, was carried about in a conſecrated car; while on every ſide the people ſhouted, Χαιρε Δημητερ, Hail, Ceres! After theſe, followed women, called κιστοφοροι, who carried baſkets, in which were ſeſanum, carded wool, grains of ſalt, a ſerpent, pomegranates, reeds, ivy boughs, certain cakes, &c. The fifth was called η των λαμπαδων ημερα, the torch day, becauſe on the following night the people ran about with torches in their hands. It was uſual to dedicate torches to Ceres, and contend which ſhould offer the biggeſt, in commemoration of the travels of the goddeſs, and of her lighting a torch in the flames of mount Etna. The ſixth day was called Ιακχος, from Iacchus, the ſon of Jupiter and Ceres, who accompanied his mother in her ſearch after Proſerpine, with a torch in his hand. From that circumſtance his ſtatue had a torch in its hand, and was carried in ſolemn proceſſion from the Ceramicus to Eleuſis. The ſtatue, with thoſe that accompanied it, called Ιακχαγωγοι, were crowned with myrtle. In the way, nothing was heard but ſinging, and the noiſe of brazen kettles, as the votaries danced along. The way through which they iſſued from the city was called ιερα οδος, the ſacred way; the reſting place, ιερα συκη, from a fig-tree which grew in the neighbourhood. They alſo ſtopped on a bridge over the Cephiſus, where they derided thoſe that paſſed by. After they had paſſed this bridge, they entered Eleuſis by a place called μυστικη εισοδος, the myſtical entrance. On the ſeventh day were ſports, in which the victors were rewarded with a meaſure of barley, as that grain had been firſt ſown in Eleuſis. The eighth day was called Επιδαυριον ημερα, becauſe once Æſculapius, at his return from Epidaurus to Athens, was initiated by the repetition of the leſs myſteries. It became cuſtomary, therefore, to celebrate them a ſecond time upon this, that ſuch as had not hitherto been initiated might be lawfully admitted. The ninth and laſt day of the feſtival was called πληροχοαι, earthen veſſels, becauſe it was uſual to fill two ſuch veſſels with wine, one of which being placed towards the eaſt, and the other towards the weſt, which, after the repetition of ſome myſtical words, were both thrown down, and the wine, being ſpilt on the ground, was offered as a libation. Such was the manner of celebrating the Eleuſinian myſteries, which have been deemed the moſt ſacred and ſolemn of all the feſtivals obſerved by the Greeks. Some have ſuppoſed them to be obſcene and abominable, and that from thence proceeded all the myſterious ſecrecy. They were carried from Eleuſis to Rome in the reign of Adrian, where they were obſerved with the ſame ceremonies as before, though perhaps with more freedom and licentiouſneſs. They laſted about 1800 years, and were at laſt aboliſhed by Theodoſius the Great. *Ælian. Pauſanias.*

ELEU'SIS, anciently a city in Attica, between Megara and the Piræus, celebrated for the feſtivals of Ceres, above deſcribed. It is now a ſmall village, at the eaſtern extremity of a rocky brow, on which was once a caſtle; and is inhabited by a few Albanian families, employed in the culture of the plain, and ſuperintended by a Turkiſh governor, who reſides in an old ſquare tower. Its extenſive ruins ſtill manifeſt its ancient magnificence, and afford various ſubjects of information and curioſity to the antiquarian and inquiſitive traveller.

ELEU'THERA, or ALABASTER ISLAND, one of the Bahama iſlands; the climate is healthy, and the ſoil is fertile. It has a fort and a ſmall garriſon. Lat. 25. 14. N. lon. 76. 31. W. Greenwich.

ELEUTHE'RIA, a feſtival celebrated at Platæa in honour of Jupiter Eleutherius, or the aſſertor of liberty, by delegates from almoſt all the cities of Greece. Its inſtitution originated in this: after the victory obtained by the Grecians under Pauſanias over Mardonius the Perſian general in the country of Platæa, an altar and ſtatue were erected to Jupiter Eleutherius, who had freed the Greeks from the tyranny of the barbarians. It was further agreed upon in a general aſſembly, by the advice of Ariſtides the Athenian, that deputies ſhould be ſent every fifth year from the different cities of Greece to celebrate Eleutherian *feſtivals of liberty*. The Platæans celebrated alſo an anniverſary feſtival in memory of thoſe who had loſt their lives in that famous battle. The celebration was thus: At break of day a proceſſion was made with a trumpeter at the head, ſounding a ſignal for battle. After him followed chariots loaded with myrrh, garlands, and a black bull, and certain free young men, as no ſigns of ſervility were to appear during the ſolemnity, becauſe they, in whoſe honour the feſtival was inſtituted, had died in the defence of their country. They carried libations of wine and milk in large eared veſſels, with jars of oil and precious ointments. Laſt of all appeared the chief magiſtrate, who, though not permitted at other times to touch iron, or wear garments of any colour but white, yet appeared clad in purple; and, taking a water-pot out of the city chamber, proceeded through the middle of the town with a ſword in his hand, towards the ſepulchres. There he drew water from a neighbouring ſpring, and waſhed and anointed the monuments; after which he ſacrificed a bull upon a pile of wood, invoking Jupiter and infernal Mercury, and inviting to the entertainment the ſouls of thoſe happy heroes who had periſhed in the defence of their country. After this he filled a bowl with wine, ſaying, I drink to thoſe who loſt their lives in the defence of the liberties of Greece. There was alſo a feſtival of the ſame name obſerved by the Samians in honour of the god of love. Slaves alſo, when they obtained their liberty, kept a holiday, which they called *Eleutheria*.

ELEUTHE'RUS, in ancient geography, the name of a river in Paleſtine. 1 *Macc.* xi. 7.

ELEU'THES, a kingdom of Tartary, ſituated on the north-weſt of Chineſe Tartary. It was conquered, in 1759, by the emperor of China.

ELF, *ſ.* plural *elves*; [*elf*, Welſh. *Baxter's* Gloſſ.] A wandering ſpirit, ſuppoſed to be ſeen in wild unfrequented places; a fairy:

The king of *elfs* and little fairy queen
Gambol'd on heaths, and danc'd on ev'ry green. *Dryd.*

If e'er one viſion touch'd thy infant thought,
Of all the nurſe and all the prieſt have taught;
Of airy *elves* by moonlight ſhadow ſeen
The ſilver token, and the circled green. *Pope.*

A devil:

That we may angels ſeem, we paint them *elves*;
And are but ſatires to ſet up ourſelves. *Dryden.*

[Figuratively.] A diminutive perſon:

Though now he crawl along the ground ſo low,
Nor weeting how the muſe ſhould ſoar on high,
Wiſheth, poor ſtarv'ling *elf*, his paper-kite may fly.
Shenſtone.

To ELF, *v. a.* To entangle hair in ſo intricate a manner, that it is not to be unravelled. This the vulgar have ſuppoſed

ſuppoſed to be the work of fairies in the night; and all hair ſo matted together, hath had the name of *elf-locks*. *Hanmer.*

My face I'll grime with filth,
Blanket my loins, *elf* all my hair in knots. *Shakeſpeare.*

ELF-ARROWS, *ſ.* in Engliſh antiquity, flint-ſtones ſharpened on each ſide in ſhape of arrow-heads, made uſe of in war by the ancient Britons; of which ſeveral have been found in England, and greater plenty in Scotland, where it is ſaid the common people imagined they dropt from the clouds; or were made by the *elves* or fairies. See the article ARCHERY, vol. ii. p. 51.

ELFE'DSJ, a mountain of Arabia, in the province of Yemen: twelve miles north-eaſt of Abu-Ariſch.

EL'FELD, or ELTVIL, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz: fourteen miles north-weſt of Mentz.

EL'FIN, *adj.* Relating to fairies; elfiſh; belonging to elves:

Now when that idle dream was to him brought,
Unto that *elfin* knight he bade him fly,
Where he ſlept ſoundly. *Spenſer.*

EL'FIN, *ſ.* Little urchin:

And in thoſe *elfins'* ears would oft deplore
The times, when truth by popiſh rage did bleed. *Shenſt.*

ELF'ISH, *adj.* [ælf, Sax. *larva.*] Clad in diſguiſe:

Thou talk'ſt it ſmoothly, ſtripling; yet we fear,
Thou art ſome *elfiſh* truant. *Maſon's Argentile.*

ELF'LOCK, *ſ.* Knots of hair twiſted by elves:

This is that very Mab,
That plats the manes of horſes in the night,
And cakes the *elf-locks* in foul ſluttiſh hairs,
Which, once untangled, much misfortune bodes.
Shakeſpeare.

ELFS'BORG GAMLA, or OLD ELFSBORG, a town of Sweden, in the province of Weſt Gothland, with a ſtrong caſtle near the ſea. In 1563 it was burned, and the caſtle taken by the Danes; but reſtored to the Swedes. In 1611, the Danes became maſters of it again; but two years after it was returned to the Swedes: four miles ſouth-weſt of Gottenburg.

ELFS'BORG (NEW), a fortreſs of Sweden, in the province of Weſt Gothland, built in the year 1646, on an iſland at the mouth of the Moldal: four miles weſt of Gothenburg.

EL'GA, a river which riſes three miles north from Penna Macor, in Portugal, and runs into the Tagus, between Alcantara and Roſmarilhal, ſeparating the countries of Spain and Portugal during its whole courſe of about thirty miles.

ELGATTAR', a town of Africa, in the country of Algiers: thirty-ſeven miles ſouth of Bona.

EL'GEND, a town of Arabia, in the country of Hadramaut: ſixty miles weſt of Hadramaut.

ELGG, a town and lordſhip of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Zurich.

ELGIEBA'MA, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, about two leagues from mount Atlas.

EL'GIN, a town of Scotland, and capital of the county of Murray, or Elginſhire, near the river Loſſie, formerly the ſee of a biſhop. Ruins of the cathedral, founded in 1224, yet remain, and give evidence of its ancient magnificence. The lead was taken off the cathedral to pay the troops, in the year 1567. The town and cathedral were burnt in 1339, by the earl of Buchan, called the *Wolf of Badenoch*, for his impiety: thirty miles eaſt of Inverneſs, and one hundred north of Edinburgh.

EL'GIN (COUNTY). See MURRAY.

EL'GIS, a town of Egypt: ſix miles ſouth of Abu-Girgeh.

ELGOY'BAR, a town of Spain, in the province of Guipuſcoa: thirteen miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of St. Sebaſtian.

EL'GUZE, *ſ.* in aſtronomy, the bright ſtar in the left ſhoulder of Orion.

EL'HAM, a ſmall town in Kent, ſituated on the leſſer Stour, between Wye and Hythe, ten miles from Canterbury, ten from Dover, ſix from Folkſtone, and ſixty-ſeven from London. It lies low, and cloſe by is exceeding good running-water: the land in general is poor, cold, and ſtoney. The place has in ages paſt been conſiderably larger. Its market, which was formerly kept on Mondays, is not in uſe at preſent. There are four annual fairs, viz. Palm Monday, Eaſter, and Whit Mondays, and the 20th of October. Here is a good charity-ſchool, founded by the late ſir John Williams, knight.

ELHAM'MA, or EL HAMMA, a town of Africa, in the country of Tripoli. Lat. 34. N. lon. 28. 26. E. Ferro.

ELHA'NAN, [Heb. the grace of God.] A man's name.

E'LI, [עלי Heb. i.e. offering or lifting up.] High-prieſt of the Iſraelites, and judge of that people for forty years, was of the family of Ithamar, the younger branch of Aaron's houſe, and appears to have united the prieſtly and judicial character about the year before Chriſt 1156. During almoſt the whole of his adminiſtration, the Iſraelites were in a ſtate of vaſſalage to the Philiſtines, into whoſe hands they were delivered as a puniſhment for their national vices and degeneracy; and Eli, notwithſtanding that he appears to have been a pious and good man, contributed much to that degeneracy, by his want of fortitude and reſolution in reproving and puniſhing immorality, and by ſuffering even his own ſons, Hophni and Phineas, to countenance, by their practice, the exceſſes of debauchery and irreligion. This remiſſneſs in Eli was ſo offenſive to God, that a prophet was commiſſioned to upbraid him for his ingratitude and indifference, and to predict the approaching ruin of his houſe. Young Samuel was alſo appriſed, in a viſion, of the puniſhment which would ſhortly be inflicted upon Eli's family; and, when ſolemnly adjured not to conceal what had been revealed to him, he related the particulars of the divine denunciation. On hearing them, the aged high-prieſt, ſenſible how juſtly he merited the threatened calamity, could only exclaim, "It is the Lord; let him do what ſeemeth him good." Not long after this, the Iſraelites, having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs in an attempt to emancipate themſelves from their thraldom, brought the ark of God into their camp, to invigorate their people with freſh courage, and to ſtrike a terror into their enemies. But this extraordinary meaſure was only a prelude to their complete defeat, in which the two ſons of Eli, who bare the ark, were killed, and that ſacred ſymbol of the divine preſence fell into the hands of the Philiſtines. When tidings of theſe fatal diſaſters were brought to Eli, he was unable to bear up under the afflicting intelligence, and falling backwards from his ſeat, broke his neck, and died. At the time of his death he was ninety-eight years of age.

E'LIAB, [Heb. God is my father.] A man's name.

ELI'ADA, [Heb. the knowledge of God.] A man's name.

ELI'AKIM, [of אל God, and קים he aroſe; i.e. God ariſes.] A proper name of a man in ſcripture.

ELI'AM, [Heb. the people of God.] A man's name.

E'LIANT, a town of France, in the department of Finiſterre, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Quimper: two leagues and a half eaſt of Quimper.

ELI'AS, [Heb. the powerful God.] A man's name.

ELI'AS LEVITA, a learned Jewiſh rabbi, who flouriſhed in the ſixteenth century, was a native of Germany, but ſpent the greater part of his life at Rome and at Venice, in which cities he taught the Hebrew language to numerous Chriſtian pupils. He was one of the moſt learned and enlightened critics of whom the modern Jews have to boaſt, who judiciouſly exploded many of their unfounded traditions; and, among others, that which refers the invention of the vowel-points to ſo high an antiquity as the time of Ezra, aſcribing it, with greater probability,

probability, to the Jewiſh doctors of the ſchool of Tiberias, about the ſixth century of the Chriſtian era. His work, entitled *Maſſoret Hammaſſoret*, and his *Sepher Zichroneth*, or Collection of Maſſoretic Obſervations from ancient Authors, will be found of eſſential ſervice in illuſtrating the difficulties of the Maſſora. He has alſo contributed more than any other of the learned Jews to facilitate our acquaintance with the Targums, or Chaldee paraphraſes, by drawing up A Chaldaic, Talmudic, and Rabbinic, Lexicon, which was publiſhed in 1541, in folio. Beſides the treatiſes above-mentioned, he was the author of a Hebrew gloſſary, entitled *Thiſbi*, publiſhed by Paul Fagius, in Hebrew and Latin, in 1542, 8vo. ſeveral works on Hebrew grammar, beſides illuſtrations of Kimchi's valuable performance on the ſame ſubject, highly uſeful to thoſe who would thoroughly underſtand the Hebrew tongue. *Traditio Doctrinæ*, 4to. in Hebrew, 1538, and with the verſion of Munſter, in 8vo. 1539. *Collectio Locorum in quibus Chaldæus Paraphraſtes interjecit Nomen Chriſti, verſa à Genebrardo*, 8vo. 1572.

ELI'ASHIB, [Heb. the God of converſion.] A man's name.

ELI'ATHAH, [Heb. my God comes.] The name of a man.

E'LICHMAN (John), a native of Sileſia in the ſeventeenth century, who practiſed phyſic at Leyden, and was remarkable for underſtanding ſixteen languages. He ſupported an opinion, that the German and Perſian languages were derived from the ſame origin. His Latin tranſlation of The Tablet of Cebes, with the Arabic verſion and the Greek, was printed at Leyden in 1640, under the care of Salmaſius.

ELICHRY'SO, *ſ.* in botany. See ACHYRANTHES, BACCHARIS, IVA, TARCHONANTHUS, and CONYZA.

ELICHRY'SUM, *ſ.* in botany. See ATHANASIA, CHRYSOCOMA, CONYZA, GUAPHALIUM, STOEBE, TANACETUM, TARCHONANTHUS, and XERANTHEMUM.

To ELI'CITE, *v.a.* [*elicio*, Lat.] To ſtrike out; to fetch out by labour or art.—Although the ſame truths may be *elicited*, and explicated by the contemplation of animals, yet they are more clearly evidenced in the contemplation of man. *Hale.*

ELI'CIT, *adj.* [*elicitus*, Lat.] Brought into act; brought from poſſibility to real exiſtence.—The ſchools diſpute whether, in morals, the external action ſuperadds any thing of good or evil to the internal *elicit* act of the will. *South.*

ELICITA'TION, *ſ.* [*elicio*, Lat.] The *elicitation* which the ſchools intend, is a deducing of the power of the will into act: that drawing which they mention, is merely from the appetibility of the object. *Bramhall.*

To E'LIDE, *v.a.* [*elido*, Lat.] To break in pieces; to cruſh.—We are to cut off that whereunto they, from whom theſe objections proceed, fly for defence, when the force and ſtrength of the argument is *elided*. *Hooker.*

ELIE'NESS, a cape of Scotland, on the ſouth coaſt of the county of Fife, at the mouth of the frith of Forth. Lat. 56. 10. N. lon. 0. 22. E. Edinburgh.

ELIE'ZER, ſaid to have been a Jewiſh rabbi, and author of a work, entitled The Chapters of Rabbi Eliezer, which is a compound of hiſtory and allegory. It is held in eſteem among the Jews, and conſidered as one of the moſt ancient books in their poſſeſſion. Some of them have placed the author in ſo early a period as the year 73 or 75 of the Chriſtian era, and repreſent him to have been one of the compilers of the Miſhna. Father Morin, however, has ſhewn, that the writer of that book did not compile it before the year 700; and that he was moſt probably an impoſtor, who aſſumed the name of Eliezer, and collected the fabulous materials which are diſperſed through it, from the Talmud and other rabinical writings. Voſſius, in the preface to his tranſlation of it, gives it as his opinion, that it is of a much later date than the Jews pretend; and, though it is replete with abſurd tales and fables, it furniſhes many valuable interpretations, which ſerve to illuſtrate the hiſtory and the traditions of the Jews.

ELIGIBI'LITY, *ſ.* Worthineſs to be choſen.—The buſineſs of the will is not to judge concerning the nature of things, but to chooſe them in conſequence of the report made by the underſtanding as to their *eligibility* or goodneſs. *Fiddes.*

EL'IGIBLE, *adj.* [*eligibilis*, Lat.] Fit to be choſen; worthy of choice; preferable.—Certainty, in deep diſtreſs, is more *eligible* than ſuſpenſe. *Clariſſa.*

EL'IGIBLENESS, *ſ.* Worthineſs to be choſen; preferableneſs.

ELIGURI'TION, [Lat.] The act of haſty eating or devouring.

ELIHO'REPH, [Heb. the god of winter.] A man's name.

ELI'HU, [of אל my God, and הוא he, i.e. he is my God.] One of Job's friends.

ELI'JAH, [of אל God, and יה the Lord, i.e. God the Lord.] Sometimes called ELIAS, one of the greateſt of the Hebrew prophets, had the ſurname of the *Tiſhbite*, moſt probably from the town or diſtrict in which he was born, and was a reſident among the inhabitants of Gilead, if not a native of their country. He commenced his prophetic office nearly 920 years before Chriſt, under the reign of Ahab, who was a prince of an impious character, and introduced among the Iſraelites the abominable rites of the Sidonian idolatry. The firſt commiſſion which the prophet received, was to appear before Ahab; and, after ſeverely reproving him for his apoſtacy, to threaten him with a long drought, in which there ſhould be no rain, unleſs it were in anſwer to the prophet's prayers. For this reproof Ahab was ſo incenſed againſt Elijah, that he determined to make him feel his vengeance; but the prophet, on receiving a divine admonition, withdrew from his power, and retired to a ſecret place, where he was for ſome time miraculouſly ſuſtained. We refer to the ſacred books for the particulars of his miſſion, the narrative of which cannot be abridged without injury to its beauty and effect. Elijah's tranſlation took place in the year 896 before Chriſt. The Jews, by miſconſtruing the prophecy in Malachi iv. 5. had very generally entertained the opinion, that before the advent of the Meſſiah, Elijah would again perſonally appear on the earth, as the harbinger of that illuſtrious character. But, if they had interpreted the prophetical language in this paſſage in the ſame manner which they were obliged to adopt in others, where a future prophet was promiſed in the name of a preceding one, as, for inſtance, the Meſſiah himſelf under the name of David, they could not have fallen into ſuch an error. They would only have expected the coming of a prophet, as the forerunner of the Meſſiah, who ſhould appear in the ſpirit and power of Elijah, or animated by the ſame ſanctity, courage, and zeal for reformation, which diſtinguiſhed that celebrated prophet. As to the numerous apocryphal tales and reveries which ſome of their writers, as well as ſome Chriſtians and Mahometans, have related concerning this prophet, we have no room for their inſertion. The curious reader may find ſpecimens of theſe fables in Bayle. Origen has cited a book, entitled The Aſſumption, Apocalypſe, or the Secrets of Elias, which he ſeemed to conſider in the light of a genuine production; but it is now generally allowed to be ſuppoſitious.

ELI'KA, [Heb. the pelican of God.] A man's name.

E'LIM, [Heb. the valleys.] The fifth encampment of the Iſraelites in their journey from Egypt to Canaan: here they found twelve wells of water, and ſeventy palm-trees. *Exod.* xv. 27.

ELIMA'IS. See ELYMAIS.

To E'LIMATE, *v.a.* [*elimatum*, ſup. of *elimo*, Lat.] To file; to poliſh; to ſmooth.

ELI'MELECH, [Heb. God, my king.] A man's name.

ELIMINA'TION, *ſ.* [*elimino*, Lat.] The act of baniſhing; the act of turning out of doors; rejection.

ELINGUA'TION, *ſ.* [Lat.] The act of cutting out the tongue.

E'LINS, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw: twenty-ſix miles north-eaſt of Braclaw.

ELJOBE'LE, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twenty-eight miles ſouth of Abu-Ariſch.

ELIOCAR'MOS, *ſ.* in botany. See ORNITHOGALUM.

ELIOE'NAI, [Heb. my eyes are towards him.] A man's name.

ELI'OT (John), a pious divine of the ſeventeenth century, and not undeſervedly called the apoſtle of the North-American Indians, was born in England, in 1604; but we are not informed of the place of his birth. He appears to have been educated in the univerſity of Cambridge; after which he engaged in the employment of an uſher to a ſchool. Having connected himſelf, however, with the puritan party, he became involved in the ſeverities exerciſed towards them during the reign of Charles I. and determined, like many others, to remove to America. This reſolution he put in practice in 1631; and, arriving at New England, became a member of the congregational church at Boſton. From hence, in 1632, he removed to Roxbury, where he was ordained miniſter and ſpent the greateſt part of his life. Mr. Eliot's glory ariſes from the diſintereſted zeal and indefatigable labours by which he endeavoured to introduce the advantages of civilization and chriſtian knowledge into the barbarous Indian tribes. To this work he began to devote a conſiderable part of his time in 1646, having been encouraged to the undertaking by many well-wiſhers to the intereſts of humanity and virtue, and particularly by his brethren in the miniſtry, who engaged to ſupply his place in the church at Roxbury whenever he ſhould be abſent among the Indians. The firſt ſtep he took was to learn their language, and reduce it to the form of a grammar, which he afterwards publiſhed. Having overcome this difficulty, he paid his firſt viſit to an aſſembly of Indians, to whom he preached in their native tongue, in the year above mentioned. The ſucceſs which he met with encouraged him to perſevere in his truly philanthropic undertaking during the remainder of his life; dividing his time between the Indians, and his flock at Roxbury, and not diſheartened by the incredible hardſhips to which he was obliged to ſubmit, the obſtacles which he met with in the prejudices, ſuſpicions, and brutal manners, of the ſavages, and the terrible dangers to which he was often expoſed. His zeal and diligence likewiſe prompted him to engage in the arduous taſk of tranſlating the whole Bible into the Indian language. When this work was completed, it was printed for the firſt time at Cambridge in New England, in 1664, and, a little time after Mr. Eliot's death, a ſecond time, with the corrections of Mr. Cotton, miniſter of Plymouth, who was a fellow-labourer in the Indian miſſion. Mr. Eliot tranſlated into the ſame tongue ſeveral Engliſh treatiſes in practical divinity, catechiſms, grammars, &c. By his influence many of the wandering Indian tribes were collected into regular ſocieties, and formed into congregations, which were inſtructed by him, and others who joined him in the work, in the manner beſt ſuited to their capacities; and ſchools were appointed, in which great numbers ſoon became proficients in reading and writing, and ſeveral were qualified for a more liberal education, which they afterwards received. To aid and encourage theſe meaſures for humaniſing and converting the Indians, large contributions were made in England, with which eſtates were purchaſed, and placed in the hands of truſtees, who were afterwards incorporated by charter, under the name of The Society for the Propagation of the Goſpel in Foreign Parts. Mr. Eliot's miſſionary labours were continued as long as his bodily ſtrength permitted; and, even when he was in the eighty-fourth year of his age, we are informed, that he was occaſionally engaged in preaching to his Indian converts. He died at Roxbury in 1690, when he had nearly attained to the advanced period of eighty-ſix years.

ELI'OTT (Alexander), ſon of ſir Gilbert Eliott, of Stobbs, and brother of lord Heathfield, was one of the Engliſh council at Bengal, under Mr. Haſtings, and was allowed to poſſeſs the moſt elevated ſpirit that ever dignified human nature. At that period, the French intrigues at the court of Poonah, added to their hopes of detaching the affection of the Berar Rajah from the Engliſh, endangered the exiſtence of the Engliſh empire in the Eaſt. To preſerve the alliance of that prince, Mr. Haſtings fixed on Mr. Eliott to be reſident at the court of Nagpour. Another accident happened after he had left Bengal for that purpoſe, which cauſed him to redouble his ſpeed: M. Chevalier, the French governor of Chandernagore, had eſcaped from thence, and was purſuing the ſame route before him. M. Chevalier was a perſon of firſt-rate abilities, and as warm in the intereſt of France as Mr. Eliott was in that of England. He alſo was on his way to Nagpour; and from thence intended to return to France, where his great knowledge of the politics of India would have enabled his court to form plans the moſt pernicious to the ſafety of our Indian empire. Mr. Eliott had ſet out in the rainy ſeaſon, without any proſpect of accommodations neceſſary to his precarious ſtate of health, labouring under a diſorder peculiar to the eaſt, originating in bilious obſtructions, the cure of which depended on the quantity of mercury. In thoſe circumſtances, he heard that M. Chevalier was at no great diſtance before him; he puſhed on by forced journeys: unfortunately, juſt as he had his chace in view, his progreſs was retarded by a ſudden overflow of one of the great branches of the Cattack river. Regardleſs of his health, or the dangerous medicines he had taken, he plunged into the rapid ſtream, followed by a few of his attendants and ſepoys, and found M. Chevalier before him at the capital Cattack. He claimed his perſon as an Engliſh priſoner with ſuch powerful eloquence, that the rajah ſurrendered him. Mr. Eliott then engaged the paroles of M. Chevalier and his companion M. Monneron, to return and ſurrender themſelves at Calcutta, to the governor-general, which they did in the moſt honourable manner. Mr. Eliott purſued his journey, and, in a few days, in October, 1778, at a ſmall caravanſera, fell, devoted to genuine patriotiſm and fidelity to the intereſts of his country. The Mahrattas have ſince built round it a town; and, ſtill farther to preſerve his memory, named it, in honour of him, *Eliott-gunge*, or Eliott's town. Mr. Haſtings cauſed a monument to be erected over his grave: he experienced an affliction equal to his loſs; and, in his paſſage to England, compoſed an Elegy expreſſive of it, in imitation of Horace, ode xvi. book ii. equally a proof of his affection, as of his elegant turn for compoſitions of this nature. It has been twice reprinted.

ELI'OTT (George Auguſtus, lord Heathfield), a military officer of ſingular merit, the youngeſt ſon of ſir Gilbert Eliott of Stobbs, in Roxburgſhire, Scotland. He was born about 1718; and after receiving the rudiments of education under a domeſtic tutor, was ſent at an early age to the univerſity of Leyden, where he improved himſelf in claſſical learning, and acquired a knowledge of the French and German languages. As he was deſtined to a military life, his father properly reſolved to give him a profeſſional courſe of inſtruction. At the royal military ſchool of La Fere, in Picardy, he made himſelf maſter of the theory of tactics, and of fortification and engineering in all their branches; and then proceeding to the practice of the art, he made a tour through thoſe parts of the continent which afforded the moſt inſtruction, and concluded with ſerving ſome time as a volunteer in the Pruſſian army. Returning to Scotland, he was entered as a volunteer in the 23d regiment of foot, then lying at Edinburgh. He afterwards entered into the artillery corps at Woolwich; and at length, fully accompliſhed in diſcipline of various kinds, was preſented by his uncle, colonel Eliott, with an adjutant's commiſſion in the ſecond troop of horſe grenadiers. He diligently employed himſelf in perfecting the diſcipline of his troop, with which he went to Germany in the war that

that enſued. He was in ſeveral actions, and received a wound at the battle of Dettingen. He roſe through the gradations of captain, major, and lieutenant-colonel; and was afterwards appointed aid-de-camp to George II. and became diſtinguiſhed as an able officer. In 1759, he was appointed to raiſe the regiment of light horſe which made itſelf ſo well known, under the name of Eliott's, for activity, diſcipline, and enterpriſe. This he commanded in Germany, where he acted as a ſtaff-officer, and on all occaſions maintained his reputation. He was recalled from the continent, in order to be ſent as ſecond in command on the expedition againſt the Havannah. There he not only diſtinguiſhed himſelf in his military capacity, but diſplayed alſo a diſintereſted regard to juſtice. His regiment, the 15th of light dragoons, obtained from the king the honorary appellation of *Royals*. The general continued to pay that attention to military affairs which became his ruling paſſion; and in 1775, he was named commander-in-chief of the troops in Ireland. But finding that there were political interferences in this department which he could not brook, he ſolicited to be recalled; and was ſoon after appointed to a ſtation in which he might exerciſe his talents without controul. This was the important place of governor of Gibraltar, which proved the chief theatre of his glory. For this he was excellently fitted by a habit of unremitting vigilance and undeviating regularity, in addition to his thorough knowledge of all the detail of fortification and gunnery. He had, moreover, accuſtomed himſelf to a mode of life which rendered him ſuperior to every inconvenience and privation that can occur in a beſieged fortreſs. The ſiege of Gibraltar, which began ſoon after the declaration of hoſtilities by Spain, was one of the moſt remarkable events of the war, and attracted the notice of all Europe. With a ſmall number of men, Eliott foiled all the attempts of a numerous foe; and when the operations of the ſiege were quickened, and rendered more formidable, by the aid of a more active enemy, he ſtill maintained that ſuperiority of defence which kept danger at a diſtance. The final grand attack by the famous floating batteries, afforded one of the moſt awful ſpectacles of deſtruction ever beheld. Beſides the ſpirit of exact diſcipline which he infuſed into his garriſon, and his judicious management of the means of defence, he was very aſſiduous in his attention to the preſervation of the health of his men, under their long privations of freſh and wholeſome diet. His own partiality for vegetable food ſuggeſted to him extraordinary efforts to form gardens on the ſcanty ſoil, which ſucceeded to a degree that proved highly beneficial. On his return to England after the peace, the general was received with great applauſe by the public; and the king, beſides conferring upon him the order of the Bath, raiſed him to the peerage in 1787, by the ſtyle of Lord Heathfield, baron of Gibraltar. He was meditating a return to his government, with the intention of ending his life on the rock he had ſo well defended, when he was ſeized by a paralytic ſtroke, which carried him off at Aix-la-Chapelle, in July, 1790, in his ſeventy-third year. By his lady, the daughter of ſir Francis Drake, of Devonſhire, he left a ſon and a daughter.

ELI'PHALET, [Heb. the God of deliverance.] A man's name.

EL'IPHAZ, [of אל God, and פז he ſtrengthened, Heb. the ſtrength of God.] One of Job's friends.

ELIQUA'TION, *ſ.* an operation in chemiſtry, by means of which a more fuſible ſubſtance is ſeparated from another which is leſs fuſible. It conſiſts in the application of a degree of heat ſufficient to fuſe the former, but not the latter. It may be effected either by uſing a perforated crucible, or in the large way, by a furnace conſtructed to anſwer the ſame purpoſe. In order that a ſeparation may follow by this method, it is neceſſary that the combination between the two ſubſtances ſhould be by no means intimate. Thus ſulphur may be ſeparated from its earthy admixtures by the gentle heat neceſſary to fuſe it; but it cannot, in the ſame manner, be ſeparated from its metallic combinations. So likewiſe lead may be ſeparated by eliquation from copper; but tin cannot.

E'LIS, a country of Peloponneſus at the weſt of Arcadia, and north of Meſſenia, extending along the coaſt, and watered by the river Alpheus. The capital of the country is called *Elis*, now *Belvidere*. It was originally governed by kings, and received its name from Eleus, one of its monarchs. Elis was famous for the horſes it produced, whoſe celerity was ſo often known and tried at the Olympic games. *Virgil.*

ELI'SAVETGRAD, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Ekaterinoſlav, on the Ingul: 108 miles weſt of Ekaterinoſlav.

ELI'SHA, [אלישע, Heb. of אל and ישע, ſalvation, &c. i. e. the ſalvation of God.] The ſon of Shaphat, a Hebrew prophet, and the ſucceſſor of Elijah, was taken from the plough to be initiated in the duties of the prophetic character. From the particulars, however, which are recited by the ſacred hiſtorian, he appears to have been a perſon of ſome weight in the community; for when Elijah found him, "he was ploughing with twelve yoke of oxen before him, and he with the twelfth." The number of working cattle and ſervants employed by him lead us to conclude that he was a wealthy agriculturiſt, who, according to the manners of ancient times, took himſelf an active part in the labours of the field. Elijah's manner of informing him that he was ſelected to become his ſervant and diſciple was by caſting his mantle upon him. He was preſent when Elijah was tranſlated; upon which event he entered on the exerciſe of the prophetic office, and ſoon gave proof of the authority which was transferred to him, by miraculouſly correcting the pernicious qualities in the waters at Jericho, and curing the barrenneſs of the ſoil. We refer the reader to the ſcripture account of this celebrated prophet, who died about the year before Chriſt 830.

ELI'SHAH, [Heb. it is God.] A man's name.

ELI'SHAH (iſles of), ſo named from Eliſhah, grandſon of Japheth; repreſented by the prophet Ezekiel, as trading with Tyrus. *Ezek.* xxvii. 7. *Gen.* x. 4.

ELISH'AMAH, [Heb. God heareth.] A man's name.

ELISH'EBA, [Heb. the oath of God.] The name of a woman.

ELI'SHUA, [Heb. God my ſalvation.] A man's name.

ELI'SION, *ſ.* [*eliſio*, Lat.] The act of cutting off; as, *can't th' attempt*, there is an eliſion of a ſyllable.—You will obſerve the abbreviations and *eliſions*, by which conſonants of moſt obdurate ſounds are joined together, without any ſoftening vowel to intervene. *Swift.*—Diviſion; ſeparation of parts.—The cauſe given of ſound, that it would be an *eliſion* of the air, whereby, if they mean any thing, they mean a cutting or dividing, or elſe an attenuating of the air, is but a term of ignorance. *Bacon.*

ELI'SORS, *ſ.* [electors, in law.] In caſes of challenge to the ſheriff and coroners for partiality, &c. the venire to ſummon a jury ſhall be directed to two clerks of the court, or two perſons of the county named by the court and ſworn. And theſe two, who are called eliſors, ſhall indifferently name or chooſe the jury; and their return is final, no challenge being allowed to their array. *Co. Lit.* 158.

ELIXA'TION, *ſ.* [*elixus*, Lat.] The act of boiling or ſtewing any thing.—Even to ourſelves, and more perfect animals, water performs no ſubſtantial nutrition; ſerving for refrigeration, dilution of ſolid aliments, and its *elixation* in the ſtomach. *Brown.*

ELIX'IR, *ſ.* [from אלקסר *elekſer*, Arab.] A medicine made by ſtrong infuſion, where the ingredients are almoſt diſſolved in the menſtruum, and form a compound tincture:

For when no healing art prevail'd,
When cordials and *elixirs* fail'd,
On your pale cheek he dropp'd the ſhow'r,
Reviv'd you like a dying flow'r. *Waller.*

The extract or quinteſſence of any thing.—In the ſoul,

when the ſupreme faculties move regularly, the inferior paſſions and affections following, there ariſes a ſerenity infinitely beyond the higheſt quinteſſence and *elixir* of worldly delight. *South.*—Any cordial; or invigorating ſubſtance:

What wonder then, if fields and regions here
Breathe forth *elixir* pure! *Milton.*

ELIXIVA'TION, *ſ.* [from *elixo*, to boil, or *lixivium*, Lat. ley.] The extraction of a fixed ſalt from vegetables by an affuſion of water.

ELI'ZABETH, [Ελισαβετ, Gr. of אלישבע, Heb. God hath ſworn.] The mother of John Baptiſt.—A woman's name. Bryant obſerves that it was a Canaanitiſh name, the ſame as Eliſa, Elcuſa, Elaſa, of Greece and other countries. It was a compound of *El-Ees*, and related to the god of light. It was made a feminine in aſtertimes, and was a name aſſumed by women of the country ſtiled Phœnicia, as well as by thoſe of Carthage. Hence Dido has this as a ſecondary appellation; and mention is made by the poet of *Dii morientis Elizæ*, though it was properly the name of a deity. The worſhip of Eliſa was carried to Carthage from Canaan and Syria: in theſe parts ſhe was firſt worſhipped; and her temple from that worſhip was called *Eliza-Beth.*

ELI'ZABETH, queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anna Bolcyn, born at Greenwich, September 7th, 1533. She was early inſtructed in the learned languages; and acquired likewiſe conſiderable knowledge of the Italian, Spaniſh, and French, languages. That the Latin was familiar to her, is evident from her ſpeech to the univerſity of Cambridge, and another to that of Oxford, when ſhe was near ſixty; alſo from her ſpirited anſwer to the Poliſh ambaſſador in 1598. She had likewiſe a taſte for poetry and muſic. She wrote, 1. The Mirror, or Glaſs of the Sinful Soul. This was tranſlated out of the French verſe into Engliſh proſe, when ſhe was only eleven years of age. It was dedicated to queen Catherine Parr. Probably it was never printed; but the dedication and preface are preſerved in the *Sylloge epiſtolarum*, in Hearne's edition of *Livii Foro-Julienſis*. 2. Prayers and Meditations, &c. dedicated to her father, dated at Hatfield, 1545. Manuſcript, in the royal library. 3. A dialogue out of Xenophon, in Greek, between Hiero a King, and Simonides a Poet. 4. Two Orations of Iſocrates, tranſlated into Latin. 5. Latin Oration at Cambridge; preſerved in the king's library. 6. Latin Oration at Oxford. 7. A Comment on Plato. 8. *Boethius de conſolatione philoſophiæ*, tranſlated into Engliſh 1593. 9. *Salluſt de bello Jugurthino*, tranſlated into Engliſh 1590. 10. A play of Euripides, tranſlated into Latin. 11. A Prayer for the uſe of her fleet in the great expedition in 1596. 12. Part of Horace's Art of Poetry, tranſlated into Engliſh 1598. 13. *Plutarch de curioſitate*, tranſlated into Engliſh. 14. Letters on various occaſions to different perſons; ſeveral ſpeeches to her parliament; and a number of other pieces. See the article ENGLAND in this volume, for her noble reign, and high character.

ELI'ZABETH, empreſs of Ruſſia, diſtinguiſhed by her ſignal clemency. She made a vow, that no perſon ſhould be put to death in her reign, and ſhe ſtrictly obſerved it. See the article RUSSIA.

ELI'ZABETH, a county of the American States, in Virginia, between York and James rivers, having Warwick and York counties on the weſt, and Cheſapeak bay on the eaſt and north. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands on its ſea coaſt, the chief of which are Long and Egg iſlands. Point Comfort is the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of the county. It contains, by the cenſus of 1796, 3450 inhabitants.

ELI'ZABETH, the ſouthern arm of James river, in Virginia, North America. It affords an excellent harbour, large enough for three hundred ſhips. The channel is from one hundred and fifty to two hundred fathoms wide; and at common flood tide it has eighteen feet water to Norfolk, which ſtands near the mouth of its eaſtern branch. The ſouth branch riſes in the Diſmal Swamp. Craney iſland, at the mouth of Elizabeth, lies five miles ſouth-weſt of Point Comfort, at the mouth of James river.

ELI'ZABETH, a townſhip of the American States, in Lancaſter county, Pennſylvania, with a Dutch church: eighteen miles north-weſt by weſt of Lancaſter, and eighty-four weſt by north of Philadelphia.

ELI'ZABETH BAY, a bay in the ſtraits of Magellan. Lat. 53. 43. S. lon. 73. 24. W. Greenwich.

ELI'ZABETH ISLAND, in the ſtraits of Magellan, in South America. Here freſh water, herbs fit for ſallad, and wild fowl, may be had in great plenty. The ſhores alſo abound with ſhell-fiſh.

ELI'ZABETH ISLANDS, ſeveral ſmall iſlands on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of Buzzard's bay, in North America, extending ſouth-weſterly from the extremity of Barnſtaple county, in Maſſachuſetts, and bearing north-weſt from Martha's Vineyard; ſituated between 41. 24. and 41. 32. north latitude, and between 70. 38. and 70. 56. weſt longitude. They are about ſixteen in number; the chief of which are Naſhawn, Paſqui, Naſhawenna, Pinequeſe, and Chatahunk iſlands. All theſe belong to Duke's county.

ELI'ZABETHTOWN, a poſt-town and borough of the American States, in Eſſex county, New Jerſey; pleaſantly ſituated on a ſmall creek which empties into Arthur Kull. Its ſoil is equal to any in the ſtate. In the town are two brick churches, one for Preſbyterians, very handſome, the other for Epiſcopalians, and an academy. This is one of the oldeſt towns in the ſtate, having been purchaſed of the Indians as early as 1664, and ſettled ſoon after: ſix miles ſouth of Newark, and fifteen ſouth-weſt by weſt of New York.

ELI'ZABETHTOWN, a poſt-town of the American States, in Maryland, and capital of Waſhington county, formerly called Hagarſtown, ſeated in the fertile valley of Conegocheague. It has ſeveral ſtreets regularly laid out, and the houſes are principally built of brick and ſtone. Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, and German Lutherans, have each a church. The court-houſe and market-houſe are handſome buildings, and the jail is of ſtone, and ſubſtantial. The trade with the weſtern country is conſiderable; and there are a number of mills in the neighbourhood, on Antietam creek.

ELI'ZABETHTOWN, the chief town of the American ſtates, in Tyrrel county, in Edenton diſtrict, North Carolina: forty miles from Fayetteville, and fifty-five from Wilmington.

ELI'ZABETHTOWN, a poſt-town of the American States, and the chief in Bladen county, North Carolina, ſituated on the north-weſt branch of Cape Fear: thirty-ſix miles ſouthward of Fayctteville, and forty-ſeven north-weſt of Wilmington.

ELIZE'US, the name of a man. *Ecclus.* xlviii. 12.

ELI'ZUR, [Heb. God my rock.] A man's name.

ELK, *ſ.* [ælc, Sax.] See the article CERVUS, vol. iv. p. 51.

And, ſcarce his head
Rais'd o'er the heapy wreath, the branching *elk*
Lies ſlumb'ring ſilent in the white abyſs. *Thomſon.*

ELK, a creek in Northumberland county, Pennſylvania, which uniting with Penn's creek, falls into the Suſquehanna, five miles below Sunbury.

ELK, a navigable river of the eaſtern ſhore of Maryland, which riſes in Cheſter county, Pennſylvania, by two branches; Big and Little Elk creeks. At their confluence ſtands Elkton.

ELK, a navigable river, in the ſtate of Tenneſſee. It riſes on the north-weſt ſide of Cumberland mountain, runs ſouth-weſterly, and falls into the Tenneſſee, a little above the Muſcle ſhoals; about forty miles weſt-north-weſt of the Creeks' Croſſing Place.

ELK,

ELK LAKE, one of the chain of ſmall lakes in North America, which connects the lake of the Woods with lake Superior. Lat. 48. 41. N. lon. 93. W.

ELKA'NAH, [Heb. the reed of God.] A man's name.

ELKAR'RIE, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: twenty-four miles north-eaſt of Abu-Ariſch.

ELKAS'SAREN, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: eight miles eaſt of Chamir.

ELKAT'TA, a town of Egypt: fourteen miles north-weſt of Cairo.

ELKE, *ſ.* A kind of yew to make bows. Statute 32 Hen. VIII. c. 9.

EL'KO, or EDKO, a lake of Egypt, formed in the year 1800, by an encroachment of the ſea. See the article EGYPT, p. 363, of this volume.

ELK'RIDGE, a town of the American States, in Ann Arundel county, Maryland, ſituated on the ſouth bank of Patapſco river, and on the weſt ſide of Deep Run; famous for the bright tobacco called *kite's foot*: eight miles ſouth-weſt of Baltimore, and nineteen north-weſt of Annapolis. Lat. 39. 12. 30. N.

ELK'TON, a poſt town of the American States, of conſiderable trade, ſituate at the head of Cheſapeak bay, in Maryland, and the capital of Cecil county. It is ſeated at the confluence of the head branches of Elk river, thirteen miles from its mouth at Turkey Point, and a mile above French town. The tide flows up to the town, and it enjoys great advantages from the carrying trade, between Baltimore and Philadelphia. Upwards of 250,000 buſhels of wheat are collected here annually, for ſupplying thoſe markets, and the neighbouring mills: twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Chriſtiana bridge, ten north-eaſt of Charleſtown, forty-ſeven ſouth-weſt of Philadelphia, and fifty-ſix north-eaſt of Baltimore.

ELK'UVAR, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Tobol. Lat. 52. 55. N. lon. 81. E. Ferro.

ELL, *ſ.* [eln, Sax. *ulna*, Lat.] A meaſure containing forty-five inches, or a yard and a quarter.—They are ſaid to make yearly forty thouſand pieces of linen cloth, reckoning two hundred *ells* to the piece. *Addiſon.*

The ells moſt uſed with us are the Engliſh and Flemiſh; the former containing three feet nine inches, or one yard and a quarter; the latter only 27 inches, or three quarters of a yard; ſo that the ell Engliſh is to the Flemiſh ell as five to three. In Scotland, the ell contains $37\frac{2}{10}$ Engliſh inches. M. Ricard, in his Treatiſe of Commerce, reduces the ells thus: 100 ells of Amſterdam are equal to $98\frac{3}{4}$ of Brabant, Antwerp, and Bruſſels; to $58\frac{1}{2}$ of England and France; to 120 of Hamburgh, Francfort, Leipſic, and Cologne; 125 of Breſlaw; 110 of Bergen and Drontheim; and 117 of Stockholm.

EL'LA, [ellen, Sax. valour.] The firſt king of the South Saxons.

EL'LAR, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and principality of Naſſau Dillenburg: twelve miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Dillenburg.

ELLASAR', the king of which joined Chedorlaomer, when he invaded Canaan, and was vanquiſhed by the patriarch Abraham. *Gen.* xiv. It bears great affinity in name with Thelaſar, 1 *Kings*, xix. 12. and Telaſſar, *Iſaiah*, xxxvii. 12. which, though differently ſpelt, are one in reality; and Ellaſar is very probably the ſame place.

ELLE'BORINE, *ſ.* in botany. See ASTRANTIA, CYPRIPEDIUM, and SERAPIAS.

ELLE'BORUM, and ELLEBO'RUS, *ſ.* in botany. See HELLEBORUS.

EL'LEDAT, a town of the iſland of Ceylon: twelve miles ſouth of Candy.

EL'LEHOLM, a ſea-port town of Sweden, on the ſouth coaſt of the province of Blekingen, on the Baltic: eight miles weſt of Carlſcron.

EL'LEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Juliers: four miles ſouth-eaſt of Juliers.

EL'LENBOGEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Bregentz: ſeventeen miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Bregentz.

EL'LENHOSEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Bregentz: fourteen miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Bregentz.

ELLERE'NA, a town of North America, in Mexico, and province of Zacatecas: twenty-five miles weſt of Zacatecas.

ELLERE'NA, or ELERENA, a town of Spain, in the province of Eſtremadura, belonging to the knights of the order of St. Jago, by whom it was founded: fifty-five miles north of Seville, and fifty-two weſt of Cordova. Lat. 38. 8. N. lon. 10. 48. E. Peak of Teneriffe.

EL'LESMERE, a neat and pleaſant town in the county of Salop, diſtant from London 144 miles, ſixteen from Shrewſbury, and twenty-three from Cheſter. This town is of Saxon origin, and takes its name from the water, which was called *Aelſmere*, or the greateſt mere, being the chief in this part of the county. This lake is one hundred acres in dimenſions; and is exceedingly well ſtocked with fiſh. The environs have two advantages; a good town borders on one ſide; the fine park of Ockle, or Ottley, on the other. This is the ancient ſeat of the Kynaſtons. The manſion appears to be very old, and ſtands low; but the park is very fine, having the greateſt quantity of the fineſt elm-trees perhaps to be found in any part of England. Elleſmere water is the property of the duke of Bridgewater; and from this place his grace takes the title of baron. This town has little to boaſt except its ſituation. The principal trade is that of malt, the barley of the neighbourhood being remarkably good. It has a market on Tueſdays; fairs, third Tueſday in April, Whit-Tueſday, Auguſt 25, and November 14. On Caſtlehill there is one of the fineſt bowling-greens in the kingdom; nine different counties are ſeen from the green. A new canal is cut to this town, called the Elleſmere canal. The country round Elleſmere is moſtly flat, dirty, and unpleaſing. On the approach to the town it becomes more agreeable, and about it breaks into moſt beautiful riſings, fertile, and finely wooded. The bottoms are indeed deſtitute of rivers, but frequently filled with little lakes, called *meres*, elegantly bordered by the cultivated hills. It is ſingular, that none of them are the parents of ſtreams; their increaſe from rain and ſprings, and their loſs by exhalations, appear to keep equal pace.

ELL'FELD, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of the Vogtland: two miles ſouth of Auerbach.

ELLICHPOUR', a city of Hindooſtan, and capital of a circar of the ſame name, in the country of Berar, ſubject to the Nizam. It was formerly the capital of Berar: 144 miles north-eaſt of Aurungabad. Lat. 21. 12. N. lon. 78. 5. E. Greenwich.

EL'LINGTON, a townſhip of the American States, in Tolland county, Connecticut: twelve miles north-eaſt of Hartford city, and ſix weſt of Tolland.

ELLI'PSE, *ſ.* An oval figure.—A circle ſeen obliquely will appear an *ellipſe*. *Reid.* See CONIC SECTIONS, vol. v. p. 80.

ELLIP'SIS, *ſ.* [*ellipſe*, Fr. *elliſſe*, It. *ellipſis*, Lat. of ἔλλειψις, Gr.] A figure of rhetoric, by which ſomething is left out neceſſary to be ſupplied by the hearer; as, *the thing I love*, for *the thing* which *I love*.—The words are delivered by way of *ellipſis*, Rom. iv. 18. *Hammond.*—[In geometry.] An oval figure generated from the ſection of a cone, by a plane cutting both ſides of the cone, but not parallel to the baſe, which produces a circle, and meeting with the baſe when produced. *Harris.*

ELLIP'SOID, *ſ.* An elliptical ſpheroid, being the ſolid generated by the revolution of an ellipſe about either axis.

ELLIP'TIC, or ELLIPTICAL, *adj.* Having the form of an ellipſis; oval.—In animals, that gather food from the ground, the pupil is oval or *elliptical*; the greateſt diameter going tranſverſely from ſide to ſide. *Cheyne.*—According to ellipſis, the rhetorical figure.—See where this *elliptical* phraſe is expreſſed at length. *Tyrwhitt.*

ELLIPTO'IDE, *ſ.* An infinite or indefinite ellipſis, defined by the indefinite equation $ay^{m+n} = bx^m . \overline{a - x^n}$ when m or n are greater than 1: for when they are each $= 1$, it denotes the common ellipſe. There are ſeveral kinds or degrees of elliptoides, denominated from the exponent $m + n$ of the ordinate y. As the cubical elliptoide, expreſſed by $ay^3 = bx^2 . \overline{a - x}$; the biquadratic, or ſurfolid $ay^4 = bx^2 . \overline{a - x^2}$; &c.

EL'LIS, [according to Camden from *Ellas.*] Formerly a Chriſtian name, now a ſurname.

ELLI'SIA, *ſ.* [ſo named in memory of *John Ellis*, F.R.S. author of a treatiſe on Corallines, &c.] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ, (borragineæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, five-parted; diviſions ſharp, gaping. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form, ſmaller than the calyx; border five-cleft. Stamina: filaments five, ſhorter than the tube; antheræ roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh; ſtyle filiform, ſhort; ſtigma two-cleft, oblong. Pericarpium: capſule bag-form, leathery, two-valved, two-celled, the calyx then very large, flat, ſtar-form. Seeds: in each cell two, globoſe, black, hollow-dotted; but one ſeed over the other, ſcarcely ſeparated by a tranſverſe partition.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla funnel-form, narrow; berry dry, two-celled, two-valved; ſeeds two, dotted, one placed over the other.

Elliſia nyctelea, or cut-leaved elliſia: a ſingle ſpecies. It is allied to hydrophyllum. Root annual; ſtem herbaceous, brittle, dichotomous, very much branched, diffuſed, proſtrate, round; leaves reſembling thoſe of hydrophyllum, alternate, petioled, pinnatifid, during foliation imbricate backward, the diviſions ſharp, with a tooth on each ſide; flowers drooping; corolla white, with minute purple dots on the inſide of the diviſions. The poſition of the ſeeds is ſingular. Native of Virginia; flowers in July and Auguſt. See DURANTA.

EL'LOBUS, *adj.* [from ἐν, in, and λοβος, a lobe.] In botany, an epithet of ſuch ſeeds as are contained in pods or lobes.

ELLO'RE, one of the northern circars of Hindooſtan, ſituated to the north-eaſt of Condapilly, and north-weſt of the Bay of Bengal.

ELLO'RE, a town of Hindooſtan, and capital of a circar of the ſame name, thirty-two miles north of Maſulipatam. Lat. 16. 43. N. lon. 81. 11. E. Greenwich.

EL'LYS (Anthony), a learned prelate of the church of England in the eighteenth century, born in 1693, but at what place is uncertain. He was entered at Clare-hall, Cambridge, where he took his degree of bachelor of arts in 1712, and that of maſter of arts in 1716. In 1724 he was preſented to the vicarage of St. Olave, Jewry, in the city of London, and to the rectory of St. Martin, Ironmonger-lane; and in the following year was promoted to a prebend ſtall in the cathedral church of Glouceſter; he was afterwards vicar of Great Marlow, in Buckinghamſhire. In 1728, when George II. paid a viſit to the univerſity of Cambridge, Mr. Ellys was one of the perſons who were created doctors of divinity on that occaſion. In 1736, he publiſhed A Plea for the Sacramental Teſt, as a juſt Security to the Church eſtabliſhed, &c. 4to. which was afterwards reprinted among his poſthumous pieces. His next publication was intitled, Remarks on an Eſſay concerning Miracles, publiſhed by David Hume, Eſq. 4to. 1752; which is a ſenſible and candid work. In the ſame year Dr. Ellys was promoted to the ſee of St. David's; which advancement he owed to the reputation of having been employed for many years in preparing for the preſs a grand work, the deſign of which ſhould be to illuſtrate, confirm, and vindicate, the principles of religious liberty, and the reformation from popery as founded upon thoſe principles. Why this work did not make its appearance during the biſhop's life-time, has not been ſatisfactorily explained. After his promotion to St. David's, Dr. Ellys continued to hold his prebend of Glouceſter, and his city preferment *in commendam.* He died at Glouceſter, in 1761, aged ſixty-eight years. After his death, in 1763, was publiſhed the firſt part of the great work which had been the principal object of the biſhop's life, intitled, Tracts on the Liberty, ſpiritual and temporal, of Proteſtants in England, &c. 4to. The ſecond part appeared in 1765, intitled, Tracts on the Liberty, ſpiritual and temporal, of Subjects in England, 4to.

ELM, *ſ.* [Saxon.] In botany. See the article ULMUS.

The rural ſeat,
Whoſe lofty *elms* and venerable oaks,
Invite the rook, who high amid' the boughs
In early ſpring his airy city builds. *Thomſon.*

It was uſed to ſupport vines, to which the poets allude:

Thou art an *elm*, my huſband; I a vine,
Whoſe weakneſs married to thy ſtronger ſtate,
Makes me with thy ſtrength to communicate. *Shakeſpeare.*

ELM, a town of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Glaris: ſix miles ſouth of Glaris.

EL'MA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Petchora, at Elma.

EL'MA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Archangel, at the conflux of the Elma and the Petchora: 312 miles eaſt of Archangel.

ELMAHAD', a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: eight miles north-north-weſt of Zebid.

EL'MACIN (George), an Egyptian of Syrian deſcent, ſon of a ſecretary to the council of war under the ſultans of Egypt, ſucceeded his father in the ſame office, A. D. 1238. He is known as the author of a chronicle of the Mahometan caliphs, written in Arabic, which commences with Mahomet, and goes down to the reign of Moſtader-Billah, who died in the year of the hejira 512, A. D. 1118. From the manner in which this hiſtorian mentions the Chriſtians, it is concluded that he was of their religion. His work was printed in Arabic, with a Latin verſion by Arpenius, at Leyden, in 1625, under the title of *Hiſtoria Saracenica.* See the Article EGYPT, p. 368, of this volume.

ELMEDE'A, or ELMADIA, or EL MEDEA, called likewiſe *Africa*, a ſea-port town of Africa, in the country of Tunis; formerly a place of great ſtrength and importance; but the harbour is now ruined and choked up: ſix leagues north of Cape Oudia.

EL'MEDINE, or ALMEDINE, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, on the edge of Mount Atlas.

EL'MEDINE, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, near the ſea-coaſt.

EL'MEN, or ALT SALZA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and the principality of Magdeburg: ten miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Magdeburg.

EL'MENAU. See ILMENAU.

EL'MESHORN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Holſtein: eighteen miles north-weſt of Hamburg.

ELMO'DAM, [Heb. the God of meaſure.] A man's name.

EL'MORE, a townſhip of the American States in Orleans county, Vermont.

ELN, *ſ.* A meaſure of three feet and one inch. *Phillips.*

ELNA'THAN, [Heb. the gift of God.] A man's name.

ELNBO'GEN, a town of Bohemia, and capital of a circle, or diſtrict, within the circle of Saatz, called the *Circle of Elbogen*, or *Loket*; ſituated on a rock, ſurrounded with mountains, near the Egra: ſixty-two miles weſt of Prague, and thirty-two ſouth-weſt of Saatz.

EL'NE, a town of France, in the department of the Eaſtern Pyrennees, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Perpignan; formerly the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Narbonne. It ſuffered very much in the civil wars, during the reign of Louis XI. in the ſeventeenth century: two leagues and a half ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Perpignan.

EL'NE,

EL'NE, a river of England, in the county of Cumberland, which runs into the Iriſh ſea: four miles north of Workington.

EL'NIA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Smolenſk: thirty-two miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Smolenſk. Lat. 54. 25. N. lon. 51. 5. E. Ferro.

ELOCU'TION, *ſ.* [*elocutio*, Lat.] The power of fluent ſpeech. Power of ſpeaking; ſpeech:

Whoſe taſte, too long forborne, at firſt eſſay
Gave *elocution* to the mute, and taught
The tongue not made for ſpeech to ſpeak thy praiſe. *Milt.*

The power of expreſſion or diction; eloquence; beauty of words.—The third happineſs of a poet's imagination is *elocution*, or the art of clothing or adorning that thought ſo found, and varied, in apt, ſignificant, and ſounding, words. *Dryden.*

ELO'DES, *ſ.* [from ελος, Gr. a marſh or ſwamp.] A bog, a place full of fens. *Phillips.*—The medical term for the ſweating fever, from its great moiſture.

E'LOGY, or EULOGY, *ſ.* [*eloge*, Fr. *elogio*, Ital. and Span. *elogium*, Lat. of ευλογιον, Gr.] Praiſe; panegyric.—Some excellent perſons, above my approbation or *elogy*, have conſidered this ſubject. *Holder.*

ELO'HI, or ELOHIM, in ſcripture, one of the diſtinguiſhing names of Jehovah.

ELO'I, [Syr.] My God.

To ELO'IGNE, or ELOINE, *v. a.* [*eloigner*, Fr.] To put at a diſtance; to remove one far from another:

I'll tell thee now, dear love! what thou ſhalt do
To anger deſtiny, as ſhe doth us;
How I ſhall ſtay though ſhe *eloigne* me thus,
And how poſterity ſhall know it too. *Donne.*

In law, to remove or ſend a great way off: in this ſenſe it is uſed where it is ſaid that if ſuch as are within age be *eloined*, ſo that they cannot come to ſue perſonally, their next friends ſhall be admitted to ſue for them. 13 *Edw.* I. c. 15.

To ELO'INE. See *To* ELOIGNE.

ELOIGN'MENT, *ſ.* Remotion.—He diſcovers an *eloignment* from vulgar phraſes much becoming a perſon of quality. *Shenſtone.*

ELOI'SA. See HELOISE.

E'LON, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Dan. *Joſh.* xix. 43.

E'LON-BETH-HANAN, a city of Paleſtine, probably the above city; one of the ſtations of Solomon's purveyors. 1 *Kings*, iv. 9.

ELONGA'TA, *ſ.* in law, a return of the ſheriff in replevin, that cattle are not to be found, or are removed, ſo that he cannot make deliverance, &c. 2 *Lil. Abr.* 454.

To ELON'GATE, *v. a.* [from *longus*, Lat.] To lengthen; to draw out; to protract; to ſtretch. To put farther off.—The firſt ſtar of Aries, in the time of Meton the Athenian, was placed in the very interſection, which is now *elongated* and moved eaſtward twenty-eight degrees. *Brown.*

To ELON'GATE, *v. n.* To go off to a diſtance from any thing.—About Cape Frio in Braſilia, the ſouth point of the compaſs varieth twelve degrees unto the weſt; but *elongating* from the coaſt of Braſilia, towards the ſhore of Africa, it varieth eaſtward. *Brown.*

ELONGA'TION, *ſ.* The act of ſtretching or lengthening itſelf.—To this motion of *elongation* of the fibres, is owing the union or conglutination of the parts of the body when they are ſeparated by a wound. *Arbuthnot.*—The ſtate of being ſtretched. An imperfect luxation, when the ligament of any joint is ſo extended or relaxed as to lengthen the limb, but yet not let the bone go quite out of its place. *Quincy.*—*Elongations* are the effect of an humour ſoaking upon a ligament, thereby making it liable to be ſtretched, and to be thruſt quite out upon every little force. *Wiſeman.*—Departure; removal.—Nor then had it been placed in a middle point, but that of deſcent, or *elongation*. *Brown.*—Diſtance; ſpace at which one thing is diſtant from another.—The diſtant points in the celeſtial expanſe appear to the eye in ſo ſmall a degree of *elongation* from one another, as bears no proportion to what is real. *Glanville.*—See the article ASTRONOMY, vol. ii.

E'LONITE, *ſ.* A deſcendant of Elon.

To ELO'PE, *v. a.* [*loopen*, Dut. to run.] To run away; to break looſe; to eſcape from law or reſtraint.—It is neceſſary to treat women as members of the body politic, ſince great numbers of them have *eloped* from their allegiance. *Addiſon.*

The fool whoſe wife *elopes* ſome thrice a quarter,
For matrimonial ſolace dies a martyr. *Pope.*

ELO'PEMENT, *ſ.* Departure from juſt reſtraint; rejection of lawful power: commonly uſed of a wife.—An *elopement* is the voluntary departure of a wife from her huſband to live with an adulterer, and with whom ſhe lives in breach of the matrimonial vow. *Ayliffe.*

E'LOPS, *ſ.* [ελλοψ, Gr. a fiſh, or other dumb animal, which Milton ſeems to have miſtaken for a ſerpent.] In ichthyology, a genus belonging to the order of abdominales. The generic character ariſes from the great number of rays in the membrane of the gills, being moſtly thirty and upwards, and armed on the outſide and in the middle with five teeth. Linnæus has but one ſpecies, which was firſt diſcovered by Sloane, and formed into a genus by Linnæus; it has ſeven fins, and the head is ſmooth; teeth in the edges of the jaws and palate.

1. Elops ſaurus, the ſaur-fiſh. Specific character, tail armed above and beneath; a long plate at the chin. This plate is formed of a thin oval bone, fixed in front to the lower jaw, and behind to the membrane of the gills, where the lower jaw joins that membrane. It ſeems deſtined to ſupport the membrane of the gills, which is furniſhed only with very weak rays, though to the number of thirty-four; the pectoral fin has 18 rays, the ventrals 15, the anal $\frac{7}{16}$, the tail 30, the dorſal $\frac{4}{24}$; (the upper figures denoting the ſpinous rays, the lower the whole number.) The head is compreſſed, without ſcales, long, and ſomewhat flatted at top; the lower jaw is longer than the upper, and both, as well as the palate and tongue, are furniſhed with a great number of ſmall teeth; the bones of the lips are long, and ſomewhat ſerrated. The noſtrils are double. The eyes are almoſt vertical, with double irides, yellow and red. The gills have a wide aperture, and the membrane is looſe. The lateral line runs ſtrait to the middle of the tail, which is bifurcated. The ſcales are thin and ſmooth. The rays of the fins are ſoft, tender, and ſplit at the extremities. The back is bluiſh, the ſides and belly ſilvery, the fins red and grey. There is an appendage above the ventral fin, and (what has been obſerved in no other fiſh) alſo above the pectoral. There is a round ſpot and a long one on the fin of the tail. The ventral fin is oppoſite the dorſal. Linnæus deſcribes his ſaurus with a double branchial membrane, and a ſpine at the origin of the tail-fin both above and below; theſe peculiarities Bloch did not obſerve in the ſpecimen he examined, which leads him to doubt whether his might be a different ſpecies, or at leaſt whether Linnæus's might not be the male. It is found in Carolina and the Weſt-Indian ſeas.

2. Elops megalops, the great-eyed ſaur-fiſh. This is a new ſpecies deſcribed by Cepede from Commerſon's MSS. The eyes are very large; and it has twenty-four rays only in the membrane; not having thirty, to anſwer exactly the generic character, therefore Cepede has made it a diſtinct genus, by the name of Megalops, or large-eye. The laſt ray of the dorſal fin terminates in a very long thin filament. Commerſon diſcovered it near fort Dauphin, in the iſland of Madagaſcar.

EL'OQUENCE, *ſ.* [*eloquentia*, Lat.] The power of ſpeaking with fluency and elegance. See ORATORY.

Action is *eloquence*, and the eyes of the ignorant
More learned than the ears. *Shakeſpeare.*

His infant ſoftneſs pleads a milder doom,
And ſpeaks with all the *eloquence* of tears. *Heigh.*

Elegant language uttered with fluency:
Fit words attended on his weighty ſenſe,
And mild perſuaſion flow'd in *eloquence*. *Pope.*

EL'OQUENT, *adj.* [*eloquens*, Lat.] Having the power of oratory; having the power of fluent and elegant ſpeech. —The Lord of hoſts doth take away the captain of fifty, and the honourable man, and the counſellor, and the cunning artificer, and the *eloquent* orator. *Iſaiah*, iii. 3.

O death! all *eloquent*, you only prove
What duſt we dote on, when 'tis man we love. *Pope.*

ELO'RA, a town of Hindooſtan, in the country of Aurungabad; celebrated for its pagodas, cut out of the natural rock: thirteen miles north of Aurungabad. Theſe pagodas extend to within a very ſmall diſtance of Dowlatabad, and reſemble the ſubterraneous work at Elephanta; but are infinitely ſuperior in magnitude. Thevenot, who viſited them, ſays, that they reached above two leagues, a matchleſs aſſemblage of temples, choultries, and chapels, ſupported by columns, and covered with ſtatues of coloſſal ſize, but of bad ſculpture, being of great antiquity, and the work of the early Hindoos: but more probably of colonies from Egypt.

E'LOTH. See ELATH.

E'LOTZ, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Orlov: 112 miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Orel. Lat. 53. 20. N. lon. 57. E. Ferro.

ELOV'KA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Tobolſk: ſixteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Tomſk.

ELO'YES, a town of France, in the department of Voſges, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Remiremont: two leagues and a half ſouth-eaſt of Epinal.

ELPE'NOR, one of the companions of Ulyſſes, changed into a hog by Circe's potions, and afterwards reſtored to his former ſhape. He fell from the top of a houſe where he was ſleeping, and was killed. *Homer.*

EL'PHIN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Roſcommon; the ſee of a biſhop, ſaid to have been founded by St. Patrick, in the fifth century; the cathedral is the pariſh church, neither large nor elegant; the biſhop's palace is near the town: eight miles north of Boyle, and ſixteen north of Roſcommon.

EL'PHINSTON (William), an eminent Scotch prelate, born at Glaſgow in 1431. He was educated in the univerſity of that place, and afterwards went to France to ſtudy civil and canon law in the univerſity of Paris, where he became a profeſſor of that faculty, and continued to deliver lectures with conſiderable reputation for the ſpace of ſix years. He then returned to his native country, where he entered into orders, and was at firſt promoted to be official of Glaſgow, and afterwards of St. Andrew's. He was alſo admitted a member of the king's council. A miſunderſtanding having taken place between James III. of Scotland, and Louis XI. of France, he was nominated joint commiſſioner with the biſhop of Dunkeld and the earl of Buchan, who repaired to the court of Verſailles, and ſucceeded in terminating the differences which had occaſioned their appointment. For the prudence and eloquence which Elphinſton diſplayed on this occaſion, he was, on his return, promoted to the biſhopric of Roſs; whence, about the year 1484, he was tranſlated to the ſee of Aberdeen, and at the ſame time made chancellor of the kingdom. On the acceſſion of James IV. his talents as a ſtateſman were again called into action, and he was appointed ambaſſador to the emperor Maximilian, to endeavour to bring about a marriage-treaty between his daughter and the king of Scotland; but he found that the princeſs was already promiſed elſewhere, and returned home, not without rendering beneficial ſervice to his country, by the negociations which he carried on for terminating an enmity of long ſtanding between the Dutch and Scotch. By his influence the bull was obtained from the pope for eſtabliſhing an univerſity at Aberdeen; and to his perſonal exertions and ſuperintendence was it chiefly owing that the building of King's college was undertaken and completed. To that foundation he proved himſelf a munificent benefactor, and bequeathed large ſums of money for its ſupport. He died in 1514, about eighty-three years of age. He was the author of a hiſtory of his native country, of which the beſt, if not the only entire copy, is among ſir Thomas Fairfax's manuſcripts, in the Bodleian library at Oxford.

ELPINI'CE, a daughter of Miltiades, who married a man that promiſed to releaſe from confinement her brother and huſband, whom the laws of Athens had made reſponſible for the fine impoſed on his father. *C. Nepos.*

EL'RICH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and county of Klettenburg; formerly the capital of the county. Here are ſome conſiderable manufactures: ſix miles north-weſt of Nordhauſen.

ELS, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Brunn: thirty-two miles weſt of Olmutz, and twenty-four north-north-weſt of Brunn.

EL'SA, a river of Tuſcany, which runs into the Arno, about a mile weſt from Empoli.

ELS'DON, a ſmall town in the county of Northumberland, diſtant 300 miles from London, and twenty-eight from Newcaſtle. It has no market, and only one fair, Auguſt 26. An imperfect altar was dug up here ſome time ago, with the bones of beaſts, burnt aſhes, and broken urns. Near Elſdon was the field of battle between the Engliſh and Scots in 1388, wherein Henry Percy, called *Hotſpur*, was taken priſoner; and Douglas, the Scots general, was killed. On this battle was founded the ancient hiſtorical ballad of Chevy-chace, the field of battle being ſituated near the river Rhead, on the ſouth ſide of the Cheviot-hills. The entrenchments are ſtill viſible, and a number of tumuli ſcattered over the adjacent ground, mark to future ages the ſlaughter of that famous conteſt.

ELSE, *pron.* [elle, Sax.] Other; one beſides; it is applied both to perſons and things.—To ſtand ſtained with travel, and ſweating with deſire to ſee him; thinking of nothing *elſe*, putting all affairs *elſe* in oblivion, as if there were nothing *elſe* to be done but to ſee him. *Shakeſpeare.*

He ſays, 'twas then with him, as now with you;
He did it when he had nothing *elſe* to do. *Denham.*

ELSE, *adv.* Otherwiſe.—What ways are there whereby we ſhould be aſſured, but either by an internal impreſſion of the notion of a God upon our minds, or *elſe* by ſuch external and viſible effects as our reaſon tells us muſt be attributed to ſome cauſe? *Tillotſon.*—Beſide; except that mentioned:

Pleaſures which no where *elſe* were to be found,
And all Elyſium in a ſpot of ground. *Dryden.*

It has ſometimes *or* before it ſuperfluouſly:

Be more abſtemious,
Or elſe good night your vow. *Shakeſpeare.*

Elſewhere:

But if thee liſt to ſee thy courſer ronne,
Or prove thyſelfe, this ſad encounter ſhonne,
And ſeek *els* without hazard of thy hede. *Spenſer.*

ELSE, a river of Sileſia, which runs into the Oder, near Oderberg.

EL'SEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Paderborn: two miles weſt-north-weſt of Paderborn.

EL'SEWHERE, *adv.* In any other place.—Although ſeaſoned bodies may and do live near as long in London as *elſewhere*, yet new comers and children do not. *Graunt's Bills of Mortality.*—In other places; in ſome other place:

Let us no more contend, nor blame
Each other, blam'd enough *elſewhere*. *Milton.*

ELS'FLETH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Oldenburg; at the conflux of the

the Hunte and the Weſer, whoſe toll amounts to 30,000 rixdollars a-year: ſeventeen miles north-eaſt of Oldenburg.

ELS'GAU, a part of the biſhopric of Bâle, which lies between the mountains and the Larg, comprehending the town and bailiwic of Porentrui, and twenty pariſhes.

ELSHEI'MER (Adam), a painter of great merit, born in 1574, at Frankfort-on-the-Main. A decided inclination for the pencil cauſed him to be placed for inſtruction under Philip Uffenbach, who was ſoon ſurpaſſed by his ſcholar. A laudable ambition to excel inſpired Elſheimer with the reſolution of completing his ſtudies in Italy. Attentive to nothing but his improvement, he avoided ſociety, and employed himſelf aſſiduouſly in copying the various objects of art and nature preſented by that country, in which he was aſſiſted by a happy memory, which enabled him to copy with great exactneſs in the morning, what he had contemplated the preceding evening. He formed to himſelf a peculiar ſtyle of painting, conſiſting of landſcapes, with hiſtorical figures in ſmall, which he finiſhed with exquiſite neatneſs. The diminutive ſize of his pictures did not prevent a grand taſte in his deſigns, and no one better underſtood the management of lights and ſhades, and all the magic of colouring. His drawing is correct, his touch light and fine, and his pieces will bear the minuteſt examination. He purchaſed theſe excellences by the renunciation of fortune; for he worked ſo ſlowly, that though in his lifetime his pictures bore an extraordinary price, he was unable to live by his profeſſion. He reſided in Italy, where he married, and had a large family. He was received into the academy of St. Luke, and was patroniſed by the pope; yet he became overwhelmed with debt, and was thrown into priſon. His friends releaſed him from confinement; but the diſgrace ſo preyed upon his ſpirits, that he ſoon after died at Rome, in 1620, at the age of forty-ſix. He left ſeveral capital performances, which are highly valued. His principal picture is the Flight into Egypt, of which there is a print by his friend and benefactor, count Goud. Several others of his works have been engraved. It is ſaid to have been from the ſtudy of his manner that David Teniers and Bamboccio acquired their excellence.

EL'SINBURG. See HELSINGBORG.

ELSINO'RE. See HELSINGOER.

ELSNAB'BEN, a ſea-port town of Sweden, in the province of Sudermania, on the coaſt of the Baltic: thirty-two miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Nikioping.

ELS'NER (James), doctor of theology, a counſellor of the conſiſtory to his Pruſſian majeſty, firſt preacher in the reformed parochial church of Berlin, and director of the philological claſs in the academy of ſciences, born in March, 1692, at Saalfeld, in Pruſſia, where his father, a rich citizen originally from Bohemia, deſtined him for trade, and therefore treated him with great ſeverity on account of his attachment to letters. After he had received the rudiments of his education in the provincial ſchool, he went to Utrecht and Leyden, where he formed an intimacy with the moſt eminent literary characters of thoſe two cities. In 1720 he left Holland, in conſequence of an invitation from his Pruſſian majeſty, to be profeſſor of theology and of the oriental languages at Lingen; but before he quitted Utrecht he got himſelf admitted to the degree of doctor; and on taking poſſeſſion of his new office, delivered an excellent oration on the zeal proper for a divine. At the ſame time he was appointed paſtor of the church in that city; but he had ſcarcely remained two years in this ſituation, when he was made firſt maſter of Joachim's ſchool at Berlin. On the 28th of October, 1722, he pronounced an inaugural diſcourſe on the obligation of uniting piety to learning; and the month after was choſen a member of the royal academy of ſciences. His occupations did not prevent him from appearing in the pulpit, and his diſcourſes were heard with great approbation. As he had a ſtrong predilection for the miniſtry, he reſigned his rectorſhip in 1730, and accepted the place of paſtor of the parochial church of the Cloiſter. He was alſo made a counſellor of the conſiſtory, and he retained the inſpection of the ſchool in which he had been rector. In 1742, Elſner became director of the claſs of the belles-lettres in the royal academy; and when the ſociety was renewed in 1744, he retained the ſame office, and maintained the character which he had always ſupported, both by attention to his academical duties, and by the learned diſſertations with which he enriched the memoirs of the inſtitution. He died on the 8th of October, 1750. His principal works are, 1. *Obſervationes ſacræ in Novi Teſtamenti Libros, Tom.* i. *Libros hiſtoricos complexus*; Utrecht, 1720, 8vo. 2. *Tom.* ii. *Epiſtolas Apoſtolorum & Apocalypſin complexus*; ibid. 1728, 8vo. 3. *Diſſertat. in Locum Act.* xiii. 48; Lingen, 1721, 4to. 4. *Diſſertat. in Locum vexatum Deut. xxix.* 18; ibid. 1721, 4to. Both theſe are to be found in *Theſaurus Hollandicus.* 4. *Commentatio in illuſtre Jacobi Oraculum, Geneſ.* xlix. 10, *eminentiſſimum Veritatis Chriſtianæ Propugnaculum, nova Ratione communitum*; Berol. 1729, folio. 5. New Deſcription of the State of the Greek Chriſtians in Turkey, with Annotations; ibid. 1737, 8vo. 6. The Epiſtle of Paul to the Philippians explained, in a Series of Sermons, with Notes, and an Introduction; ibid. 1741, 4to. 7. *Schediaſma criticum, quo Auctores aliaque Antiquitatis Monumenta, Inſcriptiones item & Numiſmata emendantur, vindicantur & exponuntur, ad Continuationem, Tom. vii. Miſcellaneorum Regiæ Societat. Scientiarum Berolin*; ibid. 1744, 4to. 8. Continuation of the Neweſt Deſcription of the State of the Greek Chriſtians in Turkey; ibid. 1747, 8vo. Beſides theſe works, he wrote ſeveral diſſertations on different ſubjects, which may be found in the Tranſactions of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin.

EL'STER, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Thuringia: ſix miles eaſt of Wittenberg.

EL'STER, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, which paſſes by Adorf, Oelnitz, Plauen, Zeitz, Pegau, Leipſic, &c. and joins the Sala about five miles from Halle.

EL'STER, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, on a river of the ſame name, in the circle of the Vogtland: ten miles ſouth of Oelnitz.

EL'STER (Schwartz), or BLACK ELSTER, a river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, which riſes about ten miles eaſt from Stolpenin, in the marggraviate of Meiſſen, and runs into the Elbe ſix miles eaſt of Wittenberg.

EL'STERBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of the Vogtland: fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Zwickau.

ELSTERWER'DA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and marggraviate of Meiſſen: ſeventeen miles north of Meiſſen, and twenty-ſix north-north-weſt of Dreſden.

EL'STOB (William), an Engliſh divine and antiquary, born at Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, in 1673. His grammatical education he received at Eton, whence he was ſent to Catharine-hall, Cambridge; but the air of that country not agreeing with him, he removed to Queen's-college, Oxford. In this ſeminary he acquired ſo much reputation, that he was choſen fellow of Univerſity-college, and appointed one of the tutors of that inſtitution. In 1697, he was admitted maſter of arts; and, in 1701, he tranſlated into Latin the Saxon Homily of Lupus, with notes, for Dr. Hickes. About the ſame time he tranſlated into Engliſh ſir John Cheke's Latin verſion of Plutarch *De Superſtitione*, which tranſlation was printed at the end of Strype's Life of Cheke. In 1702, Mr. Elſtob was appointed rector of the united pariſhes of St. Swithin and St. Mary Bothaw, in the city of London; which appears to have been the only eccleſiaſtical preferment that he ever obtained. In the following year he publiſhed an edition of Roger Aſcham's Latin Letters. He was alſo the author of An Eſſay on the great Affinity and mutual Agreement

between the two Profeſſions of Law and Divinity, which was printed at London, with a preface by Dr. Hickes. In 1709, Mr. Elſtob publiſhed, in the Saxon language, with a Latin tranſlation, The Homily on St. Gregory's Day. He had alſo compiled an Eſſay on the Hiſtory and Uſe of the Latin tongue; collected materials for a Hiſtory of Newcaſtle, &c. the manuſcripts of which are now loſt; and he had projected ſeveral literary deſigns, the execution of which was prevented by his death, which took place in 1714, when he was only forty-one years of age. The moſt conſiderable of his deſigns was an edition of the Saxon laws, with great additions, and a new Latin verſion by Somner, together with the notes of various learned men; and a prefatory hiſtory of the origin and progreſs of the Engliſh laws, down to the Conqueror, and to Magna Charta. This great plan was completed, in 1721, by Dr. David Wilkins, who, in his preface, ſpeaks in very handſome terms of Mr. Elſtob's proficiency in Saxon lore, and the loſs which the lovers of antiquarian learning had ſuſtained from his early death. He intended alſo a tranſlation, with notes, of Alfred's Paraphraſtic Verſion of Oroſius; of which his tranſcript, with collations, was in the poſſeſſion of the late Dr. Pegge; and another tranſcript by Mr. Ballard, with a large preface on the uſe of Anglo-Saxon literature, is in the library of the ſociety of antiquaries.

EL'STOB (Elizabeth), ſiſter of the preceding, born at Newcaſtle, in 1683. The rudiments of her education ſhe is ſaid to have received from her mother, of whoſe inſtructions ſhe was deprived by her death when Elizabeth was only eight years of age. Upon that event, her guardians endeavoured to diſcourage as much as poſſible her application to literature, conſidering it to be an improper purſuit for her ſex; but their efforts were fruitleſs, and ſhe was permitted to indulge her favourite propenſity. When, in the year 1709, Mr Elſtob publiſhed the Homily on St. Gregory's Day, ſhe accompanied it with an Engliſh tranſlation, and a preface, in which ſhe anſwers the objections made to female learning, by producing the example of the celebrated Anna Maria Schurman, whom ſhe calls the glory of her ſex. Her next publication was a tranſlation of Madame Scudery's Eſſay on Glory. She likewiſe aſſiſted her brother in an edition of Gregory's Paſtoral, which was probably intended to include both the original and the Saxon verſion; and ſhe had tranſcribed all the hymns from an ancient manuſcript in Saliſbury cathedral. By the encouragement of Dr. Hickes, ſhe undertook a Saxon Homiliarium, with an Engliſh tranſlation, notes, and various readings. And to promote that deſign, Mr. Bowyer printed for her, in 1713, Some Teſtimonies of learned Men, in favour of the intended Edition of the Saxon Homilies, concerning the Learning of the Author of theſe Homilies, &c. and the lord treaſurer obtained for her queen Anne's bounty towards printing that work. But the queen's death ſoon deprived Mrs. Elſtob of that benefit; and ſhe was not otherwiſe ſufficiently patroniſed ſo as to be able to complete her deſign. A few only of the Homilies were printed at Oxford, in folio. In the year 1715, ſhe publiſhed a Saxon Grammar, the types for which had been cut at the expence of lord-chief-juſtice Parker, afterwards earl of Macclesfield. She had other literary deſigns in view, which the narrowneſs of her circumſtances and the want of the neceſſary encouragement prevented her from proſecuting; and after her brother's death ſhe became reduced. In this ſituation, ſome worthy friends, by a recommendation of her to queen Caroline, obtained for her a penſion of twenty guineas a-year. On the death of that princeſs, however, ſhe was again involved in difficulties, and, though miſtreſs of eight languages beſides her own, was obliged to ſolicit employment as a preceptreſs of children. It was her good fortune, in 1739, to be received in this capacity into the family of the ducheſs dowager of Portland, where ſhe continued till her death, in 1756, aged ſeventy-three.

EL'STRA, a town of Luſatia: two miles ſouth of Camenz.

ELS'WICH (John Herman de), a learned German Lutheran divine, born at Rendſburg, in Holſtein, in 1684. He proſecuted his ſtudies ſucceſſively at Lubeck, Roſtock, Leipſic, Jena, and Wittemberg; and in the latter univerſity took his degree of maſter of arts. In 1717, he was ſettled in the exerciſe of the miniſtry at Stade, at which place he died in 1721. Though ſo young at the time of his death, he left behind him various works, which reflect credit on his literary diligence; and plans of others which he did not live to complete. Among the former are, 1. An edition of Peter Simonius's treatiſe *De Literis Pereuntibus*, with notes. 2. *Epiſtolæ familiares varii, theologici potiſſimum, Argumenti.* 3. An edition of Launoy's treatiſe *De Varia Ariſtotelis Fortuna in Schola Pariſienſi*; to which he added, *Schediaſma de varia Ariſtotelis in Scholis Proteſtantium Fortuna.* 4. *Commentatio de Reliquiis Papatus Eccleſiæ Lutheranæ temerè afflictis.* 5. *Diſſertationes de Melchiſedecho.* 6. *Formulæ Concordiæ in Dania non combuſta.* 7. *Recentiorum in Novum Fœdus Critica.* 8. *Fanaticorum Palinodia.* 9. *Obſervationes Philologicæ ſuper Witteri Commentationem in Geneſim*; and, 10. *Vindiciæ Diaſcepſeos Hunnianæ.*

ELSYN'GE (Henry), a perſon eminent for parliamentary knowledge, born at Batterſea, in 1598. His father was clerk of the houſe of lords. Henry was educated at Weſtminſter-ſchool and Chriſtchurch-college, Oxford, and afterwards ſpent ſeven years in foreign travel. He was highly valued for his accompliſhments; and by the intereſt, it is ſaid, of archbiſhop Laud, obtained the place of clerk of the houſe of commons, which he filled with ſingular ability and good conduct. He acquired the eſteem of all parties in times of great turbulence and faction, and kept his poſt under the long parliament till December, 1648, when he deſired permiſſion to reſign. A decline of health was the pretext; but it was underſtood that he was unwilling to take any part in the trial of the king. He retired to his houſe at Hounſlow, and there died in 1654. His principal work is intitled The ancient Method and Manner of holding Parliaments in England; printed firſt in 1663. It is a ſmall piece, but valuable from its matter and method. It has been ſeveral times reprinted; the laſt edition, in 1768, is the moſt correct, and is enriched by a large addition taken from the author's original manuſcript in the Britiſh Muſeum.

EL'TEKEH, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Dan; and one of the cities of the Levites, of the family of Kohath. *Joſh.* xxi. 23.

EL'TEKON, a city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, ſituated in the mountains of that province. *Joſh.* xv. 59.

EL'TEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Cleves: five miles north of Cleves.

EL'TERLEIN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Erzgebirg: two miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Grunhayn.

ELT'HAM, a pleaſant town in the county of Kent, eight miles from London, on the road to Maidſtone, and midway between Bromley and the Thames. Anthony Beck, biſhop of Durham, having fraudulently ſecured the poſſeſſion of this manor, in 1290, beautified the capital manſion, and left it to Eleanor, the queen of Edward I. Edward II. frequently reſided here. His queen was here delivered of a ſon, who had the name of John of Eltham. Poſſibly from this circumſtance, it is improperly called King John's Palace; unleſs it obtained this appellation from the ſumptuous entertainment given here by Edward III. to the captive King John of France. Succeeding princes, and particularly Henry VII. enlarged and improved this palace; but it was neglected, after Greenwich became the favourite country reſidence. The Britiſh princes often celebrated their feſtivals at Eltham with great pomp. The laſt of theſe feaſts was held at Whitſuntide, in 1515, when Henry VIII. created ſir Edward Stanley baron Monteagle, for his ſervices at Flodden-field. Part of the ſtately hall which was the ſcene of thoſe feaſts, is ſtill in being,

and is uſed as a barn. The roof is ſomewhat like that of Weſtminſter-hall. The large moat round the palace, although the greateſt part of it is dry, and covered with verdure, has ſtill two ſtone bridges over it, one of which conſiſts of four arches. The farm-houſe in the incloſure, though ſomewhat modernized, was part of this ancient palace. In the garden of Mr. Dorrington is the conſervatory, in which were formerly kept the exotics of that eminent botaniſt, Dr. Sherrard. The *Hortus Elthamienſis* is well known to the curious in botany. On Shooter's-hill, in this pariſh, the eye is charmed with the loveliеſt of proſpects. Here are two charity-ſchools well endowed. It has a market on Mondays; and five fairs, viz. Palm-Monday, Eaſter-Monday, Whit-Monday, and October 10. Near Eltham is Chiſſelhurſt, noted for the retirement of the famous Camden, who here compoſed the greateſt part of his Annals of Queen Elizabeth. Here the preſent lord Camden has a noble ſeat, in whoſe park may be ſeen that celebrated piece of ancient architecture, called the Lantern of Demoſthenes.

ELT'MAN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Wurzburg: eight miles weſt-north-weſt of Bamberg, and forty eaſt-north-eaſt of Wurzburg.

EL'TOLAD, or TOLAD, a city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, ſituated in the ſouthern parts of that province, near the borders of Edom; it was afterwards aſſigned to the tribe of Simeon, as their inheritance was included within that of Judah. *Joſh.* xv. 30. xix. 4. and 1 *Chron.* iv. 29.

EL'VAS, a city of Portugal, in the province of Tralos-Montes, the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan of Evora, ſaid to have been founded by the Gauls, in the year of the world 3009. It contains, beſides the cathedral, three pariſh churches, two hoſpitals, and ſeven convents. The Spaniards beſieged it in 1659; and the French and Spaniards in 1706, without ſucceſs. The town and environs contain 12,000 ſouls; near it is a fortreſs, called the Lippe, built in 1764, under the direction of count Erneſt de Schomberg Lippe. An academy was founded here in 1733: 104 miles eaſt of Liſbon. Lat. 38. 44. N. lon. 11. 43. E. Ferro.

To ELU'CIDATE, *v. a.* [*elucido*, Lat.] To explain; to clear; to make plain.—To *elucidate* a little the matter, let us conſider it. *Boyle.*

ELUCIDA'TION, *ſ.* Explanation; expoſition.—We ſhall, in order to the *elucidation* of this matter, ſubjoin the following experiment. *Boyle.*

ELUCIDA'TOR, *ſ.* Explainer; expoſitor; commentator.—Obſcurity is brought over them by the courſe of ignorance and age, and yet more by their pedantical *elucidations*. *Abbot.*

ELUCUBRA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *e*, from, and *lucubro*, to ſtudy by candle-light.] The act of ſtudying by candle-light, the produce of cloſe ſtudy.

To ELU'DE, *v. a.* [*eludo*, Lat.] To eſcape by ſtratagem; to avoid any miſchief or danger by artifice.—He who looks no higher for the motives of his conduct than the reſentments of human juſtice, whenever he can preſume himſelf cunning enough to *elude*, rich enough to bribe, or ſtrong enough to reſiſt it, will be under no reſtraint. *Rogers.*—To mock by an unexpected eſcape:

My gentle Delia beckons from the plain,
Then, hid in ſhades, *eludes* her eager ſwain;
But feigns a laugh to ſee me ſearch around,
And by that laugh the willing fair is found. *Pope.*

ELU'DIBLE, *adj.* Poſſible to be defeated.—There is not any common-place more inſiſted on than the happineſs of trials by juries; yet if this bleſſed part of our law be *eludible* by power and artifice, we ſhall have little reaſon to boaſt. *Swift.*

ELVE'LA. See AGARICUS, HELVELLA, and TREMELLA.

EL'VEN, a town of France, in the department of the Morbiban, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Vannes: two leagues and a half north-eaſt of Vannes.

ELVES, the plural of *elf*. See ELF.

Fairy *elves*
Whoſe midnight revels by ſome foreſt ſide,
Or fountain, ſome belated peaſant ſees,
Or dreams he ſees. *Milton.*

Ye ſylphs and ſylphids to your chief give ear;
Fays, fairies, genii, *elves*, and demons, hear. *Pope.*

EL'VESLOCK, *ſ.* Knots in the hair ſuperſtitiouſly ſuppoſed to be tangled by the fairies.—From the like might proceed the fears of polling *elveſlock*, or complicated hairs of the head. *Brown.*

EL'VISH, *adj.* [the plural of *elf*: it is written more properly *elfiſh*.] Relating to elves, or wandering ſpirits.—Thou *elviſh* markt, abortive rioting hog! *Shakeſpeare.*

No muſe hath been ſo bold,
Or of the latter or the old,
Thoſe *elviſh* ſecrets to unfold,
Which lie from others reading. *Drayton.*

ELU'L, *ſ.* in ancient chronology, the twelfth month of the Jewiſh civil year, and the ſixth of the eccleſiaſtical: it conſiſted of only twenty-nine days, and anſwered nearly to our Auguſt.

ELUM'BATED, *adj.* [*elumbis*, Lat.] Weakened in the loins.

EL'VO, a river of Italy, which runs into the Seſia, two miles north of Vercelle.

ELU'SION, *ſ.* [*eluſio*, Lat.] An eſcape from enquiry or examination; a fraud; an artifice.—An appendix, relating to the tranſmutation of metals, detects the impoſtures and *eluſions* of thoſe who have pretended to it. *Woodward.*

ELU'SIVE, *adj.* Practiſing eluſion; uſing arts to eſcape:

Eluſive of the bridal day, ſhe gives
Fond hopes to all, and all with hopes deceives. *Pope.*

ELU'SORY, *adj.* Tending to elude; tending to deceive; fraudulent, deceitful; fallacious.—It may be feared they are but Parthian flights, ambuſcade retreats, and *eluſory* tergiverſation. *Brown.*

To ELU'TE, *v. a.* [*eluo*, Lat.] To waſh off.—The more oily any ſpirit is, the more pernicious; becauſe it is harder to be *eluted* by the blood. *Arbuthnot.*

ELUTE'RIA, *ſ.* in botany. See CLUYTIA.

ELU'THERA, or ALABASTER, one of the Bahama or Lucaya iſlands, where above ſixty families formerly ſettled under deputy-governor Holmes, and erected a fort.

ELUTHE'RIA. See ELEUTHERIA.

To ELU'TRIATE, *v. a.* [*elutrio*, Lat.] To decant; or ſtrain out.—The preſſure of the air upon the lungs is much leſs than it has been computed by ſome; but ſtill it is ſomething, and the alteration of one-tenth of its force upon the lungs muſt produce ſome difference in *elutriating* the blood as it paſſes through the lungs. *Arbuthnot.*

ELUTRIA'TION, *ſ.* A term uſed by chemiſts to denote the proceſs of waſhing, as practiſed by metallurgiſts and others; and indeed this laſt and more familiar word is now moſt frequently uſed. Thus the metallic ores are cleared of earthly admixtures by elutriation, that is to ſay, waſhing with water, which carries off the lighter earthy parts, while the heavier metallic parts ſubſide to the bottom.

ELU'VIES, *ſ.* [a quagmire, from *eluo*, Lat. to cleanſe.] The effluvium from a foul or ſwampy place. Alſo the humour diſcharged in a fluor albus.

EL'VIUS (Peter), ſecretary of the royal academy of ſciences at Stockholm, born at Upſal in 1710, and applied to mechanics under Triewald and Polheim, and to the higher mathematics under Klingſtierna, who firſt introduced them into Sweden. In 1738, the royal college of mines entruſted him with the care of its collection of machines.

machines. In 1740, he conſtructed a fulling-mill according to a theory of his own; and, in 1748, in conjunction with baron C. Harleman, he went to aſcertain the poſition of the Swediſh lakes. During this excurſion, he determined the ſituation of Gottenburgh and the adjacent coaſt, of which he conſtructed charts. Much might have been expected from the zeal and activity of this eminent man, had he not been carried off by a premature death, in the thirty-eighth year of his age, on the 27th of September, 1749. The academy of ſciences cauſed a medal to be ſtruck in honour of his memory, and the journal of his laſt tour to Trollhatta was publiſhed, in the Swediſh language, at Stockholm, in 1751.

ELU'ZAI, [Heb. God my ſtrength.] A man's name.

EL'WAD-AD, a town of Arabia, in the country of Yemen: thirty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Chamir.

ELWAN'GEN, a principality of Germany, bordering on the duchy of Wurtemberg, in the circle of Swabia. It was firſt a Benedictine convent, founded in 764, afterwards became an abbey; and, in 1461, ſecuriſed into a provoſtſhip and principality; and is protected by the duke of Wurtemberg. It pays eighty florins for a Roman month, and is taxed 175 rix-dollars and ſeventy-eight kruitzers. The prince has a regency, an eccleſiaſtical council, and a chamber of finances.

ELWAN'GEN, a town of Germany, and in a principality of the ſame name, on the river Jaxt: thirty-two miles north of Ulm, and forty two north-north-weſt of Augſburg. Lat. 48. 53. N. lon. 27. 47. E. Ferro.

EL'WES (John), an eccentric genius, admitted to notice in this Encyclopædia, merely from the ſingularity of his character as a *miſer*. He was member for Berkſhire in three ſucceſſive parliaments. His family name was Meggot; and his father was a brewer of great eminence, diſtinguiſhed by no peculiarity of character: but his mother, though ſhe was left nearly 100,000l. by her huſband, is ſaid to have ſtarved herſelf to death! At an early period of life he was ſent to Weſtminſter ſchool, where he remained for ten or twelve years. During that time he certainly had not miſapplied his talents; for he was a good claſſical ſcholar to the laſt: and it is a circumſtance not a little remarkable, though well authenticated, that he never read afterwards, nor had he ever any knowledge in accounts; to which may in ſome meaſure be attributed the total ignorance he was always in as to his affairs. From Weſtminſter ſchool Mr. Meggot removed to Geneva, where he entered upon purſuits more agreeable to him than ſtudy. The riding-maſter of the academy there had then to boaſt, perhaps, of three of the boldeſt riders in Europe, Mr. Worſley, Mr. Elwes, and ſir Sydney Meadows. Of the three, Elwes was reckoned the moſt courageous; the young horſes were always put into his hands, and he was the rough-rider to the other two. On his return to England, after an abſence of three years, he was to be introduced to his uncle, ſir Harvey Elwes, who was then living at Stoke in Suffolk, the moſt perfect picture of human penury then exiſting. The attempts at ſaving money were in him ſo extraordinary, that Mr. Elwes, perhaps, never quite reached them, even at the laſt period of his life. Of what temperance can do, ſir Harvey was an extraordinary inſtance. At an early period of life he was given over for a conſumption, and he lived till betwixt eighty and ninety years of age. On his death, his fortune, which was at leaſt 250,000l. fell to his nephew Mr. Meggot, who by will was empowered to aſſume the name and armorial bearings of Elwes. To this uncle, and this property, Mr. Elwes ſucceeded when he had advanced beyond the fortieth year of his age. And for fifteen years previous to this period, he was known in the moſt faſhionable and extravagant circles of London. He had always a turn for play; and it was only late in life, and from paying always, and not always being paid, that he conceived diſguſt at it. The theory which he profeſſed, "that it was impoſſible to aſk a gentleman for money," he perfectly confirmed by the practice; and he never violated this feeling to the lateſt hour of his life.

The manners of Mr. Elwes were ſuch; ſo complacent, ſo attentive, ſo gentlemanly, and ſo engaging, that rudeneſs could not ruffle them, nor ſtrong ingratitude break their obſervance. He retained this peculiar feature of the old court to the laſt: but he had a praiſe beyond this; he had the moſt gallant diſregard of his own perſon, and all care about himſelf, that can be imagined. The inſtances in younger life, in the moſt imminent perſonal hazard, are innumerable; but when age had deſpoiled him of his activity, and might have rendered care and attention about himſelf natural, he knew not what they were: He wiſhed no one to aſſiſt him: "He was as young as ever; he could walk, he could ride, and he could dance; and he hoped he ſhould not give trouble even when he was old:" He was at that time ſeventy five! It is curious to reflect how he contrived to mingle ſmall attempts at ſaving, with objects of the moſt unbounded diſſipation. After ſitting up a whole night at play for thouſands with the moſt faſhionable and profligate men of the time, amidſt ſplendid rooms, gilt ſofas, wax lights, and waiters attendant on his call, he would walk out about four in the morning, not towards home, but into Smithfield, to meet his own cattle, which were coming to market from Thaydon-hall, a farm of his in Eſſex! There would this ſame man, forgetful of the ſcenes he had juſt left, ſtand in the cold or rain bartering with a carcaſs butcher for a ſhilling! Sometimes, when the cattle did not arrive at the hour expected, he would walk on in the mire to meet them; and more than once has gone on foot the whole way to his farm without ſtopping, which was ſeventeen miles from London, after ſitting up the whole night. Had every man been of the mind of Mr. Elwes, the race of innkeepers muſt have periſhed, and poſtchaiſe and poſting taxes muſt have returned unproductive to thoſe who made them; for it was the buſineſs of his life to avoid every kind of expence. He always travelled on horſeback or on foot. To ſee him ſetting out on a journey, was a matter truly curious; his firſt care was to put two or three eggs, boiled hard, into his great coat pocket, or any ſcraps of bread which he found; baggage he never took: then mounting one of his hunters, his next attention was to get out of London into that road where turnpikes were the feweſt: then, ſtopping under any hedge where graſs preſented itſelf for his horſe, and a little water for himſelf, he would ſit down and refreſh himſelf and his horſe together. His chief reſidence at this period of his life was in Berkſhire, at his ſeat at Marcham. Here he had two natural ſons born, who inherit the greateſt part of his property. The keeping a pack of fox-hounds, was the only inſtance in the whole life of Mr. Elwes of his ever ſacrificing money to pleaſure; and it may be ſelected as the only period when he forgot the cares, the perplexities, and the regret, which his wealth occaſioned. But even here every thing was done in the moſt frugal manner. Scrub, or Mungo, when compared with Mr. Elwes's huntſman, had an idle life of it. This famous huntſman might have fixed an epoch in the hiſtory of ſervants: for in a morning, getting up at four o'clock, he milked the cows; he then prepared breakfaſt for Mr. Elwes, and any friends he might have with him; then ſlipping on a green coat, he hurried into the ſtable, ſaddled the horſes, unkenneled the hounds, and away they went to the coverts. After the fatigues of hunting, he refreſhed himſelf by rubbing down the horſes; then running into the houſe to lay the cloth, and wait at dinner; then hurrying again into the ſtable to feed the horſes, diverſified with the cows to milk, the dogs to feed, and the hunters to litter down for the night. In the penury of Mr. Elwes there was ſomething that ſeemed like a judgment from heaven. All earthly comforts he voluntarily denied himſelf: he would walk home in the rain in London rather than pay a ſhilling for a coach; he would ſit in wet clothes ſooner than have a fire to dry them; he would eat his proviſions

viſions in the laſt ſtage of putrefaction ſooner than have a freſh joint from the butcher.

Mr. Elwes had reſided about thirteen years upon his uncle's eſtate in Suffolk, when the conteſt for Berkſhire preſented itſelf on the diſſolution of the parliament; and when, to preſerve the peace of that county, he was nominated by lord Craven. Mr. Elwes, though he had retired from public buſineſs for ſome years, had ſtill left about him ſome of the ſeeds of more active life, and he agreed to the propoſal. It came farther enhanced to him, by the agreement, that he was to be brought in by the freeholders for nothing. All he did on the occaſion was dining at the ordinary at Reading; and he got into parliament for eighteen-pence! Though a new man, Mr. Elwes could not be called a young member; for he was at this time nearly ſixty years of age. But he was in poſſeſſion of all his activity; and, preparatory to his appearance on the boards of St. Stephen's chapel, he uſed to attend conſtantly during the races and other public meetings in all the great towns where his voters reſided. At the different aſſemblies, he would dance amongſt the youngeſt to the laſt, after riding on horſeback, frequently in the rain, to the place of meeting.

The honour of parliament made no alteration in the dreſs of Mr. Elwes; on the contrary, it ſeemed to have attained additional meanneſs; and nearly to have reached that happy climax of poverty, which has more than once drawn on him the compaſſion of thoſe who paſſed him in the ſtreet. For the ſpeaker's dinners, however, he had one ſuit, with which the ſpeaker in the courſe of the ſeſſions became very familiar. The miniſter likewiſe was well acquainted with it; and at any dinner of oppoſition ſtill was his apparel the ſame. The wits of the minority uſed to ſay, "that they had full as much reaſon as the miniſter to be ſatisfied with Mr. Elwes, as he never turned his coat." At this period of his life Mr. Elwes wore a wig. Much about the time when his parliamentary life ceaſed, that wig became worn out; ſo then, being older and wiſer as to expence, he wore his own hair; which, like his expences, was very ſmall. All this time the income of Mr. Elwes was increaſing hourly, and his preſent expenditure was next to nothing; for the little pleaſures he had once engaged in, he had now given up. He kept no houſe, and only one old ſervant, the huntſman, and a couple of horſes: he reſided with his nephew; his two ſons he had ſtationed in Suffolk and Berkſhire, to look after his reſpective eſtates; and his dreſs certainly was no expence to him; for had not other people been more careful than himſelf, he would not have had it even mended.

As Mr. Elwes came into parliament without expence, he performed his duty as a member would have done in the pure days of our conſtitution. What he had not bought, he never attempted to ſell; and he went forward in that ſtraight and direct path, which can alone ſatisfy a reflecting mind. Amongſt the ſmaller memorials of the parliamentary life of Mr. Elwes may be noted, that he did not follow the cuſtom of members in general, by ſitting on any particular ſide of the houſe, but ſat as occaſion preſented itſelf, on either indiſcriminately; and he voted much in the ſame manner, but never roſe to ſpeak. In his attendance at the houſe, he was always early and late; and he never left it for dinner, as he had accuſtomed himſelf to faſting, ſometimes for twenty-four hours in continuance.

When he quitted parliament, he was, in the common phraſe, "a fiſh out of water!" The ſtile of Mr. Elwes's life had left him no domeſtic ſcenes to which he could retire; his home was dreary and poor; his rooms received no cheerfulneſs from fire; and while the outſide had all the appearance of a "Houſe to be let," the inſide was a deſert; but he had his penury alone to thank for this, and for the want of all the little comforts and conſolations which ſhould attend old age, and ſmooth the paſſage of declining life. At the cloſe of the ſpring of 1785, he wiſhed again to viſit, which he had not done for ſome years, his ſeat at Stoke, in Suffolk. But then the journey was a moſt ſerious object. The famous old ſervant was dead; the horſes that remained with him were a couple of worn-out brood-mares; and he himſelf was not in that vigour of body in which he could ride ſixty or ſeventy miles on the ſuſtenance of two boiled eggs. The mention of a poſt-chaiſe was a crime—"He afford a poſt-chaiſe, indeed! where was he to get the money?" At length he was carried into the country as he was carried into parliament, free of expence, by a gentleman who was certainly not quite ſo rich as Mr. Elwes. When he reached Stoke, once the ſeat of more active ſcenes, and where his fox-hounds had ſpread ſomewhat like vivacity around, he remarked, "he had expended a great deal of money once very fooliſhly; but that a man grew wiſer by time."

The rooms at this ſeat, which were much out of repair, and would have fallen in but for his ſon, John Elwes, eſq. who reſided there, he thought too expenſively furniſhed, as worſe things might have ſerved. If a window was broken, there was to be no repair but that of a little brown paper, or piecing in a bit of broken glaſs. To ſave fire, he would walk about the remains of an old greenhouſe, or ſit with a ſervant in the kitchen. During the harveſt, he would amuſe himſelf with going into the fields to glean the corn on the grounds of his own tenants; and they uſed to leave a little more than common to pleaſe the old gentleman, who was as eager after it as any pauper in the pariſh. In the advance of the ſeaſon, his morning employment was to pick up any ſtray chips, bones, or other things, to carry to the fire, in his pocket.

As no gleam of favourite paſſion, or any ray of amuſement, broke through this gloom of penury, his inſatiable deſire of ſaving was now become uniform and ſyſtematic. He uſed ſtill to ride about the country on one of the brood mares; but then he rode her very economically, on the ſoft turf, adjoining the road, without putting himſelf to the expence of ſhoes, as he obſerved, "The turf was ſo pleaſant to a horſe's foot!" And when any gentleman called to pay him a viſit, and the boy who attended in the ſtables was profuſe enough to put a little hay before his horſe, old Elwes would ſlily ſteal back into the ſtable, and take the hay very carefully away. That very ſtrong appetite which Mr. Elwes had in ſome meaſure reſtrained during the long ſitting of parliament, he now indulged moſt voraciouſly, and on every thing he could find. To ſave, as he thought, the expence of going to a butcher, he would have a whole ſheep killed, and ſo eat mutton to the—end of the chapter. When he occaſionally had his river drawn, though ſometimes horſe-loads of ſmall fiſh were taken, not one would he ſuffer to be thrown back; for he obſerved, "He ſhould never ſee them again!" Game in the laſt ſtate of putrefaction, and meat that walked about his plate, would he continue to eat, rather than have new things killed before the old proviſion was finiſhed. With this diet, the charnel-houſe of ſuſtenance, his dreſs kept pace, equally in the laſt ſtage of abſolute diſſolution. Sometimes he would walk about in a tattered brown-coloured hat, and ſometimes in a red and white woollen cap, like a priſoner confined for debt. His ſhoes he never would ſuffer to be cleaned, leſt they ſhould be worn out by the bruſh. But ſtill, with all this ſelf-denial, that penury of life to which the inhabitant of an alms-houſe is not doomed, ſtill did he think he was profuſe, and frequently ſay, "He muſt be a little more careful of his property." His diſquietude on the ſubject of money was continual. When he went to bed, he would put five or ten guineas into a bureau; and then, full of his money, after he had retired to reſt, and ſometimes in the middle of the night, he would come down to ſee whether it was ſafe.

The ſcene of mortification at which Mr. Elwes was now arrived, was all but a denial of the common neceſſaries of life: and indeed it might have admitted a doubt,

whether or not, if his manors, his fiſh-ponds, and ſome grounds in his own hands, had not furniſhed a ſubſiſtence, where he had not any thing actually to buy, he would not, rather than have bought any thing, have ſtarved. Strange as this may appear, it is not at all exaggerated. He one day, during this period, dined upon the remaining part of a moor-hen, which had been brought out of the river by a rat! and at another he ate an undigeſted part of a pike which a larger one had ſwallowed, but had not finiſhed, and which were taken in this ſtate in a net. At the time this circumſtance happened, he diſcovered a ſtrange kind of ſatisfaction; for he ſaid to a friend, "Aye! this was killing two birds with one ſtone!" In the room of all comment, of all moral, let it be remarked, that at this time Mr. Elwes was perhaps worth nearly *eight hundred thouſand pounds!* and, at this period, he had not made his will, of courſe was not ſaving from any ſentiment of affection for any perſon.

The ſummer of 1788 Mr. Elwes paſſed at his houſe in Welbeck-ſtreet, London; and he paſſed that ſummer without any other ſociety than that of two maid-ſervants; for he had now given up the expence of keeping any male domeſtic. His chief employment uſed to be that of getting up early in a morning to viſit ſome of his houſes in Mary-le-bone, which during the ſummer were repairing. As he was there generally at four o'clock in a morning, he was of courſe on the ſpot before the workmen; and he uſed contentedly to ſit down on the ſteps before the door, to ſcold them when they came. The neighbours, who uſed to ſee him appear thus regularly every morning, and who concluded, from his apparel, he was one of the workmen, obſerved, "there never was ſo punctual a man as the old carpenter." During the whole morning he would continue to run up and down ſtairs to ſee the men were not idle for an inſtant, with the ſame anxiety as if his whole happineſs in life had been centered in the finiſhing this houſe, regardleſs of the greater property he had at ſtake in various places, and for ever employed in the minutiæ only of affairs.

In the muſcular frame of Mr. Elwes, there was every thing that promiſed extreme length of life; and he lived to above ſeventy years of age without any natural diſorder attacking him: but, as lord Bacon has well obſerved, "the minds of ſome men are a lamp that is continually burning;" and ſuch was the mind of Mr. Elwes. Removed from thoſe occaſional public avocations which had once engaged his attention, money was now his only thought. He roſe upon money—upon money he lay down to reſt; and as his capacity ſunk away from him by degrees, he dwindled from the real cares of his property into the puerile concealment of a few guineas. This little ſtore he would carefully wrap up in various papers, and depoſiting them in different corners, would amuſe himſelf with running from one to the other to ſee whether they were all ſafe. Then forgetting, perhaps, where he had concealed ſome of them, he would become as ſeriouſly afflicted as a man might be who had loſt all his property. Nor was the day alone thus ſpent: he would frequently riſe in the middle of the night, and be heard walking about different parts of the houſe, looking after what he had thus hidden and forgotten.

Mr. George Elwes having been ſettled at his ſeat at Marcham in Berkſhire, he was naturally deſirous that, in the aſſiduities of his wife, his father might at length find a comfortable home. In London he was certainly moſt uncomfortable; but ſtill, with theſe temptations before and behind him, a journey with any expence annexed to it was inſurmountable. This, however, was luckily obviated by an offer from his friend Mr. Partis, to take him to his ancient ſeat in Berkſhire, with his purſe perfectly whole. But there was one circumſtance ſtill very diſtreſſing: the old gentleman had now nearly worn out his laſt coat, and he would not buy a new one; his ſon, therefore, with a pious fraud, contrived to get Mr. Partis to buy him a coat, and make him a preſent of it. Thus, formerly having had a good coat, then a bad one, and at laſt no coat at all, he was kind enough to accept one from a neighbour.

Mr. Elwes carried with him into Berkſhire five guineas and a half, and half-a-crown. Leſt the mention of this ſum may appear ſingular, it ſhould be noticed, that previous to his journey he had carefully wrapped it up in various folds of paper, that no part of it might be loſt. On the arrival of the old gentleman, Mr. George Elwes and his lady did every thing they could to make the country a ſcene of quiet to him. But "he had that within" which baffled every effort of the kind. Of his heart, it might be ſaid, "there was no peace in Iſrael." His mind, caſt away upon the vaſt and troubled ocean of his property, extending beyond the bounds of his calculation, returned to amuſe itſelf with fetching and carrying about a few guineas, which in that ocean was indeed a drop. But nature had now carried on life nearly as far as ſhe was able. The firſt ſymptoms of more immediate decay was his inability to enjoy his reſt at night. Frequently would he be heard at midnight as if ſtruggling with ſome one in his chamber, and crying out, "I will keep my money, I will; noboby ſhall rob me of my property." On any one of the family going into his room, he would ſtart from this fever of anxiety, and, as if waking from a troubled dream, again hurry into bed, and ſeem unconſcious of what had happened. At length, on the 26th of November, 1789, expired this miſerably rich man, whoſe property, nearly reaching to a million ſterling, extended itſelf almoſt through every county in England. His property was divided between his two natural ſons.

EL'WY, a river of North Wales, which runs into the Cluyd near St. Aſaph.

EL'XAI, or ELCESAI, the reputed founder of the ſect of the Elceſaites, or Sampſæans, was a Jew by nation, who appears to have propagated his opinions in the beginning of the ſecond century, under the reign of the emperor Trajan. According to Epiphanius, it is doubtful whether he is to be claſſed among Jews or Chriſtians. But from what that writer has himſelf further related of the reſpect paid to him by the followers of four ſects, who, in ſome meaſure, borrowed their opinions from him, viz. the Ebionites, two ſorts of Nazarenes, and the Oſſenes; and the moſt credible judgment that can be formed concerning their tenets, we conceive that he is clearly to be ranked among Chriſtians. It ſeems moſt probable that his followers concurred generally, if not entirely, with the ſects above-named in their diſtinguiſhing opinions. It appears that they regarded many parts of the Old Teſtament, and the Goſpels at leaſt in the New, as ſacred books, but that they rejected ſome, if not all, of the apoſtolical writings. It does not appear that this ſect ever ſpread much beyond the confines of Paleſtine.

ELY, [probably of ἕλος, Gr. a marſh, or *helig*, C. Br. a willow, becauſe, like other fenny places, it abounds with willows.] The ancient city and metropolis of the county of Cambridge, ſituated on the Ouſe, in a fenny country, called *The Iſle of Ely*, which extends forty miles weſt, ſix north, ſix ſouth, and three eaſt, from the city. It was erected into a biſhopric in the year 1107, in favour of Hervey, removed from Bangor. The biſhop poſſeſſes nearly all the rights of a county palatine, and is ſovereign: he appoints a judge to hear and determine all cauſes within the iſle, holds aſſizes, gaol delivery, and quarter ſeſſions of the peace within the liberty, and has his chief and under bailiffs for execution of proceſs, and his cuſtos rotulorum: yet it is not a county palatine, but a royal franchiſe. See the article COUNTY, vol. v. p. 290. Here was an abbey of nuns in the ſeventh century, which was deſtroyed by the Danes in the year 868. In the year 970, an abbey of monks was founded, which, in 1413, was mitred, and continued till the diſſolution, when it was valued at 1084l. The cathedral, which is its chief ornament,

ment, has a ſtately lantern, ſeen at a vaſt diſtance; but it ſeems to totter with every blaſt of wind. The choir was removed to the eaſt end of the church, and a general repair took place in 1792, when a very handſome window of painted glaſs was put up at the eaſt end, over the altar. The city is not populous nor beautiful, but has great plenty of proviſions; the number of inhabitants is about 2500. It has one broad handſome well-paved ſtreet; and it is the only city in England ſubordinate to the biſhop in its civil government, and unrepreſented in parliament. The iſle of Ely, from its fenny ſituation, has frequently held out a long time againſt foreign and domeſtic foes; and particularly was the laſt place in the kingdom which ſubmitted to William the Conqueror. Here is a free-ſchool and two charity-ſchools. The aſſizes are held here in March or April, and at Wiſbeach in October. The market is on Saturday. Fairs, Aſcenſion-day and October 29. The dioceſe contains all Cambridgeſhire, and the iſle of Ely, excepting Iſelham, which belongs to the ſee of Rocheſter, and fifteen other pariſhes that are in the dioceſe of Norwich; but it has a pariſh in Norfolk, viz. Emneth. The number or pariſhes in this dioceſe are 141, whereof ſeventy-five are impropriate. This ſee hath given two ſaints and two cardinals to the church of Rome; and to the Engliſh nation nine lord chancellors, ſeven lord treaſurers, one lord privy-ſeal, one chancellor of the exchequer, one chancellor to the univerſity of Oxford, two maſters of the rolls, and three almoners. To the cathedral belong a biſhop, a dean, an archdeacon, eight prebendaries, with vicars, lay-clerks, choriſters, a ſchoolmaſter, uſher, and twenty-eight king's ſcholars. Ely is ſeventeen miles north of Cambridge, and ſixty-nine north of London.

ELYCH'NIOUS, *adj.* Having no match, void of light. *Cole. Not uſed.*

ELYCHRY'SUM, *ſ.* in botany. See STÆHELINA.

ELYMA'IS, a country of Perſia, between the Perſian gulf and Media. The capital of the country was called Elymais, and was famous for a rich temple of Diana, which Antiochus Epiphanes attempted to plunder. The Elymeans aſſiſted Antiochus the Great in his wars againſt the Romans. None of their kings are named in hiſtory. *Strabo.*

EL'YMI, a nation deſcended from the Trojans, in alliance with the people of Carthage. *Pauſanias.*

EL'YMAS, [Arab. a magician.] A man's name.

EL'YMUS, *ſ.* [from ελυω, Gr. to involve, the ſpike in ſome ſpecies being involved in the involucre.] In botany, a genus of the claſs triandria, order digynia, natural order gramina, gramineæ, or graſſes. The generic characters are—Calyx: receptacle, common, lengthened into a ſpike; glume four-leaved, two-ranked, two ſubulate leaflets being placed under each ſpikelet. Corolla: two-valved; valve exterior, larger, acuminate, awned, interior flat; nectary two-leaved; leaflets oblong, ſharp, ciliate. Stamina: filaments three, hair-form, very ſhort; antheræ oblong, two-cleft at the baſe. Piſtillum: germ top-ſhaped, ſtyles two, divaricated, hairy, inflected; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: none; corolla involving the ſeed. Seed: ſingle, linear, convex on one ſide, covered. —*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, lateral, two-valved, aggregate, many-flowered.

Species. 1. Elymus arenarius, or ſea lime-graſs: ſpike upright, cloſe; calyxes tomentoſe, longer than the floret. Leaves reedy, glaucous or whitiſh, involute and mucronate, channelled and rigid; ſtems two or three feet high and more, ſtrengthened by three or four joints; ſpike tomentoſe, linear, eight or nine inches long, as large as a full-ſized ear of wheat, but leſs compact; ſpikelets two, ſtraight, two-flowered, awnleſs. Like *arundo arenaria*, or ſea-reed-graſs, it prevents the ſea-ſand from blowing about by means of its matted roots. Dr. Withering conjectures that it may poſſibly admit of being made into ropes, as ſtipa tenaciſſima is in Spain. It is perennial, frequent on the ſea-coaſt in many parts of Europe, and flowers from June to Auguſt.

2. Elymus Sibiricus, or Siberian lime-graſs: ſpike pendulous, cloſe; ſpikelets in pairs, longer than the calyx. Stems tall, round, and ſmooth; leaves moderately broad, and commonly diſtinguiſhed by a kind of glaucous powdery complexion on the under ſides. Perennial; native of Siberia, flowering in June and July.

3. Elymus Philadelphicus, or Philadelphia lime-graſs: ſpike pendulous, patulous; ſpikelets ſix-flowered, the lower ones ternate. This, in its habit and whole ſtructure, is extremely ſimilar to the *canadenſis*, but the ſpikes in this are nodding or deſcending: the ſpikelets in this are alſo ſix-flowered; in the other four-flowered: in this alſo the awns are leſs ſtraight, and a little flexuoſe, even while flowering; whereas in the other they are ſtraight: the calyx is as ſhort again as the ſpikelet. Native of Philadelphia; perennial.

4. Elymus Canadenſis, or Canadian lime-graſs: ſpike nodding, patulous; lower ſpikelets ternate; upper binate. This agrees in moſt circumſtances with the ſecond ſpecies; it differs, however, in theſe: 1. The ſpikelets are villoſe, not naked. 2. The involucres end in an awn longer than the ſpikelet itſelf; whereas, in the other, the awn is much ſhorter than the ſpikelet. 3. The lower ſpikelets are three together; but, in elymus Sibiricus, they are no more than two. 4. The ſpikelets, when in flower, ſtand wide from the ſcape; whereas, in the other, they approximate to it. At the baſe of each floret, on the inſide of the ſpikelets, is a dot or ſpot of a rufous-brown colour. The leaves of this are bluiſh, eſpecially underneath, which is not the caſe in elymus Sibiricus. The awns alſo of the corolla, when the ſeed is ripening, from ſpreading become reflex, which in the other ſpecies they do not. Native of Canada and Virginia. Introduced before 1699, by the Rev. John Banniſter. It flowers in July and Auguſt, and is perennial.

5. Elymus caninus, bearded or dog's lime-graſs, or wheat-graſs: ſpike nodding, cloſe; ſpikelets ſtraight, without any involucre; the loweſt double. Leaves bare of hairs underneath. It differs from triticum repens, in the root not being creeping; the ſpikelets longer, narrower, and rounder, furniſhed with long awns; whereas, in triticum repens, they are very ſhort, if any. Linnæus removed this from the genus triticum, wherein he had firſt placed it, on account of the lower ſpikelets being in pairs. Schreber never could diſcern this. Krocker, however, affirms that it really is ſo in the Sileſian plants. Perennial; growing in woods and hedges; as between Greenwich and Woolwich, about Croydon, Ripton wood, Huntingdonſhire, Stokenchurch woods, Oxfordſhire, &c. in the north frequent. It flowers in June and July.

6. Elymus tener, or pliant elymus: ſpike pendulous; florets double. Culm two feet high, ſmooth and even, with red joints. Native of Siberia.

7. Elymus Virginicus, or Virginian lime-graſs: ſpike erect; ſpikelets three-flowered; involucre ſtreaked. In this ſpecies the ſpike exceeds that of an ear of common barley, and there are two ſeſſile involucres affixed to each denticulated axis or baſe: each of theſe involucres conſiſts of two rays, which are longer than the flowers, and thicker, and are terminated by a long awn. Perennial; native of Virginia; introduced in 1781 by Mr. William Curtis.

8. Elymus Europæus, or wood lime-graſs, or barley-graſs: ſpike upright; ſpikelets two-flowered, equal to the involucre. Culm upright, ſtout, two feet high and more, having four or five joints. The leaf at each of theſe is about a ſpan in length, and a quarter of an inch or more in breadth; ſmooth to appearance, but roughiſh to the touch, eſpecially round the edges. It very much reſembles elymus Virginicus; but the leaves of the involucre are not ſcored, as they are in that. The florets, together with their awns, are longer than the involucre; they are two in number, whereas in that they are three. In ſtructure it is an elymus; in habit it approaches rather more to the hordeum: in truth, it ſeems the connecting link between both. Native of Germany, Swiſ-

ſerland,

ferland, England, in woods, with us in a calcareous ſoil, as near Berkhamſtead, in Herts; Marlow and Hambleton, in Bucks; Henley and Stokenchurch, in Oxfordſhire; Ripton woods, Huntingdonſhire; rocks oppoſite Matlock baths; in the north frequent. Perennial; flowering in June. It is a coarſe graſs, like moſt of thoſe which grow in woods; and like them is ſometimes drawn up to a great height.

9. Elymus caput Meduſæ, or Portugal lime-graſs: ſpikelets two-flowered; involucres briſtle-form, ſpreading very much. Native of Spain and Portugal, on the coaſts. Annual; flowering in July.

10. Elymus hyſtrix, or rough lime-graſs: ſpike upright; ſpikelets without involucre, ſpreading. Native of the Levant; flowers here in July and Auguſt.

11. Elymus giganteus, or large elymus: ſpike erect, cloſe; ſpikelets in ſixes, ſix-flowered, villoſe; calyxes awl-ſhaped, ſmooth, longer that the ſpikelets. Its country is unknown. For the propagation and culture, ſee GRASS: and ſee HORDEUM and ZIZANIA.

EL'YOT (ſir Thomas), a learned man in the reign of Henry VIII. ſon of ſir Richard Elyot, of Suffolk, born about the commencement of the ſixteenth century. He was educated at St. Mary's-hall, Oxford, and afterwards travelled abroad. On his return he was knighted, and employed by the king in various embaſſies. He was at Rome in 1532, negociating the affair of the divorce of queen Catharine; and, in 1536, was ſent to the emperor Charles V. He lived in habits of intimacy with ſeveral of the learned men of his time, among whom were ſir Thomas More, and Leland the antiquary, the laſt of whom addreſſed a copy of Latin verſes to him in his Encomia illuſtrium Virorum. He died in 1546. Sir Thomas Elyot was the author of a number of works, which appear to have been chiefly tranſlations and compilations, but had their uſe at the time in promoting knowledge and enriching the Engliſh language. One of the moſt noted of theſe was his Caſtell of Health, ſeveral times reprinted. Another work entitled The Governor, became popular. Its purpoſe was to give moral inſtructions to the higher orders of ſociety. Its ſatirical vein is ſaid to have given ſome offence; but the book was much applauded by the king. He alſo wrote on education; on remarkable events in Engliſh hiſtory; on good women; and a library or dictionary. It ought not to be omitted, that he is ranked among literary impoſtors, on account of his Image of Governance compiled of the Acts and Sentences notable of Alexander Severus, which he pretended to have tranſlated from a Greek manuſcript of Encolpius, lent him by a Neapolitan gentleman, but which is proved to have been taken from Lampridius and Herodian, with miſrepreſentations and additions from his own invention.

E'LYS BAY, a bay of the iſland of Antigua, on the north coaſt, a little to the ſouth of Beggar's Point.

ELY'SIUM, *ſ.* [ελυσιον, Gr. or of עלז, Heb. to rejoice.] The place aſſigned by the heathens to happy ſouls; any place exquiſitely pleaſant:

To have thee with thy lips to ſtop my mouth,
So ſhould'ſt thou either turn my flying ſoul,
Or I ſhould breathe it ſo into my body,
And then it liv'd in ſweet *Elyſium*. *Shakeſpeare.*

According to the mythology of the ancients, Elyſium was the paradiſe where the ſouls of the virtuous were placed after death. There happineſs was complete, the pleaſures were innocent and refined. Bowers for ever green, delightful meadows, with pleaſant ſtreams, were the moſt ſtriking objects. The air was wholeſome, ſerene, and temperate; the birds continually warbled in the groves, and the inhabitants were bleſſed with another ſun and other ſtars. The employments of the heroes who dwelt in theſe regions of bliſs were various; the manes of Achilles are repreſented as waging war with the wild beaſts, while the Trojan chiefs are innocently exerciſing themſelves in managing horſes, or in handling arms. To theſe innocent amuſements ſome poets have added continual feaſting and revelry, and they ſuppoſe that the Elyſian fields were filled with all the incontinence and voluptuouſneſs which Mahomet has pictured to his diſciples as the reward of every true muſſelman, who ſhould periſh in attempting to eſtabliſh the doctrines of the Koran. The Elyſian fields were, according to ſome, in the fortunate iſlands on the coaſt of Africa, in the Atlantic. Others place them in the iſland of Leuce; and, according to the authority of Virgil, they were ſituate in Italy. According to Lucian, they were near the moon; or in the center of the earth, if we believe Plutarch. *Virg. Æn.* vi. *Homer. Od.* iv.—Dr. Bryant and other modern writers place the Elyſian fields upon the ſide of the charonian canal, near the ancient Memphis, in Egypt.

ELY'TRA, *ſ.* The ſhells or wing-caſes of the coleoptric order of inſects. They are generally highly poliſhed, and enriched with various colours. See the article ENTOMOLOGY, in this volume.

ELY'TROCELE, *ſ.* [from ελυτρον, Gr. the vagina, and κηλη, a tumour.] In medicine, a hernia in the vagina.

ELYTROI'DES, *ſ.* [from ελυτρον, Gr. a ſheath, and ειδος, a likeneſs.] In anatomy, the name of the tunica vaginalis, becauſe it includes the teſtes as it were in a ſheath.

ELY'TRON, *ſ.* [from ελυω, Gr. to involve.] The vagina. A ſheath. In anatomy, the membranes which involve the ſpinal marrow are called elytra.

EL'ZE, or ELTZ, a town of Germany in the circle of Lower Saxony, and biſhopric of Hildeſheim, on the Saale: nine miles ſouth-weſt of Hildeſheim.

EL'ZEVIRS, famous printers of Amſterdam and Leyden, are juſtly commemorated for the many valuable books they printed, and the perfection to which they carried their art, at a comparatively early period. Lewis, the firſt of the family, was diſtinguiſhed for his editions from the year 1595. He was ſucceeded by Bonaventure, Abraham, and Daniel, the latter of whom died about 1680. The Elzevirs were leſs learned than the Etiennes, (Stephenſes,) but they equalled them in the choice of books and the knowledge of buſineſs, and ſurpaſſed all the world in the beauty of typography. Their ſmall types, in particular, have a clearneſs and elegance which perhaps have never been equalled. Their Virgil, Terence, Greek Teſtament 1633, and ſome other books diſtinguiſhed by characters in red ink, are reckoned maſter-pieces; and the beſt of their claſſics ſtill maintain a high value. The laſt catalogue of their editions was printed by Daniel in 1674, in ſeven parts, but it contains many books not of their own printing.

'EM. A contraction of *them*:

For he could coin and counterfeit
New words with little or no wit;
And when with haſty noiſe he ſpoke *'em*,
The ignorant for current took *'em*. *Hudibras.*

EMACERA'TION, *ſ.* A making lean or waſting; alſo ſoaking or ſowſing.

To EMA'CIATE, *v. a.* [*ematio*, Lat.] To waſte; to deprive of fleſh.—All dying of the conſumption, die *emaciated* and lean. *Graunt.*

To EMA'CIATE, *v. n.* To loſe fleſh; to pine; to grow lean.—He *emaciated* and pined away in the too anxious enquiry of the ſea's reciprocation, although not drowned therein. *Brown.*

EMACIA'TION, *ſ.* [*emaciatus*, Lat.] The act of making lean. The ſtate of one grown lean.—Searches cannot tell whether this *emaciation* or leanneſs were from a phthiſis, or from a hectic fever. *Graunt.*

EMA'CITY, *ſ.* [*emacitas*, Lat.] A deſire to be always buying.

To EMA'CULATE, *v. a.* [*emaculare*, Lat.] To take out ſpots.

EMACULA'TION, *ſ.* [*emaculo*, Lat.] The act of freeing any thing from ſpots or foulneſs.

E'MANANT,

E'MANANT, *adj.* [*emanans*, Lat.] Iſſuing from ſomething elſe.—The firſt act of the divine nature, relating to the world, and his adminiſtration thereof, is an *emanant* act: the moſt wiſe counſel and purpoſe of Almighty God, terminate in thoſe two great tranſient or *emanant* acts or works, the work of creation and providence. *Hale.*

To E'MANATE, *v. n.* [*emano*, Lat.] To iſſue or flow from ſomething elſe.—They have their reſidence in a city, whoſe conſtitution has *emanated*, neither from the charter of their king, nor from their legiſlative power. *Burke.*

EMANA'TION, *ſ.* [*emanatio*, Lat.] The act of iſſuing or proceeding from any other ſubſtance.—Ariſtotle ſaid, that it ſtreamed by connatural reſult and *emanation* from God, the infinite and eternal Mind, as the light iſſues from the ſun. *South.*—That which iſſues from another ſubſtance; an efflux; effluvium.—The experience of thoſe profitable and excellent *emanations* from God, may be, and commonly are, the firſt motive of our love. *Taylor.*

Such were the features of her heav'nly face;
Her limbs were form'd with ſuch harmonious grace;
So faultleſs was the frame, as if the whole
Had been an *emanation* of the ſoul. *Dryden.*

EMAN'ATIVE, *adj.* [from *emano*, Lat.] Iſſuing from another.

To EMAN'CIPATE, *v. a.* [*emancipo*, Lat.] To ſet free from ſervitude; to reſtore to liberty.—Having received the probable inducements of truth, we become *emancipated* from teſtimonial engagements. *Brown.*—They *emancipated* themſelves from dependence. *Arbuthnot.*

EMANCIPA'TION, *ſ.* The act of ſetting free; deliverance from ſlavery.—Obſtinacy in opinions holds the dogmatiſt in the chains of error, without hope of *emancipation*. *Glanville.*

EMAN'UEL, or IMMANUEL, a name given to Chriſt. A man's name.

EMANUEN'SIS, *ſ.* One who writes what another dictates or directs. This is more uſually written *amanuenſis*.

To EMAR'GINATE, *v. a.* [*margo*, Lat.] To take away the edge or margin of any thing.

EMAR'GINATED, *part.* Deprived of the margin, cut or indented in the form of a heart, indented on the edge.

EMARGINA'TION, *ſ.* Cleaning off the ſcurf which gathers about the edge of a wound. *Scott.*

EMAS'CULATE, *ſ.* [from *emaſculo*, Lat. to render impotent.] The malady or imperfection of having the teſticles in the belly, and not fallen into the ſcrotum.

To EMAS'CULATE, *v. a.* [*emaſculo*, Lat.] To caſtrate; to deprive of virility.—When it is found how many ewes, ſuppoſe twenty, one ram will ſerve, we may geld nineteen; for if you *emaſculate* but ten, you ſhall, by promiſcuous copulation, hinder the increaſe. *Graunt.*—To effeminate; to weaken; to viciate by unmanly ſoftneſs.—Dangerous principles impoſe upon our underſtandings, *emaſculate* our ſpirits, and ſpoil our temper. *Collier.*

From wars and from affairs of ſtate abſtain;
Women *emaſculate* a monarch's reign. *Dryden.*

EMASCULA'TION, *ſ.* Caſtration. Effeminacy; womaniſh qualities; unmanly ſoftneſs. See the article CASTRATION, vol. iii. p. 891.

EMA'THIA, a name given anciently, and particularly by the poets, to the countries which formed the empires of Macedonia and Theſſaly. *Virgil.*

EMA'THION, a ſon of Titan and Aurora, who reigned in Macedonia. The country was called *Emathia* from his name. Some ſuppoſe that he was a famous robber deſtroyed by Hercules. *Ovid.*

EMBA'BEH, a town of Egypt, near the pyramids of Girgeh, two miles weſt of Cairo.

To EMBA'LE, *v. a.* [*emballer*, Fr.] To make up into a bundle. To bind up; to incloſe:

Below her ham her weed did ſomewhat train,
And her ſtraight legs moſt bravely were *embal'd*
In golden buſkins of coſtly cordwain. *Spenſer.*

EMBA'LL, *v. a.* [*emballer*, Fr.] To make up in a ball. *Shakeſpeare.*

To EMBA'LM, *v. a.* [*embaumer*, Fr. *embalſamar*, Span.] To impregnate a body with aromatics, that it may reſiſt putrefaction. See EGYPT, p. 352, of this volume.

Verſe *embalms* virtue, and tombs or thrones of rhymes,
Preſerve frail tranſitory frame as much
As ſpice doth bodies from corrupt air's touch. *Donne.*

Muſe! at that name thy ſacred ſorrows ſhed;
Thoſe tears eternal that *embalm* the dead. *Pope.*

EMBALM'ER, *ſ.* One that practiſes the art of embalming and preſerving bodies.—The Romans were not ſo good *embalmers* as the Egyptians, ſo the body was utterly conſumed. *Bacon.*

To EMBAR', *v. a.* To ſhut; to incloſe:

Themſelves for fear into his jaws to fall,
He forc'd to caſtle ſtrong to take their flight;
Where firſt *embar'd* in mighty brazen wall,
He has them now four years beſieg'd to make them thrall.
Spenſer.

To ſtop; to hinder by prohibition; to block up:

If this commerce 'twixt heav'n and earth were not
Embar'd, and all this traffic quite forgot,
She, for whoſe loſs we have lamented thus,
Would work more fully and pow'rfully on us. *Donne.*

EM'BAR, a town of Africa, in the country of Senegal.

EMBARCADE'RE, *ſ.* (on the American coaſt.) A haven or bay which ſerves ſome inland city as a port or place for ſhipping. *Scott.*

EMBARCA'TION, *ſ.* The act of putting on ſhipboard.—The French gentlemen were very ſolicitous for the *embarcation* of the army, and for the departure of the fleet. *Clarendon.*—The act of going on ſhipboard.

EMBAR'GO, *ſ.* [*embargar*, Span.] A prohibition to paſs; in commerce, a ſtop put to trading veſſels.—After an *embargo* of our trading ſhips in the river of Bourdeaux, and other points of ſovereign affront, there did ſucceed the action of Rheez. *Wotton.*

To EMBAR'GO, *v. a.* To lay on an embargo; to detain.—The *embargo* upon our ſhips in the ports of Ruſſia was in conſequence of ſeveral captains attempting to ſmuggle wheat on-board. Thoſe diſcovered were immediately *embargoed*, and others were prevented from proceeding to ſea, until they ſhould be ſearched. *Evening Mail.*

To EMBA'RK, *v. a.* [*embarquer*, Fr.] To put on ſhipboard. To engage another in any affair.—The king had provided a good fleet, and had cauſed a body of three thouſand foot to be *embarked* on thoſe ſhips. *Clarendon.*

Straight to the ſhips Æneas took his way,
Embark'd his men, and ſkim'd along the ſea. *Dryden.*

To EMBA'RK, *v. n.* To go on ſhipboard. To engage in any affair:

I ſhould with ſpeed *embark*,
And with their embaſſy return to Greece. *Phillips.*

EMBAR'QUEMENT, *ſ.* [Fr. from *to embark*.] The ſtate, or being on ſhipboard; any thing put on ſhipboard, a cargo, in which laſt ſenſe it apparently occurs in Shakeſpeare's Coriolanus.—*Embarquement* all of fury.—Mr. Maſon in his Suppl. to Johnſon, confounds the word with *embargo*. *Monthly Mag.*

To EMBAR'RAS, *v. a.* [*embaraſſer*, Fr.] To perplex; to diſtreſs; to entangle.—I ſaw my friend a little *embarraſſed*, and turned away. *Spectator.*

EMBAR'RASSMENT, *ſ.* Perplexity; entanglement. —Let your method be plain, that your hearers may run through it without *embarraſſment*, and take a clear view of the whole. *Watts.*

To EMBA'SE, *v. a.* To vitiate; to depauperate; to lower; to deprave; to impair.—I will rather chooſe to wear a crown of thorns, than to exchange that of gold for one of lead, whoſe *embaſed* flexibleneſs ſhall be forced to bend. *King Charles.*—A pleaſure high, rational, and angelical; a pleaſure *embaſed* with no appendant ſting; but ſuch a one as being honey in the mouth, never turns to gall or gravel in the belly. *South.*—To degrade; to vilify:

Joy of my life, full oft for loving you
I bleſs my lot, that was ſo lucky plac'd;
But then the more your own miſhap I rue,
That are ſo much by ſo mean love *embas'd*. *Spenſer.*

EM'BASIS, *ſ.* [from ἐν, Gr. in, and βαινω, to go.] A deep tub or veſſel for waſhing the body, generally applied to medical baths.

EMBAS'SADE, *ſ.* [Fr.] Embaſſy:

But when her words *embaſſade* forth ſhe ſends,
Lord! how ſweet muſic that unto them lends! *Spenſer.*

EMBAS'SADOR, *ſ.* One ſent on a public meſſage. See the article AMBASSADOR, vol. i. p. 398.

EMBAS'SADRESS, *ſ.* A woman ſent on a public meſſage:

With fear the modeſt matron lifts her eyes,
And to the bright *embaſſadreſs* replies. *Garth.*

The wife of an embaſſador.—Do you frequent the Dutch embaſſador or *embaſſadreſs*. *Cheſterfield.*

EM'BASSAGE, or EMBASSY, *ſ.* [It may be obſerved, that though authors write almoſt indiſcriminately *embaſſador* or *ambaſſador*, *embaſſage* or *ambaſſage*; yet there is ſcarcely an example of *ambaſſy*, all concurring to write *embaſſy*.] A public meſſage: a meſſage concerning buſineſs:

The peace polluted thus, a choſen band
He firſt commiſſions to the Latian land,
In threat'ning *embaſſy*. *Dryden.*

Any ſolemn meſſage.—He ſends the angels on *embaſſies* with his decrees. *Taylor.*—An errand, in an ironical ſenſe.—A bird was made fly with ſuch art to carry a written *embaſſage* among the ladies, that one might ſay, If a live bird, how taught? If dead, how made? *Sidney.*

Nimble miſchance, that art ſo light of foot,
Doth not thy *embaſſage* belong to me;
And am I laſt that know it? *Shakeſpeare.*

EMBAS'SAGE, *ſ.* Conveyance of thoughts:

And ever and anone, when none was ware,
With ſpeaking looks, that cloſe *embaſſage* bore,
He rov'd at her, and told his ſecret care. *Spenſer.*

EMBA'TER, *ſ.* The hole or look-through to take aim by in a croſs-bow.

EMBAT'TILED, *part. adj.* in heraldry, indented like battlements:

Wearing a diademe *embattil'd* wide
With hundred turrets, like a turribant. *Spenſer.*

To EMBAT'TLE, *v. a.* To range in order or array of battle:

The Engliſh are *embattled*;
To horſe! you gallant princes, ſtrait to horſe! *Shakeſp.*

Embattl'd nations ſtrive in vain
Our hero's glory to reſtrain:
Streams arm'd with rocks, and mountains red with fire,
In vain againſt our force conſpire. *Prior.*

On their *embattl'd* ranks the waves return,
And overwhelm the war! *Milton.*

To EMBAT'TLE, *v. n.* To be ranged in battle array:

The night
Is ſhiny, and they ſay we ſhall *embattle*
By the ſecond hour of the morn. *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'BAUL, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Damel. Lat. 15. 15. N. lon. 15. 37. W. Greenwich.

To EMBA'Y, *v. a.* [from *baigner*, Fr. to bathe.] To bathe; to wet; to waſh. *Not uſed:*

Every ſenſe the humour ſweet *embay'd*,
And, ſlumb'ring ſoft, my heart did ſteal away. *Spenſer.*

[From *bay*.] To incloſe in a bay; to land lock:

If the invading fleet
Be not inſhelter'd and *embay'd*, they are drown'd. *Shakeſp.*

To EMBEL'LISH, *v. a.* [*embellir*, Fr.] To adorn; to beautify; to grace with ornaments; to decorate.—That which was once the moſt beautiful ſpot of Italy, covered with palaces, *embelliſhed* by emperors, and celebrated by poets, has now nothing to ſhew but ruins. *Addiſon.*

How much more beauteous had the fountain been,
Embelliſh'd with her firſt created green;
Where cryſtal ſtreams through living turf had run,
Contented with an urn of native ſtone. *Dryden.*

EMBEL'LISHMENT, *ſ.* Ornament; adventitious beauty; decoration; adfcititious grace; any thing that confers the power of pleaſing:

Culture the wild licentious ſavage
With wiſdom, diſcipline, and liberal arts,
Th' *embelliſhments* of life. *Addiſon.*

EM'BER-DAYS, certain days obſerved by the church at four different ſeaſons of the year; viz, the Wedneſday, Friday, and Saturday, next after Quadrageſima Sunday, or the firſt Sunday in Lent; the next after Whitſunday; after Holyrood or Holycroſs, the 14th day of September; and after St. Lucy, the 13th day of December. The name is derived from *embers* or aſhes, which it is ſuppoſed were ſtrewed on the head, on theſe ſolemn occaſions.

EM'BER WEEKS, thoſe weeks in which the Ember-days fall. Ember-weeks are now chiefly noticed on account of the ordination of prieſts and deacons; becauſe the canon appoints the Sundays next after the Ember-weeks for the ſolemn times of ordination; though the biſhops, if they pleaſe, may ordain on any Sunday or holiday.

EMBERI'ZA, *ſ.* the BUNTING; in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of paſſeres. The bill is conical, and the mandibles recede from each other towards the baſe; the inferior mandible has the ſide narrowed inwards; the upper, with a hard knob within. This genus contains no leſs than ſeventy-four ſpecies, beſides many varieties, ſome or other of which are found in all parts of the known world. They are as follow:

1. Emberiza nivalis, the ſnow bunting. The bleak mountains of Spitzbergen, the Lapland Alps, the ſhores of Hudſon's-bay, and perhaps countries ſtill more northerly, are, during the ſummer months, the favourite abodes of this bird. The exceſſive ſeverity of theſe inhoſpitable climates, changes part of its plumage into white in winter. It has a pleaſing variety of appearance from a diverſified intermixture of white, black, and ferruginous; and the combinations of theſe colours are affected by the ſeaſon, and by the temperature of the countries they inhabit. In winter, the head, the neck, the coverts of the wings, and all the under part of the body, are in the male white as ſnow, with a light and almoſt tranſparent tint of ferruginous on the head only; the back is black; the quills of the wings, and of the tail, partly black, partly white. In ſummer, the head, the neck, the under part of the body, and even the back, are ſtained with tranſverſe ferruginous waves of various intenſity, but never ſo deep as in the female, of which it is the predominant colour, and diſpoſed in longitudinal ſtripes. In ſome

ſubjects

ſubjects the neck is cinereous, the back cinereous variegated with brown; a purple tinge round the eyes; a reddiſh caſt on the head, &c. The colour of the bill is alſo variable; ſometimes yellow, ſometimes cinereous at the baſe, and generally black at the point. In all, the noſtrils are round, ſomewhat prominent, and covered with ſmall feathers; the tongue is a little forked; the eyes are ſmall and black; the legs black. Theſe birds leave the mountains when the ſnows and froſts will not permit them to procure their food; and they return in ſpring to their icy ſummits. Though they do not always hold the ſame route, they are commonly ſeen in Sweden, in Saxony, in Lower Sileſia, in Poland, in Red Ruſſia, and in Podolia. They are very rare in the ſouth of Germany, and almoſt entirely unknown in Swiſſerland and Italy. In the time of their paſſage they keep conſtantly along the roads, picking up ſmall ſeeds, and every ſort of grain. This is the proper ſeaſon for catching them. They are valued for the ſingularity of their plumage, and the delicacy of their fleſh. This bird is found in the northern parts of Great Britain, and is called in Scotland *ſnowflake*, appearing in great flocks in the ſnowy ſeaſon, and ſuppoſed to be the certain forerunner of hard weather. A few breed in the ſame places with the ptarmigans. They are found in all the northern latitudes, without exception, as far as our navigators have been able to penetrate; even beyond Spitzbergen, upon remote fields of ice, and in large flocks: what can be found there for food, is difficult to determine, as they are granivorous birds, and the only ſpecies of the genus found in that frozen climate. In America they advance no farther to the ſouth than Nova Scotia, never being found at New York. The more northward they are found, the whiter the plumage becomes. Theſe birds are of the ſize of the chaffinch. They probably breed in Spitzbergen, and certainly in Greenland, where they make their neſts in the fiſſures of the mountain rocks, employing graſs for the outſide, feathers for the inſide, and the down of the arctic fox for lining. They lay five white eggs ſpotted with brown. They ſing ſweetly, ſitting on the ground. In autumn, when they iſſue from their frozen retreats, they gradually and ſucceſſively viſit all the northern parts of Europe. They enter Britain by the north of Scotland; at firſt they are lean, but ſoon grow fat and delicious; the Highlands abound with them. They appear at Hudſon's-bay in April, retire northward in May to breed, and pay another viſit in September. They live in vaſt flocks, feed on graſs, ſeeds, &c. and are eaſily caught. Their colour, being produced by the degree of cold to which they are expoſed, is neceſſarily variable.

There are three other varieties of this ſpecies: the firſt has the whole of the white parts tinged with yellow; and the throat and fore part of the neck marked with very ſmall brown ſpots; but agrees with the preceding in all other reſpects. In the ſecond variety almoſt the whole of the head, the upper part of the neck, back, rump, tail, and wing-coverts, are yellowiſh white; round the bill, and all the under parts, blackiſh. The other variety is called the pied bunting: the eye-lids are black, the irides are white; the head, throat, and neck, white; but at the lower part of the neck are three circles, the upper one of a lead-coloured blue, the next white, and the loweſt blue: on the breaſt is a denticulated blueiſh mark; wing-coverts and quills white, with a mixture of greeniſh yellow in ſome places, and black in others: the eight middle tail-feathers, white; the legs and claws fleſh-colour. This variety was found in the county of Eſſex.

2. Emberiza muſtelina, the tawny bunting: a ſize larger than the preceding; length near ſeven inches: bill yellow, tip black; crown of the head tawny; throat almoſt white, changing to a dull yellow near the breaſt, which, with the under parts, is white daſhed with yellowiſh marks; the back and ſcapular feathers are black, edged with pale reddiſh brown: rump, and upper tail-coverts, half white half yellow: the four middle tail-feathers are duſky black, fringed with white; the three outer ones on each ſide white, marked with a duſky ſpot on the outer web; but the third on both webs at the tip. This ſpecies is ſometimes met with in the northern parts of England, but not often.

3. Emberiza montana, the mountain bunting: bill ſhort, and black at the tip, the reſt yellow; forehead dark cheſnut; hind part of the head and cheeks lighter; the back aſh-coloured, ſpotted with black; the throat white; breaſt and belly waved with flame-colour; the ſetting-on of the wings grey; the five firſt feathers blackiſh brown, the reſt white, the point of each daſhed with brown; the three outer tail-feathers white, the reſt dark brown. This is ſometimes found in Yorkſhire and Northamptonſhire.

4. Emberiza hyemalis, the black bunting: bill white; head, throat, neck, back, ſcapulars, rump, and upper tail-coverts, black, inclining to lead-colour; from the breaſt to the vent white; quills and tail black: thoſe in the Britiſh and Leverian Muſeums have the tip of the bill black; the fore part of the neck lead-coloured, and the two outer tail feathers with ferruginous margins. They viſit Virginia and Carolina in winter only, chiefly in ſnowy weather; and are called the chuck bird.

5. Emberiza hortulana, the ortolan: this delicate bird is ſmaller than the yellow-hammer; bill yellowiſh; head and neck cinereous olive; round the eyes yellowiſh; throat the ſame, bordered on each ſide with a cinereous line; back and ſcapulars browniſh cheſnut, mixed with black in the middle of the feathers, inclining moſt to cheſnut towards the rump; the under parts very pale rufous; wing-feathers brown, deepeſt in the middle; ſome have rufous and others grey edges; tail deep brown, with rufous edges, except the outer feather, which is edged with white, and the inner part of the next tipped with white. The female differs in having the head and neck inclining to aſh-colour, marked with ſmall black lines down the ſhaft of each feather; in other reſpects like the male. Theſe birds are found in ſeveral parts of Europe, but are not met with in England; they are common in France and Italy, and in ſome parts of Germany and Sweden, migrating from one to the other in ſpring and autumn; and in their paſſage are caught in numbers, and fatted for the table. This is done eaſily, by incloſing the birds in a dark room, ſetting before them plenty of oats and millet, with which they ſoon grow ſo fat, that they would die from that cauſe alone, did not their feeders kill them in time, for the ſake of emolument. Their fleſh is ſaid to be one of the moſt exquiſite morſels yet known, being as it were a lump of rich fat; and the birds arrived at this ſtate will often weigh three ounces each. They are very common in the ſouth of Ruſſia, and in Siberia, as far as the river Ob; but they never go far to the north. This bird will ſing, and has been kept for that purpoſe. The note is not unlike that of our yellow-hammer, but finer and ſweeter. In ſome parts it makes the neſt in a low hedge; in others, on the ground. It is carelefsly conſtructed, not unlike that of the lark. The female lays four or five greyiſh eggs, and in general has two broods in a year. It frequents oat-fields, of which it ſeems very fond, ſoon growing exceeding fat, and ſufficiently ſo for the table; but never reckoned ſo delicious as when fattened artificially.

There are four varieties of the ortolan: the firſt is all over of a ſtraw-colour, except the edge of the wing and the quills, which are white; the bill and legs reddiſh. The ſecond is wholly white, as pure as that of the ſwan. The third differs but little from the common ſpecies, except in the tail, which is almoſt wholly white. In the fourth variety the whole body is blackiſh, except the head and neck, which incline to green; the bill red; the legs cinereous. Buffon alſo mentions a further variety, which had the throat yellow mixed with grey, a grey breaſt, and a rufous belly.

6. Emberiza Sinenſis, the Chineſe bunting: bill pale rufous; irides yellow; top of the head, and all the upper parts of the body, of a reddiſh rufous colour, with yellowiſh edges; the leſſer wing-coverts very light yellow; the ſecond quills deep brown, edged with rufous grey; the prime quills umber-colour, edged with dull yellow; the throat, breaſt, belly, and vent, fine yellow; down the middle of the belly a longitudinal ſtreak of brown; the tail is alſo of this colour, edged with grey. Found in the ſouthern provinces of China, in the months of October, November, and December.

7. Emberiza citrinella, the yellow-hammer: length ſix inches and a quarter; bill duſky; irides hazel; crown of the head in ſome of a beautiful pale, and in others of a full yellow; nape greeniſh; cheeks yellow; over the eyes a browniſh ſtripe, paſſing backwards; the hind part of the neck, and upper parts of the body, are blackiſh down the ſhaft, rufous on the ſides, and fringed with grey; rump pale tawny; chin, and under parts, yellow, inclining to reddiſh on the breaſt, and daſhed with duſky on the ſides; the wings are reddiſh brown, olive or duſky, mixed, and edged chiefly with grey; the tail brown, a little forked; the two middle feathers edged with grey, the others outwardly with olive, except at the ends, where the margin is grey; the outermoſt are edged with white; and a ſpot of white juſt at the tip. The female is much duller in colour, and has very little yellow about the head. This is one of the moſt common of our Britiſh birds, known every where to make a neſt compoſed of hay, or ſtraw mixed with a little moſs, dried leaves, and ſtalks, very ill put together, and lined with hair or wool; generally on the ground, though now and then in a low buſh. The eggs in general five or ſix in number, marked with brown or blackiſh irregular ſtreaks, with here and there a blotch. This bird has more than one brood in a year. It is reckoned with us of little value; its note trifling, and is therefore never kept in a cage; though in ſpring the male has a ſort of ſong, conſiſting of ſeven notes; ſix of the firſt are of equal tones, and pretty quick; the laſt ſharper than the others; and continued to the length at leaſt of three of the firſt. Olina ſays, that they partly imitate the warble of the chaffinches, with which they aſſociate. Friſch relates that they adopt ſomething of the ſong of the canary, when they hear it young; and Aldrovandus ſpeaks of its fine warble; which would imply that in more favourable climes their notes improve. This bird is found throughout Europe, and feeds both on grain and inſects. The fleſh, for the table, does not deſerve commendation, when caught at large, as it is bitter; but how it might improve if fatted like the ortolan, is not certain. Buffon conſiders it in this reſpect very nearly allied to the ortolan; and in Italy, where they eat all ſmall birds without diſtinction, they are thought to be very good.

8. Emberiza miliaria, the common bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer, but ſtouter in the body: bill pale brown; general colour of the plumage pale olive brown, with a blackiſh daſh down the ſhaft of each feather, which is fringed on the edge with rufous; under parts plain yellowiſh white, daſhed on the ſides with duſky; quills duſky, with yellowiſh edges; tail-feathers the ſame, and forked. The female differs little, except in paleneſs of colour. This is alſo common in England, but much leſs ſo than the laſt; and in winter unites with them in large flocks. The female builds the neſt three or four inches from the ground, on ſome tuft of decayed herbage or dead plant, and lays five or ſix eggs. During the time of the hen's ſitting, the male is ſeen on ſome bare branch of an adjacent tree; uttering a tremulous kind of note, three or four times repeated. At the end of harveſt they are caught in nets; and, from their ſimilar plumage, are ſold for larks to the ignorant; and, indeed, by the better informed they paſs by the name of bunting larks. Though theſe birds remain the whole year in England, yet we find them named as migratory on the continent. In France they are rarely ſeen in winter, departing with the ſwallow; and are ſaid to be more plenty about Rome than elſewhere. They are common throughout Germany, the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, but not in Siberia.

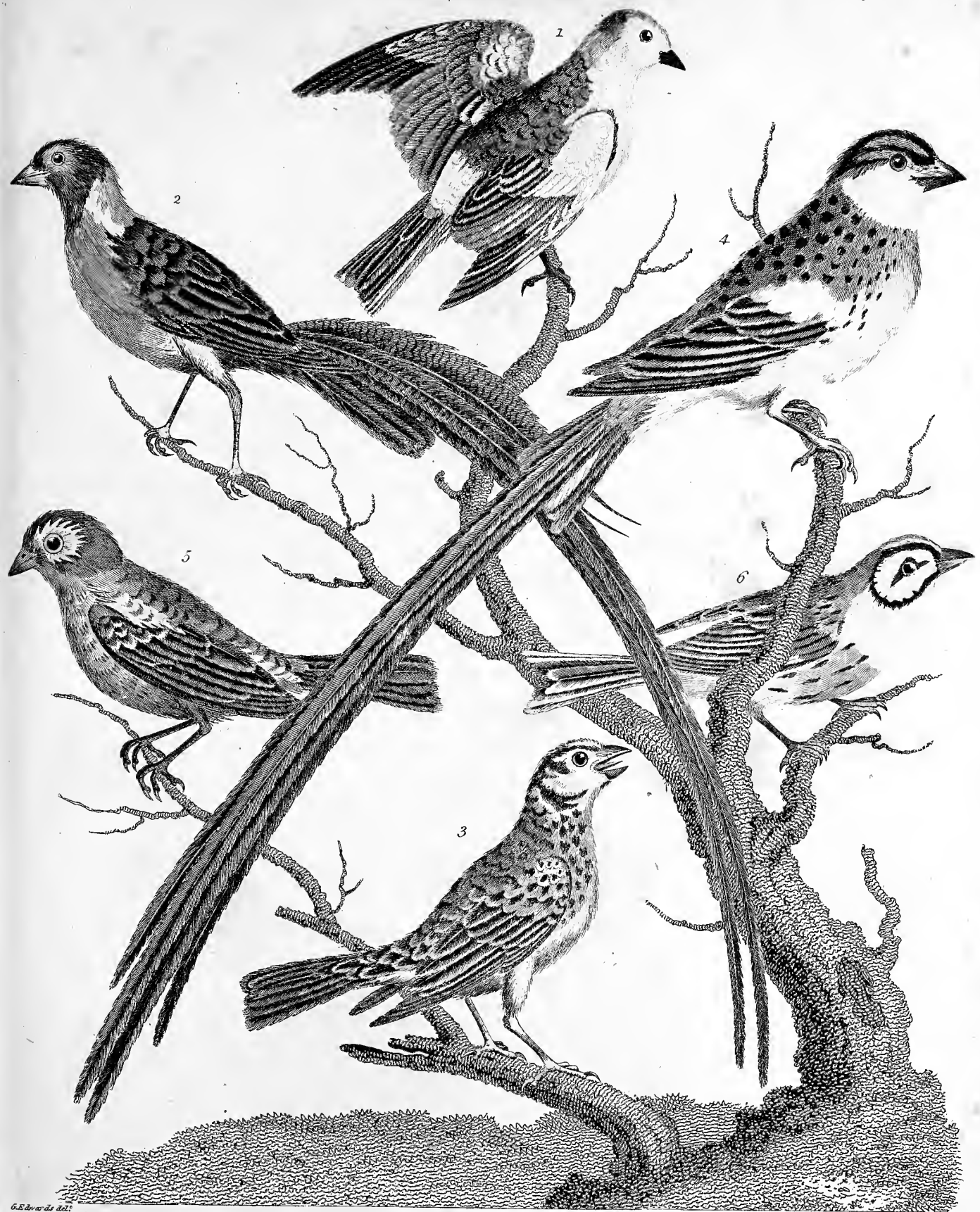
9. Emberiza ſchœniclus, the reed bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill brown; irides hazel; the head, throat, fore part of the neck, and breaſt, black; on each ſide of the neck a pale ſtreak, which paſſes backward, encircling the back part of the neck as a ring; the upper parts of the body and wings browniſh red, with a ſtreak of black down the ſhafts; the lower part of the breaſt and belly white, ſtreaked with duſky on the ſides; the eight middle tail-feathers black; the two middle ones edged with rufous. In young birds the black on the head is mixed with brown. The female has the head and neck partly of the ſame colour as the upper parts of the body; otherwiſe is marked like the male, though more dull. This bird frequents the marſhy grounds in England, eſpecially where reeds grow; between four of which it faſtens its neſt, two or three feet above the water. It is compoſed of dry graſs ſtalks, and lined within with the ſoft down of the reed; the eggs are four or five in number, of a bluiſh white, marked with irregular purpliſh veins, moſt conſpicuous at the large end. Its reſort is for the moſt part near the water; and it is likely that it feeds on the ſeeds of the reed, like the bearded titmouſe. With us they remain the whole year, but in ſome parts of the continent they are migratory. In Lorraine numbers are ſeen paſſing on their paſſage to other parts, both in ſpring and autumn, though ſome few ſtay there the whole year. The extreme limits of their peregrination are between Sweden and Italy. In ſpring the male ſits perched on a reed, and has a pleaſing kind of warbling ſong. It is frequently heard to ſing in the night, as well as day. There is a variety of the reed bunting, with the head and neck duſky black; upper parts of the body brown; wing-coverts incline to aſh colour; prime quills duſky, edged with cinereous; ſecondaries duſky, the outer webs brown; the ſix middle tail-feathers duſky; the two outer ones wholly white, fringed with duſky near the tip; under parts of the body pale. Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

10. Emberiza Provincialis, the muſtachio bunting: length little more than four inches: bill duſky; upper parts not unlike the reed ſparrow; through the eye a ſtreak of white paſſes on each ſide of the neck; under the eye a large patch of black; chin white; on each ſide the throat is a ſtreak of black; the breaſt and ſides pale brown, ſpotted with black; the reſt of the under parts white; acroſs the middle of the wings a bar of white; quills and tail duſky, edged with rufous; legs pale brown. Inhabits Provence; feeds on grain, and perches often. In April it is ſaid to ſing agreeably. It is called there chic-gavotte, and chic-mouſtache.

11. Emberiza Leſbia, the Leſbian bunting: very ſimilar to the laſt, but has not the black ſpot under the eye; having, inſtead of it, only three narrow black bands, the ſpaces between which are white; it is alſo white round the eye; the breaſt, rump, and ſides, are not ſpotted with duſky; the tail-feathers are white, except the two middle, which are duſky, edged with rufous. This alſo inhabits Provence, and differs in not being in ſong till June; it is more rare than the laſt, and very wild; and from ſetting up a ſcream on the approach of any of the birds of prey, it is called chic de Mitilene. The Greeks in the iſland of Leſbos, or Metelin, are ſaid to uſe this inſtinct of the Leſbian bunting to advantage, by placing one of theſe birds among their poultry in their yards, in a ſtrong cage; by which means the fowls there kept are ſooner adviſed of the approach of the hawk, or other bird of prey, than by any other method.

12. Emberiza Lotharinica, the Lorraine bunting: bill browniſh fleſh colour; upper parts of the head, neck, and body, rufous, daſhed with black; ſides of the head pale;

EMBERIZA.



1. The Snow Bunting. 2. The Paradise Bunting in Summer. 3. The same Bird in Winter. 4. The variegated Bunting. 5. The painted Bunting. 6. The Ortolan.

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pale; through the eye a ſtreak of black; from the baſe of the lower mandible, and round the chin, riſing to the ears, another ſtreak of black; the under parts, as far as the breaſt, pale aſh-colour, dotted with black; from thence to the vent deep rufous; leſſer wing-coverts pale aſh-colour; the others rufous and black mixed; the two middle tail-feathers rufous; the others part black and part white; legs brown. The female is not ſo large as the male; bill black at the point; upper parts much like the male; no black ſtreaks on the ſide of the head; but inſtead, a whitiſh trace over the eye, and a patch of rufous beneath it; the under parts are white, which paſſes backwards on each ſide of the neck, like a half colour. Inhabits Lorraine.

13. Emberiza Ludovicia, the Louiſianian bunting: bill rufous, ſpotted with black; the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, pale rufous; the top of the head is ſurrounded with a wreathed irregular ſtreak of black, ſomewhat like a horſe-ſhoe; beneath the eye is a ſtreak, and ſeveral leſſer markings of black; the upper parts of the body rufous, daſhed with black; the lower part of the back, the rump, and upper tail-coverts, black; breaſt and ſides rufous; belly, thighs, and under the tail, rufous white; greater wing-coverts black, with rufous edges. Inhabits Louiſiana.

14. Emberiza pſittacea, the parrot bunting: ſize of a ſparrow: length eleven inches and a half: general colour a greyiſh aſh; the baſe of the bill ſurrounded with pale red; wings yellow and pale red mixed; the tail the colour of the body; the two middle feathers much longer than the others, and tipped with cheſnut. Inhabits Braſil.

15. Emberiza paradiſæa, the paradiſe bunting: ſize of the hedge-ſparrow: the bill lead-colour; irides hazel; the head, chin, and fore part of the neck, back, wings, and tail, black; neck behind pale orange; breaſt, and upper part of the belly, a full orange; lower belly, and thighs, white; vent black; the two middle tail-feathers are four inches in length, very broad, and ending in a long thread; the two next are thirteen inches in length, very broad in the middle, narrower at the end, and rather pointed; from the middle of the ſhaft of this laſt ariſes another long thread; the reſt of the tail-feathers are only two inches and a quarter long; the two middle long ones are placed ſomewhat vertically, and appear undulated acroſs, and are more gloſſy than the others; the legs fleſh-colour. The female is wholly of a deep brown, almoſt black; but does not gain the full plumage under three years. This ſpecies moults twice in a year. The male is deſtitute of the long tail-feathers ſix months out of twelve; it moults in November, when it firſt loſes them, and the plumage is of a mixed black and reddiſh colour, and the head ſtreaked black and white. It moults again late in the ſpring, when it receives the ſummer plumage; but the tail-feathers are ſcarcely complete till June, though they fall again in November. The females, when young, are nearly like the males in their winter dreſs. This bird is common about Angola, and other parts of Africa; and is called *la veuve*, or widow bird, from the colour. But Edwards gives another reaſon for the name—being a corruption of Whidah, a fort in Africa, in the neighbourhood of which they are very common. Whidah bird, and widow bird, are ſounds very ſimilar. They are often brought into Europe, where they ſell for a great price, and frequently live many years, being in general lively active birds.

16. Emberiza ſerena, the dominican bunting: ſmaller than the preceding: bill red; upper part of the head black, the crown rufous white; the back part of the neck, beneath the head, is rufous white, which paſſes forwards to join with the under parts, all of which, from the chin, and beneath the eyes, are alſo rufous white; the hind part of the neck, and back, are black, edged with white; inner wing-coverts white; reſt of the wing black; the quills edged with white; the tail is black; the two middle feathers are pointed at the ends, and are more than two inches longer than the others, all of which leſſen in length as they are placed outwardly; three of them, next to the middle feathers, have white tips, and the two outer ones are white on the inſide, and pale rufous without. The female is of an uniform brown colour; and the feathers of the tail are all of equal lengths, the two middle ones not being longer than the others. This ſpecies moults twice in the year, like the preceding; and, like that, loſes, for a time, its long tail-feathers.

17. Emberiza vidua, the widow bunting: ſize ſomewhat leſs than a ſparrow: bill red; head, and all the upper parts, of a greeniſh black; ſides of the head, and under parts, white, the black forming an half collar; acroſs the wing-coverts is a band of white; the quills are fringed with brown; the tail-feathers are twelve in number; four of theſe very long, the two middle ones being ten inches and a half in length, and the next on each ſide nine inches; the others even; the long ones are wholly black; the others black on the outer webs, and white within; the two colours obliquely divided, having moſt white on the outer feathers; legs black. Native of India.

18. Emberiza principalis, the variegated bunting: bill red; the upper parts of the head and body are black and rufous mixed, the black occupying the middle of each feather; the ſides of the head, and under parts, are white, except the breaſt, which is of a pale rufous; the leſſer wing-coverts are white, the greater black, with rufous edges; the tail is compoſed of twelve feathers; the two middle ones exceed the others by five inches and a half; the next on each ſide are one inch ſhorter, theſe are deep black; the others, which are ſhort, and of equal length, are of a dull brown colour, margined with pale brown, and marked each with a white ſpot at the inner web; legs fleſh-colour. Edwards obſerves, that this bird ſoon recovers the long feathers after moulting, contrary to the Whidah, or paradiſe bird, which is often half a year without them. This ſpecies is found at Angola, and generally throughout India.

19. Emberiza regia, the royal bunting: ſize of a linnet: bill red; upper parts of the plumage black; ſides of the head, and round the neck, rufous; the hind part of the neck is ſpotted with black; lower part of the thighs and vent black; the four middle tail-feathers are ten inches long, and are webbed only about two inches at the ends; the reſt of them are ſimple ſhafts, with ſcarcely the leaſt perceivable rudiment of a web; the others are ſhort and black. The female is brown, and has not the long tail-feathers. Theſe birds moult twice a-year, and in the winter the male is very little ſuperior to a linnet in colour, having the plumage nearly like it, only the grey a little brighter. It inhabits Africa, from the coaſts of which theſe birds are ſometimes imported into England.

20. Emberiza longicauda, the long-tailed bunting: a large ſpecies, ſize of a ſong thruſh; total length twenty inches; from the bill to the ſetting on of the tail only five. The bill is ſtrong and duſky; the noſtrils nearly hid in the feathers; the general colour of the plumage is deep gloſſy black; the leſſer wing-coverts are crimſon, below this a bed of white; ſome of the quills are white at the baſe, but hid when the wing is cloſed; the ſecond quills are as long as the prime ones; the tail is compoſed of twelve feathers, which hang ſideways, like thoſe on the ſides of a cock's tail; ſix of the middle ones are very long, but unequal in themſelves, the two longeſt are fifteen inches, the next on each ſide fourteen inches, and the next only eleven inches and a half; the others much ſhorter; the legs are brown, of the ſize of thoſe of a thruſh; claws long and hooked. This is indigenous to the Cape of Good Hope.

21. Emberiza Panayenſis, the Panayan bunting: ſize of a hedge-ſparrow: colour wholly black, except a large bright red ſpot on the breaſt; four of the tail-feathers are

are very long and pointed, hanging down like thoſe of the whidah, or paradiſe bird, and are all of a length. It inhabits the Iſle of Panay.

22. Emberiza Angolenſis, the Angola bunting: ſize of a finch: bill ſhort, like that of a bulfinch; top of the head and neck yellow; reſt of the body black; tail long. Salerne calls the breaſt fire-coloured, in his ſpecific deſcription of it, which ſuggeſts that it may have ſome reference to the laſt ſpecies. Native of Angola.

23. Emberiza Capenſis, the Cape bunting: bill duſky, upper part rufous yellow, varied with black; top of the head and neck grey and black mixed; ſides of the head and chin white, croſſed with two ſtreaks of black, the one through the eyes, the other beneath them; the under parts yellowiſh white; the leſſer wing-coverts rufous; the greater ones, quills, and tail, duſky, with rufous edges. Inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. There are three other varieties of this bird. In the firſt, the top of the head and ſides are yellowiſh white; over the eye from the noſtrils an arched ſtripe of black; behind the eye a ſecond; and from the lower mandible another, quite irregular; the lower part of the neck and back are brown; all the under parts yellow, inclining to red on the breaſt, and verging to white at the chin and vent. The ſecond variety has the upper parts rufous brown; the middle of the feathers duſky; the rump aſh-colour; the middle of the wing rufous longitudinally the whole way from the bend; the under parts of the body white; the head is not black, but only two black ſtreaks on the ſides; the tail wholly brown, edged with rufous. The third variety has the top of the head variegated with black and grey, and two ſtreaks of black in the ſame places as the preceding, but broader; ſides of the head grey, under parts dirty white; ſides of the body pale rufous. Buffon ſays this is common at Caycnne, where it is called *bonjour-commandeur*, from its cuſtom of ſinging at day-break.

24. Emberiza fuſca, the brown bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill fleſh-coloured; noſtrils covered with ſmall tufts of feathers; on the cheeks, and beneath the bill, are other tufts; head pale brown; back, wings, and breaſt, the ſame, ſpotted with darker brown; belly white; quills and tail brown, barred with deep brown; legs roſe-colour. Inhabits China.

25. Emberiza oryzivora, the rice bunting: ſize of the ſparrow; bill duſky; the fore part and ſides of the head, all the under parts, and the back, are black; the feathers on the head, back, and thighs, have rufous margins; the back part of the head and neck are plain rufous, but pale, or rather buff-colour; ſcapulars, and leſſer wing and upper tail-coverts, white; the reſt of the wing-feathers black, edged with brown; the quills edged with yellowiſh grey; the tail is black; in ſhape rather forked; all the feathers ending in a ſharp point; the tips brown. The female is of the ſame ſize and ſhape, but the general colour rufous, verging to brown. This ſpecies is migratory, but does not exceed the bounds of America. It is found in Cuba in flocks about September, and from thence they take their departure for Carolina, and ſo on to other parts, ſtaying in each only ſo long as the rice continues green; for when ripe they will not touch it. They appear in Rhode Iſland and New York at the end of April, or the ſecond week in May, frequenting the borders of fields, and living on inſects, &c. till the maize is fit for their palate; when they begin by pecking holes in the ſides of the huſks, and, after ſatiating themſelves, go on to another; which admits the rain, and ſpoils the plants. They continue there during the ſummer, and breed, returning as autumn approaches, to the ſouthward. They are frequently found mixed with the red-winged oriole, and are alſo ſeen with the blue jays. The males and females do not arrive together, the females come firſt. This ſpecies is known in America by the names of Bob Lincoln and *conquedle*; and is called by ſome the white-backed maize thief; but is ſaid to have a fine note. There is a variety of this ſpecies with the head, neck, body, and upper wing-coverts, olive brown; the under parts pale yellow; the rump and upper tail-coverts yellow, croſſed with lines of brown; the greater wing-coverts are black, edged with white. This is found in Louiſiana, and has all the habits of the preceding.

26. Emberiza cirlus, the cirl bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill brown; head olive green, with a duſky line down the ſhaft of each feather; ſide of the head yellow, with a daſh of black between the bill and eye; the hind part of the neck, back, and rump, brown; the feathers duſky in the middle; the under parts, from the chin, are yellow; the breaſt inclining to brown, and a few duſky ſtreaks on the ſides of the body; acroſs the throat a yellow band; the tail is brown, edged with grey, and a ſpot of white on the inner web for half the length. The female is not unlike the male on the upper parts; the under are yellow, ſtreaked with duſky, inclining to white at the chin and vent; in ſome the breaſt inclines to green. Theſe birds inhabit the warmer parts of France and Italy, and frequent newly ploughed lands, feeding on grain, worms, and inſects; they are often found among flocks of chaffinches.

27. Emberiza cia, the fooliſh bunting: bill duſky; head aſh-colour, ſpotted with black; the reſt of the upper parts rufous grey, with a blackiſh ſpot down the ſhaft of each feather, inclining moſt to rufous on the rump; ſides of the head grey; over the eyes a white ſtreak; and through the eyes, from the bill, a black one; the under parts of the body rufous, but almoſt white on the throat; breaſt inclining to cinereous; quills duſky, edged with white; tail black; the two outer feathers beyond the middle white. The female has a cinereous line on the crown, varied on the ſides with ferruginous and black. This ſpecies frequents the warmer parts of Europe, and chiefly inhabits in the mountainous diſtricts, where it is ſolitary; it has gained the name of fooliſh ſparrow, from being ſo tame as to be caught by any ſnare. It is found in the ſouth of Siberia, from the river Jeneiſe to the lake Baikal, but neither in Ruſſia nor the weſt of Siberia.

28. Emberiza quelea, the black-faced bunting: ſize of the houſe ſparrow; bill ſtout and red; forehead, throat, and checks, black; the reſt of the head and upper parts rufous grey; the middle of the feathers on the back and upper parts duſky; the under parts pale rufous, inclining to white on the breaſt and belly; quills and tail blackiſh, with cinereous margins; legs fleſh-coloured. The female wants the black about the head, otherwiſe like the male. Native of Africa. There is a variety of this bird with the head, neck, and under parts, red, inclining to rufous; the upper parts brown and duſky mixed; the forehead, between the bill and eye, and round the throat, black. Inhabits Senegal.

29. Emberiza textrix, the weaver bunting: ſize of a chaffinch; bill horn-colour; the plumage above reddiſh brown; over each eye, and down the middle of the crown, a ſtreak of yellow; ſides of the head mottled yellow and black; rump and under parts yellow; down the middle of the breaſt a black ſtreak, broad, and a little divaricated on the ſides. In winter the yellow colour diſappears, and the bird is wholly of a browniſh colour, like a ſparrow. This bird, like the weaver oriole, has the diſpoſition to interweave ſilk between the wires of its cage.

30. Emberiza rubra, the crimſon bunting: bill duſky; head, breaſt, rump, upper tail-coverts, and thighs, crimſon; hind part of the neck and back blackiſh and olive mixed, with here and there a daſh of crimſon; wings blackiſh, with pale edges; quills and tail black, edged with greyiſh green; lower part of the breaſt, belly, and vent, aſh-colour; legs fleſh-colour. Inhabits the Iſle of France.

31. Emberiza

31. Emberiza familiaris, the familiar bunting: the bill is pointed, ſtrait, narrow, and black; head, neck, and breaſt, aſh-coloured, the upper parts of the body aſh-colour ſpotted with brown; under the wings, and towards the tail, yellow; tail tipped with white. This was met with at Java, by Mr. Oſbeck, and was exceedingly familiar; for if the cage door was opened, it would jump upon the firſt perſon's hand that was offered; if any one whiſtled to it, it would ſing very ſweetly in return; if it ſaw a diſh of water, it went immediately and bathed itſelf. It fed on rice.

32. Emberiza flaveola, the yellow-faced bunting: ſize of a hedge ſparrow: forehead and throat yellow; general colour grey. Native place uncertain; but Linnæus ſays that it inhabits warm countries.

33. Emberiza amazona, the amazon bunting: ſize of a titmouſe: general colour brown; crown of the head yellow; baſe of the wings beneath, and vent, whitiſh. Inhabits Surinam.

34. Emberiza olivacea, the olive bunting: about the ſize of a wren; bill grey brown; the head, and upper parts of the body, olive green; throat orange; between the bill and eye a ſpot of yellow ſtretching over the eyes; fore part of the neck, and upper part of the breaſt, black; the under parts olive grey; edge of the wings yellow; quills brown, edged with olive green; tail of this laſt colour; legs brown. In the female the colours are leſs brilliant. Inhabits St. Domingo.

35. Emberiza paſſerina, the paſſerine bunting: ſize of the reed bird: head ferruginous aſh-colour; ſome of the feathers on the crown black; behind the eye a pale ſtreak, and on each from the chin a white line; back grey brown; the middle of each feather black; the fore part of the neck black, with the margins of the feathers pale; the under parts cinereous white, blotched with pale ferruginous on the ſides; wings, for the moſt part, ferruginous, with yellowiſh margins; tail a little forked, and black; the two middle feathers margined with ferruginous; the two outer ones are obliquely black and white, divided longitudinally; legs brown. The female is like the male, but wants the black head and chin. Inhabits Ruſſia; and is ſeen in great plenty along the Jaick in autumn, migrating in pairs to the ſouthward: the fleſh is accounted excellent.

36. Emberiza ferruginea, the ferruginous bunting: head, neck, breaſt, and ſides, ferruginous; belly white; wings ferruginous, with two white marks on the prime quills; tail the ſame. Inhabits Ruſſia.

37. Emberiza Americana, the American bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill brown; the upper parts of the plumage cinereous, ſtreaked with brown on the back: over the eye a ſtreak of yellow; and another, paſſing under the eye; chin white; on the throat a large triangular ſpot of black; breaſt, and middle of the belly, yellow: ſides, over the thighs, ſtreaked with duſky; greater wing-coverts tawny; quills and tail duſky, with pale edges; legs brown. The female is like the male above; but has no black ſpot on the throat, nor ſtreaks above the eye. Inhabits America.

38. Emberiza Braſilienſis, the Braſilian bunting: ſize of a ſparrow: bill and eyes black; the crown, throat, neck, and under parts, yellow; back, ſcapulars, wings, and tail, varied with greeniſh, yellow, and brown; legs brown. The female has not the gaudy colours of the male, being plain, like a ſparrow. They are natives of Braſil, and the male has an agreeable note.

39. Emberiza Mexicana, the Mexican bunting: bill pale; head, as far as the crown, ſides of the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, yellow; the upper parts brown, tending upwards to the eye in a point; the under parts dull white, ſpotted with brown; quills and tail edged with pale brown. Native of Mexico.

40. Emberiza militaris, the military bunting: head and back yellowiſh brown; breaſt, and lower part of the back, yellow; ſhoulders greeniſh; belly white; quills and tail brown; the outer edges yellowiſh at the tips. Found in the iſland of Malta.

41. Emberiza melanocephala, the black-headed bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer: head black, extending to the middle of the neck; back rufous; throat, breaſt, belly, thighs, and rump, yellow; ſides of the breaſt inclined to rufous; quills brown, with whitiſh margins; tail plain brown, but paler than the quills.

42. Emberiza brumalis, the brumal bunting: forehead, and round the eyes, yellow; hind-head, neck, and ſides, cinereous; back yellowiſh brown; the under parts of the body and vent yellow; thighs whitiſh; quills brown, with yellow edges. This ſpecies is common about Tyrol, in Auſtria, where it is called *citrinello*; is frequently caught in November, and kept in a cage for its ſong.

43. Emberiza erythrophthalma, the towhe bunting: bill brown; irides red; head, throat, neck, back, wing-coverts, and rump, black; breaſt, belly, ſides, thighs, and under tail-coverts, dull red; middle of the belly white; quills and tail black, the firſt edged with white, the laſt a little forked; legs brown. The female is wholly brown, except on the breaſt, which has a ſlight tinge of red. This ſpecies inhabits Carolina, and frequents the moſt ſhady woods; viſits New York in the ſpring; has no ſong, but a kind of twittering note; and is a reſtleſs bird. It is called the American bulfinch.

44. Emberiza leucophrys, the white-crowned bunting: ſize of a chaffinch; bill fleſh-colour; on the crown a white ſtripe, which does not quite reach the bill; on each ſide of this is a ſtripe of black; over the eyes a line of white, which paſſes to the vertical ſtripe behind; neck cinereous, paleſt on the breaſt; back ferruginous brown; rump cinereous; wings brown; the outer edge of the prime quills very pale; the inſides cinereous; acroſs the wings two bands of white; the baſtard wing, and the under parts, are white; the breaſt aſh-colour; vent and thighs yellow; tail brown. The female is much like the male. This ſpecies inhabits Canada, and viſits Severn Settlement in June; it is alſo met with at Albany Fort in May; where it ſtays the ſummer, and departs in September. It makes its neſt in the bottom of willows, and lays three chocolate-coloured eggs; its chief food is ſeeds of graſs, worms, grubs, and other inſects.

45. Emberiza luctuoſa, the wreathed bunting: ſize of the titmouſe; bill black; a white line goes from the forehead to the nape, where it ends; in the middle of each wing is a white ſpot; the forehead, breaſt, belly, rump, and vent, are white; the reſt of the plumage is black.

46. Emberiza aureola, the yellow-breaſted bunting: bill tranſparent, except at the edge of the upper mandible, where it is blackiſh; forehead blackiſh, with a dark ſhade on the crown; hind head, nape, and between the wings, rufous; the feathers fringed with grey at the tips; back and rump hoary, and ſome of the ſhafts blotched with black; ſcapulars white; outer webs of the ſecond wing-coverts rufous; quills brown, with white edges; breaſt and belly yellow; acroſs the breaſt a ferruginous creſcent; under tail-coverts white; tail brown. The female has the crown blacker, and the margins of the feathers on the back more hoary; otherwiſe like the male. Inhabits the pine foreſts of Catharineſburgh. Alſo met with on the poplars and willows in the iſlands of the Irtiſh, and other rivers in Siberia and Kamtſchatka.

47. Emberiza Sandwichenſis, the Sandwich bunting: bill duſky; upper parts of the body brown; each feather daſhed down the ſhaft with darker brown; at the noſtrils ariſes a ſtreak of yellow, which paſſes over the eyes to the hind-head; and from the gape is a dark one, paſſing under the eye; ſides of the head, between the ſtreaks, duſky; the under parts of the body duſky white, daſhed with brown; the middle of the belly plain duſky white; quills brown, with paler edges; tail brown; legs duſky. This

was met with at Oonalaſhka, and Sandwich Sound, by our late voyagers.

48. Emberiza Oonalaſhka, the Oonalaſhka bunting: length ſeven inches; upper parts of the body and tail pale brown, with a rufous tinge; the under parts duſky white, daſhed with blackiſh, as in the laſt deſcribed: the middle of the belly plain duſky white. Brought from Oonalaſhka, with the preceding ſpecies.

49. Emberiza atricapilla, the black-crowned bunting: ſize of the preceding; bill ſhort and duſky; crown of the head a fine yellow; forehead, and through the eyes, black, paſſing to the hind head, which is aſh-coloured; the upper parts of the body are reddiſh brown, marked down the middle of each feather with dark brown; coverts and quills fringed on the edges with a paler colour; rump pale olive brown; chin duſky white; throat, breaſt, and belly, aſh-colour, marked down the middle of the laſt with pale yellowiſh buff-colour; tail even at the end, and of a plain brown; legs brown. Inhabits the Sandwich Iſlands.

50. Emberiza pithyornus, the pine bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill dull white; head faſciated; firſt a broadiſh hoary ſtreak down the middle, and on each ſide a black one meeting at the hind head; below this the nape is hoary; through the eyes a rufous ſtripe; below it, on the cheeks, a triangular ſpot of white, and on the temples one of black of the ſame figure; ſides of the neck, and throat, ferruginous; on the breaſt a large triangular ſpot; middle of the belly hoary; ſides rufous; vent whitiſh; back and rump rufous; the coverts, and ſecond quills, brown, edged with rufous; greater quills, and tail, blackiſh, with white margins. The female is wholly varied with grey and pale rufous; bottom of the belly duſky white; the reſt as in the male. Gmelin found this ſpecies at Aſtracan, and on the ſhores of the river Don, among the reeds. It is alſo met with in the pine foreſts of Siberia; and from the Uralian chain quite to the Lena; but it does not viſit Ruſſia, though ſometimes found in winter about the Caſpian ſea.

51. Emberiza cinerea, the cinereous bunting: bill pale brown; upper part of the head chefnut, with a daſh of brown down the middle of each feather; the reſt of the upper parts the ſame, but more inclined to grey; the rump wholly grey; upper and under tail-coverts rufous white; the under parts duſky white, marked with chefnut ſpots; quills, and tail, brown, edged with reddiſh grey; legs pale brown. The female is much more inclined to grey. Inhabits America, migrating from the north into New York in March, and reſts in flocks upon the lower branches of the red cedars.

52. Emberiza cœrulea, the blue bunting: ſmaller than the preceding; crown dull rufous; the upper parts of the neck, and body, mixed rufous and blue; beneath, the ſame, but the rufous colour pale; greater coverts, quills, and tail, brown, with the outer edges rufous; legs brown. Inhabits Canada.

53. Emberiza purpura, the mazarine bunting: bill deep lead-colour; the general plumage fine purple blue; the top of the head deepeſt; greater quills brown, edged with mazarine blue; tail brown, with a light tinge of blue; legs brown. The female differs from the male, being much like the linnet in colour. The male is like the female in moulting-time, and is only blue when in full plumage. It may alſo at that time be known from the female, as the edge of the wing is of a deep mazarine blue, whereas in the female it is greeniſh brown. This ſpecies inhabits Carolina, where it is called by ſome *the parſon*, by others *the biſhop*. It is chiefly found in the inner parts, an hundred and fifty miles from the ſea, and frequents the mountains. Is ſaid to ſing like our linnet. The Spaniards at Mexico call it, *azul lexos*, or far-fetched blue-bird. It is common at New York; comes the beginning of April, and frequents the orchards when in bloom; but principally feeds on millet.

54. Emberiza ciris, the painted bunting: ſize of a hedge-ſparrow; bill grey brown; irides hazel; head and neck violet; round the eyes red; upper part of the back, and ſcapulars, yellow green; the lower part, rump, and all beneath, red; the leſſer wing-coverts violet brown, with a tinge of red; the greater of a dull greeniſh colour; quills brown, with the edges green and red; the tail is brown; the two middle feathers inclined to red, and the others margined outwardly with the ſame; legs brown. The female is dull green above, and beneath yellow green; quills brown, fringed with green; the tail is brown and green mixed. This bird varies exceedingly: neither ſex arrives at the full plumage till the third year. In the firſt, both male and female are brown: the male has the blue head the ſecond year, but the reſt of the plumage is blue green; the wings and tail are brown, edged with blue green. The female, at that time, inclines greatly to blue. Beſides this, they moult twice in the year. Hence it is not wonderful that ſcarcely any two birds are quite alike. They inhabit the warmer parts of Canada, and all the parts between that and Mexico, Braſil, Guiana, &c. At Carolina none are ſeen near inhabited parts, nor nearer than an hundred and fifty miles from the ſea. They build on the orange and citron-trees, but are found there only in ſummer. They feed on millet, ſuccory, and other ſeeds; and frequently are kept in cages in England. The Dutch breed theſe birds in Holland, like canary-birds. One variety of this bird has the under parts yellowiſh, except a ſmall ſpot of red on the breaſt, which only laſts for a time. The following moult it diſappears, and, inſtead of it, the whole under ſide is whitiſh; and the male greatly reſembles the female. It is, perhaps, this variety which cauſed Linnæus to ſay that the female is blue all over, except the belly, which is white. The Spaniards call theſe birds by the name of *maripoſa*; the Engliſh, *nonpareil*.

55. Emberiza quadricolor, the four-coloured bunting: ſmaller than the preceding; bill duſky; head, and neck, blue; back, wings, and end of the tail, green; upper part of the tail, and its coverts, and the middle of the belly, red; the breaſt, and lower part of the belly, brown; legs fleſh-colour. Inhabits Java.

56. Emberiza cyanopis, the blue-faced bunting: leſs than a hedge-ſparrow; bill lead-colour; the plumage on the upper parts green; lower part of the back, and rump, rufous; upper tail-coverts red; the forehead, cheeks, and throat, fine blue, gradually changing into rufous towards the breaſt, which, with the belly, thighs, and ſides, are of this laſt colour; but the middle of the belly is red; the quills are brown, with green edges; the tail-feathers brown, except the two middle ones, which are green, and all of them fringed with red; legs grey. Native of Java.

57. Emberiza viridis, the green bunting: ſize of our greenfinch; bill greeniſh brown; upper parts of the bird green; the under, white; quills and tail blue, with white ſhafts; legs black. Inhabits the Eaſt Indies.

58. Emberiza Platenſis, the Plata bunting: length eight inches; bill cinereous, convex, and pointed; irides chefnut; the upper parts of the plumage greeniſh brown, verging to yellow, and marked with a few traces of black on the back; the edge of the wing bright yellow; quills, and outer tail-feathers, edged with the ſame; the under parts of the body cinereous white; legs lead-colour. Native of Buenos Ayres, on the river Plata in South America.

59. Emberiza Borboniæ, the Bourbon bunting: this is the ſize of a yellow-hammer; bill brown; the whole plumage of an high rufous red colour, except the wings and tail, which are duſky red; legs the ſame, but tinged with yellow. Inhabits the Iſle of Bourbon.

60. Emberiza calfat, the red-eyed bunting: bill, irides, and legs, roſe-colour; head black; all the upper parts of the body, wings, and tail, bluiſh aſh-colour; the laſt edged

edged with black; the throat black; breaſt and belly vinaceous; round the eyes naked, and of a roſe-colour; from the gape of the mouth to the hind-head a white ſtripe; the under tail-coverts, white. Native of the iſle of France, where it is called *gal-fat*, or *cal-fat*.

61. Emberiza chlorocephala, the green-headed bunting; bill brown; head and neck, as far as the breaſt, dull olive green; back, and wing-coverts, duſky brown, mixed with black, paleſt on the rump; the reſt of the wings, breaſt, and belly, deep brown; tail brown, forked; legs yelloviſh. That figured in Brown's collection, was caught in Mary-le-bone fields, near London, by a bird catcher.

62. Emberiza griſea, the grey bunting: ſize of a lark; head grey; the reſt of the body pale grey; but the upper wing-coverts and breaſt are mixed with reddiſh; the quills and tail are white within; without grey, mixed with red. Inhabits Surinam, in South America; feeds on maize; and is ſaid to ſing as fine as the nightingale. The natives call it *gonambucho*.

63. Emberiza Surinamenſis, the Surinam bunting: about the ſize of a lark, and like it in colour; bill rather large, with a knob on the upper mandible, and the ſides of the lower one are higher than uſual, and angular; the chin, breaſt, and belly, are of a whitiſh yellow, ſpotted with oblong black ſpots on the breaſt. Native of Surinam.

64. Emberiza Maelbyenſis, the Maelby bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; bill and legs pale rufous; eyelids, ſpot between the bill and eye, the chin, upper part of the throat, and ſides of the neck and vent, duſky white; forehead, crown, lower part of the neck before, and upper part of the breaſt, bluiſh aſh-colour; lower part of the breaſt, belly, and thighs, ferruginous; back ferruginous, marked with acute black ſpots; wing-coverts black, edged with ferruginous; quills duſky, with pale ferruginous margins; tail-feathers, ten in number, black; the four outer ones, half way from the tips, white; the outer margins black. This was found in Sweden, at Maelby, a ſeat of count Carlſon, in Sodermanland.

65. Emberiza Aſiatica, the Aſiatic or Gaur bunting: a ſmall ſpecies; length four inches and a half; bill pale roſe-colour; head, neck, back, breaſt, and belly, cinereous, paleſt beneath; wings and tail brown, with paler edges; legs pale blue. Native of the Eaſt Indies, where it is called *gaur*, and was brought into England by lady Impey.

66. Emberiza puſilla, the dwarf bunting: above grey ferruginous, beneath whitiſh; throat ſpotted; head with alternate longitudinal teſtaceous and black bands. Inhabits the ſnowy mountains of Dauria, and is very ſmall.

67. Emberiza ruſtica, the ruſtic bunting: head black, with three longitudinal white bands; chin, body beneath, and two outmoſt tail-feathers each ſide, obliquely white; neck and ſhoulders ferruginous; back grey ferruginous; throat with teſtaceous ſpecks. Inhabits the woods of Dauria; ſize of the reed-bird.

68. Emberiza fucata, the ſtained bunting: general plumage grey ferruginous; ears with a round rufous ſpot; eyebrows, line beneath the eyes, and throat, white; chin ſurrounded with a brown ſpotted circle; crown, and part of the neck, hoary aſh; the ſhafts of the feathers brown. Inhabits the rocky parts of Siberia.

69. Emberiza ſpodocephala, the hoary bunting: the general caſt of the plumage is hoary; beneath pale ſtraw-colour; frontlet black; head and neck hoary aſh. Inhabits near the water-falls of Dauria; and is a ſmall ſpecies.

70. Emberiza chryſophrys, the golden-browed bunting: ſize of the yellow-hammer; general colour ferruginous; crown black; eyebrows citron, or gold-colour; from the middle of the crown to the nape a white band. Inhabits the Daurian Alps with the preceding.

71. Emberiza rutila, the flame-coloured bunting: ſize of the chaffinch; principal caſt of the plumage is blood-coloured rufous; beneath ſulphur; wings grey-ruſty. Inhabits Siberia.

72. Emberiza coccinea, the ſcarlet bunting: body above ſilvery, beneath crimſon; vent white; bill, head, and quill-feathers, black; hind-head and tail black-blue; ſize of a ſparrow. Inhabits the woods round Baden.

73. Emberiza Badenſis, the Baden bunting: general colour of the plumage olive, ſtreaked with blackiſh, beneath paler; chin orange; breaſt ſtreaked with blackiſh; bill above black, beneath yelloviſh; upper mandible with a ſingle obtuſe tooth in the middle; noſtrils feathered; tongue ſhort; quill-feathers ſixteen; tail-feathers twelve; legs yelloviſh; claws black. Native of Baden.

74. Emberiza ruficapilla, the brown-headed bunting: ſize of a hedge-ſparrow; top of the head, neck, and back, a lively brown; beneath cinereous; chin ferruginous; frontlet white, above reddiſh brown; tail black.

EM'BERS, *ſ.* [without a ſingular; æmyrna, Sax. aſhes; *einmyria*, Iſland. hot aſhes or cinders.] Hot cinders; aſhes not yet extinguiſhed:

He ſaid, and roſe, as holy zeal inſpires:
He rakes hot *embers*, and renews the fires. *Dryden.*

To EMBEZ'ZLE, *v. a.* [This word ſeems corrupted by an ignorant pronunciation from *imbecil.*] To appropriate by breach of truſt; to turn what is entruſted in his hands to his own uſe.—He had *embezzled* the king's treaſure, and extorted money by way of loan from all men. *Hayward.*—To waſte; to ſwallow up in riot:

When thou haſt *embezzl'd* all thy ſtore,
Where's all thy father left? *Dryden.*

EMBEZ'ZLEMENT, *ſ.* The act of appropriating to himſelf that which is received in truſt for another. The thing appropriated.

To EMBLA'ZE, *v. a.* [*blaſonner*, Fr.] To adorn with glittering embelliſhments:

Th' unfought diamonds
Would ſo *emblaze* the forehead of the deep,
And ſo beſtud with ſtars, that they below
Would grow inur'd to light. *Milton.*

To blazon; to paint with enſigns armorial:

He from the glittering ſtaff unfurl'd
Th' imperial enſign, ſtreaming to the wind,
With gems and golden luſtre rich *emblaz'd*,
Seraphic arms and trophies. *Milton.*

To EMBLA'ZON, *v. a.* [*blaſonner*, Fr.] To adorn with figures of heraldry; to grace with enſigns armorial. To deck in glaring colours; to ſet out pompouſly to ſhew.—We find Auguſtus, for ſome petty conqueſt, *emblazoned* by the poets to the higheſt pitch. *Hakewell.*

EMBLA'ZONRY, *ſ.* Pictures upon ſhields;

Him round
A globe of fiery ſeraphim inclos'd,
With bright *emblazonry* and horrent arms. *Milton.*

EM'BLEM, *ſ.* [*embleme*, Fr. *emblema*, Lat. εμβλημα, of εμβαλλω, G.] Inlay; enamel; any thing inſerted into the body of another. An occult repreſentation; an alluſive picture; a typical deſignation; hieroglyphic writing.—If you draw your beaſt in an *emblem*, ſhew a landſcape of the country natural to the beaſt. *Peacham.*

Gentle Thames,
Thy mighty maſter's *emblem*, in whoſe face
State meekneſs, heighten'd with majeſtic grace. *Denham.*

"Emblems (ſays Dr. Bryant) ſeem, in the firſt ages of the world, to have been ſimilar in moſt countries, and to have almoſt univerſally prevailed. The ſacred writers often alude to them; and they were retained even in the church of God. The ſymbols thus admitted were originally deviſed, to put people in mind of what had paſſed in the infancy of the world. The whole was deſigned as a diſplay of God's wiſdom and goodneſs: and to tranſmit to poſterity memorials of the preſervation of mankind.

Theſe ſymbols in ancient times were inſtead of writing; harmleſs, if not abuſed: and of great conſequence when directed to a proper purpoſe. Such were the Serpent, the Ark, the Iris, the Dove; together with many others, to which there are apparent alluſions in Scripture. Theſe were known to the Iſraelites before their deſcent into Egypt: being originally from that country beyond the flood, where their fathers of old reſided; and, when properly applied, they were as innocent as the elementary characters, by which the ſame hiſtories were in aftertimes recorded. The lifting up of the Serpent in the wilderneſs was an emblem of a prophetic deſignation, and as pertinent to the people, to whom it was exhibited, as the purport would have been, if expreſſed by letters, and written at length upon a tablet. It is true, that theſe ſymbols were at laſt perverted; and the memorials above-mentioned degenerated into idolatrous rites and worſhip. See the article EGYPT, p. 372 of this volume. It was accordingly the purpoſe of Providence, in its diſpenſation to the Iſraelites, to withdraw them from this idolatry of the Gentiles: and this was effected, not by denying them the uſe of thoſe characters, which were the current types of the world, and to which they had been conſtantly uſed, but by adapting the ſame to a better purpoſe, and defeating the evil by a contrary deſtination. Upon the reſting of the Ark upon Mount Baris, and the appearance of the Bow in the clouds, it pleaſed God to make a covenant with man, and to afford him ſome gracious promiſes. A memorial of this was preſerved in the Gentile world. They repreſented this under the type of an Ark; which they ſtiled *Barith*, in alluſion to the covenant. Some ages after, another covenant of a more peculiar nature was made by the Deity with the poſterity of Abraham: and a law was promulgated from mount Sinai. In conſequence of this, another Ark by divine appointment was framed, ſeemingly in oppoſition to the former; and this too was called the Ark of the covenant. This I mention, becauſe many perſons have been alarmed at finding ſometimes the ſame ſymbols among the Egyptians as were to be found in the ordinances of the Iſraelites. Both Spencer and Marſham have animadverted upon this: and ſeem to have carried their notions too far; for from them one might be induced to imagine, that the Law of Moſes was, in a manner, founded upon the rites of Egypt. But there is not the leaſt reaſon for ſuch a ſurmiſe. The religion of the two nations was eſſentially different: and, though ſome ſymbols were ſimilar, yet it does not follow, that they were borrowed from that quarter. They were many of them general types, of great antiquity, and known to the whole world."

To EM'BLEM, *v. a.* To repreſent in an occult or illuſive manner. *Not uſed.*—The primitive ſight of elements doth fitly *emblem* that of opinions. *Glanville.*

EMBLEMA'TIC, or EMBLEMA'TICAL, *adj.* Compriſing an emblem; alluſive; occultly repreſentative;

In the well-fram'd models,
With *emblematic* ſkill and myſtic order,
Thou ſhew'dſt where tow'rs on battlements ſhould riſe,
Where gates ſhould open, or where walls ſhould compaſs.
Prior.

Dealing in emblems; uſing emblems:

By tongue and pudding to our friends explain
What does your *emblematic* worſhip mean. *Prior.*

EMBLEMA'TICALLY, *adv.* In the manner of emblems; alluſively; with occult repreſentation.—Others have ſpoken *emblematically* and hieroglyphically, as to the Egyptians; and the phœnix was the hieroglyphic of the ſun. *Brown.*—He took a great ſtone, and put it up under the oak, *emblematically* joining the two great elements of maſonry. *Swift.*

EMBLEM'ATIST, *ſ.* Writers or inventers of emblems.—Theſe fables are ſtill maintained by ſymbolical writers, *emblematiſts*, and heralds. *Brown.*

EM'BLEMENTS, *ſ.* [from *emblavence de bled*, Fr. corn ſprung or put up above ground.] In law, the profits of ſown land: but the word is ſometimes uſed more largely, for any products that ariſe naturally from the ground, as graſs, fruit, &c. In ſome caſes, he who ſowed the corn ſhall have the emblements; and in others not: a leſſee at will ſows the land, he ſhall have the emblements; though if the leſſee determines the will himſelf, he ſhall not have them, but the leſſor. 5 *Rep.* 116. If leſſee at will ſows the land with grain, or other thing yielding annual profit, and the leſſor enters before ſeverance; yet the leſſee ſhall have it: but where the leſſee plants young fruit-trees, or other trees, or ſows the land with acorns, &c. he ſhall not have theſe: and if ſuch tenant by good huſbandry make the graſs to grow in greater abundance; or ſow the land with hay-ſeed, by which means it is increaſed, if the leſſor enters on the leſſee, the leſſee ſhall not have it, becauſe graſs is the natural profit of the ſoil. *Co. Lit.* 55.

Where tenant for life ſows the land, and dies, his executors ſhall have the emblements, and not the leſſor or him in reverſion; by reaſon of the uncertainty of the eſtate. *Cro. Eliz.* 463. And if a tenant for life plant hops, and dies before ſeverance, he in reverſion ſhall not have them, but the executors of tenant for life. *Cro. Car.* 515. If tenant for years ſow the ground, and die before ſeverance, the executor of the leſſee ſhall have the corn; and where leſſee for life leaſes for years, if the leſſee for years ſow the land, and after leſſee for life dies before ſeverance, the executor of leſſee for years ſhall have the emblements. 2 *Danv. Abr.* 765. So it is alſo if a man be tenant for the life of another; and *ceſtui que vie*, (he on whoſe life the land is held) dies after the corn ſown, the tenant *pur auter vie* ſhall have the emblements. The ſame is alſo the rule if a life-eſtate be determined by the act of law. Therefore, if a leaſe be made to huſband and wife during coverture, (which gives them a determinable eſtate for life,) and the huſband ſows the land, and afterwards they are divorced *à vinculo matrimonii*, the huſband ſhall in this caſe have the emblements; for the ſentence of divorce is the act of the law. 5 *Rep.* 116. But, if an eſtate for life be determined by the tenant's own act, (as by forfeiture for waſte committed; or if a tenant during widowhood, thinks proper to marry;) in theſe and ſimilar caſes, as in that of a tenant at will determining his own tenure, the tenants ſhall not be entitled to take the emblements. 1 *Inſt.* 55.

If tenant for years ſows ground, and before his corn is ſevered, the term which is certain expires; the leſſor or he in reverſion ſhall have the emblements; but he muſt firſt enter on the lands. 1 *Lil. Abr.* 511. A leſſee for life or years ſows the land, and after ſurrenders, &c. before ſeverance, the leſſor ſhall have the corn. 2 *Danv.* 764. If there be leſſee for years upon condition that, if he commit waſte, &c. his eſtate ſhall ceaſe; if he ſows the ground with corn, and after doth waſte, the leſſor ſhall have the corn. *Co. Lit.* 55. And where a lord enters on his tenant for a forfeiture, he ſhall have the corn on the ground. 4 *Rep.* 21.

Though if a feme copyholder for her widowhood ſows the land, and before ſeverance takes huſband, ſo that her eſtate is determined, the lord ſhall have the emblements; yet if ſuch a feme copyholder *durante viduitate*, leaſes for one year according to cuſtom, and the leſſee ſows the land, and afterwards the copyholder takes huſband, the leſſee ſhall have the corn. 2 *Danv.* 764. If a huſband holds lands for life, in right of his wife, and ſow the land, and after ſhe dies before ſeverance, he ſhall have the emblements. 1 *Nelſ. Abr.* 701. And where the wife hath an eſtate for years, life, or in fee, and the huſband ſows the land, and dieth, his executors ſhall have the corn. But if the huſband and wife are joint-tenants, though the huſband ſow the land with corn, and dies before ripe, the wife, and not his executors, ſhall have the corn, ſhe being the ſurviving joint-tenant. *Co. Lit.* 199. When a widow is endowed with lands ſown, ſhe ſhall have the emblements, and not the heir. And a tenant in dower may diſpoſe of corn ſown on the ground; or it may go to her executors, if ſhe die before ſeverance. 2 *Inſt.* 80. 81. And by the particular

provisions of 28 Hen. VIII. c. 11, if a parson sows his glebe, and dies, his executors shall have the corn: and such parson may by will dispose thereof. 1 *Rol. Abr.* 655.

If tenant by statute-merchant sows the land, and before severance a casual profit happens, by which he is satisfied, yet he shall have the corn. *Co. Lit.* 55. Lands sown are delivered in execution upon an extent, the person to whom delivered shall have the corn on the ground. 2 *Leon.* 54. And judgment was given against a person, and then he sowed the land, and brought a writ of error to reverse the judgment, but it was affirmed; and adjudged that the recoveror shall have the corn. 2 *Bulst.* 213. If a disseisor sows the land, and afterwards cuts the corn, but before it is carried away, the disseisee enters; the disseisee shall have the corn. *Dyer*, 31. 11 *Rep.* 52. A person seised in fee of land dies, having a daughter, and his wife *privement enseint* with a son; the daughter enters and sows the land, and before severance of the corn, the son is born; in this case the daughter shall have the corn, her estate being lawful, and defeated by the act of God; and it is for the public good that the land should be sown. *Co. Lit.* 55.

A man seised in fee-simple sows land, and then devises the land by will, and dies before severance; the devisee shall have the corn, and not the devisor's executors. *Cro. Eliz.* 61. If a person devises his lands sown, and says nothing of the corn, the corn shall go with the land to the devisee: and when a man seised of land, in fee or in tail, sows it, and dies without will, it goes to the executor, and not the heir. 10 *Edw.* IV. 1 *b.* 21 *Hen.* VI. 30 *a.* 37 *Hen.* VI. 35 *b.* A devisee for life dies, he in remainder shall have the emblements with the land. *Hob.* 132. Tenant in fee sows the land, and devises it to A. for life, remainder to B. for life, and dies; A. dies before severance, B. in remainer shall have the corn, and not the executor of the first tenant for life. *Cro. Elix.* 61. Where there is a right to emblements, ingress, egress, and regress, are allowed by law, to enter, cut, and carry them away, when the estate is determined. 1 *Inst.* 56.

EM'BLERS DE GENTZ, [Fr.] A stealing from the people: The word occurs in our old rolls of Parliament. Whereas divers murders, *emblers de gentz*, and robberies, are committed, &c. *Rot. Parl.* 21 *Edw.* III. *n* .62.

EM'BLICA, *s.* in botany. See PHYLLANTHUS.

EM'BLICHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and county of Bentheim: ten miles north-north-west of Nienhus.

EM'BOLI, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Romania: a colony from Athens. It is called by the Christians *Christopolis*, but is little better than a heap of ruins: forty eight miles east of Saloniki.

EM'BOLISM, *s.* [εμβολισμος, Gr.] Intercalation; insertion of days or years to produce regularity and equation of time. As the Greeks used the lunar year, which contains only 354 days, that they might bring it to the solar year of 365 days, they had an *emboliſm* every two or three years, when they added a thirteenth lunar month.

EMBOLIS'MIC, *adj.* belonging to the intercalary; is chiefly used in speaking of the additional months inserted by chronologists to form the lunar cycle of 19 years. The 19 solar years consisting of 6939 days and 18 hours, and the 19 lunar years only making 6726 days, it was found necessary to intercalate or insert 7 lunar months, containing 209 days; which, with the four bissextile days happening in the lunar cycle, make 213 days, and the whole 6939 days, the same as the 19 solar years, which make the lunar cycle. In the course of nineteen years there are 228 common moons, and 7 emboliſmic moons, which are distributed in this manner, viz. the 3d, 6th, 9th, 11th, 14th, 17th, and 19th, years, are emboliſmic, and so contain 384 days each. And this was the method of computing time among the Greeks: though they did not keep regularly to it, the Jews did. The method of the Greeks was followed by the Romans till the time of Julius Cæsar. The emboliſmic months, like other lunar months, are sometimes of 30 days, and sometimes only 29 days. The emboliſmic epacts are those between 19 and 29; which are so called, because, with the addition of the epact 11, they exceed the number 30; or rather, because the years which have these epacts, are emboliſmic; having 13 moons each, the 13th being the emboliſmic.

EM'BOLUM, *s.* [from εμβαλλω, Gr. to cast out.] With anatomists, a term for the penis, because it ejects the semen.

EM'BOLUS, *s.* [εμβολος, Gr.] Any thing inserted and acting in another, as the sucker in a pump.—Our members make a sort of an hydraulic engine, in which a chemical liquor resembling blood is driven through elastic channels by an *embolus*, like the heart. *Arbuthnot.*

To EMBO'SS, *v. a.* [from *bosse*, Fr. a protuberance.] To form with protuberances; to cover with something rising into lumps or bunches:

Timon hath made his everlasting mansion
Upon the beached verge of the salt flood;
Which once a-day, with his *embossed* froth
The turbulent surge shall cover. *Shakespeare.*

To engrave with relief, or rising work, as the gilt paper covering children's books; which is called *embossed paper*.

Then o'er the lofty gate his art *emboss'd*
Androgeo's death, and off'rings to his ghost. *Dryden.*

[From *emboiſter*, Fr. to inclose in a box.] To inclose; to include; to cover:

The knight his thrillant spear again assay'd
In his brass-plated body to *emboss*. *Spenser.*

And in the way, as she did weep and wail,
A knight her met, in mighty arms *emboss'd*. *Fairy Queen.*

[*Emboscare*, Ital.] To inclose in a thicket:

Like that self-begotten bird
In th' Arabian woods *embost*. *Milton.*

To hunt hard.—When a deer is hard run, and foams at the mouth, he is said to be *embost*: a dog also, when he is strained with hard running, especially upon hard ground, will have his knees swelled, and then he is said to be *embost*, from *bosse*, French, a tumour. *Hanmer.*

Oh, he is more mad
Than Telamon for his shield; the boar of Thessaly
Was never so *embost*. *Shakespeare.*

EMBOSS'MENT, *s.* Any thing standing out from the rest; jut; eminence. Relief; rising work.—They are at a loss about the word pendentis; some fancy it expresses only the great *embossment* of the figure, others believe it hung off the helmet in alto relievo. *Addison.*

EMBOTH'RIUM, *s.* [so named by Forster, from εν and βοθριον, Gr. a little pit or hollow; the antheræ being placed in a hollow of the petal.] In botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order proteæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: none. Corolla: petals four, linear, oblique; with the tip broader, roundish, concave, staminiferous; after fecundation revolute. Stamina: filaments four, very short, on each petal one or none; antheræ oblong, within the cavity of the petal, largish. Pistillum: germ linear, ascending, inflex; style none; stigma roundish, plane in front, behind concave, large. Pericarpium: follicle round, one-celled. Seeds: four or five ovate, compressed, with a winged membrane on one edge.—*Essential Character.* Corolla, four-petalled; antheræ sessile, sitting on the tips of the petals; follicle round.

Species. 1. Embothrium umbellatum: umbels axillary, very simple, peduncled; leaves oblong, veinless; antheræ sessile. A handsome shrub; flowers small and red, in solitary umbels. Native of New Caledonia.

2. Embothrium coccineum, or scarlet embothrium: thyrses terminating, sessile; antheræ pedicelled; leaves obovate, veined, oblong-ovate, ending in a cusp. The whole plant is smooth; stem shrubby; leaves scattered, having one nerve branching on both sides, on short petioles, dilated at the base, and reddish; buds red, with lanceolate,

ceolate, reflex ſcales; flowers in ſpikes, terminating; corolla ſcarlet, tubular-incurved, with an anther lying in the broad end of each of the four petals; ſeeds in the folliele imbricate, with a ſharp wing. Found in Terra del Fuego by Forſter, and in the Straits of Magellan by Commerſon, who named it *ixora*. Its common name is *catas*. Several other ſpecies have been obſerved in Peru and Chili.

3. Embothrium ſpecioſiſſimum, or beautiful embothrium. This is a magnificent ſhrub; a native of New Holland: it grows to the height of eight or ten feet, with ſeveral ſimple, wand-like, round, branches, clothed with numerous large, alternate, bright-green, leaves, from four to ſix inches long; obovate and blunt, but tipped with a ſmall point: they are more or leſs ſerrated on the ſides. The flowers grow in a very denſe ſimple head on the top of each branch, and the head is ſurrounded at the baſe with numerous lanceolate leaves, or rather bractes, conſtituting the involucre: theſe, as well as the flowers themſelves, are of a rich ſanguine red.

4. Embothrium ſilaifolium, or ſmallage-leaved embothrium. Native of New Holland. The ſtems, which are ſeveral, grow three or four feet high or more, and are upright, and alternately branched, and have alternate leaves, which in ſhape much reſemble thoſe of the Peucedanum ſilaus; the upper and lower leaves are, however, more ſimple: the flowers ſtand in a long looſe terminal ſpike, and are white, with the tips of the petals revolute.

To EMBOT'TLE, *v. a.* [*bouteille*, Fr.] To inelude in bottles; to bottle:

Stirom, firmeſt fruit
Embottled, long as Priamean Troy
Withſtood the Greeks, endures. *Philips.*

EMBOUL', a town of Africa, in the country of Senegal.

To EMBOW'EL, *v. a.* To put into bowels, as into the bowels of the earth. Dr. Johnſon has erroneouſly defined this word, "to eviſcerate; to deprive of the entrails; to exenterate." Mr. Burke in one inſtance has uſed the word in that manner. He writes thus in his Reflections:—"In England we have nôt yet been completely *embowelled* of our natural entrails." He was probably miſled by the earleſſneſs of Dr. Johnſon. See Disbowel.—*Spenſer* underſtood and uſed the word aright:

He, with his dreadful inſtrument of ire,
Thought ſure have pounded him to powder ſoft,
Or deep *embowell'd* in the earth entire.

Where the meaning is "put into the bowels of the earth."—In like manner the word is uſed by *Shakeſpeare*:

Imbowell'd will I ſee thee by and by;
Till then in blood by noble Percy lie. *Henry* IV.

Where the meaning is put into the bowels of the earth, or buried; and certainly not, as Johnſon ſuppoſes, exenterated. Of ſuch brutality prince Henry was incapable.—In like manner the word is uſed by *Milton*:

The roar
Embowell'd with outrageous noiſe the air,
And all her entrails tore.

Where the noiſe is metaphorically deſcribed as introdueing itſelf into the bowels of the air, and tearing them.—The paſſage from Philips is quaint and unclear: he talks of Minerals that the *embowell'd* earth diſplays; meaning, apparently, "minerals which within its bowels the earth diſplays." The other paſſage from *Shakeſpeare* I know not where to ſeek: if it occurred in Richard II. or Henry VIII. and related to the Lollards, or the Proteſtants, one might with propriety ſay,

The ſchools,
Embowell'd of their doctrine, have left off
The wholeſome lore.

Meaning the ſchools, or univerſities, "which have received into their bowels the new doctrines." And thus every one of Dr. Johnſon's caſes would be a precedent againſt his definition. *Monthly Mag.*

To EMBOW'ER, *v. n.* To bower:

But the ſmall birds, in their wide boughs *embowering*,
Chaunted their ſundry tunes with ſweet concert. *Spenſer.*

To EMBRA'CE, *v. a.* [*embraſſer*, Fr.] To hold fondly in the arms; to ſqueeze in kindneſs:

Embrace again, my ſons! be foes no more;
Nor ſtain your country with her children's gore. *Dryden.*

To ſeize ardently or eagerly; to lay hold on; to welcome; to accept willingly any thing offered.—They who are repreſented by the wiſe virgins, *embraced* the profeſſion of the Chriſtian religion. *Tillotſon.*

I take it, your own buſineſs calls on you,
And you *embrace* th' occaſion to depart. *Shakeſpeare.*

To comprehend; to take in: as, *Natural philoſophy* embraces *many ſciences*. To compriſe; to incloſe; to contain; to encompaſs; to encircle:

Low at his feet a ſpacious plain is plac'd,
Between the mountain and the ſtream *embrac'd*. *Denham.*

To admit; to receive.—If a man can be aſſured of any thing, without having examined, what is there that he may not *embrace* for truth? *Locke.*—To find; to take:

Fleance, his ſon,
Whoſe abſence is no leſs material to me
Than is his father's, muſt *embrace* the fate
Of that dark hour. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſqueeze in a hoſtile manner. To tie; to faſten:

——They ſeiz'd at laſt
His courſer's bridle, and his feet *embrac'd* *Dryden.*

[From *imbracciare*, Ital.] To put on:

Who ſeeing him from far ſo fierce to prieke,
His warlike armes about him gan *embrace*. *Spenſer.*

To EMBRA'CE, *v. n.* To join in an embrace:

Let me *embrace* with old Vincentio;
And wander we to ſee thy honeſt ſon,
Who will of thy arrival be full joyous. *Shakeſpeare.*

EMBRA'CE, *ſ.* Claſp; fond preſſure in the arms; hug. An hoſtile ſqueeze; cruſh:

Thames, the moſt lov'd of all the ocean's ſons
By his old ſire, to his *embraces* runs. *Denham.*

EMBRA'CEMENT, *ſ.* Claſp in the arms; hug; embrace.—There cheriſhing one another with dear, though chaſte *embracements*, with ſweet, though cold kiſſes, it might ſeem that love was come to play him there without darts. *Sidney.*

Thus death becomes a rival to us all,
And hopes with foul *embracements* her to get,
In whoſe decay virtue's fair ſhrine muſt fall. *Sidney.*

Hoſtile hug; grapple.—Theſe beaſts, fighting with any man, ſtand upon their hinder feet, and ſo this did, being ready to give me a ſhrewd *embracement*. *Sidney.*—Comprehenſion.—Nor can her wide *embracements* filled be. *Davies.*—State of being contained; incloſure.—The parts in man's body eaſily reparable, as ſpirits, blood, and fleſh, die in the *embracements* of the parts hardly reparable, as bones, nerves, and membranes. *Bacon.*—Conjugal endearment.—I would freelier rejoice in that abſence, wherein he won honour, than in the *embracements* of his bed, where he would ſhew moſt love. *Shakeſpeare.*—Willing acceptance.—Both of them being God's inſtruments for the converſion of the Northumbrians to the *embracement* of Chriſtian religion. *Weever.*

EMBRA'CEOR, *ſ.* [*embraſour*, Fr.] In law, he that, when a matter is in trial between party and party, comes to the bar with one of the parties, having received ſome reward ſo to do, and ſpeaks in the caſe; or privately la-

bours the jury, or ſtands in the court to ſurvey and overlook them, whereby they are awed or influenced, or put in fear or doubt of the matter. 19 *Hen.* VII. c. 13. But lawyers, attorneys, &c. may ſpeak in the caſe for their clients, and not be embraccors: alſo the plaintiff may labour the jurors to appear in his own cauſe; but a ſtranger muſt not do it: for the bare writing a letter to a perſon, or parol requeſt for a juror to appear, not by the party himſelf, hath been held within the ſtatutes againſt embracery and maintenance. *Co. Lit.* 369. *Hob.* 294. If the party himſelf inſtruct a juror, or promiſe any reward for his appearance, then the party is likewiſe an embraceor. And a juror may be guilty of embracery, where he by indirect practices gets himſelf ſworn on the tales, to ſerve on one ſide. 1 *Lil.* 513. There are divers ſtatutes relating to this offence and maintenance. See the article MAINTENANCE.

EMBRA'CER, *ſ.* The perſon embracing.—Yet are they the greateſt *embracers* of pleaſure of any other upon earth; and they eſteem of pearls as pebbles, ſo they may ſatisfy their guſt, in point of pleaſure or revenge. *Howel.*

EMBRA'CERY, *ſ.* in law, an attempt to influence a jury corruptly to one ſide, by promiſes, perſuaſions, entreaties, money, entertainments, and the like. The puniſhment for the perſon embracing, (the embraceor,) is by fine and impriſonment; and for the juror ſo embraced, if it be by taking money, the puniſhment is (by various ſtats. of Edw. III. viz. 5 Edw. III. c. 10. 34 Edw. III. c. 8. 38 Edw. III. c. 12.) perpetual infamy, impriſonment for a year, and forfeiture of ten-fold value. 1 *Hawk. P. C.* c. 85.

EMBRA'SURE, *ſ.* [Fr.] In architecture, an enlargement of the aperture or opening of a door, or window, within ſide the wall, ſloping back inwards, to give the greater play for the opening of the door, caſement, &c. or to take in more light. In fortification, the apertures or holes through which the cannon are pointed, whether in caſemates, batteries, or in the parapets of walls. In the navy, they are called port-holes. The embraſures are placed twelve or fifteen feet apart from each other; being made ſloping or opening outwards, from ſix to nine feet wide on the outſide of the wall, and from two to three within, to allow the gun to traverſe from ſide to ſide. Their baſe is about two and a half or three feet above the platform on the inſide of the wall, but ſloping down outwards, ſo as to be only about one and a half above it on the outſide; in order that the muzzle on occaſion may be depreſſed, that the gun may ſhoot low, or downwards.—This fort, which is faced with ſtone, has eighteen or twenty *embraſures. Carteret's Voyage in Hawkeſworth.*—[In *Shakeſpeare.*] Embrace:

Beguiles our lips
Of all rejoindure, forcibly prevents
Our lock'd *embraſures.* *Troilus and Creſſida.*

To EMBRA'VE, *v. a.* [from *brave.*] To decorate; to embelliſh; to deck; to grace; to adorn. *Not in uſe:*

So, both agree their bodies to engrave;
The great earth's womb they open to the ſky,
And, with ſad cypreſs, ſeemly it *embrave.* *Spenſer.*

EMBREW'ED, *adj.* in heraldry, dipt in blood.

EMBRHU'HREN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and biſhopric of Munſter: ten miles north-north-weſt of Rheine.

To EM'BROCATE, *v. a.* [ἐμβρέχω, Gr.] To rub any part diſeaſed with medicinal liquors.—I returned her a glaſs with oil of roſes and vinegar, to *embrocate* her arm. *Wiſeman.*

EMBROCA'TION, *ſ.* The act of rubbing any part diſeaſed with medicinal liquors or ſpirits. The lotion with which any diſeaſed part is waſhed or embrocated.—We endeavoured to eaſe by diſcutient and emollient cataplaſms, and *embrocations* of various ſorts. *Wiſeman.*

To EMBROI'DER, *v. a.* [*broder*, Fr.] To border with ornaments; to decorate with figured work; to diverſify with needlework; to adorn a ground with raiſed figures of needlework.—Such an accumulation of favours is like a kind of *embroidering*, or lifting of one favour upon another:

Embroider'd purple clothes the golden beds;
This ſlave the floor, and that the table ſpreads. *Pope.*

EMBROI'DERER, *ſ.* One that adorns clothes with needlework.—Blue ſilk and purple, the work of the *embroiderer. Eccleſ.*

EMBROI'DERY, *ſ.* Figures raiſed upon a ground; variegated needlework.—Laces and *embroideries* are more coſtly than either warm or comely. *Bacon.*

Next theſe a youthful train their vows expreſs'd,
With feathers crown'd, with gay *embroidery* dreſs'd. *Pope.*

Variegation; diverſity of colours.—If the natural *embroidery* of the meadows were helpt and improved by art, a man might make a pretty landſcape of his own poſſeſſions. *Spectator.*

By 22 Geo. II. c. 36. no foreign embroidery, or gold and ſilver brocade, ſhall be imported, upon pain of being forfeited and burnt, and penalty of 100l. for each piece. No perſon ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any foreign embroidery, gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, brocade, or make up the ſame into any garment, on pain of having it forfeited and burnt, and penalty of 100l. All ſuch embroidery, &c. may be ſeized and burnt; and the mercer, &c. in whoſe cuſtody it was found, ſhall forfeit 100l.

To EMBROIL', *v. a.* [*brouiller*, Fr.] To diſturb; to confuſe; to diſtract; to throw into commotion; to involve in troubles by diſſention and diſcord:

Rumour next, and chance,
And tumult and confuſion, all *embroil'd*,
And diſcord with a thouſand various mouths. *Milton.*

To perplex; to entangle.—The Chriſtian antiquities at Rome, though of a freſher date, are ſo *embroiled* with fable and legend, that one receives but little ſatisfaction. *Addiſon.*—In the following paſſage the word ſeems improperly uſed for *broil* or *burn.*—That knowledge, for which we boldly attempt to rifle God's cabinet, ſhould, like the coal from the altar, ſerve only to *embroil* and conſume the ſacrilegious invaders. *Decay of Piety.*

To EMBRO'THEL, *v. a.* [*brothel, brodel.*] To incloſe in a brothel:

Men, which chooſe
Law practice for mere gain, boldly repute,
Worſe than *embrothel'd* ſtrumpets proſtitute. *Donne.*

EM'BRUN, a city of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Higher Alps, on the Durance; before the revolution, the ſee of an archbiſhop, containing five pariſhes, and about 12,000 inhabitants. It was taken in 1692, by Victor Amadeus II. king of Sardinia, but abandoned ſoon after; and, a little time after, Louis IV. built Mount Dauphin, to prevent the like circumſtance another time: ſix leagues eaſt of Gap. Lat. 44. 24. N. lon. 24. 9. E. Ferro.

EM'BRYO, or EMBRYON, *ſ.* [from ἐμβρύω, Gr. to pullulate or bud forth.] The offſpring yet unfiniſhed in the womb. See the article CONCEPTION, vol. v. p. 4. —The bringing forth of living creatures may be accelerated, if the *embryo* ripeneth and perfecteth ſooner. *Bacon.*—An excluſion before conformation, before the birth can bear the name of the parent, or be ſo much as properly called an *embryon. Brown.*

When the crude *embryo* careful nature breeds,
See how ſhe works, and how her work proceeds. *Blackm.*

The ſtate of any thing yet not fit for production; yet unfiniſhed.—The company little ſuſpected what a noble work I had then in *embryo. Swift.*

EM'BRYONATE, *adj.* Belonging to an embryo. *Scott.*

EMBRYOTHLAS'TES, *ſ.* [from ἐμβρυον, Gr. the fœtus, and θλαω, to break.] In ſurgery, an inſtrument for breaking the bones of a dead fœtus to promote its delivery.

EMBRYO'TOMY, *ſ.* [*embryotomia*, Lat. from εμβρυων, Gr. a fœtus, and τεμνω, to cut.] The operation of cutting a child from the womb of its mother, in obſtructed parturition.

EMBRYUL'CUS, *ſ.* [from εμβρυων, Gr. a fœtus, and ελκω, to draw.] An inſtrument for drawing a child from the womb.

EMBS, or EMS, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, and county of Embs, or Hohenembs, near which are ſome baths impregnated with ſulphur: ten miles ſouth of Bregentz.

EMBS, or HOHENEMBS, a ſmall county of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, ſouth of the county of Bregentz, and the lake of Conſtance, about ten miles long, and five broad, erected into a county by Charles V. and now belonging to the houſe of Auſtria. Its Roman month is twenty florins, and tax ſixty rixdollars.

EM'DEN, a ſea-port of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and capital of the county of Eaſt Friſeland, on the eaſt ſide of the Embs, near the mouth; large, ſtrong, and commercial, divided into Old and New Town, with two fauxbourgs. It contains three churches for Calviniſts, beſides places of worſhip for Roman catholics, Lutherans, Mennonites, and Jews. It was taken by the French in 1757, who evacuated it the next year. It was afterwards again taken by the French; but the prince of Soubiſe exacting too ſevere contributions, the peaſants roſe, and drove the enemy out of the town and country. It is a free port. The right of protection has been purchaſed by the king of Pruſſia of the Dutch. Its territory includes ſeveral towns and villages. Lat. 53. 22. N. lon. 24. 34. E. Ferro.

EME, *ſ.* [eame, Sax.] Uncle. *Now obſolete:*

Whilſt they were young, Caſſibelan their *eme*,
Was by the people choſen in their ſtead;
Who on him took the royal diadem,
And goodly well it long time governed. *Spenſer.*

EMEGIA'GEN, a town and fortreſs of Africa, in the empire of Morocco.

EMEND'ABLE, *adj.* [*emendo*, Lat.] Capable of emendation; corrigible.

EMEN'DALS, *ſ.* [*emenda*, Lat.] An old word ſtill made uſe of in the accounts of the ſociety of the Inner Temple; where ſo much in emendals at the foot of an account, on the balance thereof, ſignifies ſo much money in the bank or ſtock of the houſes, for reparation of loſſes or other emergent occaſions: *quod in reſtaurationem damni tribuitur. Spelm.*

EMENDA'RE, *ſ.* [*emendam ſolvere*, Lat.] In law, that principle which directs to make amends for any crime or treſpaſs committed. *Leg. Edw. Confeſſ.* c. 35. Hence a capital crime, not to be attoned by fine, was ſaid to be *inemendabile. Leg. Canut.* p. 2.

EMENDA'TION, *ſ.* [*emendo*, Lat.] Correction; alteration of any thing from worſe to better.—The eſſence and relation of any thing in being, is fitted, beyond any *emendation*, for its action and uſe; and ſhews it to proceed from a mind of the higheſt underſtanding. *Grew.*—An alteration made in the text by verbal criticiſm.—Who, in his *emendations* upon Suidas, has ſhewn a critical acumen. *Harris.*

EMENDA'TOR, *ſ.* [*emendo*, Lat.] A corrector; an improver; an alterer for the better.

E'MER-YAPAR, a town of Aſia, in Thibet: ſeventeen miles from Cha-tcheou.

EM'ERALD, *ſ.* [*emeraude*, Fr. *ſmaragdas*, Lat.] A tranſparent precious ſtone, of a green colour. See the article GEM and MINERALOGY.

Nor deeper verdure dies the robe of ſpring,
When firſt ſhe gives it to the ſouthern gale,
Than the green *emerald* ſhows. *Thomſon.*

EM'ERALD MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Egypt, anciently famous for the production of emeralds, and ſuppoſed to be ſituated in the range bordering on the Red Sea, towards Coſſir. It is imagined that theſe emeralds conſiſted of cryſtallized cockle; which, where found of a green colour, and free from flaws, is called *emerald* by the jewellers. Hence the cockle ſpar brought from Egypt is called *mother of emeralds*. It is probable that this cockle was, in ancient times, faſhionable in Egypt under the name of emerald; but it is of a deeper green than the true emeralds, and alſo wants their luſtre. See the article EGYPT, p. 388, of this volume.

To EMER'GE, *v. n.* [*emergo*, Lat.] To riſe out of any thing in which it is covered.—They *emerged*, to the upper part of the ſpirit of wine, as much of them as lay immerſed in the ſpirit. *Boyle.*

Thetis, not unmindful of her ſon,
Emerging from the deep, to beg her boon. *Dryden.*

To iſſue; to proceed.—If the priſm was turned about its axis that way, which made the rays *emerge* more obliquely out of the ſecond refracting ſurface of the priſm, the image ſoon became an inch or two longer. *Newton.*—To riſe; to mount from a ſtate of depreſſion or obſcurity; to riſe into view:

Darkneſs, we ſee, *emerges* into light;
And ſhining ſuns deſcend to ſable night. *Dryden.*

When, from dewy ſhade *emerging* bright,
Aurora ſtreaks the ſky with orient light. *Pope.*

EMER'GENCE, or EMERGENCY, *ſ.* The act of riſing out of any fluid by which it is covered.—We have read of a tyrant, who tried to prevent the *emergence* of murdered bodies. *Brown.*—The act of riſing or ſtarting into view.—The white colour of all refracted light, at its very firſt *emergence*, where it appears as white as before its incidence, is compounded of various colours. *Newton.*—Any ſudden occaſion; unexpected caſualty.—Moſt of our rarities have been found out by caſual *emergency*, and have been the works of time and chance rather than of philoſophy. *Glanville.*—Preſſing neceſſity; exigence. *A ſenſe not proper.*—In any caſe of *emergency*, he would employ the whole wealth of his empire, which he had thus amaſſed together in his ſubterraneous exchequer. *Addiſ.*

EMER'GENT, *adj.* Riſing out of that which overwhelms or obſcures it:

Immediately the mountains huge appear
Emergent, and their broad bare backs upheave
Into the clouds. *Milton.*

Riſing into view, or notice, or honour.—The man that is once hated, both his good and his evil deeds oppreſs him; he is not eaſily *emergent*. *Ben Jonſon.*—Proceeding or iſſuing from any thing.—The Stoics held a fatality, and a fixed unalterable courſe of events; but then they held alſo, that they fell out by a neceſſity *emergent* from, and inherent in, the things themſelves. *South.*—Sudden; unexpectedly caſual.—All the lords declared, that, upon any *emergent* occaſion, they would mount their ſervants upon their horſes. *Clarendon.*

EMER'GENT YEAR, *ſ.* in chronology, the epoch, or date, from whence any people begin to compute their time or dates. So, our emergent year is ſometimes the year of the creation, but more uſually the year of the birth of Chriſt. The Jews uſed that of the Deluge, or the Exodus, &c. The emergent year of the Greeks, was the beginning of the Olympic games; while that of the Romans was the date of the building of their city.

EM'ERODS, or EMEROIDS, *ſ.* [corrupted by ignorant pronunciation from *hemorrhoids*, αιμορροιδες, Gr.] Painful ſwellings of the hemorrhoidal veins; piles.—He deſtroyed them, and ſmote them with *emerods*. 1 *Sam.*

EMER'SION, *ſ.* [from *emerge*.] In aſtronomy, the reappearance of the ſun, moon, or other planet, after having been eclipſed, or hid by the interpoſition of the moon, earth, or other body. The emerſions and immerſions of Jupiter's firſt ſatellite, are particularly uſeful for finding the longitudes of places; the immerſions being obſerved from Jupiter's conjunction with the ſun, till his oppoſition;

tion; and the emerſions from the oppoſition till the conjunction. But within fifteen days of the conjunction, both before and after it, they cannot be obſerved, becauſe the planet and his ſatellites are then loſt in the ſun's light.—*Emerſion* is alſo uſed when a ſtar, after being hid by the ſun, begins to re-appear, and to get out of his rays.

EMER'SION, *ſ.* in phyſics, the riſing of any ſolid above the ſurface of a fluid that is ſpecifically heavier than the ſolid, into which it had been violently immerged, or puſhed. It is one of the known laws of hydroſtatics, that a lighter ſolid, being forced down into a heavier fluid, immediately endeavours to emerge; and that with a force equal to the exceſs of the weight of a quantity of the fluid above that of an equal bulk of the ſolid. Thus, if the body be immerged in a fluid of double its ſpecific gravity, it will emerge again till half its bulk be above the ſurface of the fluid.

EM'ERSON (William), an eminent Engliſh mathematician, born at Hurworth, near Darlington, in the county of Durham, in 1701. His father, who taught a ſchool, was a proficient in the mathematics; and by his inſtructions, and the books of which he was poſſeſſed, was his ſon's genius for mathematical ſtudies firſt unfolded. He devoted himſelf to a long life of ſtudious retirement, in which he wrote his numerous treatiſes. On the 20th of May, 1782, he fell a victim to the ſtone, in his native village, when he was near eighty-one years of age. Mr. Emerſon, from the ſtrength of his mind, and the cloſeneſs of his application, had acquired a deep knowledge of all the branches of mathematics and phyſics. He was alſo well ſkilled in the ſcience of muſic, the theory of ſounds, and the various ſcales ancient and modern, but appeared to poor advantage as a performer. The following is a liſt of his publications: 1. The Doctrine of Fluxions, 8vo. 1748. 2. The Projection of the Sphere, orthographic, ſtereographic, and gnomonical, 8vo. 1749. 3. The Elements of Trigonometry, 8vo. 1749. 4. The Principles of Mechanics, 4to. 1754. 5. A Treatiſe of Navigation, 12mo. 1755. 6. A Treatiſe of Algebra, in two books, 8vo. 1765. 7. The Method of Increments, 8vo. 8. The Arithmetic of Infinites, the Differential Method, and the Elements of the Conic Sections, in three books, 8vo. 1767. 9. Mechanics, or the Doctrine of Motion, &c. with the Laws of Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces 8vo. 1769. 10. The Elements of Optics, in four books, 8vo. 1768. 11. A Syſtem of Aſtronomy, 8vo. 1769. 12. Mathematical Principles of Geography, Navigation, and Dialling, 8vo. 1770. 13. Clycomatheſis, or an eaſy Introduction to the ſeveral Branches of the Mathematics, 8vo. 1770. 14. A Commentary on Sir Iſaac Newton's Principia, with a Defence of Sir Iſaac againſt the Objections made to ſeveral Parts of his Works, 8vo. 1770. 15. A volume of Tracts, in 8vo. 1770. And, 16. Another of Miſcellanies, containing ſeveral Mathematical Subjects, 8vo. 1776.

E'MERSTORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, on the Danube: ſixteen miles above Crems.

EM'ERUS. See ÆSCHYNOMENE and CORONILLA.

E'MERY, *ſ.* [*ſmyris*, Lat. *eſmeril*, Fr.] A mineral, which yields to no ſubſtance in hardneſs, except the diamond.—The lapidaries cut the ordinary gems on their wheels, by ſprinkling the wetted powder of emery over them; but it will not touch the diamond. It is conſtantly uſed in cleaning and poliſhing ſteel. See the article MINERALOGY.

EME'SA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the pachalic of Damaſcus: twenty-five miles ſouth of Hama.

EME'TIC, or EMETICAL, *adj.* [*emetica*, Lat. from εμεω, Gr. to vomit.] Having the quality of provoking vomits.—Various are the temperaments and operations of herbs; ſome purgative, ſome *emetic*, and ſome ſudorific. *Hale.*

EME'TIC, *ſ.* A medicine which provokes vomiting.

EME'TICALLY, *adv.* In ſuch a manner as to provoke to vomit.—It has been complained of, that preparations of ſilver have produced violent vomits; whereas we have not obſerved duly-refined ſilver to work *emetically*, even in women and girls. *Boyle.*

E'METZ, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Tobolſk: twenty-eight miles weſt of Iſchim.

EMICA'TION, *ſ.* [*emicatio*, Lat.] Sparkling; flying off in ſmall particles, as ſprightly liquors.—Iron, in aquafortis, will fall into ebullition with noiſe and *emication*, as alſo a craſs and fumid exhalation. *Brown.*

EMIC'TION, *ſ.* [from *emictum*, Lat.] Urine; what is voided by the urinary paſſages.—Gravel and ſtone grind away the fleſh, and effuſe the blood apparent in a ſanguine *emiction*. *Harvey.*

EM'IGRANTS, *ſ.* [of *emigrans*, Lat.] Thoſe who go out of their own country to reſide in another, conſtrained either by poverty or perſecution, as the Palatines, Straſburghers, French prieſts, &c.—All theſe *emigrants* were to receive pay and ſubſiſtence for ſome years at the public expence. *Robertſon.*

To EM'IGRATE, *v. a.* [*emigro*, Lat.] To remove from one place to another.

EMIGRA'TION, *ſ.* Change of habitation; removal from one place to another.—We find the originals of many kingdoms either by victories, or by *emigrations*, or inteſtine commotions. *Hale.*

EMILI' (Paul), (*Æmilius*, Lat.) an hiſtorian of reputation, native of Verona. He had obtained a great character in Italy, when the cardinal de Bourbon brought him to France in 1487. After the death of his patron, Paul was obliged for his ſubſiſtence to teach the languages in a college of the univerſity. Through the recommendation of Stephen Ponchet, biſhop of Paris, he was engaged by Louis XII. to write in Latin the hiſtory of France, and for this purpoſe he was gratified with a canonry in the cathedral of Notre Dame. He retired to the college of Navarre, where he applied for near thirty years aſſiduouſly to his labour, which he brought down, in ten books, from Pharamond to the fifth year of Charles VIII. Of this work the firſt four books were publiſhed about 1516; two more were added in a ſecond edition; and he left four more, the laſt of which being imperfect, was completed by Daniel Zavariſi. The whole was publiſhed together at Paris in 1539, and has been ſeveral times reprinted, and tranſlated into foreign languages. He is praiſed as the firſt writer who gave to French hiſtory a juſt form and method. Emili died at Paris in 1529.

EMIL'IA, a woman's name.

E'MIMS, [Heb. a formidable people.] Ancient inhabitants of the land of Canaan beyond Jordan, who were defeated by Chedorlaomer and his allies. *Gen.* xiv. 5. They were beaten in Shaveh-Kirjathaim, which was in the country of Sihon, conquered from the Moabites. *Joſh.* xiii. 19–21. The Emims were a warlike people, of a gigantic ſtature, great and many, and tall as the Anakims.

EMILLE'GUE, one of the Pelew iſlands.

EM'INENCE, or EMINENCY, *ſ.* [*eminentia*, Lat.] Loftineſs; height. Summit; higheſt part.—Mountains abound with different vegetables, every vertex or *eminency* affording new kinds. *Ray.*—A part riſing above the reſt.—They muſt be ſmooth, almoſt imperceptible to the touch, and without either *eminence* or cavities. *Dryden.*—A place where one is expoſed to general notice.—A ſatyr or libel on one of the common ſtamp, never meets with that reception as what is aimed at a perſon whoſe merit places him upon an *eminence*, and gives him a more conſpicuous figure. *Addiſon.*—Exaltation; conſpicuouſneſs; ſtate of being expoſed to view; reputation; celebrity; fame; preferment; greatneſs.—When men cannot arrive to any *eminency* of eſtate, yet religion makes a compenſation, by teaching content. *Tillotſon.*—Supreme degree. A title given to cardinals:

Whatever pure thou in the body enjoy'ſt,
And pure thou wert created, we enjoy
In *eminence*. *Milton.*

Notice; diſtinction:

Let your remembrance ſtill apply to Banquo;
Preſent him *eminence* both with eye and tongue. *Shakeſp.*

EM'INENT, *adj.* [*eminens*, Lat.] High; lofty.—Thou haſt built unto thee an *eminent* place. *Ezek.*

Satan, in geſture proudly *eminent*,
Stood like a tow'r. *Milton.*

Dignified; exalted:

Rome for your ſake ſhall puſh her conqueſts on,
And bring new titles home from nations won,
To dignify ſo *eminent* a ſon. *Dryden.*

Conſpicuous; remarkable.—She is *eminent* for a ſincere piety in the practice of religion. *Addiſon.*

Eminent he mov'd
In Grecian arms, the wonder of his foes. *Glover.*

EMINEN'TIAL EQUA'TION, *ſ.* A term uſed by ſome algebraiſts, in the inveſtigation of the areas of curvilineal figures, for a kind of aſſumed equation that contains another equation eminently, the latter being a particular caſe of the former.

EM'INENTLY, *adv.* Conſpicuouſly; in a manner that attracts obſervation:

Such as thou haſt ſolemnly elected,
With gifts and graces *eminently* adorned. *Milton.*

In a high degree.—All men are equal in their judgment of what is *eminently* beſt. *Dryden.*

E'MIR, *ſ.* a title of dignity among the Turks, ſignifying a prince. This title was firſt given to the caliphs; but when they aſſumed the title of ſultans, that of emir remained to their children; as that of Cæſar among the Romans. At length the title came to be attributed to all who were judged to deſcend from Mahomet by his daughter Fatimah, and who wear the green turban. The Turks alſo call the vizirs, baſhaws, or governors of provinces, by this name.

E'MIR, a town of Curdiſtan, ſituated on the weſt ſide of a well-cultivated and pleaſant valley, with a fine river running towards the north.

E'MIR-BACHA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: eighty miles weſt of Tocat.

EM'ISSARY, *ſ.* [*emiſſarius*, Lat.] One ſent out on private meſſages; a ſpy; a ſecret agent.—Clifford, an *emiſſary* and ſpy of the king's, fled over into Flanders with his privity. *Bacon.*

You ſhall neither eat nor ſleep,
No, nor forth your window peep,
With your *emiſſary* eye,
To fetch in the forms go by. *Ben Jonſon.*

One that emits or ſends out. *A technical ſenſe.*—Wherever there are *emiſſaries*, there are abſorbent veſſels in the ſkin; and, by the abſorbent veſſels, mercury will paſs into the blood. *Arbuthnot.*

EMIS'SILE, *adj.* Capable of being caſt out, capable of being ſent out. *Scott. Not much uſed.*

EMIS'SION, *ſ.* [*emiſſio*, Lat.] The act of ſending out;—Tickling cauſeth laughter: the cauſe may be the *emiſſion* of the ſpirits, and ſo of the breath by a flight from titillation. *Bacon.*—Affection, in the ſtate of innocence, was happily pitched upon its right object; it flamed up in direct fervours of devotion to God, and in collateral *emiſſions* of charity to its neighbour. *South.*

To EMIT', *v. a.* [*emitto*, Lat.] To ſend forth; to let go; to give vent to.—The ſoil, being fruitful and rich, *emits* ſteams, conſiſting of volatile and active parts. *Arbuthnot.*—To let fly; to dart:

Pay ſacred rev'rence to Apollo's ſong,
Leſt, wrathful, the far-ſhooting god *emit*
His fatal arrows. *Prior.*

To iſſue out juridically.—That a citation be valid, it ought to be decreed and *emitted* by the judge's authority, and at the inſtance of the party. *Ayliffe.*

EM'LY, a village of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary; the ſee of a biſhop, ſaid to have been founded ſo early as the fifth century; and afterwards erected into an archbiſhopric. In 1568, it was united to Caſhel, in which ſtate it ſtill continues: fifteen miles weſt of Caſhel.

EM'LYN (Thomas), an eminent Engliſh proteſtant-diſſenting divine, born at Stamford in Lincolnſhire, in 1663. His parents were frequenters of the eſtabliſhed church, but, being inclinable to the principles of the nonconformiſts, choſe to bring up their ſon to the miniſtry in that connection. Mr. Emlyn made his firſt appearance, in the character of a preacher, in December, 1682. In 1683, he became chaplain to the counteſs of Donegal, who then lived in London, and in the year following went over with her and her family to Belfaſt in Ireland, where ſhe was married to ſir William Franklin; who, having a good eſtate in the weſt of England, offered him a conſiderable living in that country; but this offer he declined, on account of his diſſatisfaction with the terms of miniſterial conformity, though at that time he entertained no ſcruples on the ſubject of the Trinity. He was the author of a conſiderable number of tracts on religious controverſy. In the year 1731, he alſo wrote Obſervations on Dr. Waterland's Notions in Relation to Polytheiſm, Ditheiſm, &c. and in the ſame year drew up ſome Memoirs of the Life and Sentiments of the Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke. Thoſe pieces were not publiſhed till a complete collection was made of the author's works in 1746, in two volumes 8vo. to which are added Memoirs of his Life. He died on the 30th of July, 1743, in the ſeventy-ninth year of his age. His ſon, Mr. SOLLOM EMLYN, who was bred to the law, and became an eminent counſellor, was employed to publiſh lord-chief-juſtice Hale's Hiſtory of the Pleas of the Crown, which he did in 1736, in two volumes folio, together with a preface and large notes.

EM'MA, a woman's name.

EMMA'NUEL, or IMMANUEL, a Hebrew word which occurs Iſaiah viii. 14, in that celebrated prophecy, wherein he declares to Ahaz the birth of the Meſſiah, who was to be born of a virgin, and be Emmanuel, that is, *God with us.* The ſame prophet (viii. 8.) repeats the ſame thing, while he is ſpeaking of the enemy's army, which, like a torrent, was to overflow Judea. "The ſtretching out of his wings ſhall fill the breadth of thy land, O Emmanuel." The evangeliſt Matthew, i. 23. informs us, that this prophecy was accompliſhed in the birth of Chriſt, in whom the two natures divine and human were united, and who in this ſenſe was really Emmanuel, or God with us.

EM'MAUS, a village of Paleſtine, ſituated in Judea, ſixty furlongs from Jeruſalem; near which, Judas Maccabeus vanquiſhed the army under the command of Gorgias; and where Chriſt, after his reſurrection, made himſelf known to two of his diſciples. 1 *Macc.* iv. *Luke*, xxiv. 13.

EM'ME, a river of Swiſſerland, which riſes near Entlibuch, in the canton of Lucern, and runs into the Aar at Biberiſch, in the canton of Soleure, through a fertile valley, called Emmenthal.

EMMELOO'RT, a town in the north part of the iſland of Schockland, in the Zuyder ſea: ten miles eaſt of Vollenhove.

EMMEN'AGOGUES, *ſ.* [*emmenagoga*, Lat. from εμμηνια, Gr. the menſes, and αγω, to move.] Medicines that promote the courſes, either by giving a greater force to the blood in its circulation, or by making it thinner. *Quincy.*—*Emmenagogues* are ſuch as produce a plethora, or fulneſs of the veſſels, conſequently ſuch as ſtrengthen the organs of digeſtion, ſo as to make good blood. *Arbuthnot.*

EMMENALO'GIA, *ſ.* [from εμμηνια, Gr. the menſes, and λογος, a diſcourſe.] A treatiſe on the emmenia.

EMMENDIN'GEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, and marggraviate of Baden, on the Enz: ſeven

ſeven miles north of Fryburg, and nineteen ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Straſburg.

EMME'NIA, *ſ.* [from ἐν, in, and μὴν, Gr. a month.] A term with phyſicians for the monthly purgation of women.

EM'MERICH, or EMBRICH, or EMMERICK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Cleves, ſurrounded with walls and ditches in 1247. It contains four churches, for Lutherans, Calviniſts, Roman catholics, and Mennonites, one each; the Roman catholics have four convents. It has a voice and ſeat at the provincial aſſemblies. It was taken by the French in 1672, and reſtored to the elector of Brandenburg in 1673: ſix miles eaſt of Cleves. Lat. 51. 51. N. lon. 23. 40. E. Ferro.

EM'MET, *ſ.* [æmette, Sax.] An ant; a piſmire. See the article FORMICA.

To EMMEW', *v. a.* To mew or coop up:

This outward-ſainted deputy,
Whoſe ſettl'd viſage and delib'rate word,
Nips youth i' th' head, and follies doth *emmew*,
As faulcon doth the fowl, is yet a devil. *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'MIUS (Ubbo), a learned philologiſt and hiſtorian, born in 1547 at Gretha, a village in Eaſt Frieſland, of which his father was paſtor. He ſtudied at the univerſity of Roſtock, where he attended the lectures of David Chytræus and Henry Bruce. On the death of his father he returned to his native place, where he lived and engaged as maſter of the ſchool of Norden in Eaſt Frieſland, in 1579. Under his direction this ſeminary flouriſhed greatly; but as he declined to ſubſcribe the confeſſion of Augſburg, ſome bigotted Lutherans cauſed him to be deprived of his ſalary, and prohibited from teaching. He therefore accepted an invitation to undertake the ſame office at Leer, to the ſchool of which he gave a reputation which durably injured that of Norden. Several Calviniſts expelled by the Lutherans from Groningen came to reſide at Leer, and contracted an intimacy with Emmius. Through their influence, when Groningen aſſociated itſelf with the United Provinces, and planned the re-eſtabliſhment of its college, Emmius was invited to become its director, with the power of forming ſuch ſtatutes for its government as he ſhould think proper. He removed thither in 1594, and exerciſed his office near twenty years to the great advantage of the inſtitution. At the end of that time, the city of Groningen having erected its college into an univerſity, Emmius was appointed profeſſor of hiſtory and Greek. This ſituation he retained to old age, and no offers from other univerſities could tempt him to remove. He died at Groningen in 1625, in the ſeventy-ninth year of his age. The principal works of Emmius are, 1. *Decades Rerum Friſicarum*, folio, 1616; a valuable performance, and the more ſo, as his ſuperiority to the national partiality ſo common in hiſtorians of their own country, has led him to reject and refute the fables concerning the Friſian antiquities related by other authors; yet he has incurred reproach for this attachment to truth. 2. *Vetus Græcia illuſtrata*, 3 vols. 8vo. 1626; a valuable ſummary of the geography, hiſtory, polity, &c. of ancient Greece. 3. *Opus Chronologicum Novum*, folio, 1619. 4. *Chronologica Rerum Romanarum, cum ſerie Conſulum*, folio, 1619. 5. *Appendix Chronologica*, folio, 1620. All theſe diſplay a profound knowledge of hiſtory, and have been much applauded by learned men.

EM'MOR, [from the Heb. ſignifying an aſs.] The name of a man.

To EMMO'VE, *v. a.* [*emmouvoir*, Fr.] To excite; to rouſe; to put into emotion. *Not uſed.*

One day, when him high courage did *emmove*,
He pricked forth. *Spenſer.*

EMOL'LIENT, *adj.* [*emolliens*, Lat.] Softening, ſuppling.—Barley is *emollient*, moiſtening, and expectorating.—Diuretics are decoctions, emulſions, and oils of *emollient* vegetables, ſo far as they relax the urinary paſſages; ſuch as relax ought to be tried before ſuch as ſtimulate. *Arbuthnot.*

EMOL'LIENTS, *ſ.* Such things as ſheath and ſoften the aſperities of the humours, and relax and ſupple the ſolids at the ſame time. *Quincy.*—*Emollients* ought to be taken in open air, to hinder them from perſpiring, and on empty ſtomachs. *Arbuthnot.*

EMOLLI'TION, *ſ.* [*emollitio*, Lat.] The act of ſoftening.—Laſſitude is remedied by bathing, or anointing with oil and warm water; the cauſe is, for that all laſſitude is a kind of contuſion and compreſſion of the parts, and bathing and anointing give a relaxation or *emollition*. *Bacon.*

EMO'LUMENT, *ſ.* [*emolumentum*, Lat.] Profit; advantage.—Let them conſult how politic they were, for a temporal *emolument* to throw away eternity. *South.*—Nothing gives greater ſatisfaction than the ſenſe of having diſpatched a great deal of buſineſs to public *emolument*. *Tatler.*

EMOLUMEN'TAL, *adj.* Uſeful.—Who receive and promote his dictates in all that is laudable, and truly *emolumental* of this nature. *Evelyn's Preface.*

EMON'GST, *prep.* [ſo written by *Spenſer.*] Among:

The merry birds of every ſort,
Chaunted aloud their chearful harmony;
And made *emongſt* themſelves a ſweet conſort,
That quick'ned the dull ſp'rit with muſical comfort.
Fairy Queen.

EMO'TION, *ſ.* [Fr.] Diſturbance of mind; vehemence of paſſion, or pleaſing or painful.—I will appeal to any man who has read this poet, whether he finds not the natural *emotion* of the ſame paſſion in himſelf, which the poet deſcribes in his feigned perſons? *Dryden.*

Thoſe rocks and oaks that ſuch *emotion* felt,
Were rural maids whom Orpheus taught to melt. *Granville.*

EMOUI', or HIA-MEN, an iſland near the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of China, in the province of Fo-kien, about fifteen miles in circumference, with a port capable of containing any number of veſſels, with ſufficient depth of water; where the emperor keeps a garriſon of ſeveral thouſand men. In the beginning of the eighteenth century it was frequented by European veſſels for trade, but is now neglected for Canton. Lat. 24. 30. N. lon. 1. 52. E. Peking.

To EMPA'LE, *v. a.* [*empaler*, Fr.] To fence with a pale:

How happy's he, which hath due place aſſign'd
T' his beaſts, and diſaforeſted his mind?
Empal'd himſelf to keep them out, not in;
Can ſow, and dares truſt corn, where they have been.
Donne.

To fortify.—The Engliſh *empaled* themſelves with their pikes, and therewith bare off their enemies. *Hayward.*—To incloſe; to ſhut in:

They have *empal'd* within a zodiac
The free-born ſun, and keep twelve ſigns awake
To watch his ſteps: the Goat and Crab controul
And fright him back. *Donne.*

To put to death by ſpitting on a ſtake fixed upright:

Let them each be broken on the rack;
Then, with what life remains, *empal'd*, and left
To writhe at leiſure round the bloody ſtake. *Addiſon.*

EMPA'LEMENT, *ſ.* The kind of puniſhment in which a ſharp pole was thruſt up the fundament. In botany, the calyx, that part which ſurrounds and ſupports the petals or flower leaves of a plant.

EMPA'LING, *part. act.* Fencing, fortifying, incloſing, putting to death by ſpitting the body on a pole.

EMPAN'NEL, *ſ.* [from *panne*, Fr.] The writing or entering the names of a jury into a parchment ſchedule, or roll of paper, by the ſheriff, which he has ſummoned to appear for the performance of ſuch public ſervice as juries are employed in. *Cowel.*

To EMPAN'NEL, *v. a.* To ſummon to ſerve on a jury.—I ſhall not need to *empannel* a jury of moraliſts or divines, every man's own breaſt ſufficiently inſtructing him. *Government of the Tongue.*

EMPAR'LANCE, *ſ.* in law, ſee IMPARLANCE.—A parley in the midſt of a conflict:

Full often times did Britomart aſſay
To ſpeak to them, and ſome *emparlance* move. *Spenſer.*

EM'PASM, *ſ.* [*empaſma*, Lat. from εν, and πασσω, Gr. to ſprinkle.] A medicine compoſed of ſweet powders, to take away ſweat, correct the bad ſcent of the body, and allay inflammations, by being ſprinkled or rubbed upon the parts affected.

To EMPAS'SION, *v. a.* To move with paſſion; to affect ſtrongly; to throw off from equanimity:

So ſtanding, moving, or to height upgrown,
The tempter, all *empaſſion'd*, thus began. *Milton.*

EMPAS'SIONATE, *adj.* Strongly affected:

With the neare touch whereof in tender hart
The Briton prince was ſore *empaſſionate*,
And woxe inclined much unto her part. *Spenſer.*

EMPE'DOCLES, an eminent Sicilian philoſopher and poet, a native of Agrigentum, who flouriſhed about the 84th olympiad, or 444 years before Chriſt. Upon the death of his father Meto, who was a wealthy citizen of Agrigentum, he became a man of conſequence and weight among his fellow-citizens, and ſecured their confidence and eſteem by eſpouſing, in all ſtruggles of a political nature, the intereſts of the great body of the people, and by the liberal and generous purpoſes to which he applied a conſiderable ſhare of his large paternal eſtate. Among other inſtances, he beſtowed a part of it in the form of dowries, on indigent young women, who by thoſe means were enabled to marry into reſpectable connections. There was ſomething of oſtentation, however, in the diſtinction of dreſs which he aſſumed, wearing a purple robe, a golden girdle, and a Delphic crown; in the numerous train of ſervants by which he choſe to be attended; and in the grave and commanding aſpect which he always maintained. Such ſtately appearances would have been conſidered as indications, in moſt men, of a wiſh to obtain the poſſeſſion of ſovereign power. But Empedocles had no ſuch deſire. On the contrary, he was, as Ariſtotle affirms, utterly averſe to taking any government upon him, and, according to Xanthus, refuſed a crown which was once offered him, whether by the Agrigentines, or by what other people, we are not informed; ſhewed himſelf a determined enemy to tyranny, under whatever form it was attempted to be eſtabliſhed; and conſtantly employed his wealth and influence in preſerving and defending the rights and liberties of his countrymen. Empedocles alſo poſſeſſed poetical talents. Some of his pieces were ſung at the olympic games; and his ſtile is ſaid by Ariſtotle to have been homerical, forcible in expreſſion, and adorned with numerous metaphors and other poetical figures. Henry Stephens has collected fragments of his verſes which are diſperſed through various ancient writers; and their exiſtence affords ſome ground for the opinion of Fabricius, that Empedocles was the real author of that ancient fragment which bears the name of The Golden Verſes of Pythagoras. He is alſo ſaid to have written ſome tragedies, and treatiſes on politics. That he was an eminent maſter of the art of eloquence, may be concluded not only from the effects produced on his fellow-citizens by his harangues to them, but from the circumſtance that Georgius Leontinus, a celebrator orator, was his pupil. There is much uncertainty in the accounts relative to the time and manner of his death. According to certain writers, he periſhed in the burning crater of mount Etna. One of their accounts ſtates, that he incautiouſly ſlipped into it while attempting to examine the phenomenon; and that the accident was diſcovered by means of one of his brazen ſandals, which was thrown out from the mountain in a ſubſequent eruption. Strabo, however, and other writers, reject this ſtory as fictitious. Timæus's relation, moſt probably, is the true one, which affirms that towards the cloſe of his life, Empedocles went into Greece, and that he never returned to Sicily; by which means the time and manner of his death remain unknown. According to Ariſtotle, he died when he completed his 60th year; but ſome make him 67, and others 109, years old. A ſtatue was erected to his memory at Agrigentum, which was afterwards carried to Rome. The following is the ſubſtance of his philoſophy, as collected from his Fragments: That it is impoſſible to judge of truth by the ſenſes, without the aid of reaſon, which is led, through their medium, to contemplate the real nature and immutable eſſences of things; that the firſt principles of nature are of two kinds, active and paſſive, the former of which is unity, or God, the latter, matter; that the active principle is a ſubtle ethereal fire, intelligent and divine, which gives being to all things, animates all things, and into which all things will finally be reſolved; that there are in the regions of the air numerous demons, emanations from the divine nature, who preſide over human affairs; that brute animals are allied to the Divinity, as conſtituting a part of thoſe animated beings which the ſame ſpirit unites to itſelf, and to one another, on which account it is unlawful to kill or eat animals; that the world is one whole, circumſcribed by the revolution of the ſun, and ſurrounded by a maſs of inactive matter; that the firſt material principles of the four elements are ſimilar atoms, indefinitely ſmall, and of a round form, poſſeſſing the primary qualities of friendſhip and diſcord; that theſe atoms being excited to motion by the energy of the intellectual fire, or the divine mind, homogeneous parts became united, and heterogeneous ſeparated, and the four elements compoſed of which all bodies are generated; that all motion, as well as all life and being, muſt therefore be aſcribed to God; that the firſt principles of the elements are eternal; that nothing can begin to exiſt, or be annihilated, and that all the varieties of nature are produced by combination or ſeparation; that in the formation of the world ether was firſt ſecreted from chaos, then fire, then earth, by the agitation of which were produced water and air; that the heavens are a ſolid body of air cryſtalliſed by fire; that the ſtars are bodies compoſed of that fiery ſubſtance which proceeded from ether at its firſt ſecretion, and fixed in the cryſtal of heaven, while the planets wander freely beneath it; that the ſun is of a fiery maſs, larger than the moon; that the moon is in the form of a hollow diſh, and twice as far from the ſun as from the earth; that the ſoul of man conſiſts of two parts, the ſenſitive, produced from the ſame firſt principles with the elements, and the rational, a demon ſprung from the divine ſoul of the world, and placed in the body by way of puniſhment for its crimes in a former ſtate, which it is to ſuſtain till it is ſufficiently purified to return to God; that in the courſe of the tranſmigration to which all human ſouls are liable, they may inhabit not only different human bodies, but the bodies of any animal or plant; and that all nature is ſubject to the immutable and eternal law of neceſſity.

To EMPE'OPLE, *v. a.* To form into a people or community:

He wonder'd much, and 'gan enquire
What ſtately building durſt ſo high extend
Her lofty towers unto the ſtarry ſphere,
And what unknown nation there *empeopled* were? *Spenſer.*

EMPEREU'R (Conſtantine l'), a learned Dutch divine and oriental ſcholar, native of Oppyck, in Holland. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of juriſprudence and theology, and took the degree of doctor in the latter faculty. But he principally diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his proficiency in oriental literature, and Jewiſh antiquities. After having made himſelf acquainted with the Syriac, Arabic, and Hebrew, languages, he took much pains to encourage

encourage the ſtudy of them among Chriſtian ſcholars; and he alſo employed himſelf in refuting the objections of the Jews againſt the Chriſtian religion. Druſius and Erpenius were his maſters in the oriental tongues. He was profeſſor of theology and of Hebrew at Harderwyck during eight years, after which he was appointed profeſſor of Hebrew at Leyden in 1627. On that occaſion he pronounced an oration *De dignitate & utilitate Linguæ Hebraicæ*. He died in 1648, at an advanced time of life, and not long after he had entered on the duties of theological profeſſor in the univerſity of Leyden. His tranſlations of Jewiſh books and Talmudical writings, though not free from faults, deſerve to be reckoned among the beſt works of that deſcription, and are accompanied with uſeful notes and remarks. His works were, 1. Diſputationes theologicæ Hardevicenæ. 2. Paraphraſis Joannis Jachiadæ in Danielem. 3. Itinerarium Rabbi Benj. Tudel. 4. *Halicot Olam*, ſeu Clavis Talmudicæ. 5. *Middot*, ſeu de Templo Hieroſolymitano, & de menſuris Templi. 6. *Brava Cava*, ſeu de Damnis. 7. Abarbanel & Alcheiſch in Eſai liii. with a refutation of the Grammar of Moſes Kimchi; and an edition, with uſeful remarks, of Bertram's valuable treatiſe *De Republica Hebræorum*.

EMPE'RISHT, *part. adj.* Periſhed:

That his ſad mother ſeeing his ſore plight
Was greatly woe-begon, and gan to feare
Leaſt his fraile ſenſes were *emperiſht* quight. *Spenſer.*

EM'PEROR, *ſ.* [*empereur*, Fr. *imperator*, Lat.] The higheſt ruler of large kingdoms and territories; a title anciently given to renowned and victorious generals of armies, who acquired great power and dominion. And this title is not only given to the emperor of Germany, as emperor of the Romans; but was formerly belonging to the kings of England, as appears by a charter of king Edgar. It was alſo a title taken by ſome of the early kings of France. See the articles FRANCE and GERMANY.

EM'PERY, *ſ.* [*empire*, Fr. *imperium*, Lat.] Empire; ſovereignty; dominion. *A word out of uſe:*

A lady
So fair, and faſten'd to an *empery*,
Would make the great'ſt king double. *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'PETRUM, *ſ.* [from εν and πετρος, a rock; ſo named from the place of its growth.] In botany, a genus of the claſs dioecia, order triandria, natural order of ericæ. The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: perianthium three-parted; diviſions ovate, permanent. Corolla: petals three, ovate-oblong, narrower at the baſe, larger than the calyx, withering. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, very long, hanging forwards; antheræ upright, ſhort, two-parted. II. Female. Calyx: perianthium as in the male. Piſtillum: germ ſuperior, depreſſed; ſtyle ſcarce any; ſtigmas nine, reflex-expanding; (ſtyles three to nine. *Gærtner.*) Pericarpium: berry orbiculate, depreſſed, one-celled, larger than the calyx. Seeds: nine, jointedly placed in a circle, on one ſide bulging, on the other cornered; (ſeeds three to nine, *G.*) —*Eſſential Character.* Male. Calyx, three-parted; corolla three-petalled; ſtamina, long. Female. Calyx, three-parted, corolla, three-petalled; ſtyles, three to nine; berry, three to nine.

Species. 1. Empetrum album, or white-berried heath: erect. This differs from the following ſpecies in having the ſmaller branches pubeſcent; the leaves longer, ſomewhat ſcabrous on their upper ſurface, and channelled underneath. Berry guarded at the baſe by the calyx, fleſhy, white, ſhining. Seeds two or three, ſeldom more, bony, on one ſide convex and obſcurely furrowed, on the other angular or flattiſh. Native of Portugal.

2. Empetrum nigrum, or black-berried heath, crow or crake-berry. A ſmall decumbent ſhrub. The outer bark deciduous, and of a brown colour, the inner yellow. Branches rough with the remains of the petioles. The terminating bud conſiſts of five membranaceous leaflets, hairy at the edge; this puts forth five little branches, of which four are in a whorl. The leaves are in fours; they are ſomewhat three-cornered, with a white linear keel, and petioled. Flowers axillary, ſeſſile, ſolitary, ſurrounded by a bracte reſembling an outer three-parted calyx; calyx whitiſh, petals purple; filaments very long, and purple, with browniſh black anthers. The female is like the male, but the ſtem is redder; the leaves deep green, in fives; piſtil black. Berries browniſh black, when ripe; the colour and ſize of juniper berries, marked at the top with a ſmall round hole, protected at the bottom with a whitiſh three-leaved calyx, and a red corolla of three petals: the fleſh is rather firm, and pale green, except that towards the circumference it is purpliſh; receptacle central, columnar, ſlender. From ſix to nine bony pale-coloured ſeeds are placed round this in a ring, and fixed to it a little above the baſe. Linnæus informs us that he once, and once only, met with a plant which had hermaphrodite flowers. Profeſſor Jacquin obſerved ſeveral with three, two, and even one, ſtamen only; a few females, but no males; the ſtamens are very upright, ſtiff, and ſtraight. Native of the northern parts of Europe, generally in elevated ſituations, both on dry, barren, and mooriſh or boggy ſoils; in moors from the Baltic to the Eaſtern Ocean, in Kamtſchatka, and the iſles towards America; in the mountains of Lapland, and at the mines of Fahlun it abides, when other plants have periſhed with the cold; in Warwickſhire, Staffordſhire, Derbyſhire, and the northern counties of England, it is frequent; alſo in Scotland. The Highlanders and children in Scotland eat the berries, but they are no very deſirable fruit; and taken in large quantities are ſaid to bring on a ſlight head-ach. The Ruſſian peaſants, however, eat them; and the Kamtſchadales gather great quantities of them to boil with their fiſh, or to make a ſort of pudding with the bulbs of their lilies. They are eſteemed antiſcorbutic and diuretic. Grouſe and heath-cocks feed upon them, and they give the excrement a tinge of purple. Boiled in alum-water they afford a dark purple dye; and boiled with fat they are ſaid to be uſed in dying otter and ſable ſkins black. Cattle do not ſeem to browſe on this ſhrub. Linnæus ſays that it flowers in April with the elm; with us it flowers in April and May.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe little ſhrubs are ſeldom propagated in gardens unleſs for variety ſake; but they may be cultivated in ſhady places, and will thrive very well in gardens, where the ſoil is ſtiff. The plants ſhould be procured from the places where they grow naturally, for the ſeeds remain a year in the ground before they vegetate, and afterwards are very ſlow in their growth. If they are planted on a moiſt boggy ſoil in autumn, they will get roots in the winter, and will require no farther care than to clear them from weeds; for theſe low ſhrubs commonly grow upon the tops of wild mountains, where the ſoil is peaty, and full of bogs. See BEGONIA.

EM'PHASIS, *ſ.* [*emphaſe*, Fr. *emphaſis*, Lat. εμφασις, Gr.] In rhetoric, a remarkable ſtreſs laid upon a word or ſentence; particular force impreſſed by ſtile or pronunciation.—*Emphaſis* not ſo much regards the time as a certain grandeur, whereby ſome letter, ſyllable, word, or ſentence, is rendered more remarkable than the reſt, by a more vigorous pronunciation, and a longer ſtay upon it. *Holder.*

EMPHA'TIC, or EMPHATICAL, *adj.* [*emphatique*, Fr. *enfatico*, It. *emphaticus*, Lat. of εμφατικος, of εν and φαινω, Gr.] Forcible; ſtrong; ſtriking.—Where he endeavours to diſſuade from carnivorous appetites, how *emphatical* is his reaſoning! *Garth.*—Striking the ſight.—It is commonly granted, that *emphatical* colours are light itſelf, modified by refraction. *Boyle.*

EMPHA'TICALLY, *adv.* Strongly; forcibly; in a ſtriking manner.—How *emphatically* and divinely does every word proclaim the truth of the goſpel. *South.*—According to appearance.—What is delivered of the incurvity of dolphins, muſt be taken *emphatically*, not really, but in appearance, when they leap above water, and ſuddenly ſhoot down

down again. *Brown.*—With emphaſis.—This introduced pretty generally the right of diſpoſing one's property by teſtament, according to the pleaſure of the deceaſed; which we therefore *emphatically* ſtile his will. *Blackſtone.*

EMPHEREPY'RA, *ſ.* in mineralogy, a genus of iron ſtone.

EMPHERO'MENUS, *ſ.* [from εμφερω, Gr. to bear.] A term with phyſicians for urine which has ſediment.

EMPHRAC'TICS, *ſ.* [*emphractica*, Lat. from εμφρασσω, Gr. to obſtruct.] Medicines which applied to the ſkin ſhut up the pores.

EMPHRA'GMA, or EMPHRAXIS, *ſ.* An obſtruction or impediment.

EMPHYSE'MA, *ſ.* [from εμφυσαω, Gr. to inflate.] A tumour ariſing from air admitted into the cellular membrane.

EMPHYSE'MATOUS, *adj.* [from εμφυσημα, Gr.] Bloated; puffed up; ſwollen.—The ſigns of a gangrene are theſe: the inflammation loſes its redneſs, and becomes duſkiſh and livid; the tenſeneſs of the ſkin goes off, and feels to the touch flabby or *emphyſematous*; and veſications, filled with ichor of different colours, ſpread all over it. *Sharp.*

EMPHYSO'DES, *ſ.* With phyſicians, an extreme heat in fevers which occaſions puſtules and inflammations in the mouth.

EMPHYTEU'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, in, and φυτευω, Gr. to plant.] The act of planting; the act of clearing lands for plantation; the tenure of lands on condition of planting; the alienation of lands on condition of planting, and paying a ſmall annual rent to the original proprietor.

EMPHYTEU'TA, or EMPHYTEUTES, *ſ.* The tenant that rents land on condition of planting it.

EMPHYTEU'TIC, *adj.* Belonging to emphyteuſis; let out to farm; let on condition of planting. *Scott.*

To EMPIER'CE, *v. a.* To pierce into; to enter into by violent appulſe:

The weapon bright,
Taking advantage of his open jaw,
Ran through his mouth with ſo importune might,
That deep *empierc'd* his darkſome hollow maw. *Spenſer.*

EMPI'GHT, *preterite* and *part.* from *to pight*, or *pitch.* See PITCH. Set; fixed; faſtened:

But he was wary, and ere it *empight*
In the meant mark, advanc'd his ſhield atween. *Spenſer.*

EM'PIRE, *ſ.* [*empire*, Fr. *imperium*, Lat.] Imperial power; ſupreme dominion; ſovereign command:

Aſſert, ye fair ones, who in judgment ſit,
Your ancient *empire* over love and wit. *Rowe.*

The region over which dominion is extended. Command over any thing.—A nation extended over vaſt tracts of land, and numbers of people, arrives in time at the ancient name of kingdom, or modern of *empire*. *Temple.*

Sextus Pompeius
Hath given the dare to Cæſar, and commands
The *empire* of the ſea. *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'PIRES, *Duration of.*—No preciſe duration can be fixed to the Eaſtern empires, owing to the inaccuracy of hiſtorical accounts; the following ſtatement of the principal of them ſeems the beſt authenticated and neareſt the truth. The Aſſyrian empire, over a great part of Aſia, from Ninus to Sardanapalus, laſted, according to Juſtin, 1300 years; Euſebius ſays 1240; Georgius Monachus, 1340. The empire of Aſia was transferred from the Aſſyrians to the Medes in the 317th year before Chriſt: their reign, according to Euſebius, was about 260 years, although Diodorus and Georgius Monachus differ from him, and alſo one another, in the names of the kings, and dates of their reigns. From the foundation of the Perſian empire by Cyrus, to its deſtruction by Alexander, about 232 years elapſed. The Macedonian empire, from its foundation by Philip, to the 11th year of king Perſeus, when it was reduced to a Roman province by Paulus Æmilius, laſted, according to Juſtin, 192 years. The Roman empire, from the foundation of the city of Rome, 753 years before Chriſt, to the final deſtruction of the weſtern empire by Odoacer, in the 476th year of the Chriſtian era, laſted 1229 years.

All theſe empires owed their origin and increaſe to conqueſt, and an union of diſſonant parts; they therefore fell to pieces ſo ſoon as luxury and effeminacy had undermined them, and the bravery of the ancient founders had become extinct in their poſterity. Enterpriſing people were ſoon found ready to take advantage of their degeneracy. The Aſſyrian and Roman empires were the ſloweſt in growth, and the longeſt in decay. The Chineſe is the moſt remarkable empire, as well for its durability, as for the invariable continuation of the ſame laws and manners for a long ſucceſſion of ages. Its hiſtory, however, is very little known by Europeans, and what the Chineſe themſelves pretend to give of it, is too ſophiſticated by fable to be believed. It is nevertheleſs certain, that after being conquered by the Tartars, they ſtill preſerved the ſame laws, religion, and language; and as the conquerors became loſt in the immenſe numbers of the conquered, and by degrees aſſumed their manners, the dominions of the Tartars might be ſaid to be added to the Chineſe empire.

The Britiſh empire reſembles the Aſſyrian and Roman in the ſlowneſs of its growth, and the Chineſe in the fate of its invaders. The Saxons, Danes, Romans, and Normans, after their ſucceſſive irruptions, remained moſtly in England, and formed, in proceſs of time, one nation, governed by one law, and acknowledging ſubjection to one prince. England, by its ſubjection and union with Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, laid the foundation of the Britiſh empire; and by its conqueſts and colonies in every part of the globe, and more particularly by its commerce and manufactures, raiſed it to that pitch of grandeur as to be ſecond to none. Beſides having given birth to the United States of North America, a nation nearly as populous as itſelf, it is now forming ſettlements in New South Wales, with the ſame unremitting watchfulneſs, toil, and labour, as attended the foundation of the United States.

The foundation of the American republic affords a ſplendid ſpectacle to the eye of the univerſe. Its increaſing ſtrength may place it in the foremoſt rank of nations; and, if the Americans continue united, and know where to place a proper bound to their love of dominion, there is a great probability that it will be as durable as any empire the world has witneſſed; but, if they diſunite, or diminiſh their internal ſtrength by too great an extenſion of their poſſeſſions, they will become petty ſtates, perpetually ſtruggling with each other, and a prey to factious deſigning men. All the advantages attending the monarchies or republics of the old world, center in the new, as well as others which they never poſſeſſed. The Aſſyrian, Perſian, Macedonian, and Roman, empires, the dominions of Charlemagne, and the Saracens, aroſe from conqueſt, and the uniting of kingdoms different in arts, manners, languages, and religions. The American empire is formed by commerce, and the arts of peace; by people ariſing from the ſame ſtock; emigrating from the ſame country; poſſeſſing the ſame language, religion, laws, manners, and purſuits; for the ſmall variation in ſome diſtricts, owing to the intermixture of Germans, forms only a very ſlight exception, which will be entirely done away in the courſe of a very few generations. By this intimate connection of men and morals, the cauſe, which accelerated and finally proved the overthrow of the Eaſtern empires, is totally done away in the Weſtern. The extent of the United States is commenſurate with any probable increaſe of population for ages to come; and it poſſeſſes all the ſolid advantages of the Chineſe empire, without the fatal neighbourhood of the Tartars. By the ceſſion of Louiſiana, the Americans have gained a

vaſt

vaſt increaſe of territory; and the free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, which is thereby ſecured to them, will increaſe the population of the weſtern parts, and form a complete barrier on that ſide. The two Floridas can never be an object of terror to them; and, in caſe of a rupture between Spain and the United States, will ſoon be taken poſſeſſion of by the latter. The Britiſh poſſeſſions on the north and weſt are alone to be dreaded, and in the latter quarter they are ſtrongly guarded by the forts eſtabliſhed by the Britiſh, and lately delivered up to the Americans, according to the treaty of Paris. Thus ſituated, the United States appear formed by nature for a great, permanent, and independent, government. Such an extenſive tract of country, covered with a people ſprung from an active and induſtrious nation, whoſe example they ſeem anxious to emulate, ought to form a commonwealth as indiſſoluble as humanity will allow.

EMPI'RIC, *ſ.* [*empiricus*, Lat. from εν, Gr. in, and πειρα, experience.] This word ſeems to have been pronounced *empiric* by Milton, and *émpiric* by Dryden. Milton's pronunciation is to be preferred. *Johnſon.* A trier; an experimenter; ſuch perſons as have no true education in, or knowledge of, phyſical practice, but venture upon hearſay and obſervation only. *Quincy.*—Such an averſion and contempt for all manner of innovation, as phyſicians are apt to have for *empirics*, or lawyers for pettifoggers. *Swift.*

Th' illit'rate writer, *emp'ric*-like applies
To each diſeaſe unſafe chance remedies;
The learn'd in ſchool, whence ſcience firſt began,
Studies with care th' anatomy of man. *Dryden.*

EMPI'RIC, or EMPIRICAL, *adj.* Verſed in experiments:

By fire
Of ſooty coal, the *empiric* alchemiſt
Can turn, or holds it poſſible to turn,
Metals of droſſieſt ore to perfect gold. *Milton.*

Known only by experience; practiſed only by rote, without rational grounds.—The moſt ſovereign preſcription in Galen is but *empiric* to this preſervative. *Shakeſpeare.*

In extremes, bold counſels are the beſt;
Like *empiric* remedies, they laſt are try'd,
And by th' event condemn'd or juſtify'd. *Dryden.*

EMPI'RICALLY, *adv.* Experimentally; according to experience.—We ſhall *empirically* and ſenſibly deduct the cauſes of blackneſs from originals, by which we generally obſerve things denigrated. *Brown.*—Without rational ground; charlatanically; in the manner of quacks.

EMPI'RICISM, *ſ.* Dependence on experience without knowledge or art; quackery.

EM'PIS, *ſ.* in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order diptera. The characters are theſe: mouth with an inflected ſucker and proboſcis: ſucker with a ſingle-valved ſheath, and three briſtles: feelers ſhort and filiform: antennæ ſetaceous. There are twenty-nine ſpecies of this inſect now known, moſt of them very minute, which live by ſucking out the blood and juices of the larger animals. Five of the ſpecies are found in England; the largeſt of which is the *empis livida*, ſeen frequently in our gardens upon plants and flowers; the head is ſmall, of a roundiſh form; the thorax gibbous, of a pale green colour, with three longitudinal lines or bands. The eyes are of a reddiſh brown; the upper part of the abdomen of a duſky dun colour; the feet are long, hairy, and of a paler brown; the wings are incumbent, rather long, with dun-coloured veins. This is correctly figured in the engraving.

EMPLA'GIA, *ſ.* [Gr.] With phyſicians, a palſy. *Scott.*

EMPLAS'TER, *ſ.* [*emplatre*, Fr. *impiaſtro*, Ital, εμπλαστρον, Gr. This word is now always pronounced, and generally written *plaſter.*] An application to a ſore of an oleaginous or viſcous ſubſtance, ſpread upon cloth. See PLASTER.—All *emplaſters*, applied to the breaſts, ought to have a hole for the nipples. *Wiſeman.*

To EMPLAS'TER, *v. a.* To cover with a plaſter.—They muſt be cut out to the quick, and the ſores *emplaſtered* with tar. *Mortimer.*

EMPLAS'TIC, *adj.* [εμπλαστικος, Gr.] Viſcous; glutinous; fit to be applied as a plaſter.—Reſin, by its *emplaſtic* quality, mixed with oil of roſes, perfects the concoction. *Wiſeman.*—*Emplaſtic* applications are not ſufficient to defend a wound from the air. *Arbuthnot.*

To EMPLE'AD, *v. a.* To indict; to prefer a charge againſt; to accuſe.—Antiquity thought thunder the immediate voice of Jupiter, and *empleaded* them of impiety that referred it to natural caſualties. *Glanville.*

Since none the living villains dare *emplead*,
Arraign them in the perſons of the dead. *Dryden.*

EMPLEU'RUM, *ſ.* [εμπλευρος, Gr. *latera plena habens.*] In botany, a genus of the claſs monoecia, order tetrandria, natural order aggregatæ, (rutaceæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—I. Male flowers. Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, bell-ſhaped, four-toothed, permanent. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments four, awl-ſhaped, longer than the calyx, patulous; antheræ oblong, ſubquadrangular, retuſe. II. Female flowers on the ſame plant. Calyx: as in the male. Corolla: none. Piſtillum: germ ſuperior, oblong, compreſſed, terminated by a leafy, erect, proceſs; ſtyle, none; ſtigma placed on the lateral toothlet of the germ, cylindric, deciduous. Pericarpium: capſule oblong, compreſſed, crowned by a leafy proceſs, one-celled, opening along the ſtraighter margin. Seed: ſolitary, oblong, covered with a ſubcoriaceous bivalve aril.—*Eſſential Character.* Male. Calyx, four-cleft; corolla, none. Female. Calyx, four-cleft, inferior; corolla, none; ſtigma cylindric, placed on the lateral toothlet of the germ; capſule opening on the ſide; ſeed, one, arilled.

Empleurum ſerrulatum, or cape empleurum, a ſingle ſpecies. This is a ſhrub with wand-like even branches; leaves like thoſe of a willow, alternate, ſubpetioled, linear lanceolate, even above, beneath longitudinally wrinkled, ſmooth, quite entire on the edge, but appearing to be ſerrate by pellucid dots; flowers ſmall, moſt of them male. In the habit and aril of the ſeed it reſembles dioſma, but it has no corolla, and only a ſingle capſule. Firſt obſerved by Sparrmann, at the Cape of Good Hope; introduced here by Mr. Francis Maſſon in 1774.

To EMPLO'Y, *v. a.* [*employer*, Fr.] To buſy; to keep at work; to exercife. It is uſed both as agent; as *The king* employed *the miniſter*; or cauſe, as *The public credit* employed *the miniſter:*

For thrice, at leaſt, in compaſs of the year,
Thy vineyard muſt *employ* the ſturdy ſteer. *Dryden.*

In the following quotations it is uſed with *in*, *about*, *to*, and *upon*, before the object. *To* ſeems leſs proper.—Their principal learning was aplied to the courſe of the ſtars, and the reſt was *employed in* diſplaying the brave exploits of their princes. *Temple.*—Our reaſon is often puzzled, becauſe of the imperfection of the ideas it is *employed about*. *Locke.*—The proper buſineſs of the underſtanding is not that which men always *employ* it *to*. *Locke.*—This is a day in which the thoughts of our countrymen ought to be *employed upon* ſerious ſubjects. *Addiſon.*

On the happy change, the boy
Employ'd his wonder and his joy. *Prior.*

To uſe as an inſtrument:

The cleanly cheeſe-preſs ſhe could never turn;
Her awkward fiſt did ne'er *employ* the churn. *Gay.*

To uſe as means.—The money was *employed to* the making of galleys. 2 *Mac.*

Peace is not freed from labour, but from noiſe;
And war more force, but not more pains, employs. *Dryd.*

To uſe as materials.—The labour of thoſe who felled and framed the timber *employed about* the plough, muſt be charged on labour. *Locke.*—To commiſſion; to entruſt with the management of any affairs.—Jonathan and Jahaziah were *employed about* this matter. *Ezra*, x. 15.—To fill up with buſineſs:

To ſtudy nature will thy time employ;
Knowledge and innocence are perfect joy. *Dryden.*

To paſs or ſpend in buſineſs:

Why, whilſt we ſtruggle in this vale beneath,
With want and ſorrow, with diſeaſe and death,
Do they more bleſs'd perpetual life *employ*
In ſongs of pleaſure, and in ſcenes of joy? *Prior.*

EMPLO'Y, *ſ.* Buſineſs; object of induſtry:

Preſent to graſp, and future ſtill to find,
The whole *employ* of body and of mind. *Pope.*

Public office.—The honours and the burdens of great poſts and *employs* were joined together. *Atterbury.*

EMPLOYA'BLE, *adj.* Capable to be uſed; proper for uſe.—The objections made againſt the doctrine of the chemiſts, ſeem *employable* againſt this hypotheſis. *Boyle.*

EMPLOY'ER, *ſ.* One that uſes, or cauſes to be uſed.—That man drives a great trade, and is owner or *employer* of much ſhipping, and continues and increaſes in trade and ſhipping. *Child on Trade.*

EMPLOY'MENT, *ſ.* Buſineſs; object of induſtry; object of labour. Buſineſs; the ſtate of being employed. Office; poſt of buſineſs.—Leaders, on each ſide, inſtead of intending the public weal, have their hearts wholly ſet to get or to keep *employments*. *Swift.*—Buſineſs intruſted:

Call not your ſtocks for me; I ſerve the king,
On whoſe *employment* I was ſent to you. *Shakeſpeare.*

Implement:

My ſtay hath been prolongued
With hunting obſcure nooks for theſe *employments.**
[* An iron crow and a halter.] *Chapm. Widow's Tears.*

EMPNEUMATO'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, in, and πνεω, to blow.] With phyſicians, an inflation of the ſtomach, or womb, or any other part.

To EMPOI'SON, *v. a.* [*empoiſonner*, Fr.] To deſtroy by poiſon; to deſtroy by venomous food or drugs; to poiſon.—Muſhrooms cauſe the incubus, or mare in the ſtomach, therefore the ſurfeit of them may ſuffocate and *empoiſon*. *Bacon.*—To taint with poiſon; to envenom. *This is the more uſual ſenſe.* It frequently occurs with a metaphorical meaning in poetry.—Or want's *empoiſon'd* arrow, ridicule. *Shenſtone.*

One doth not know,
How much an ill word may *empoiſon* liking. *Shakeſpeare.*

EMPOI'SONER, *ſ.* [*empoiſonneur*, Fr.] One who deſtroys another by poiſon.—He is vehemently ſuſpected to have been the *empoiſoner* of his wife, thereby to make vacant his bed. *Bacon.*

EMPOI'SONMENT, *ſ.* [*empoiſonnement*, Fr.] The practice of deſtroying by poiſon.—It were dangerous for ſecret *empoiſonments*. *Bacon.*

EM'POLIS, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Tuſcany, ſituated on the Arno: fifteen miles weſt of Florence. It is deſcribed by Dr. John Targioni Tozetti, in his Travels through Tuſcany, publiſhed in 1792, as follows: "Empolis is ſituated as happily as can be deſired for a great metropolis; in the middle of an immenſe plain, ſalubrious and fruitful, well aired, ſurrounded by delicious and abundant hills, neither too far from, nor too near to, the mountains, and riſes above a majeſtical navigable river, ſufficiently near to the ſea. I never caſt my eyes on this ſuperb town without feeling an indignation againſt the famous Farinati Degli Oberti, who, in 1260, dared ſingly to oppoſe the project of deſtroying Florence, and removing the inhabitants to Empolis. This tranſmigration was certainly not to the taſte of our anceſtors, but would have been extremely advantageous for us; for Empolis would have become, in time, a town infinitely more beautiful, and more ſalubrious, than Florence: remains of the admired ages of antiquity have been found in it, and it has been conſiderable alſo in more modern times. The preſent houſes are very low, and into moſt of them the entrance is by a deſcent; which ſhews the ſurface of the earth to be new ſoil, ſomewhat raiſed."

EMPORE'TIC, *adj.* [*emporeticus*, Lat. of εμπορητικος, Gr.] That which is diſpoſed of at markets, or in merchandize.

EMPO'RIÆ, anciently a double city of the Hither Spain, near the Pyrenees; ſeparated by a wall; one part was occupied by the Greeks of Phocæa, whence originally are the Maſſilienſes; the other, by native Spaniards, to whom was added by Auguſtus a Roman colony. Now *Ampurias*, in Catalonia.

EMPO'RIUM, *ſ.* [from εμπορεω, Gr. to negotiate.] A place of merchandize; a mart; a town of trade; a commercial city:

And while this fam'd *emporium* we prepare,
The Britiſh ocean ſhall ſuch triumphs boaſt,
That thoſe who now diſdain the trade to ſhare,
Shall rob like pirates on our wealthy coaſt. *Dryden.*

The brain is ſo called, as being the place where all rational and ſenſitive tranſactions are collected.

EMPO'RIUM, two ancient cities near Placentia; one fortified and guarded by a ſtrong garriſon, at which Hannibal met a repulſe: the other, Hannibal took and plundered; now thought to be *Ponte Nura*, in the duchy of Placentia.

To EMPO'VERISH, *v. a.* [*pauvre*, Fr.] To make poor; to depauperate; to reduce to indigence.—To leſſen fertility; as, tillage *empoveriſhes* land.—For ſenſe of honours, if it *empoveriſheth* a man, it is, in his eſteem, neither honour nor ſenſe. *South.*

Freſh roſes bring,
To ſtrow my bed, 'till the *empoveriſh'd* Spring
Confeſs her want. *Prior.*

EMPO'VERISHER, *ſ.* One that makes others poor. That which impairs fertility.—They deſtroy the weeds, and fit the land for after-crops, being an improver, and not an *impoveriſher*, of land. *Mortimer.*

EMPO'VERISHMENT, *ſ.* Depauperation; cauſe of poverty; drain of wealth.—Being paid, as it is, now ſome, and then ſome, it is no great burden unto her, nor any great *empoveriſhment* to her coffers. *Spenſer's State of Ireland.*

To EMPOW'ER, *v. a.* To authoriſe; to commiſſion; to give power or authority to any purpoſe.—You are *empowered*, when you pleaſe, to give the final deciſion of wit. *Dryden.*—To give natural force; to enable.—Does not the ſame power that enables them to heal, *empower* them to deſtroy? *Baker.*

EM'PRESS, *ſ.* [contracted from *emperes*, which is retained by *Jonſon* in the following lines.] The queen of an emperor:

Let your nimble feet
Tread ſubtile circles, that may always meet
In point to him; and figures to expreſs
The grace of him, and his great *emperes*. *Ben Jonſon.*

A female inveſted with imperial dignity; a female ſovereign.—*Empreſs* of this fair world, reſplendent Eve! *Milton.*

Wiſdom, thou ſay'ſt, from heav'n receiv'd her birth;
Her beams tranſmitted to the ſubject earth;
Yet this great *empreſs* of the human ſoul,
Does only with imagin'd power controul. *Prior.*

EMPRI'MED, *adj.* with hunters, ſeparated from the herd.

EMPRI'SE, *ſ.* [Fr.] Attempt of danger; undertaking of hazard; enterpriſe:

Fierce faces threan'ning wars;
Giants of mighty bone, and bold *empriſe*. *Milton.*

Thus,

Thus, 'till the ſun had travell'd half the ſkies,
Ambuſh'd we lie, and wait the bold *empriſe*. *Pope.*

EMPROSTHO'TONUS, *ſ.* [from εμπροσθεν, Gr. before or forwards, and τεινω, to extend.] A ſpaſmodic contraction, where ſome part of the body is bent forwards.

EMP'TIER, *ſ.* One that empties; one that makes any place void by taking away what it contained.—The *emptiers* have emptied them out, and marred their vine-branches. *Nahum*, ii. 2.

EMP'TINESS, *ſ.* Abſence of plenitude; inanity:

Deſolation reigns
And *emptineſs*; diſmay'd, unfed, unhous'd,
The widow and the orphan ſtroll. *Philips.*

The ſtate of being empty:

His coffers ſound
With hollow poverty and *emptineſs*. *Shakeſpeare.*

A void ſpace; vacuity; *vacuum.*—The ordinary air in which we live and reſpire, is of ſo thin a compoſition, that ſixteen thouſand one hundred and forty-nine parts of its dimenſions are mere *emptineſs* and nothing; and the remaining one, only material and real ſubſtance. *Bentley.*—Want of ſubſtance or ſolidity.—'Tis this which cauſes the graces and the loves to take up their habitations in the hardeſt marble, and to ſubſiſt in the *emptineſs* of light and ſhadow. *Dryden.*—Unſatisfactorineſs; inability to fill up the deſires.—Form the judgment about the worth or *emptineſs* of things here, according as they are or are not of uſe, in relation of what is to come after. *Atterbury.*—Vacuity of head; want of knowledge:

Eternal ſmiles his *emptineſs* betray,
As ſhallow ſtreams run dimpling all the way. *Pope.*

EMP'TION, *ſ.* [*emptio*, Lat.] The act of purchaſing; a purchaſe.—There is a diſpute among the lawyers, whether Glaucus's exchanging the golden armour with the brazen one of Tydides, was *emption* or commutation. *Arbuthnot.*

EMP'TIONAL, *adj.* Belonging to buying.

EMPTI'TIOUS, *adj.* Capable of being bought, ſaleable. *Scott.*

EMP'TIVE, *adj.* [from the Lat. *emo*, to buy; but not much uſed.] Bought; hired. *Scott.*

EMP'TORY, *ſ.* *Not ſo common a word.* An empory; a mart. *Cole.*

EMPTURI'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *emptus*, bought.] The inordinate deſire of buying. *Cole.* *Not uſed.*

EMP'TY, *adj.* [æmtiȝ, Sax.] Void; having nothing in it; not full.—I did never know ſo full a voice iſſue from ſo *empty* a heart; but the ſaying is true, the *empty* veſſel makes the greateſt ſound. *Shakeſpeare.*—Evacuated; no longer full:

Himſelf he frees by ſecret means unſeen,
His ſhackles *empty* left, himſelf eſcaped clean. *Spenſer.*

Devoid; unfurniſhed:

Art thou thus boldened, man, by thy diſtreſs,
That in civility thou ſeem'ſt ſo *empty*? *Shakeſpeare.*

Unſatisfactory; unable to fill the mind or deſires.—Pleas'd in the ſilent ſhade with *empty* praiſe. *Pope.*—Without any thing to carry; unburthened; unfreighted.—They beat him, and ſent him away *empty*. *Matthew.*—When ye go, ye ſhall not go *empty*. *Exodus.*

Yet all the little that I got, I ſpent;
And ſtill return'd as *empty* as I went. *Dryden.*

Hungry:

My falcon now is ſharp and paſſing *empty*,
And, till ſhe ſtoop, ſhe muſt not be full-gorg'd,
For then ſhe never looks upon her lure. *Shakeſpeare.*

Vacant of head; ignorant; unſkilful; unfurniſhed with materials for thought.—How comes it that ſo many worthy and wiſe men depend upon ſo many unworthy and *empty*-headed fools? *Raleigh.*—Unfruitful; barren.—Seven *empty* ears blaſted with the eaſt wind. *Geneſis.*—Iſrael is an *empty* vine. *Hoſea.*—Wanting ſubſtance; wanting ſolidity; vain:

The god of ſleep there hides his heavy head,
And *empty* dreams on every leaf are ſpread. *Dryden.*

To EMP'TY, *v. a.* To evacuate; to exhauſt; to deprive of that which was contained in it.—The Euxine ſea is conveniently ſituated for trade, by the communication it has both with Aſia and Europe, and the great navigable rivers that *empty* themſelves into it. *Arbuthnot.*

Boundleſs intemperance
In nature is a tyranny: it hath been
Th' untimely *emptying* of the happy throne,
And fall of many kings. *Shakeſpeare.*

To EMP'TY, *v. n.* To become empty:

The chapel *empties*; and thou may'ſt be gone
Now, Sun. *Ben Jonſon.*

"EMPTY veſſels make the loudeſt ſound."—Agreeable to the words of divine wiſdom, a fool's voice is known by a multitude of words. Thoſe who have leaſt worth, are generally fulleſt; whereas, on the contrary, thoſe who poſſeſs excellent qualities, are moſt ſilent on their own praiſe. The French ſay, as we: *Les tonneaux voides, font le plus de bruit.* The Italians: *La piu cattiva ruota del carro ſempre cigola*: The worſt wheel of the cart cracks firſt. The Arabians have a proverb to the ſame effect, taken from a thunder-cloud, which makes a *great report*, but yields no rain.

EMP'TYSIS, *ſ.* [from εμπτυω, to ſpit.] A diſcharge of blood by ſpitting.

To EMPUR'PLE, *v. a.* To make of a purple colour; to diſcolour with purple:

The deep,
Empurpled ran, with guſhing gore diſtain'd. *Philips.*

EM'PUS, a town of France, in the department of the Var, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Draguignan: five miles north weſt of Draguignan.

EMPU'SA, *ſ.* [from the Greek.] A hobgoblin; a ſpirit which was ſuppoſed to go on one leg. *Philips.*

To EMPUZ'ZLE, *v. a.* To perplex; to put to a ſtand.—It hath *empuzzled* the enquiries of others to apprehend, and enforced them unto ſtrange conceptions to make out. *Brown.*

EMPYE'MA, *ſ.* [from εν, within, and πυον, Gr. pus.] A collection of purulent matter in any part whatſoever; generally uſed to ſignify that in the cavity of the breaſt only, and which ſometimes happens upon the opening of abſceſſes or ulcerations of the lungs, or membranes incloſing the breaſt. *Quincy.*—An *empyema*, or a collection of purulent matter in the breaſt, if not ſuddenly cured, doth undoubtedly impel the patient into a phthiſical conſumption. *Harvey.*—There is likewiſe a conſumption from an *empyema*, after an inflammation of the lungs; which may be known from a weight on the diaphragm, oppreſſion of the lungs, a difficulty of breathing, and inability to lie on one ſide, which is that which is ſound. *Arbuthnot.*

EMPYEMA'TICS, *ſ.* [*empyemata*, Lat. from εν, and πυον, pus.] Medicines which ſuppurate or produce pus.

EMPY'REAL, *adj.* [εμπυρος, Gr.] Formed of fire; refined beyond aerial; pertaining to the higheſt and pureſt region of heaven. [*Tickell* accents it on the penult.]

Now went forth the morn,
Such as in higheſt heav'n, array'd in gold
Empyreal. *Milton.*

Go, ſoar with Plato to th' *empyreal* ſphere,
To the firſt good, firſt perfect, and firſt fair. *Pope.*

But *empyréal* forms, howe'er in fight
Gaſh'd and diſmembered, eaſily unite. *Tickell.*

EMPYRE'AN, *ſ.* [εμπυρος, Gr.] The higheſt heaven; The

The Almighty Father from above,
From the pure *empyrean* where he fits
High thron'd above all height, bent down his eye. *Milt.*

EMPY'REUM, or EMPYREU'MA, *ſ.* [from εμπυρευω, Gr. to kindle.] The imperfect combuſtion of any matter in boiling or diſtillation, which thence gives a particular offenſive ſmell. *Quincy.*—It is ſo far from admitting an *empyreum*, that it burns clear away without leaving any cinders, or a duſt about it. *Harvey.*—The hopes of an elixir inſenſibly evaporate, and vaniſh to air, or leave in the recipient a foul *empyreuma*. *Decay of Piety.*

Macquer obſerves, that empyreuma is the peculiar ſmell of burned oils, and that no other but oily ſubſtances can produce it. He even propoſes this indication as a teſt of the preſence of oil, in bodies which contain too ſmall a quantity of that fluid to admit of any other way of exhibiting it.

EMPYREUMA'TICAL, *adj.* Having the ſmell or taſte of burnt ſubſtances.—*Empyreumatical* oils, diſtilled by ſtrong fires in retorts, may be brought to emulate eſſential oils drawn in limbecks. *Boyle.*

EMPYRO'SIS, *ſ.* [εμπυροω, Gr.] Conflagration; general fire.—The former opinion that held theſe catacliſms and *empyroſes* univerſal, was ſuch as held that it put a total conſummation unto things in this lower world, eſpecially that of conflagration. *Hale.*

EMS, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: ſeven miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Coblentz.

EMS, or EMER, a river of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, which riſes in the biſhopric of Paderborn, paſſes through the biſhopric of Munſter and Eaſt Frieſland, and runs into the German Ocean, a little below Emden.

EMS'BACH, a river of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine which runs into the Lahne, three miles eaſt from Limburg, in the electorate of Trevcs.

EMS'WORTH, a ſmall port on the coaſt of Hampſhire, two miles from Havant, ſeven from Chicheſter and eleven from Portſmouth. It is famous for the peculiar flavour of its oyſters.

EMU'CID, *adj.* [from the Lat. *muceo*, to be muſty.] Mouldy. *Scott. Not much uſed.*

To EM'ULATE, *v. a.* [*æmulor*, Lat.] To rival; to propoſe as one to be equalled or excelled. To imitate with hope of equality, or ſuperior excellence:

Thoſe fair ideas to my aid I'll call,
And *emulate* my great original. *Dryden.*

What though no weeping loves thy aſhes grace,
Nor poliſh'd marble *emulate* thy face. *Pope.*

To be equal to; to riſe to equality with.—I ſee how thy eye would *emulate* the diamond. *Shakeſpeare.*

We ſee no new-built palaces aſpire,
No kitchens *emulate* the veſtal fire. *Pope.*

To imitate; to copy; to reſemble.—It is likewiſe attended with a delirium, fury, and an involuntary laughter, the convulſion *emulating* this motion. *Arbuthnot.*

EMULA'TION, *ſ.* [*æmulatio*, Lat.] Rivalry; deſire of ſuperiority.—There was neither envy nor *emulation* amongſt them. 1 *Mac.*

A noble *emulation* heats your breaſt,
And your own fame now robs you of your reſt:
Good actions ſtill muſt be maintained with good,
As bodies nourith'd with reſembling food. *Dryden.*

Envy; deſire of depreſſing another; conteſt; contention; diſcord:

What madneſs rules in brainſick men,
When for ſo ſlight and frivolous a cauſe,
Such factious *emulations* ſhall ariſe! *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'ULATIVE, *adj.* Inclined to emulation; rivalling; diſpoſed to competition.

EMULA'TOR, *ſ.* A rival; a competitor.—In ſuperiors it quencheth jealouſy, and layeth their competitors and *emulators* aſleep. *Bacon.*

To EMU'LE, *v. a.* [*emulor*, Lat.] To emulate. *Not in uſe.*

He ſitting me beſide, in that ſame ſhade,
Provoked me to play ſome pleaſant fit;
Yet *emuling* my pipe, he took in hand
My pipe, before that *emuled* of many,
And plaid thereon; for well that ſkill he could. *Spenſ.*

To EMUL'GE, *v. a.* [*emulgeo*, Lat.] To milk out; to ſtroke gently.

EMUL'GENT, *adj.* [*emulgens*, Lat.] Milking or draining out. The *emulgent* veſſels are the two large arteries and veins which ariſe; the former from the deſcending trunk of the aorta, or great artery; the latter from the vena cava.—Through the *emulgent* branches the blood is brought to the kidneys, and is there freed of its ſerum. *Cheyne.*

EM'ULOUS, *adj.* [*æmulus*, Lat.] Rivalling; engaged in competition.—She is in perpetual diffidence or actual enmity with her, but always *emulous* and ſuſpectful of her. *Howell.*—Deſirous of ſuperiority; deſirous to riſe above another; deſirous of any excellence poſſeſſed by another; with *of* before the object of emulation:

By ſtrength
They meaſure all, *of* other excellence
Not *emulous* nor care who them excels. *Milton.*

By fair rewards our noble youth we raiſe
To *emulous* merit, and to thirſt of praiſe. *Prior.*

Factious; contentious:

Whoſe glorious deeds, but in the fields of late,
Made *emulous* miſſions 'mongſt the gods themſelves,
And drave great Mars to faction. *Shakeſpeare.*

EM'ULOUSLY, *adv.* With deſire of excelling or outgoing another:

So tempt they him, and *emulouſly* vie
To bribe a voice that empires would not buy. *Granville.*

EMUL'SION, *ſ.* [*emulſio*, Lat.] A form of medicine, by bruiſing oily ſeeds and kernels, and drawing out their ſubſtances with ſome liquor, that thereby becomes milky. *Quincy.*—The aliment is diſſolved by an operation reſembling that of making an *emulſion*; in which operation the oily parts of nuts and ſeeds, being gently ground in a marble mortar, and gradually mixed with ſome watery liquor, are diſſolved into a ſweet, thick, turbid, milky liquor, reſembling the chyle in an animal body. *Arbuthnot.*

EMUNC'TORIES, *ſ.* [*emunctorium*, Lat.] Thoſe parts of the body where any thing excrementitious is ſeparated and collected, to be in readineſs for ejectment. *Quincy.*—Superfluous matter deflows from the body under their proper *emunctories*. *Brown.*—Diſcourſing of the lungs, I ſhew that they are the grand *emunctory* of the body; that the main end of reſpiration is continually to diſcharge and expel an excrementitious fluid out of the maſs of blood. *Woodward.*

EMUNDA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *e*, from, and *mundo*, to cleanſe.] The act of cleanſing. *Scott. Not much uſed.*

EMUNG'S, one of the Pelew iſlands.

EMUSCA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *e*, from, and *muſcus*, moſs.] The act of clearing a tree from moſs. *Scott.*

-EN, an inſeparable particle borrowed by us from the French, and by the French formed from the Latin *in*. Many words are uncertainly written with *en* or *in*. In many words *en* is changed into *em* for more eaſy pronunciation.

EN-DOR, a city of Paleſtine, in the half tribe of Manaſſeh, weſt of Jordan, ſituated near the Mediterranean; whither king Saul went to conſult the witch that reſided there. *Joſh.* xvii. 11. The woman at En-dor, who had a familiar ſpirit, is called אוב, Oub, or Ob: and it is interpreted *Pythoniſſa*. The place where ſhe reſided, ſeems to

to have been named from the worſhip there inſtituted: for *En-dor* is compounded of *En-Ador*, and ſignifies *Fons Pythonis*, the fountain of light, the oracle of the god Ador. This oracle was probably founded by the Canaanites; and had never been totally ſuppreſſed.

EN-EGLAIM, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated near the Dead Sea. *Ezek.* xlvii. 10.

EN-GANNIM, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Iſſachar; and one of the cities of the Levites, of the family of Gerſhon. *Joſh.* xxi. 29. Alſo the name of another city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, ſituated in the low parts of that province. *Joſh.* xv. 34.

EN-GEDI, [Heb. a fountain of happineſs.] A city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, ſituated in the wilderneſs of Judah; in the ſtrong holds of which, David concealed himſelf from the rage of Saul. *Joſh.* xv. 62. 1 *Sam.* xxiv. 1.

EN-HADDAH, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Iſſachar. *Joſh.* xix. 21.

EN-HAKKORE, [Heb. the well of him that called.] The name given by Sampſon, to the well at which he refreſhed himſelf, after his ſlaughter of the Philiſtines with the jaw-bone of an aſs. *Judges* xv. 19.

EN-HAZOR, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Naphtali. *Joſh.* xix. 37.

EN-MISHPAT, or KADESH. *Gen.* xiv. 7. See KADESH.

EN-RIMMON, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the tribe of Judah. *Nehem.* xi. 29.

EN-ROGEL, [or the well Rogel,] ſituated in Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah, upon the boundaries of that province and Benjamin. *Joſh.* xv. 7. xviii. 16.

EN-SHEMESH, [i.e. waters of the ſun,] *waters of*, ſituated in Paleſtine, near the boundaries of Judah and Benjamin. *Joſh.* xv. 7. xviii. 17.

EN-TAPPUAH, or TAPPUAH, a city of Paleſtine, ſituated juſt within the border of Manaſſeh, weſt of Jordan, but belonging to the tribe of Ephraim. *Joſh.* xvii. 7, 8.

To ENA'BLE, *v. a.* To make able; to empower; to ſupply with ſtrength or ability.—He points out to him the way of life, ſtrengthens his weakneſs, reſtores his lapſes, and *enables* him to walk and perſevere in it. *Rogers.*

EN'ABY, a town of Sweden, in the province of Eaſt Gothland: twenty-five miles ſouth of Linkioping.

EN'ACH, *ſ.* In the cuſtoms of Scotland, the ſatisfaction for a crime; the recompence for a fault.

To ENA'CT *v. a.* To act; to perform; to effect. *Not in uſe.*—In true balancing of juſtice, it is flat wrong to puniſh the thought or purpoſe of any before it be *enacted*. *Legiſlator.*—To eſtabliſh by law; to decree:

It is *enacted* in the laws of Venice,
If it be proved againſt an alien,
He ſeek the life of any citizen,
The party, 'gainſt the which he doth contrive,
Shall ſeize on half his goods. *Shakeſpeare.*

To repreſent by action.—I did *enact* Hector. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENA'CT, *ſ.* Purpoſe; determination.

ENACT'OR, *ſ.* One that forms decrees, or eſtabliſhes laws.—The great author of our nature, and *enactor* of this law of good and evil, is highly diſhonoured. *Atterbury.*—One who practiſes or performs any thing. *Not uſed.*

The violence of either grief or joy,
Their own *enactors* with themſelves deſtroy. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENA'CTURE, *ſ.* Effect. *Maſon*, who quotes the preceding example, which in ſome editions has *enactures* for *enactors*.

EN'ÆMA, *ſ.* [from εν, and αιμα, blood.] Any medicine appropriated to bleeding wounds.

ENAL'LAGE, *ſ.* [of εναλλαττειν, Gr. to change.] A figure in grammar, whereby ſome change is made of the common modes of ſpeech, as when one mood or tenſe of a verb is put for another.

ENAM, a city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah; ſituated in the low parts of that province. *Joſh.* xv. 34.

To ENAM'BUSH, *v. a.* To hide in ambuſh; to hide with hoſtile intention:

They went within a vale, cloſe to a flood, whoſe ſtream
Us'd to give all their cattle drink, they there *enambuſh'd* them. *Chapman.*

To ENA'MEL, *v. a.* [from *émel.* See AMEL.] To inlay; to variegate with colours, properly with colours fixed by fire:

Muſt I, alas!
Frame and *enamel* plate, and drink in glaſs? *Donne.*

See Pan with flocks, with fruits Pomona crown'd;
Here bluſhing Flora paints th' *enamell'd* ground. *Pope.*

To lay upon another body ſo as to vary it:

Higher than that wall, a circling row
Of goodlieſt trees, laden with faireſt fruit,
Bloſſoms, and fruits at once of golden hue,
Appear'd with gay *enamell'd* colours mix'd. *Milton.*

To ENA'MEL, *v. n.* To practiſe the uſe of enamel.—Though it were fooliſh to colour or *enamel* upon the glaſſes of teleſcopes; yet, to gild the tubes of them may render them more acceptable to the uſers, without leſſening the clearneſs of the object. *Boyle.*

ENA'MEL, *ſ.* Any thing enamelled, or variegated with colours fixed by fire.—There are various ſorts of coloured glaſſes, paſtes, *enamels*, and factitious gems. *Woodward.*

Down from her eyes welled the pearles round,
Upon the bright *enamel* of her face;
Such honey drops on ſpringing flowers are found,
When Phœbus holds the crimſon morn in chaſe. *Fairf.*

The ſubſtance inlaid in other things.

ENA'MELLER, *ſ.* One that practiſes the art of enamelling.

ENA'MELLING, *ſ.* The art of preparing and laying enamel upon metals, porcelaine, &c. and of colouring, painting, and burning in, the ſame, by means of the muffle, or enameller's lamp. This art has been greatly depreſſed and retarded in England, by the conſiderable advantage the enameller derives from a diſcovery of any colour uncommonly brilliant, clear, or hard. On this account the artiſt naturally endeavours to keep his proceſs a ſecret, as the ſource of private gain. The principal ingredients of enamel colours have been, however, long known. There are two kinds of enamel, the opake and the tranſparent. Tranſparent enamels are uſually rendered opake by adding putty, or the white calx of tin, to them. The baſis of all enamels is therefore a perfectly tranſparent and fuſible glaſs. The calx of tin renders this of a beautiful white, the perfection of which is greater when a ſmall quantity of manganeſe is likewiſe added. If the calx of tin be not ſufficient to deſtroy the tranſparency of the mixture, it produces a ſemi-opake glaſs, reſembling the opal. Clouet, in his Reſearches reſpecting the Compoſition of Enamel, publiſhed in 1800, gives the following improved methods of producing the moſt beautiful and permanent colours:

WHITE enamel, either for china-ware, or the purpoſe of being applied on metals, is compoſed in the following manner: Firſt calcine a mixture of lead and tin, which may be varied in the following proportions, viz. for one hundred parts of lead, fifteen, twenty, thirty, and even forty of tin. A mixture of lead and tin calcines very eaſily in contact with the air. As ſoon as this mixture is brought to a red heat, it burns like charcoal, and is calcined very ſpeedily. The compoſition which calcines beſt, is that which in one hundred pounds of lead contains from twenty to twenty-five of tin. The tin here meant is pure tin. In proportion as the calcination is effected, take out the calcined part, and continue to oxydate the reſt until the whole has become pulverulent, and of an uniform colour. When the proportion of tin exceeds twenty-five or thirty, a ſtronger fire is neceſſary to produce the calcination. A hundred parts of the calx above mentioned, which in the French potteries is called *calcine*, is generally taken with one hundred parts of ſand. From twenty-five to thirty

pounds of ſea-ſalt, or muriat of ſoda, are added: the whole is well mixed together, and it is fuſed in the bottom of a furnace in which potter's ware is baked. This matter is generally placed on ſand, on lime quenched in the open air, or on aſhes. The bottom of the maſs is in general badly fuſed. This, however, does not prevent the matter, after it has been pounded, and applied on the articles, from becoming exceedingly white and hard in the furnace. This proceſs is that generally uſed in potteries. In the compoſitions deſtined for china-ware, the proportion of twenty-five parts of tin to one hundred of lead is never exceeded: for common earthen-ware, the manufacturers are even ſatisfied with fifteen of tin to one hundred of lead. If it be wiſhed to obtain an enamel whiter and more fuſible, the quantity of ſand muſt be diminiſhed; but there is no neceſſity for augmenting that of the ſea-ſalt, or muriat of ſoda, as the whiteneſs and opacity depend on the quantity of tin. But it is neceſſary to employ ſome further manipulations, when white enamel is required proper for being applied on metals, and to give all the perfection of which it is ſuſceptible. In that caſe the ſand muſt be calcined in a ſtrong heat, with a quarter of its weight of marine ſalt, either in a ſmall quantity in a crucible, or on a large ſcale in a potter's furnace. If it be wiſhed to have a very fuſible enamel, add minium, or lead calcined by the former operation, and nearly as much ſea-ſalt; this produces a white maſs half fuſed and porous, which is to be pulveriſed and employed in the compoſition of enamel inſtead of ſand, and in the ſame proportions as ſand.

When it be wiſhed to have fluxes for the colours, the ſame compoſitions may be employed, except that little or no tin is to be put into the lead. Nitre and borax are now generally uſed for making this glaſs. The following are recommended as the beſt, upon trial by C. Clouet; three parts of ſiliceous ſand, one of chalk, and three of calcined borax, give a matter proper to be uſed as a flux for purples, blues, and other delicate colours.

Three parts of white or flint glaſs, one of calcined borax, a quarter of a part of nitre, one of the white oxyd of antimony made with nitre well waſhed, give an exceedingly white enamel, which may ſerve alſo as a flux for purple, and particularly for blue.

Sixty parts of enamel ſand or leſs, thirty of alum, thirty-five of ſea-ſalt, and a hundred of minium, or any other oxyd of lead, give a white enamel when the fluxes do not predominate too much, and a gelatinous glaſs when a great deal of fluxes has been added. This glaſs is good for red, and the enamel may be applied to all kinds of clay capable of ſuſtaining a ſtrong heat. It is of great importance to remark, and to know, that the ſand employed for enamel muſt not be ſand which contains only ſilex: ſand of that kind alone is of no uſe. The ſand proper for this purpoſe is that which contains talc with ſilex. To make a ſand proper for enamel and the fluxes of colours, there muſt be nearly one part of talc and three of ſiliceous ſand. The principal quality of good enamel, and that which renders it fit for being applied on porcelaine, or on metals, is the facility with which it acquires luſtre by a moderate heat, without entering into complete fuſion. Enamels applied to theſe purpoſes muſt poſſeſs this quality. They do not enter into complete fuſion; they aſſume only the ſtate of paſte, but of a paſte exceedingly firm; and yet when baked one might ſay that they had been completely fuſed.

There are two methods of ornamenting or painting on enamel: on raw, or on baked, enamel. Both theſe methods are employed, or may be employed, for the ſame object. Solid colours, capable of ſuſtaining the fire neceſſary for baking the enamel ground, may be applied in the form of fuſed enamel on that which is raw, and the artiſt may afterwards finiſh with the tender colours. The colours applied on the raw material do not require any flux; there is one, even, to which ſilex muſt be added, that is, the calx of copper, which gives a very beautiful green. All the colours may be produced by the metallic oxyds. Theſe colours are more or leſs fuſed in the fire, according as they adhere with more or leſs ſtrength to their oxygen. All metals which readily loſe their oxygen cannot endure a great degree of heat, and are unfit for being employed on the raw material.

Purple.—This colour is the oxyd of gold, which may be prepared different ways; as by precipitating, by means of a muriatic ſolution of tin, a nitro-muriatic ſolution of gold much diluted in water. The leaſt quantity poſſible of the ſolution of tin will be ſufficient to form this precipitate. The ſolution of tin muſt be added gradually until the purple colour begins to appear: it is then put into an earthen veſſel to dry ſlowly. But the colour is always more beautiful, if the precipitate is ground with the flux before it has become dry. The different ſolutions of gold, in whatever manner precipitated, provided the gold is precipitated in the ſtate of an oxyd, give always a purple colour, which will be more beautiful in proportion to the purity of the oxyd; but neither the copper nor ſilver, with which gold is generally found alloyed, injure this colour in a ſenſible manner: it is changed, however, by iron. The gold precipitate which gives the moſt beautiful purple is certainly fulminating gold, which loſes that property when mixed with fluxes. Purple is an abundant colour; it is capable of bearing a great deal of flux, and in a ſmall quantity communicates its colour to a great deal of matter. It appears that ſaline fluxes are better ſuited to it than thoſe in which there are metallic calces. Thoſe, therefore, which have been made with ſilex, chalk, and borax, or white glaſs, borax, and a little white oxyd of antimony, with a little nitre, ought to be employed with it. Purple will bear from four to twenty parts of flux, and even more, according to the ſhade required. Painters in enamel employ generally for purple a flux which they call brilliant white. This flux appears to be a ſemi-opake enamel, which has been drawn into tubes, and afterwards blown into a ball at an enameller's lamp. Theſe bulbs are afterwards broken in ſuch a manner that the flux is found in ſmall ſcales, which appear like the fragments of ſmall hollow ſpheres. Enamel painters mix this flux with a little nitre and borax. It is to be remarked, that purple will not bear a ſtrong heat.

Red.—We have no metallic oxyd capable of giving directly a fuſed red; that is to ſay, we have no metallic calces which, entering into fuſion, and combining under the form of tranſparent glaſs with fluxes or glaſs, give directly a red colour. To obtain this, it muſt be compounded different ways, as follows: Take two parts, or two parts and a half, of ſulphat of iron and of ſulphat of alumine; fuſe them together in their water of cryſtalliſation, and mix them well together. Continue to heat them to complete dryneſs; then increaſe the fire ſo as to bring the mixture to a red heat. The laſt operation muſt be performed in a reverberating furnace. Keep the mixture to a red heat until it has every where aſſumed a beautiful red colour, which may be aſcertained by taking out a little of it from time to time, and ſuffering it to cool in the air. The red oxyds of iron give a red colour; but this is exceedingly fugitive: for, as ſoon as the oxyd of iron enters into fuſion, the portion of oxygen which gives it its red colour leaves it, and it becomes black, yellow, or greeniſh. To preſerve, therefore, the red colour of this oxyd in the fire, it muſt be prevented from vitrifying, and abandoning its oxygen. Clouet tried a variety of different ſubſtances to give it this fixity, but none of them ſucceeded except alum. The doſes of alum and ſulphat of iron may be varied. The more alum, the paler will be the colour. Three parts of alum to one of ſulphat of iron give a fleſh colour. It is alum alſo which gives this colour the property of becoming fixed at a very ſtrong heat. This colour may be employed on raw enamel: it has much more fixity than the purple, but not ſo much as the blue of cobalt. It may be waſhed to carry off the

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ſuperfluous ſaline matter, but it may be employed alſo without edulcoration; in that ſtate it is even more fixed and more beautiful. It does not require much flux; the flux beſt ſuited to it is compoſed of alum, minium, marine ſalt, and enamel ſand. This flux muſt be compounded in ſuch a manner as to render it ſufficiently fuſible for its object: from two to three parts of it are mixed with the colour. In general, three parts of flux are uſed for one of colour: but this doſe may, and ought to be, varied, according to the nature of the colour, and the ſhade required. Red calx of iron alone, when it enters into fuſion with glaſs, gives a colour which ſeems to be black; but if it be diluted with a ſufficient quantity of glaſs, it at laſt becomes of a tranſparent yellow. Thus, the colour really produced by calx of iron combined with glaſs is a yellow colour, but which being accumulated becomes ſo dark that it appears black. In the proceſs above given for making the red colour, the oxyd of iron does not fuſe: and this is the eſſential point; for, if this colour is carried in the fire to vitrification, it becomes black, or yellowiſh, inſtead of red, and diſappears if the coat be thin, and the oxyd of iron preſent be only in a ſmall quantity.

YELLOW.—Though yellow may be obtained in a direct manner, yet compound yellows are preferred; becauſe they are more certain in their effect, and more eaſily applied, than the yellow which may be directly produced from ſilver. The compound yellows are obtained in conſequence of the ſame principles as the red colour of iron. For this purpoſe metallic oxyds are employed, the vitrification of which muſt be prevented by mixing with them other ſubſtances, ſuch as refractory earths, or metallic oxyds difficult to be fuſed. The metallic calces which form the baſes of the yellow colours are generally thoſe of lead; as minium, the white calx of lead, or litharge, the white calx of antimony, called diaphoretic antimony: that called crocus metallorum is alſo employed. This regulus, pulveriſed and mixed with white oxyd, gives likewiſe a yellow. The following are the different compoſitions uſed: one part of the white oxyd of antimony, one of the white oxyd of lead (or two or three); theſe doſes are exceedingly variable; one part of alum, and one of ſal-ammoniac. When theſe matters have been all pulveriſed, and mixed well together, they are put in a veſſel over a fire ſufficient to ſublimate and decompoſe the ſal-ammoniac; and when the matter has aſſumed a yellow colour, the operation is finiſhed. This in the ſhops is called Naples yellow. The calces of lead mixed in a ſmall quantity either with ſilex or alumine, alſo with the pure calx of tin, exceedingly white, give likewiſe yellows. One part of the oxyd of lead is added to two, three, or four, of the other ſubſtances above-mentioned. In theſe different compoſitions, for yellow, we may uſe alſo oxyd of iron, either pure, or that kind which has been prepared with alum and vitriol of iron: thus different ſhades of yellow may be obtained. Yellows require ſo little flux, that one or two parts, in general, to one of the colour, are ſufficient; ſaline fluxes are improper for them, and eſpecially thoſe which contain nitre. They muſt be uſed with fluxes compoſed of enamel ſand, oxyd of lead, and borax, without marine ſalt. A yellow may be obtained directly from ſilver; for which may be uſed ſulphat of ſilver, or any oxyd of that metal mixed with alumine or ſilex, or with both, in equal quantities. The whole muſt be gently heated until the yellow colour appear; and the matter is to be employed with the fluxes pointed out for yellows. Yellow of ſilver, like purple, cannot endure a ſtrong heat: a nitric ſolution of ſilver, precipitated by the ammoniacal phoſphat of ſoda, will obtain a yellow precipitate, which may be uſed to paint in that colour with fluxes, which ought then to be a little harder.

GREEN.—This colour is obtained directly from the oxyd of copper. All the oxyds of copper are good: they require little flux, which muſt not be too fuſible; one part or two of flux will be ſufficient for one oxyd. This colour agrees with all the fluxes, the ſaline as well as the metallic; which tends to vary a little the ſhades. A mixture of yellow and blue is alſo uſed to produce green. Thoſe who paint figures or portraits employ glaſs compoſed in this manner; but thoſe who paint glazed veſſels, either earthen-ware or porcelain, employ in general copper green. Independently of the beautiful green colour produced by oxydated copper, it produces alſo a very beautiful red; but it is exceedingly fugitive. The oxyd of copper gives red only when it contains very little oxygen, and approaches near to the ſtate of a regulus. Notwithſtanding the difficulty of employing this oxyd, a method has been found to ſtain tranſparent glaſs with different ſhades of a very beautiful red colour by means of it. It is exceedingly difficult to make this colour well; but when it ſucceeds, it has a great deal of ſplendour. By employing the calx of copper alone for the proceſſes above-mentioned, we obtain a red ſimilar to the moſt beautiful carmine. The calx of iron changes the red into vermilion, according to the quantity added. If we had certain proceſſes for making this colour, we ſhould obtain all the ſhades of red from pure red to orange, by uſing, in different proportions, the oxyd of copper with that of iron. The calx of copper fuſes argil more eaſily than ſilex; the caſe is the ſame with calx of iron. If we fuſe two or three parts of argil with one of the oxyd of copper, and if the heat be ſufficient, we obtain a very opake enamel, and of a vermilion red colour: the oxyd of copper paſſes from red to green through yellow; ſo that the enamel of copper, which becomes red at a ſtrong heat, may be yellow with a weaker heat. The ſame effect may be produced by deoxydating copper in different degrees: this will be effected according as the heat is more or leſs intenſe. The above compoſition might alſo be employed to give a vermilion red colour to porcelaine; but the heat of the porcelaine furnace muſt be of ſufficient ſtrength to produce the proper effect.

BLUE.—This colour is obtained from the oxyd of cobalt. It is the moſt fixed of all colours, and becomes equally beautiful with a weak as with a ſtrong heat. The blue produced by cobalt is more beautiful the purer it is, and the more it is oxydated. Arſenic does not hurt it. The ſaline fluxes which contain nitre are thoſe beſt ſuited to it. But the flux which gives to cobalt blue the greateſt ſplendour and beauty, is that compoſed of white glaſs (which contains no metallic calx), of borax, nitre, and diaphoretic antimony well waſhed. When this glaſs is made for the purpoſe of being employed as a flux for blue, we add leſs of the white oxyd of antimony; a ſixth of the whole is ſufficient.

VIOLET.—Black calx of manganeſe, employed with ſaline fluxes, gives a very beautiful violet. By varying the fluxes, the ſhade of the colour may alſo be varied; it is very fixed as long as it retains its oxygen. The oxyd of manganeſe may produce different colours; but for that purpoſe it will be neceſſary to fix its oxygen in it in different proportions. Theſe are all the colours obtained from metals. From hence it is evident that ſomething ſtill remains to be diſcovered. We do not know what might be produced by the oxyds of platina, tungſten, molybdena, and nickel: all theſe oxyds are ſtill to be tried; each of them muſt produce a colour, and perhaps red, which is obtained neither directly nor with facility from any of the metallic ſubſtances formerly known and hitherto employed.

Thoſe who paint on enamel, on earthen-ware, porcelaine, &c. muſt regulate the fuſibility of the colours by the moſt tender of thoſe employed; as, for example, the purple. When the degree which is beſt ſuited to purple has been found, the other leſs fuſible colours may be ſo regulated (by additions of flux,) when it is neceſſary to fuſe all the colours at the ſame time, and at the ſame degree of heat. We may paint alſo in enamel without flux; but all the colours do not equally ſtand the heat

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neceſſary to be employed. If the enamel, however, be very fuſible, the colours may all penetrate it. This manner of painting gives no thickneſs of colour; on the contrary, the colours ſink into the enamel at the places where the tints are ſtrongeſt. To make them penetrate, and give them luſtre, a ſtrong fire will be neceſſary to ſoften the enamel, and bring it to a ſtate of fuſion. This method cannot be practiſed but on enamel compoſed with ſand. It will be readily conceived, that the colours and enamel capable of enduring the greateſt heat, are the moſt ſolid, the moſt durable, and the leaſt liable to be changed by the air. A mixture of theſe different enamels produces a great variety of intermediate colours, according to their nature and proportion. In this branch of the art, the coloured enamels are ſometimes mixed with each other, and ſometimes the calces are mixed before they are added to the vitreous baſes.

The enameller, however, though provided with a ſet of good colours, is very far from being in a ſituation for practiſing the art, unleſs he be ſkilled in the methods of applying them, and the nature of the grounds upon which they are to be laid. Many of the metals are too fuſible to be enamelled, and almoſt all of them are corroded by the action of the fuſed glaſs. For this reaſon, none of the metals are uſed but gold, ſilver, and copper. Platina has indeed been uſed; but of its effects and habitudes with enamels, very little can yet be ſaid, for want of a ſufficient number of experiments. The pureſt gold of twenty-four carats is calculated to produce the beſt effect with enamel; becauſe it entirely preſerves the metallic brilliancy, without undergoing any calcination in the fire. Being alſo leſs fuſible, it admits of a more refractory, and conſequently a harder and more beautiful, enamel. It is not uſual, however, to enamel upon finer gold than twenty-two carats; and the operation would be very defective, if a coarſer kind than that of eighteen carats were uſed. For in this caſe more alkali muſt be added to the enamel, to render it more fuſible; and this addition would at the ſame time render it ſofter and leſs brilliant.

The artiſt begins his operation, by breaking the enamel into ſmall pieces in a ſteel mortar, and afterwards pulveriſing it in a mortar of agate. He is careful to add water in this part of his proceſs, which prevents the ſplinters of glaſs from flying about. There are no means of explaining the point at which the trituration ought to be given up, as this can be learned only by experience. Some enamels require to be very finely triturated; but others may be uſed in the form of a coarſe powder. As ſoon as he apprehends that his enamel is ſufficiently pounded, he waſhes it by agitation in very clear water, and pouring off the fluid as it becomes turbid. This operation, which is made for the purpoſe of carrying off duſt and every other impurity from the enamel, is continued until the water comes off as clear as it was poured on. The workman puts his enamel, thus prepared, in a white china or earthen ſaucer, with water poured on it to the depth of about one tenth of an inch. He afterwards takes up this enamel with an iron ſpatula, as equally as poſſible. As the enamel here ſpoken of is tranſparent, it is uſual to ornament the ſurface of the gold with roſe-work, or other kinds of work, calculated to produce a good effect through the enamel. The thickneſs of this firſt layer depends entirely upon its colour: delicate colours, in general, require that it ſhould have no great thickneſs. The moiſt enamel, being thus placed, is dried by applying a very clean half-worn linen cloth to it, which muſt be very carefully done, to avoid removing the enamel by any action of wiping. In this ſtate the piece is ready for the fire. If it be enamelled on both ſides, it is placed upon a tile, hollowed out in ſuch a manner, that the uncovered edges of the piece alone are in contact with the iron. But if it be enamelled on one ſide only, it is ſimply laid upon the plate, or on a tile. Two things, however, require to be attended to. 1. If the work be very ſmall, or not capable of being enamelled on its oppoſite ſide, the iron plate muſt be perfectly flat, in order that the work may not bend when ſoftened by heat. 2. If the work be of conſiderable ſize, it is always counter-enamelled if poſſible; that is to ſay, an enamel is applied on the back ſurface, in order to counteract the effect which the other coating of glaſs might produce on the ſoft metal, when it came to contract by cooling.

The enamellers furnace is ſquare, and built of bricks, bedded in an earth proper for the purpoſe. It may be conſidered as conſiſting of two parts, the lower part, which receives a muffel, reſting on the floor of the furnace, and open on both ſides. The upper part of the furnace conſiſts of a fire-place, rather larger and longer than the dimenſions of the muffel. This fire-place contains the charcoal, which muſt ſurround the muffel on all ſides, excepting at the bottom. The charcoal is put in at a door above the muffel, and which is cloſed when the fire is lighted. A chimney proceeds from the ſummit of the furnace with a moderate aperture, which may be cloſed at the pleaſure of the artiſt, by applying a caſt iron plate to it. This furnace differs from that of the aſſayer in the circumſtance that it is ſupplied with air through the muffel itſelf: for if the draught were beneath the muffel, the heat would be too ſtrong, and could not be ſtopped when requiſite. As ſoon as the fire is lighted, and the muffel has obtained the requiſite degree of ignition, the charcoal is diſpoſed towards the lower part of the muffel in ſuch a manner as that it ſhall not fall upon the work, which is then conveyed into the muffel with the greateſt care upon the plate of iron or earthen ware, which is taken up by long ſpring pinchers. The work is placed as near as poſſible at the further extremity of the muffel; and as ſoon as the artiſt perceives a commencement of fuſion, he turns it round with great delicacy, in order that the fuſion may be very uniform. And as ſoon as he perceives that the fuſion has completely taken place, he inſtantly removes it out of the furnace: for the fuſion of gold happens ſo very near that of the enamel, that a neglect of a few ſeconds might be attended with conſiderable loſs. When the work is cooled, a ſecond coat of enamel is applied in the ſame manner as the firſt, if neceſſary. This, and the ſame cautious management of the fire, are to be repeated for every additional coat of enamel the nature of the work may demand.

As ſoon as the number of coatings are ſufficient, it becomes neceſſary to give an even ſurface to the enamel, which, though poliſhed by the fire, is nevertheleſs irregular. This is done with an Engliſh fine-grained file and water. As the file wears ſmooth, ſand is uſed. Much precaution and addreſs are required in this part of the work, not only becauſe it is eaſy to make the enamel ſeparate in ſplinters from the metal, but likewiſe becauſe the colour would not be uniform if it were to be ground thinner at one part than at another. The deep ſcratches of the file are in the next place taken out, by rubbing the ſurface with a piece of deal wood and fine ſand and water. A poliſh is then given by a ſecond ignition. This poliſh, however, is frequently inſufficient, and not ſo perfectly uniform as the delicacy of the work may require.

The ſubſtance uſed by the enamellers, as a poliſhing material, is known by the name of rotten-ſtone; which is prepared by pounding, waſhing, decanting off the turbid water, ſuffering the fine ſuſpended particles to ſubſide from this water, and laſtly levigating it upon a glaſs plate. The work is then cemented to a ſquare piece of wood with a mixture of roſin and brick-duſt, and by this means fixed in a vice. The firſt operation of poliſhing is made by rubbing the work with rotten-ſtone upon a ſmall ſtrait bar of pewter. Some delicacy is here required, to avoid ſcratching or producing flaws in the enamel, by preſſing it too hard. In this way the piece is rendered perfectly even: but the laſt brilliant poliſh is given by a piece of deal wood and the ſame rotten-ſtone.

This is the general method of applying enamels; but ſome colours require more precaution in the management of

of the fire. Opake colours require leſs management than the tranſparent. A variety of circumſtances muſt be attended to in the management of tranſparent colours; every colour requires gold of a particular fineneſs. When different colours are intended to be placed beſide one another, they are kept ſeparate by a ſmall edge or prominency, which is left in the gold for that purpoſe, and is poliſhed along with the enamel. The enamelling upon ſilver is effected nearly in the ſame manner as that of gold; but the changes ſuſtained by the colours upon the ſilver, by the action of fire, are much more conſiderable than when gold is uſed. Copper is not much uſed by enamellers, on account of the difficulty which attends the attempt to fix beautiful colours upon it. When this metal is uſed, the common practice is to apply a coating of opake white enamel, and upon this other colours which are more fuſible than the white. A good effect is produced in toys, by leaving part of the gold bare. For this purpoſe its ſurface is cut into ſuitable compartments by the engraver. This, however, is an expenſive method, and is for that reaſon occaſionally imitated by applying ſmall and very thin pieces of gold upon the ſurface of the enamel, where they are fixed by the fire, and afterwards covered by a tranſparent vitreous coating. For painting and enamelling glaſs, china-ware, &c. See the articles GLASS, PORCELAIN, and POTTERY.

Mr. Brougniart deſcribes a method of taking off the enamel from any toy, without injuring its metallic part. For this purpoſe, a mixture of common ſalt, nitre, and alum, in powder, is applied upon the enamel, and the piece put into the furnace. As ſoon as the fuſion has taken place, the piece is ſuddenly thrown into water, which cauſes the enamel to fly off either totally or in part. The part which may remain is to be removed by repeating the ſame operation a ſecond time.

The proceſs adopted by the Ruſſian ſilverſmiths, for filling up engravings in plate with a black, glaſſy, durable enamel, and which they muſt have derived from the Perſians or Indians, is as follows: They take half an ounce of ſilver, two ounces and a half of copper, three ounces and a half of lead, twelve ounces of ſulphur, and two ounces and a half of ſal ammoniac. The metals are melted together and poured into a crucible, which has been before filled with pulveriſed ſulphur made into a paſte by means of water; the crucible is then immediately covered, that the ſulphur may not take fire; and this regulus is calcined over a ſmelting fire until the ſuperfluous ſulphur be burnt away. This regulus is then coarſely pounded, and, with a ſolution of ſal ammoniac, formed into a paſte, which is rubbed cloſely into the engraving on ſilver plate. The ſilver is then wiped clean, and ſuffered to become ſo hot under the muffle, that the ſubſtance rubbed into the ſtrokes of the engraving melts and adheres to the metal. The ſilver is afterwards wetted with the ſolution of ſal ammoniac, and again placed under the muffle till it becomes red hot. The engraved ſurface may then be ſmoothed and poliſhed without any danger of the black ſubſtance, which is an artificial kind of ſilver ore *(fablerz)*, either dropping out or decaying. In this manner is all the ſilver plate brought from Ruſſia ornamented with black engraved figures, &c.

It is incredible to what a degree of fineneſs and delicacy the threads of enamel may be drawn by the enameller's lamp. Thoſe which are uſed in imitating tufts of feathers are ſo fine, that they may be wound on the reel like ſilk or thread. The fictitious jets of all colours, uſed in embroideries, are alſo made of enamel; and that with ſo much art, that every ſmall piece hath its hole to paſs the thread through wherewith it is ſewed. Theſe holes are made by blowing them into long pieces; which they afterwards cut with a proper tool.

A method of enamelling culinary utenſils, as a ſubſtitute for *tinning*, has been lately invented by M. Rinman, of the Royal Academy of Stockholm; for which ſee the article TINNING.

To ENA'MOUR, *v. a.* [*amour*, Fr.] To inflame with love; to make fond: with *of* before the thing or perſon loved.—'Tis hard to diſcern whether is in the greateſt error, he who is *enamour'd of* all he does, or he whom nothing of his own can pleaſe. *Dryden.*

He, on his ſide,
Leaning half-rais'd, with looks of cordial love,
Hung over her *enamour'd*. *Milton.*

ENANGIOMONOSPER'MOUS, *adj.* [from εν, in, αγγιον, a veſſel, μονος, alone, and σπερμα, a ſeed.] In botany; belonging to that claſs of plants which have but one ſeed in the ſeed veſſel.

ENANTI'OSIS, *ſ.* [εναντιωσις, Gr. contrariety.] A rhetorical figure, when that is ſpoken by a contrary, which is intended ſhould be underſtood, as it were, by affirmation; as, There was rage againſt reſolution; pride againſt nobility.

ENA'RA, a lake of Lapland, the furtheſt north; about ſeventy miles in length, and thirty in breadth, at the wideſt part.

ENARE'A, a province of Abyſſinia, conquered by the troops of the Negus at the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, ſituated at the ſouth-weſt extremity of the empire.

ENARGE'A, *ſ.* [εναργεια, evidentia, illuſtratio.] In botany, a genus of the claſs hexandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: none. Corolla: petals ſix, oblong-ovate, concave, acute; three outer, and three inner; all marked below the middle with two green ſpots. Stamina: filaments ſix, half the length of the corolla. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh; ſtyle three-cornered, thick. Pericarpium: berry ſubglobular, three-celled. Seeds: four or five, globular.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, none; petals ſix, oblong-ovate, concave, acute, three outer, three inner, green-ſpotted; berry, three-celled, with four or five globular ſeeds.

Enargea marginata, a ſolitary ſpecies. The fruit is an elliptic-ſpheroidal berry, fleſhy, the ſame conſiſtence with thoſe of Vitis idæa, red purple on one ſide, whitiſh on the other: in each of the three cells there are four or five globular, ruſeſcent ſeeds. Native of Terra del Fuego.

ENAR'GIA, *ſ.* [ενεργεια, Gr.] Evidence, or clearneſs of expreſſion.

ENARRA'TION, *ſ.* [*enarro*, Lat.] Explanation; expoſition.

ENARTHRO'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, in, and αρθρον, Gr. a joint.] In anatomy, that ſort of articulation where the round head of one bone moves in the ſocket of another.

ENATA'TION, *ſ.* [*enato*, Lat.] The act of ſwimming out; eſcape by ſwimming.

ENAUN'TER, *adv.* An obſolete word explained by Spenſer himſelf to mean *leſt that*:

Anger would not let him ſpeak to the tree,
Enaunter his rage might cooled be,
But to the root bent his ſturdy ſtroke. *Spenſer.*

ENAVIGA'TION, *ſ.* [from the Lat. *e*, from, and *navigo*, to ſail.] The act of ſailing out; the act of ſailing by. *Little uſed.*

EN'BA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Caſpian Sea. Lat. 46. 55. N. lon. 71. 40. E. Ferro.

EN'BAR, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the Arabian Irak, on the Euphrates: forty miles weſt of Bagdad.

ENCÆ'NIA, the name of ſeveral feaſts celebrated by the Jews in memory of the dedication of the temple, by Judas Maccabæus, Solomon, and Zorobabel. This term is likewiſe uſed in church-hiſtory for the dedication of Chriſtian churches.

To ENCA'GE, *v. a.* To ſhut up in a cage; to coop up; to confine:

Like Bajazet *encag'd* the ſhepherd's feoff,
Or like ſlack-ſinew'd Samſon, his hair off. *Donne.*

To ENCA'MP, *v. n.* To pitch tents; to ſit down for a time in a march; to ſettle a temporary habitation.—He

encamped at the mount of god, *Exod.* xiii. 5.—The French knew how to make war with the Engliſh, by not putting things to the hazard of a battle, but wearing them by long ſieges of towns, and ſtrong fortified *encampings*. *Bacon*.

To ENCA'MP, *v. a.* To form an army into a regular camp; to order to encamp.—The people were *encamped* againſt Gibbethon. *Kings*.

ENCAMP'MENT, *ſ.* The act of encamping, or pitching tents. A camp; tents pitched in order.—The enemies ſerved to improve them in their *encampments*, weapons, or ſomething elſe. *Grew*.

When a gen'ral bids the martial train
Spread their *encampment* o'er the ſpacious plain,
Thick riſing tents a canvas city build. *Gay*.

ENCAN'THIS, *ſ.* [from εν, and κανθος, Gr. the angle of the eye.] An inciſted tumour in the inner angle of the eye.

ENCAR'DIUM, *ſ.* [from εν, and καρδια, the heart.] In botany, the heart or pith of vegetables; a precious ſtone in the form of a heart.

ENCAR'PIA, *ſ.* [Gr.] In architecture, flower-work or fruit-work on the corners of pillars.

ENCATHIS'MA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A bath for the belly.

ENCAU'MA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A burning in any part of the body; alſo an ulcer in the eye, with a filthy ſcab.

ENCAU'STIC, *adj.* [*encauſtum*, Lat. from εν, and καιω, to burn.] Having the property of varniſh; ſo called becauſe it is wrought with fire.

ENCAU'STIC PAINTING. See the article PAINTING.

To ENCA'VE, *v. a.* To hide as in a cave:

Do but *encave* yourſelf,
And mark the fleers, the gibes, and notable ſcorns,
That dwell in every region of his face. *Shakeſpeare*.

ENCEA'DA DA BELA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Adel, on the coaſt of the Indian Sea: thirty miles ſouth of Cape Guardafu.

ENCE'INTE, *ſ.* [Fr.] In fortification, the whole incloſure, circumference, or compaſs, of a fortified place, whether built with ſtone or brick, or only made of earth, and whether with or without baſtions, &c.

ENCEL'ADUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a ſon of Titan and Terra, the moſt powerful of all the giants who conſpired againſt Jupiter. He was ſtruck with Jupiter's thunders, and overwhelmed under mount Ætna. Some ſuppoſe that he is the ſame as Typhon. According to the poets, the flames of Ætna proceeded from the breath of Enceladus; and as often as he turned his weary ſide, the whole iſland of Sicily felt the motion, and ſhook from its very foundations. *Virgil*.

ENCEPHA'LOCELE, *ſ.* [from εγκεφαλον, the brain, and κηλη, Gr. a tumour.] A rupture of the brain.

ENCE'PHALUM, *ſ.* [from εν, within, and κεφαλη, Gr. the head.] The brain, containing whatever is within the ſcull; the medullary ſubſtance of vegetables.

To ENCHA'FE, *v. a.* [*eſchauffer*, Fr.] To enrage; to irritate; to provoke:

The wind-ſhak'd ſurge, with high and monſtrous main,
Seems to caſt water on the burning bear;
I never did like moleſtation view
On the *enchafed* flood. *Shakeſpeare*.

To ENCHA'IN, *v. a.* [*enchainer*, Fr.] To faſten with a chain; to hold in chains; to bind; to hold in bondage:

What ſhould I do? while here I was *enchain'd*,
No glimpſe of godlike liberty remain'd. *Dryden*.

To link together; to concatenate.—The one contracts and *enchains* his words, ſpeaking preſſingly and ſhort; the other delights in long-breathed accents. *Holder*.

To ENCHA'NT, *v. a.* [*enchanter*, Fr.] To give efficacy to any thing by ſongs of ſorcery:

Theſe powerful drops thrice on the threſhold pour,
And bathe with this *enchanted* juice her door;
That door where no admittance now is found,
But where my ſoul is ever hov'ring round. *Granville*.

To ſubdue by charms or ſpells.—Arcadia was the charmed circle, where all his ſpirits for ever ſhould be *enchanted*. *Sidney*.—To delight in a high degree:

Too dear I priz'd a fair *enchanting* face;
Beauty unchaſte is beauty in diſgrace. *Pope*.

ENCHANT'ER, *ſ.* [*enchanteur*, Fr.] A magician; a ſorcerer; one who pretends to the art of charms and ſpells.—Such phaſms, ſuch apparitions, are excellencies which men applaud in themſelves, conjured up by the magic of a ſtrong imagination, and only ſeen within that circle in which the *enchanter* ſtands. *Decay of Piety*.

Ardan, that black *enchanter*, whoſe dire arts
Enſlav'd our knights, and broke our virgin's hearts. *Granville*.

ENCHANT'ER's NIGHTSHADE, *ſ.* in botany. See CIRCÆA.

ENCHANT'INGLY, *adv.* With the force of enchantment. It is improperly uſed in a paſſive ſenſe in the following paſſage.—He's gentle; never ſchool'd, and yet learn'd; full of noble device; of all ſorts *enchantingly* belov'd. *Shakeſpeare*.

ENCHANT'MENT, *ſ.* [*enchantement*, Fr.] Magical charms; ſpells; incantation; ſorcery.—The Turks thought that tempeſt was brought upon them by the charms and *enchantments* of the Perſian magicians. *Knolles*.—Irreſiſtible influence; overpowering delight.—Warmth of fancy will carry the loudeſt and moſt univerſal applauſe, which holds the heart of a reader under the ſtrongeſt *enchantments*. *Pope*.

ENCHAN'TRESS, *ſ.* [*enchantereſſe*, Fr.] A ſorcereſs; a woman verſed in magical arts.—Fell banning hag! *enchantreſs*, hold thy tongue. *Shakeſpeare*.—A woman whoſe beauty or excellencies give irreſiſtible influence:

From this *enchantreſs* all theſe ills are come;
You are not ſafe till you pronounce her doom. *Dryden*.

Oft with the *enchantreſs* of his ſoul he talks,
Sometimes in crowds diſtreſs'd. *Thomſon*.

ENCHARAX'IS, *ſ.* [from εν, and καραασσω, Gr. to ſcarify.] A ſcarification; an engraving.

To ENCHA'SE, *v. a.* [*enchaſſer*, Fr.] To infix; to incloſe in any other body ſo as to be held faſt, but not concealed.—Words, in their natural ſituation, ſhine like jewels *enchaſed* in gold. *Felton*.

Like poliſh'd iv'ry, beauteous to behold;
Or Parian marble, when *enchas'd* in gold. *Dryden*.

To adorn by being fixed upon it:

What ſee'ſt thou there? king Henry's diadem,
Enchas'd with all the honours of the world! *Shakeſpeare*.

To adorn by raiſed or emboſſed work:

When was old Sherwood's head more quaintly curl'd,
Or look'd the earth more green upon the world,
Or nature's cradle more *enchas'd* and purl'd? *Ben Jonſon*.

The art of *enchaſing* is practiſed only on thin metals, as watch-caſes, cane-heads, and various toys. It is performed by driving out the metal, to form figures, from withinſide, ſo as to ſtand out prominent from the plane of the metal.—To mark by inciſion:

They took their ſwords again, and each *enchas'd*
Deep wounds in the ſoft fleſh of his ſtrong foe. *Fairfax*.

ENCHEA'SON, *ſ.* [*encheaſon*, old law French.] Cauſe; occaſion. *Skinner. Cowel. Bailey*.

Certes, ſaid he, well mote I ſhould to tell
The fond *encheaſon* that me hither led. *Spenſer*.

ENCHELE'Æ, anciently a town of Illyricum, where Cadmus was changed into a ſerpent.

EN'CHELIS, *ſ.* in zoology, a genus of worms belonging to the order infuſoria. It is an animalcula, inviſible to

to the naked eye, very ſimple, and moſtly cylindrical. The ſpecies are deſcribed under the article ANIMALCULE, vol. i. p. 718, 719. Three of them, viz. the punctifera, caudata, and retrograda, are repreſented, greatly magnified, in the Engraving.

EN'CHENREUTH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and biſhopric of Bamberg: thirty-ſix miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Bamberg.

ENCHIRI'DION, *ſ.* [from εν, and χειρ, Gr. a hand.] A manual, or ſmall volume, that may be carried about in one's hand; a pocket-book.

ENCHYMO'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, and χυω, Gr. to pour in.] Bluſhing, or the ſudden effuſion of blood into the cutaneous veſſels. Alſo an extravaſation of blood which makes the part look livid.

To ENCIR'CLE, *v. a.* To ſurround; to environ; to encloſe in a ring or circle; to enring:

That ſtranger gueſt the Paphian realm obeys,
A realm defended with *encircling* ſeas. *Pope.*

ENCIR'CLET, *ſ.* A circle; a ring:

In whoſe *encirclets* if ye gaze,
Your eyes may tread a lover's maze. *Sidney.*

ENCK'HUSEN, a ſea-port town of Holland, on the coaſt of the Zuyder Sea, which encompaſſes two-thirds of it, and forms it into a peninſula; it takes its name from two words which ſignify *ſome houſes*, conſiſting originally of only a few fiſhermen's huts. William, comte of Holland, gave it the privileges of a town, and ſurrounded it with walls, in 1355; before that time it had been burnt down by John d'Arkel and Nicholas de Putten, in 1292. In 1514, an inundation deſtroyed part of the ramparts and ſome houſes. In 1517, the Gueldrians, who were at war with the Hollanders, attempted to take it by ſurpriſe, but the ſudden ebbing of the tide fruſtrated their deſign. It had formerly a good harbour, large, commodious, and much frequented. In 1394, Albert, comte of Holland, deſirous to paſs over to Frieſland with his army, aſſembled here 3000 veſſels; Charles V. and his ſon Philip, embarked from hence to Spain, and all their ſhips were kept in this port; but the harbour is now too much obſtructed by ſand to permit very large veſſels to enter with convenience: it is however a port of good trade, particularly in ſalt fiſh. The ſtreets are clean, with a great number of canals, the houſes handſome, and the public buildings good, eſpecially the town-houſe, which is embelliſhed with a very lofty tower, and is equal to any in Holland, except that of Amſterdam. The three towns, Enckhuſen, Hoorn, and Medemblic, have the privilege of coining money each ſeven years alternately: twenty-eight miles north-north-eaſt of Amſterdam. Lat. 52. 42. N lon. 22. 38. E. Ferro.

ENCK'ENDORP, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Holſtein: ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Renſburg.

ENCLI'TICS, *ſ.* [εγκλιτικα, Gr.] Particles which throw back the accent upon the foregoing ſyllable.

To ENCLO'SE, *v. a.* [*enclos*, Fr.] To part from things or grounds common by a fence.—The protector cauſed a proclamation to be ſet forth againſt encloſures, commanding that they who had *encloſed* lands, accuſtomed to lie open, ſhould lie them open again. *Hayward.*—To environ; to encircle; to ſurround; to encompaſs; to ſhut in between other things; to include. To hold by an excluſive claim.—The fourth row a beryl, and an onyx, and a jaſper: they ſhall be ſet in gold in their *encloſings*. *Exod.* xxviii. 20.

The peer now ſpreads the glitt'ring forfex wide,
T' *encloſe* the lock; now joins it, to divide. *Pope.*

ENCLO'SER, *ſ.* One that encloſes or ſeparates common fields in ſeveral diſtinct properties. Any thing in which another is encloſed:

If God had laid all common, certainly
Man would have been th' *encloſer*; but ſince now
God hath impal'd us, on the contrary,
Man breaks the fence. *Herbert.*

ENCLO'SURE, *ſ.* The act of encloſing or environing any thing.—The membranes are for the comprehenſion or *encloſure* of all. *Wilkins.*—The ſeparation of common grounds into diſtinct poſſeſſions.—Touching *encloſures*, a company of lands incloſed are thereby improved in worth two or three parts at the leaſt. *Hayward.*—The appropriation of things common.—Let no man appropriate what God hath made common; that is againſt juſtice and charity, and by miraculous accidents God hath declared his diſpleaſure againſt ſuch *encloſure*. *Taylor.*—State of being ſhut up in any place; encompaſſed, or environed.—This expreſſes particularly the *encloſure* of the waters within the earth. *Burnet.*—The ſpace encloſed; the ſpace comprehended within certain limits:

And all, that elſe this world's *encloſure* baſe
Hath great or glorious in mortal eye,
Adorns the perſon of her majeſty. *Spenſer.*

Several; ground encloſed; ground ſeparated from the common.—'Tis not the common, but the *encloſure* muſt make him rich. *South.*

ENCLOU'DED, *adj.* Covered with clouds.—The heavens on ev'ry ſide *enclouded* be. *Spenſer's Gnat.*

ENCOF'FINED, *adj.* Encloſed in a coffin.—His body reſted here in quietneſſe until the diſſolution, when for the gain of the lead in which it was *encoffined*, it was taken up and thrown into the next water. *Weever.*

ENCOLAP'TICE, *ſ.* [Gr.] The art of making braſs plates, and cutting in the figures and letters for inſcriptions and laws.

ENCOM'BERMENT, *ſ.* [Fr.] Moleſtation:

The beſt advizement was of bad, to let her
Sleepe out her fill without *encomberment*. *Spenſer.*

ENCO'MIAST, *ſ.* [εγκωμιαστης, Gr.] A panegyriſt; a proclaimer of praiſe; a praiſer.—The Jeſuits are the great *encomiaſts* of the Chineſe. *Locke.*

ENCOMIAS'TIC, or ENCOMIASTICAL, *adj.* [from εγκωμιαστικος, Gr.] Panegyrical; laudatory; containing praiſe; beſtowing praiſe.

ENCOMIAS'TIC, *ſ.* [from the *adj.*] An encomium; a copy of verſes in praiſe of any perſon.

ENCO'MIUM, *ſ.* [εγκωμιον, Gr.] Panegyric; praiſe; eulogy.—How eagerly do ſome men propagate every little *encomium* their paraſites make of them. *Government of the Tongue.*

A vile *encomium* doubly ridicules;
There's nothing blackens like the ink of fools. *Pope.*

To ENCOM'PASS, *v. a.* To encloſe; to encircle:

Look how my ring *encompaſſeth* my finger;
Ev'n ſo thy breaſt encloſeth my poor heart. *Shakeſpeare.*

Poetic fields *encompaſs* me around,
And ſtill I ſeem to tread on claſſic ground. *Addiſon.*

To ſhut in; to ſurround; to environ:

He, having ſcarce ſix thouſand in his troop,
By three and twenty thouſand of the French
Was round *encompaſſed* and ſet upon. *Shakeſpeare.*

To go round any place; as, *Anſon* encompaſſed *the world.*

ENCOM'PASSMENT, *ſ.* Circumlocution; oblique tendency of talk:

Finding
By this *encompaſſment* and drift of queſtion,
That they do know my ſon, come you more near.
Shakeſpeare.

EN'COPE, *ſ.* [Gr.] An inciſion; a cut; a gaſh.

ENCO'RE, *adv.* [Fr.] Again; once more. A vociferation uſed at public theatres, when a performer is deſired by the audience to do the ſame thing again:

To the ſame notes thy ſons ſhall hum or ſnore,
And all thy yawning daughters cry *encore*. *Dunciad.*

ENCOUN'TER, *ſ.* [*encontre*, Fr.] Duel; ſingle fight; conflict:

Pallas

Pallas th' *encounter* ſeeks; but ere he throws
To Tuſcan Tiber thus addreſs'd his vows:
O, ſacred ſtream, direct my flying dart,
And give to paſs the proud Haleſus' heart. *Dryden.*

Battle; fight in which enemies ruſh againſt each other:

As two black clouds
With heav'n's artillery fraught, come rattling on
Over the Caſpian; then ſtand front to front,
Hov'ring a ſpace, 'till winds the ſignal blow
To join their dark *encounter* in mid air. *Milton.*

Eager and warm converſation, either of love or anger.
Accidental congreſs; ſudden meeting:

Propitious Pallas, to ſecure her care,
Around him ſpread a veil of thicken'd air,
To ſhun th' *encounter* of the vulgar crowd. *Pope.*

Accoſting; tranſient or unexpected addreſs:

But in what habit will you go along?
—Not like a woman; for I would prevent
The looſe *encounters* of laſcivious men. *Shakeſpeare.*

Caſual incident; occaſion. This ſenſe is ſcarcely Engliſh. *Johnſon.*—An equality is not ſufficient for the unity of character: 'tis further neceſſary, that the ſame ſpirit appear in all ſort of *encounters*. *Pope.*

To ENCOUN'TER, *v. a.* To meet face to face; to front.—The faſhion of the world is to avoid coſt, and you *encounter* it. *Shakeſpeare.*—To meet in a hoſtile manner; to ruſh againſt in conflict.—Putting themſelves in order of battle, they *encountered* their enemies. *Knolles.*—To meet with reciprocal kindneſs.—See, they *encounter* thee with their hearts thanks. *Shakeſpeare.*—To attack; to meet in the front.—Which way ſoever we turn, we are *encountered* with clear evidences and ſenſible demonſtrations of a Deity. *Tillotſon.*—To oppoſe; to oppugn.—Jurors are not bound to believe two witneſſes, if the probability of the fact does reaſonably *encounter* them. *Hale.*—To meet by accident:

I am moſt fortunate thus to *encounter* you:
You have ended my buſineſs, and I will merrily
Accompany you home. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENCOUN'TER, *v. n.* To ruſh together in a hoſtile manner; to conflict:

Encounter ſo,
As doth the fury of two deſperate men,
Which, in the very meeting, fall and die. *Shakeſpeare.*

To engage; to fight: it has *with* before the thing.—Thoſe who have the moſt dread of death, muſt be content to *encounter with* it, whether they will or no. *Wake.*

Our wars
Will turn into a peaceful comic ſport,
When ladies crave to be *encountered with*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To meet face to face. To come together by chance.

ENCOUN'TERER, *ſ.* Opponent; antagoniſt; enemy.—The lion will not kick with his feet, but he will ſtrike ſuch a ſtroke with his tail, that he will break the back of his *encounterer* with it. *More.*—One that loves to accoſt others. *An old term:*

Oh, theſe *encounterers!* ſo gilt of tongue,
They give a coaſting welcome ere it comes:
And wide unclaſp the tables of their thoughts
To every tickliſh leader. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENCOU'RAGE, *v. a.* [*encourager*, Fr.] To animate; to incite to any thing.—They *encourage* themſelves in an evil matter. *Pſa.* lxiv. 5.—To give courage to; to ſupport the ſpirits; to inſpirit; to embolden.—Kinds of muſic *encourage* men, and make them warlike, or make them ſoft and effeminate. *Bacon.*—I would neither *encourage* the rebels, nor diſcourage the proteſtants loyalty. *King Charles.*—To raiſe confidence; to make confident.—I doubt not but there are ways to be found, to aſſiſt our reaſon in this moſt uſeful part; and this the judicious Hooker *encourages* me to ſay. *Locke.*

ENCOU'RAGEMENT, *ſ.* Incitement to any action or practice; incentive. Increaſe of confidence. Favour; countenance; ſupport.—The reproach of immorality will lie heavieſt againſt an eſtabliſhed religion, becauſe thoſe who have no religion will profeſs themſelves of that which has the *encouragement* of the law. *Rogers.*

For when he dies, farewel all honour, bounty,
All generous *encouragement* of arts. *Otway.*

ENCOU'RAGER, *ſ.* One that ſupplies incitements to any thing; a favourer:

Live then, thou great *encourager* of arts,
Live ever in our thankful hearts. *Dryden.*

ENCRA'DLED, *adj.* Put into a cradle:

Begin we firſt, where he *encradled* was
In ſimple cratch. *Spenſer's Hymns.*

EN'CRATITES, *ſ.* in church hiſtory, heretics who appeared towards the end of the ſecond century: they were called *Encratites*, or *Continentes*, becauſe they gloried in abſtaining from marriage and the uſe of wine and animal food.

ENCRE'ASE. See INCREASE.

To ENCRO'ACH, *v. a.* [*accrocher*, from *croc*, a hook, Fr.] To make invaſions upon the right of another; to put a hook into another man's poſſeſſions to draw them away. To advance gradually and by ſtealth upon that to which one has no right; with *on* before the ſubject:

This hour is mine; if for the next I care, I grow too wide,
And do *encroach upon* death's ſide. *Herbert.*

To ENCRO'ACH, *v. n.* To creep on gradually without right:

Th' *encroaching* ill you early ſhould oppoſe;
Flatter'd, 'tis worſe, and by indulgence, grows. *Dryden.*

To paſs bounds:

Next, fenc'd with hedges and deep ditches round,
Exclude th' *encroaching* cattle from thy ground. *Dryden.*

ENCRO'ACHER, *ſ.* One who ſeizes the poſſeſſion of another by gradual and ſilent means:

The bold *encroachers* on the deep,
Gain by degrees hinge tracts of land,
'Till Neptune, with one general ſweep,
Turns all again to barren ſtrand. *Swift.*

One who makes ſlow and gradual advances beyond his rights.—Full dreſs creates dignity, augments conſciouſneſs, and keeps at diſtance an *encroacher*. *Clariſſa.*

ENCRO'ACHMENT, *ſ.* An unlawful gathering in upon another man. For example: if two men's grounds lie together, the one preſſes too far upon the other; or if a tenant owe two ſhillings rent-ſervice to the lord, and the lord takes three: ſo the Spencers encroached to themſelves royal power and authority. *Cowel.*

But this uſurper his *encroachment* proud
Stays not on man: to God his tow'r intends
Siege, and defiance. *Milton.*

If it be a man's known principle to depart from his right, ill men will make unjuſt *encroachments* upon him. *Atterbury.*—To advance into the territories or rights of another.—As a man had a right to all he could employ his labour upon, ſo he had no temptation to labour for more than he could make uſe of: this left no room for controverſy about the title, nor for *encroachment* on the right of others. *Locke.*—The ancient Romans made many *encroachments* on the ſea, and laid the foundations of their palaces within the very borders of it. *Addiſon on Italy.*—The people, ſince the death of Solon, had already made great *encroachments*. *Swift.*

To ENCUM'BER, *v. a.* [*encombrer*, Fr.] To clog; to load; to impede.—*Encumber'd* with his veſt, without defence. *Dryden.*—To entangle; to embarraſs; to obſtruct:

The

The god awak'd,
And thrice in vain he ſhook his wing,
Encumber'd in the ſilken ſtring. *Prior.*

To load with debts; as, *His eſtate is* encumbered *with mortgages.*

ENCUM'BRANCE, *ſ.* Clog; load; impediment.—Philoſophers agreed in deſpiſing riches, at beſt conſidering them as unneceſſary *encumbrances* of life. *Temple.*—Excreſcence; uſeleſs addition:

Strip from the branching Alps their piny load,
The huge *encumbrance* of horrific woods. *Thomſon.*

Burden upon an eſtate.—In reſpect of the *encumbrances* of a living, conſider whether it be ſufficient for his family, and to maintain hoſpitality. *Ayliffe.*

ENCY'CLICAL, *adj.* [εγκυκλιος, of κυκλος, Gr. a circle.] Circular; ſent round through a large region.—This council was not received in particular ſees, which is evident from Photius's *encyclical* epiſtle to the patriarch of Alexandria. *Stillingfleet.*

ENCYCLOPÆ'DIA, or ENCYCLOPEDY, *ſ.* [of εν, in, κυκλος, a circle, and παιδεια, Gr. learning.] The circle of ſciences; the round of learning.—In this *encyclopædia* or round of knowledge, like the great wheels of heaven, we muſt obſerve two circles, that while we are daily carried about, and whirled on by the ſwing and rapt of the one, we may maintain a natural and proper courſe in the ſober wheel of the other. *Brown.*—Every ſcience borrows from all the reſt, and we cannot attain any ſingle one without the *encyclopædy. Glanville.*—This art may juſtly claim a place in the *encyclopædia*, eſpecially ſuch as ſerves for a model of education. *Arbuthnot.*

The firſt work of literary eminence preſented to the world under this title, was the *Dictionnaire Encyclopédique* of Meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, which coſt above twenty years of unwearied application. Of the hiſtory and origin of that great and laborious undertaking, the following particulars are given by Anthony Fantin-Deſodoards, in his *Louis XV. & Louis XVI.* publiſhed in 1798.

"While the Janſenites and Moliniſts were buſying the multitude with their controverſies, D'Alembert and Diderot were compiling, under the name of *Encyclopædia*, a vaſt repertory of human knowledge. In 1752 appeared the firſt and ſecond volumes; in which the editors had included reflections on religion and politics, equally alarming to the fanatics and to the enemies of public liberty. The prieſts, the jeſuits eſpecially, repeated inceſſantly that this lump of argumentations, ſome ſolid and ſome captious, far from teaching men to think, would only lead them to doubt thoſe principles on which the inſtitutions of ſociety depend. The compoſition of this vaſt work neceſſarily required a multitude of fellow-labourers. This was a center of union, and a rallying point for the philoſophers; who began to form a body, without owning it. There was in France an encyclopedic ſect, as there was in Greek an ionic ſect, an academic ſect. Voltaire, although remote from the metropolis, was the cheftain of the encyclopediſts. The aſſiſtance which he gave, the greatneſs of his celebrity, the univerſality of his talents, and his acceſs among ſovereign princes, conſpired to obtain for him this rank.

"The two editors, vain as they were, conſidered themſelves merely as the lieutenants of Voltaire. To diſſipate prejudice, to annihilate error, to enlighten mankind, to prepare the reign of concord and beneficence on earth, formed the bold deſign of the encyclopediſts. They undertook, each in his own department of ſociety, to propagate, without relaxation, and in every poſſible form, a doctrine which was abominable in the eyes of the jeſuits, but which their partiſans conſidered as humane and ſalutary. The great number of aſſiſtants, who had not equal talents, was the principal obſtacle to the accompliſhment of the magnificent promiſes made by D'Alembert in his proſpectus of the work. The Encyclopedia is an edifice of *gold* and of *droſs*. It muſt be re-made over and over again, before it can attain perfection; and even then the diſcrepancy of ſtyle, and the inequality of erudition and intellect, will prevent a man of taſte from regarding it as an harmonious work, until the *whole* has been completely re-written.

"The jeſuits were the firſt to attack the Encyclopedia: they entered into this warfare more from intereſt and pique, than from any zeal for the public good. The Encyclopedia was intended to ſupplant *their* dictionary of *Trevoux*; which was a mortification to the ſociety. They caballed, therefore, againſt the new work; and having found out twenty articles which were ſuſceptible of an offenſive interpretation by the civil or eccleſiaſtical authority, they obtained a decree of council, which condemned it. The police-officers went to the houſe of Diderot, and ſeized his manuſcripts: but the Encyclopediſts ſoon recovered this temporary inconvenience. Their main point was accompliſhed; they had a center of unity, an eſtabliſhed hierarchy, a ſyſtem to inculcate, and ſigns of recognition. They knew that perſecution is equally the aliment of zeal, as of fanaticiſm: they ſowed with labour, but they in vain expected a grand harveſt."

ENCYCLO'PEDIST, *ſ.* [from *encyclopedy*.] The compiler or editor of an encyclopædia.

ENCYST'ED, *adj.* [κυστις, Gr.] Encloſed in a veſicle or bag.—*Encyſted* tumours borrow their names from a cyſt or bag, in which they are contained. *Sharp's Surgery.*

END, *ſ.* [end, Sax.] The extremity of the length of any thing materially extended. Of bodies that have equal dimenſions we do not uſe *end*: the extremity of breadth is *ſide.*—Jonathan put forth the *end* of the rod that was in his hand, and dipt it in a honeycomb. 1 *Sam.*—Extremity, or laſt part in general.—The extremity and bounds of all bodies we have no difficulty to arrive at; but, when the mind is there, it finds nothing to hinder its progreſs into this endleſs expanſion: of that it can neither find nor conceive any *end. Locke.*—The laſt particle of any aſſignable duration.—Behold the day groweth to an *end. Judges.*

If the world's age and death be argued well
By the ſun's fall, which now tow'rds earth doth bend,
Then we might fear, that virtue, ſince ſhe fell
So low as woman, ſhould be near her *end.* *Donne.*

The concluſion or ceſſation of any action.—Jacob had made an *end* of commanding his ſons. *Geneſis.*

Yet vainly moſt their age in ſtudy ſpend;
No *end* of writing books, and to no end. *Denham.*

When *end* is not uſed materially, it is oppoſed to *beginning.*—Better is the *end* than the *beginning* thereof. *Eccleſ.*—The concluſion or laſt part of any thing: as, the *end* of a chapter; the *end* of a diſcourſe.—Ultimate ſtate; final doom.—Mark the perfect man, and behold the upright; for the *end* of that man is peace. *Pſalms.*—The point beyond which no profeſſion can be made.—They reel to and fro, and ſtagger like a drunken man, and are at their wits' *end. Pſalm* cvii. 27.—Final determination; concluſion of debate, or deliberation.—My guilt be on my head, and there's an *end! Shakeſpeare.*—Death; fate; deceaſe.—'Tis the great buſineſs of life to fit ourſelves for our *end*, and no man can live well that hath not death in his eye. *L'Eſtrange.*

Remember Milo's *end*,
Wedg'd in that timber which he ſtrove to rend. *Roſcom.*

Ceſſation; period.—What is the ſign of the *end* of the world? *Matth.*—Great houſes ſhall have an *end. Amos.*—Limit; termination.—There is no *end* of the ſtore. *Nahum.*—Abolition; total loſs.—There would be an *end* of all civil government, if the aſſignment of civil power were by ſuch inſtitution. *Locke.*—Cauſe of death; deſtroyer:

Take heed you dally not before your king,
Leſt he that is the ſupreme King of kings,
Confound your hidden falſehood, and award
Either of you to be the other's *end.* *Shakeſpeare.*

Conſequence;

Conſequence; concluſive event; concluſion.—The *end* of theſe things is death. *Rom.* vi. 21.

O, that a man might know
The *end* of this day's buſineſs ere it come!
But it ſufficeth that the day will end. *Shakeſpeare.*

Fragment; broken piece:

Thus I clothe my naked villainy,
With old odd *ends*, ſtol'n forth of Holy Writ,
And ſeem a ſaint. *Shakeſpeare.*

Purpoſe; intention.—There was a purpoſe to reduce the monarchy to a republic, which was far from the *end* and purpoſe of the nation. *Clarendon.*

Heav'n, as its inſtrument, my courage ſends;
Heav'n ne'er ſent thoſe who fight for private *ends*. *Dryd.*

Thing intended; final deſign; the termination of intellectual proſpect.—The *end* of our faſt is to pleaſe God, and make him propitious. *Smalridge.*—Wiſdom may have framed one and the ſame thing to ſerve commodiouſly for divers *ends*. *Hooker.*—The *end* of the commandment is charity. 1 *Tim.*

Life, with my Indamora, I would chuſe;
But, loſing her, the *end* of living loſe. *Dryden.*

For when ſucceſs a lover's toil attends,
Few aſk if fraud or force attain'd his *ends*. *Pope.*

An END, [Corrupted from *on end.*] Upright; erect: as, his hair ſtands *an end.*—*An* END has a ſignification in low language not eaſily explained; as, *moſt an end, commonly*; perhaps it is properly *an end*, at the concluſion; or corrupted from ſome old word not eaſily recoverable:

Stay'ſt thou to vex me here?
Slave, that, ſtill *an end*, turns me to ſhame! *Shakeſpeare.*

To END, *v. a.* To terminate; to conclude; to finiſh.—They have *ended* all my harveſt. *Ruth.*—That expenſive war under which we have ſo long groaned, is not yet *ended*. *Smalridge.*—To deſtroy; to put to death:

The lord of Stafford dear to-day hath bought
Thy likeneſs; for, inſtead of thee, king Harry,
This ſword hath *ended* him. *Shakeſpeare.*

To END, *v. n.* To come to an end; to be finiſhed:

Then eaſe your weary Trojans will attend,
And the long labours of your voyage *end*. *Dryden.*

To die: [τελευταω.]

Yet happy were my death, mine *ending* bleſt,
If this I could obtain, that, breaſt to breaſt,
Thy boſom might receive my yielded ſpright. *Fairfax.*

To terminate; to conclude.—Our laughing, if it be loud and high, commonly *ends* in a deep ſigh; and all the inſtances of pleaſure have a ſting in the tail. *Taylor.*—To ceaſe; to fail.—His ſovereignty, built upon either of theſe titles, could not have deſcended to his heir, but muſt have *ended* with him. *Locke.*—To conclude action or diſcourſe:

The angel *ended*, and in Adam's ear
So charming left his voice. *Milton.*

END-ALL, *ſ.* Abſolute concluſion:

That but this blow
Might be the be-all, and the *end-all*, here. *Shakeſpeare.*

END *for* END, (a ſea term,) when a rope runs all out of the pully, or off the block, or what it is wound upon.

To ENDA'MAGE, *v. a.* To miſchief; to prejudice; to harm.—When an erroneous opinion is publiſhed, the public is *endamaged*, and therefore it becomes puniſhable by the magiſtrate. *South.*

Nor ought he car'd whom he *endamaged*
By tortous wrong, or whom bereav'd of right. *Spenſer.*

ENDA'MAGEMENT, *ſ.* Damage;

Theſe flags of France that are advanced here,
Have hither march'd to the *endamagement*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENDAN'GER, *v. a.* To put into hazard; to bring into peril.—Every one deſires his own preſervation, and therefore hath a natural dread of every thing that can deſtroy his being, or *endanger* his happineſs. *Tillotſon.*

To force the foes from the Lavinian ſhore,
And Italy's *endanger'd* peace reſtore. *Dryden.*

To incur the danger of; to hazard.—He that turneth the humours back, and maketh the wound bleed inwards, *endangereth* malign ulcers. *Bacon.*

ENDAN'GERMENT, *ſ.* Peril:

And bad his ſervant Talus to invent
Which way he enter might without *endangerment*. *Spenſ.*

EN'DE, one of the ſmaller Molucca iſlands. Lat. 8. 30. S. lon. 120. E. Greenwich.

To ENDE'AR, *v. a.* To make dear; to make beloved.—All thoſe inſtances of charity which uſually *endear* each other, ſweetneſs of converſation, frequent admonition, all ſignifications of love, muſt be expreſſed towards children. *Taylor.*

And in the mixture of all theſe appears
Variety, which all the reſt *endears*. *Denham.*

ENDEAR'MENT, *ſ.* The cauſe of love; means by which any thing is *endeared.*—Her firſt *endearments*, twining round the ſoul. *Thomſon.*—The ſtate of being endeared; the ſtate of being loved.—Is not the ſeparate property of a thing the great cauſe of its *endearment* amongſt all mankind? *South.*

ENDEA'VOUR, *ſ.* [*devoir*, Fr. *endevoir.*] Labour directed to ſome certain end; effort to obtain or avoid.—This is the hinge on which turns the liberty of intellectual beings, in their conſtant *endeavours* after, and ſteady proſecution of, true felicity. *Locke.*

Heav'n doth divide
The ſtate of man in divers functions,
Setting *endeavour* in continual motion. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENDEA'VOUR, *v. n.* To labour to a certain purpoſe; to work for a certain end. It has commonly *after* before the thing.—I could wiſh that more of our country clergy would *endeavour after* a handſome elocution. *Addiſ.*

Of old, thoſe met rewards who could excel;
And thoſe were prais'd, who but *endeavour'd* well. *Pope.*

To ENDEA'VOUR, *v. a.* To attempt; to eſſay:

To pray'r, repentance, and obedience due,
Though but *endeavour'd* with ſincere intent,
My hand ſhall not be ſlow, mine ear not ſhut. *Milton.*

To try at getting.—I'll *endeavour* his acquaintance. *Congr.*

ENDEA'VOUR STRAITS, a narrow ſea, between New Guinea and New Holland.

ENDEA'VOUR RIVER, a river on the north-eaſt coaſt of New Holland, with a bar at its mouth, and not depth of water for veſſels to ſail more than a mile above the bar. Lat. 15. 26. S. lon. 145. 12. E. Greenwich.

ENDEA'VOURER, *ſ.* One who labours to a certain end.—He appears an humble *endeavourer*, and ſpeaks honeſtly to no purpoſe. *Rymer.*

ENDEA'VOURMENT, *ſ.* Labour:

The huſband-man was meanly well content,
Tryal to make of his *endeavourment*. *Spenſer.*

ENDE'CAGON, *ſ.* [ενδεκαγονον, of ενδεκα, and γονια, Gr. a corner.] A plane geometrical figure of eleven ſides and angles, otherwiſe called *undecagon*. If each ſide of this figure be 1, its area will be $9{\cdot}3656399 = 11/4$ of the tang. of $73\frac{7}{11}$ degrees, to the radius 1.

ENDEDINE'MENUS, [from ενδινεω, Gr. to turn round.] A medical term for the eyes, when they turn round preternaturally in their orbits.

ENDE'IS,

ENDE'IS, a nymph, daughter of Chiron. She married Æacus, king of Ægina, by whom ſhe had Peleus and Telamon. *Apollodorus.*

ENDEL'AVE, a ſmall iſland of Denmark: eight miles north of Funen.

ENDE'MIA, *ſ.* [from ἐν, in, and δημος, Gr. the multitude.] A diſeaſe peculiar to a particular country or people.

ENDE'MIAL, ENDEMIC, or ENDEMICAL, *adj.* [*endemicus*, Lat. from ἐν, and δημος, Gr. the people.] Peculiar to a country; uſed of any diſeaſe proceeding from ſome cauſe peculiar to the country where it reigns: ſuch as the ſcurvy to the northern climes. *Quincy.*—We may bring a conſumption under the notion of a pandemick, or *endemick*, or rather a vernacular diſeaſe, to England. *Harvey.*—Solenander, from the frequency of the plants ſpringing up in any region, could gather what *endemial* diſeaſes the inhabitants were ſubject to. *Ray.*—What demonſtrates the plague to be *endemial* to Egypt, is its invaſion and going off at certain ſeaſons. *Arbuthnot.*

ENDE'NA, a town of Italy, in the Bergamaſco: ſeven miles north of Bergamo.

To ENDEN'IZE, or ENDENIZEN, *v. a.* To make free; to enfranchiſe; to naturalize.—The Engliſh tongue hath been beautified and enriched out of other tongues, by enfranchiſing and *endenizing* ſtrange words. *Camden.*—It is virtue that gives glory; that will *endenizen* a man every where. It is only that can naturalize him. *Ben Jonſon's Diſcoveries.*

EN'DER, a town of Italy, in the Bergamaſco: twelve miles north-eaſt of Bergamo.

EN'DER, a river of Scotland, formed by the union of ſeveral ſmall brooks, which runs into the Garry, ſeven miles weſt of Blair Athol, in Perthſhire.

EN'DERSDORF, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Neyſze: three miles and a half ſouth of Ziegenhals.

EN'DERSDORF, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Neyſze: three miles and a half ſouth-weſt of Grotkau.

To ENDEW', *v. a.* [uſed by *Spenſer* for] Endow:

Returne from whence ye came, and reſt a while,
Till morrow next that I the elfe ſubdew,
And with Sansfoy's dead dowry you *endew*. *Fairy Queen.*

[In falconry,] is when a hawk digeſts her meat ſo, that ſhe does not only diſcharge her gorge of it, but alſo cleanſe her pannel.

EN'DIAN, a town of Perſia, in the province of Chuſiſtan: 150 miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Suſa.

EN'DING, *ſ.* [from *end*, *v. n.*] Termination:

The fight was deep imprinted in their hearts,
Who ſaw this bloody fray to *ending* brought. *Fairfax.*

ENDIN'GEN, a town of Germany, in Auſtrian Swabia: ſeven miles north-weſt of Friburg.

To ENDITE, *v. a.* [*enditer*, Fr. *dictum*, Lat.] To charge any man by a written accuſation before a court of juſtice: as, *He was* endited *for felony.* It is oftener written *indict*; which ſee.—To draw up; to compoſe; to write:

Hear how learn'd Greece her uſeful rules *endites*,
When to repreſs, and when indulge, our flights! *Pope.*

To ENDI'TE, *v. n.* To compoſe:

Your battles they hereafter ſhall *endite*,
And draw the image of our Mars in fight. *Waller.*

EN'DIVE, *ſ.* In botany. See CICHORIUM.

END'LESS, *adj.* Having no end; being without concluſion or termination.—Nothing was more *endleſs* than the common method of comparing eminent writers by an oppoſition of particular paſſages in them. *Pope.*—Infinite in longitudinal extent.—As it is pleaſant to the eye to have an *endleſs* proſpect, ſo it is ſome pleaſure to a finite underſtanding to view unlimited excellencies. *Tillotſon.*—Infinite in duration; perpetual:

All our glory extinct, and happy ſtate
Here ſwallow'd up in *endleſs* miſery! *Milton.*

Inceſſant; continual:

Each pleaſing Blount ſhall *endleſs* ſmiles beſtow,
And ſoft Belinda's bluſh for ever glow. *Pope.*

END'LESSLY, *adv.* Inceſſantly; perpetually. Without termination of length.—Though God's promiſe has made a ſure entail of grace to all thoſe who humbly ſeek, yet it no where engages that it ſhall importunately and *endleſsly* renew its aſſaults on thoſe who have often repulſed it. *Decay of Piety.*

END'LESSNESS, *ſ.* Extenſion without limit. Perpetuity; endleſs duration. The quality of being round without an end:

The tropic circles have,
Yea, and thoſe ſmall ones, which the poles engrave,
All the ſame roundneſs, evenneſs, and all
The *endleſſneſs* of the equinoctial. *Donne.*

END'LONG, *adv.* In a ſtraight line:

Then ſpurring at full ſpeed, ran *endlong* on,
Where Theſeus ſat on his imperial throne. *Dryden.*

END'MOST, *adj.* Remoteſt; furtheſt; at the farther end.

To ENDOR'SE, *v. a.* [*endorſer*, Fr. *dorſum*, Lat.] To regiſter on the back of a writing; to ſuperſcribe. In commerce, to write ones name on the back of a draft. See the article BILL OF EXCHANGE, vol. iii. p. 29.—Upon credential letters was *endorſed* this ſuperſcription, "To the king who hath the ſun for his helmet." *Howell.*—To cover on the back. *This is not uſed.*

Chariots, or elephants *endors'd* with tow'rs
Of archers. *Milton.*

ENDOR'SEMENT, *ſ.* Superſcription; writing on the back. Ratification:

Th' *endorſement* of ſupreme delight,
Writ by a friend, and with his blood. *Herbert.*

To ENDO'SS, *v. a.* [*endoſſer*, Fr.] To mark on the back; to put on the back; to mark by inciſion:

Her name in every tree I will *endoſs*,
That, as the trees do grow, her name may grow. *Spenſ.*

To ENDOW', *v. a.* [*indotare*, Lat. *endouairer*, Fr.] To enrich with a portion.—He ſhall ſurely *endow* her to be his wife. *Exodus.*—To ſupply with any external goods. An alms-houſe I intend to *endow* very handſomely for a dozen ſuperannuated huſbandmen. *Addiſon.*—To enrich with any excellence.—Among thoſe who are the moſt richly *endowed* by nature, and accompliſhed by their own induſtry, how few are there whoſe virtues are not obſcured? *Addiſon.*—God did never command us to believe, nor his miniſters to preach, any doctrine contrary to the reaſon he hath pleaſed to *endow* us with. *Swift.*—To be the fortune of any one:

I do not think
So fair an outward, and ſuch ſtuff within,
Endows a man but him. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENDOW'MENT, *ſ.* Wealth beſtowed to any perſon or uſe. The beſtowing or aſſuring a dower; the ſetting forth a ſufficient portion for a vicar towards his perpetual maintenance, when the benefice is appropriated. *Cowel.*—Appropriation of revenue.—A chapel will I build, with large *endowment*. *Dryden.*—Gifts of nature. In this ſenſe it is commonly plural.—By a deſire of fame, great *endowments* are not ſuffered to lie idle and uſeleſs to the public. *Addiſon.*

ENDRO'MIS, *ſ.* In antiquity; a coarſe ſhaggy mantle, uſually thrown over the athletæ, after their exerciſes in the Grecian games. A ſhaggy kind of cloak to wear in cold weather.

ENDSCHUTZ', a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper

Upper Saxony, and circle of Neuſtadt: four miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Weyda.

To ENDU'E, *v. a.* [*induo*, Lat.] To ſupply with mental excellencies; to inveſt with intellectual powers.—*Endue* them with thy Holy Spirit. *Common Prayer.*

Theſe baniſh'd men that I have kept withal,
Are men *endu'd* with worthy qualities. *Shakeſpeare.*

In the following paſſage it ſeems incorrectly printed for *endow*. — Leah ſaid, God hath *endued* me with a good dowry. *Gen.*

ENDU'RANCE, *ſ.* Continuance; laſtingneſs.—Some of them are of very great antiquity and continuance, others more late and of leſs *endurance*. *Spenſer's Ireland.*

Patience; ſufferance:

Great things of ſmall
One can create; and in what place ſoe'er
Thrive under evil, and work eaſe out of pain,
Through labour and *endurance*. *Milton.*

State of ſuffering.—I would fain know whether that man takes a rational courſe to preſerve himſelf, who refuſes the *endurance* of theſe higher troubles, to ſecure himſelf from a condition infinitely more miſerable. *South.*—Delay; procraſtination. *Obſolete:*

I ſhould have ta'en ſome pains to bring together
Yourſelf and your accuſer, and have heard you
Without *endurance* further. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENDU'RE, *v. a.* [*endurer*, Fr. *durare*, Lat.] To bear; to ſuſtain; to ſupport unbroken.—The hardneſs of bodies is cauſed chiefly by the jejuneneſs of the ſpirits, and their imparity with the tangible parts, which make them not only hard, but fragile, and leſs *enduring* of preſſure. *Bacon.*

Both were of ſhining ſteel, and wrought ſo pure,
As might the ſtrokes of two ſuch arms *endure*. *Dryden.*

To bear with patience.—The gout haunts uſually the eaſy and the rich, the nice and the lazy, who grow to *endure* much, becauſe they can *endure* little. *Temple.*

So dear I love him, that with him all deaths
I could *endure*; without him, live no life. *Milton.*

To undergo; to ſuſtain.—I wiſh to die, yet dare not death *endure*. *Dryden.*—To continue in. *Not uſed.*—The deer *endureth* the womb but eight months, and is complete at ſix years. *Brown.*—[A Latiniſm, from *induro*.] To harden:

And manly limbs, *endur'd* with little care
Againſt all hard miſhaps, and fortuneleſs miſfare. *Spenſer.*

To ENDU'RE, *v. n.* To laſt; to remain; to continue.—Labour not for the meat which periſheth, but for that meat which *endureth* unto everlaſting life. *John.*

A charm that ſhall to age *endure*
The mind benevolent and pure. *Anon.*

To brook; to bear; to admit.—For how can I *endure* to ſee the evil that ſhall come unto my people? Or how can I *endure* to ſee the deſtruction of my kindred? *Eſth.* viii. 6.

ENDU'RER, *ſ.* One that can bear or endure; ſuſtainer; ſufferer.—They are very valiant and hardy; for the moſt part great *endurers* of cold, labour, hunger, and all hardineſs. *Spenſer.*—Continuer; laſter.

END'WISE, *adv.* Erectly; uprightly; on end.—A rude and unpoliſhed America, peopled with ſlothful and naked Indians, living in pitiful huts and cabbins, made of poles ſet *endwiſe*. *Ray.*

ENDY'MION, in fabulous hiſtory, a ſhepherd, ſon of Æthlius and Calyce. It is ſaid that he required of Jupiter to grant to him to be always young, and to ſleep as much as he would; whence came the proverb of *Endymionis ſomnum dormire*, to expreſs a long ſleep. Diana ſaw him naked as he ſlept on mount Latmos; and was ſo ſtruck with his beauty, that ſhe came down from heaven every night to enjoy his company. Endymion married Chromia daughter of Itonus; by whom he had three ſons, Pæon, Epeus, and Æolus, and a daughter called Eurydice. The fable of Endymion's amours with Diana, or the moon, aroſe from his knowledge of aſtronomy; and as he paſſed the night on ſome high mountain to obſerve the heavenly bodies, it came to be ſaid that he was courted by the moon. Some ſuppoſe that there were two of that name; the ſon of a king of Elis, and the ſhepherd or aſtronomer of Caria. The people of Heraclea maintained that Endymion died on mount Latmos, and the Eleans pretended to ſhow his tomb at Olympia, in Peloponneſus.

ENE'AS, a Trojan prince; a man's name.

To EN'ECATE, *v. a.* [*eneco*, Lat.] To kill; to deſtroy.—Some plagues partake of ſuch a pernicious degree of malignity, that in the manner of a moſt preſentaneous poiſon, they *enecate* in two or three hours, ſuddenly corrupting or extinguiſhing the vital ſpirits. *Harvey.*

ENE'DA, a town of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Glaris: two miles eaſt of Glaris.

ENE'ID, *ſ.* [from *Eneas*.] The heroic poem of Virgil in honour of Eneas.

EN'EMA. See ENÆMA.

ENEMAS'SAR, a man's name. *Tob.* i. 13.

EN'EMY, *ſ.* [*ennemi*, Fr. *inimicus*, Lat.] A public foe.—The *enemy* thinks of raiſing threeſcore thouſand men for the next ſummer. *Addiſon.*—A private opponent; an antagoniſt.—I ſay unto you, love your *enemies*. *Matt.*—Any one who regards another with malevolence; not a friend:

Kent in diſguiſe,
Follow'd his *enemy* king, and did him ſervice
Improper for a ſlave. *Shakeſpeare.*

One that diſlikes.—He that deſignedly uſes ambiguities, ought to be looked on as an *enemy* to truth and knowledge. *Locke.*

Bold is the critic, who dares prove
Theſe heroes were no friends to love;
And bolder he who dares aver,
That they were *enemies* to war. *Prior.*

[In theology.] The fiend; the devil.—Defend us from the danger of the *enemy*. *Common Prayer.*

ENEN'THIUS, in heathen mythology, an idol of the Phœnicians.

ENERGE'TIC, *adj.* [ενεργητικος, Gr.] Forcible; active; vigorous; powerful in effect; efficacious.—Theſe miaſms entering the body, are not ſo *energetic* as to venenate the entire maſs of blood in an inſtant. *Harvey.*—Operative; active; working; not at reſt.—If then we will conceive of God truly, and, as far as we can, adequately, we muſt look upon him not only as an eternal Being, but alſo as a Being eternally *energetic*. *Grew.*

To EN'ERGIZE, *v. n.* To act with energy.—Theſe heroic virtues could never have had exiſtence, had not thoſe things called evils firſt eſtabliſhed them into habits, and afterwards given occaſion for them to *energize*. *J. Harris.*

ENER'GUMENS, *ſ.* In church hiſtory, perſons ſuppoſed to be poſſeſſed by the devil, concerning whom there were many regulations among the primitive Chriſtians. They were denied baptiſm and the euchariſt; and though they were under the care of exorciſts, yet it was thought a becoming act of charity, to offer up for them the public prayers of the church, at which they were permitted to be preſent.

EN'ERGY, *ſ.* [*energia*, Lat. from εν, and εργον, Gr. work.] Power not exerted in action.—They are not effective of any thing, but are *energies* merely; for their working upon mirrors, and places of echo, doth not alter any thing in thoſe bodies. *Bacon.*—Force; vigour; efficacy; influence.—Beg the bleſſed Jeſus to give an *energy* to your imperfect prayers, by his moſt powerful interceſſion. *Smalridge.*

What but God, who, boundleſs ſpirit all,
And unremitting *energy*, pervades,
Adjuſts, ſuſtains, and animates, the whole. *Thomſon.*

Faculty;

Faculty; operation.—Matter, though divided into the ſublimeſt parts, moved ſwiftly, is ſenſeleſs and ſtupid, and makes no approach to vital *energy*. *Ray*.—Strength of expreſſion; force of ſignification; ſpirit; life.—Swift and ready, and familiar communication is made by ſpeech; and, when animated by elocution, it acquires a greater life and *energy*, raviſhing and captivating the hearers. *Holder*.

Who did ever, in French authors, ſee
The comprehenſive Engliſh *energy*. *Roſcommon*.

To ENER'VATE, *v. a.* [*enervo*, Lat.] To weaken; to deprive of force; to emaſculate.—Sheepiſh ſoftneſs often *enervates* thoſe who are bred like fondlings at home. *Locke*.

On each *enervate* ſtring they taught the note
To pant, or tremble through an eunuch's throat. *Pope*.

ENERVA'TION, *ſ.* The act of weakening; emaſculation.—The ſtate of being weakened; effeminacy.—This colour of meliority and preheminence is a ſign of *enervation* and weakneſs. *Bacon*.

To ENER'VE, *v. a.* [*enervo*, Lat.] To weaken; to break the force of; to cruſh.—We ſhall be able to ſolve and *enerve* their force. *Digby*.

Such object hath the pow'r to ſoft'n and tame
Severeſt temper, ſmooth the rugged'ſt brow,
Enerve, and with voluptuous hope diſſolve. *Milton*.

To ENFA'MISH, *v. a.* To ſtarve; to famiſh; to kill with hunger.

ENFA'MOUSED, *adj.* Made famous:

To Padus' ſilver ſtream then glides ſhe on,
Enfamouſed by reckleſs Phaeton. *W. Browne*.

ENFA'NS PERDUS, *ſ.* [Fr.] The forlorn hope; a military term.

To ENFEE'BLE, *v. a.* To weaken; to enervate; to deprive of ſtrength.—My people are with ſickneſs much *enfeebled*. *Shakeſpeare*.

Sure, nature form'd me of her ſofteſt mold,
Enfeebled all my ſoul with tender paſſions,
And ſunk me ev'n below my own weak ſex. *Addiſon*.

ENFE'LONED, *adj.* Full of felonious rage:

With that, like one *enfelon'd* or diſtraught,
She forth did roam. *Spenſer*.

To ENFE'OFF, *v. a.* [*feoffamentum*, low Lat.] To inveſt with any dignities or poſſeſſions.—If the eldeſt ſon *enfeoff* the ſecond, reſerving homage, and that homage paid, and then the ſecond ſon dies without iſſue, it will deſcend to the eldeſt as heir, and the ſeignory is extinct. *Hale*.

ENFE'OFFMENT, *ſ.* The act of enfeoffing. The inſtrument or deed by which one is inveſted with poſſeſſions.

To ENFET'TER, *v. a.* To bind in fetters; to enchain. *Not in uſe*:

His ſoul is ſo *enfetter'd* to her love,
That ſhe may make, unmake, do what ſhe liſt. *Shakeſpeare*.

EN'FIELD (William, LLD.) an elegant and eſtimable writer, born at Sudbury, in 1741. He was educated for the miniſtry among the proteſtant diſſenters at the academy at Daventry, where he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his early compoſitions. In 1763 he was choſen to the paſtoral office by the congregation of Benn's-garden in Liverpool, and ſoon obtained notice as a pleaſing preacher, and an amiable man in ſociety. During his reſidence in that town, he publiſhed two volumes of Sermons, in 12mo. which were very favourably received, and alſo a collection of Hymns, and Family Prayers, the latter of his own compoſition. In 1770 he accepted an invitation to undertake the poſt of reſident tutor and lecturer in the belles-lettres in the academy at Warrington. With great diligence and general reputation he fulfilled theſe offices for ſome years, adding to them that of mathematical tutor. He likewiſe publiſhed various works, moſt of them of the claſs of compilations, but excellently calculated for the improvement of young perſons. One of the moſt popular of theſe was entitled The Speaker, a ſelection of miſcellaneous pieces from the beſt Engliſh writers for the purpoſes of recital, to which he prefixed a valuable eſſay on elocution. A ſequel to this work was afterwards printed under the title of Exerciſes in Elocution. Of his other publications during this period, were, The Preacher's Directory, an arrangement of topics and texts; The Engliſh Preacher, a collection of ſermons from various authors, nine vols. 12mo; Biographical Sermons on the principal Characters in the Old and New Teſtament; and ſeveral ſingle ſermons on particular occaſions. He alſo drew up Inſtitutes of Natural Philoſophy, theoretical and experimental, in one vol. 4to. a moſt valuable work, which has already paſſed two editions, the laſt of which was publiſhed in 1799. The title of doctor of laws was conferred upon him during his academical employment by the univerſity of Edinburgh. After the diſſolution of the academy in 1783 he remained two years at Warrington, occupied with the education of private pupils, and with his duty as miniſter of the diſſenting congregation there. In 1785 he accepted an invitation from the ſociety at the octagon diſſenting meeting-houſe at Norwich. In that city he continued for ſome time to purſue his plan of private tuition; but at length he devoted himſelf entirely to literary occupations and the paſtoral office. He was engaged for a conſiderable time in the laborious taſk of abridging Brucker's Hiſtory of Philoſophy, a work of great value, but little attractive in its original form, on account of its prolixity, and its harſh and involved Latin ſtyle. Dr. Enfield publiſhed his Abridgement in two vols. 4to. 1791, and probably the tenets of the different ſects of philoſophers were never before diſplayed with ſo much elegance and perſpicuity. It was, indeed, his peculiar talent to expreſs the ideas of other men to the greateſt advantage. His language, chaſte, clear, correct, and free from all affectation, is one of the beſt ſpecimens of that middle ſtyle which is fitted for all topics, and he communicates to his reader all that clearneſs of idea which reigned in his own mind. He died on the third of November, 1797, in his fifty-ſeventh year. Few men have lived more generally beloved, or have died more lamented. After his death a publication was made of his Sermons, in three vols. 8vo.

EN'FIELD, a neat and pleaſant town in Middleſex, ten miles from London; it is called in ſome old records Enfen, or Infen, from the fenny ſoil of its pariſh; but ſo drained ſince, that, except the part called Enfield-waſh, that it is now become good land. It was formerly noted for tanning of hides; had a royal palace in the reign of Henry VII. and the chace near it is a parcel of the duchy of Lancaſter. In the centre of the chace are the ruins of an old manſion, ſaid to have belonged to the earls of Eſſex. Here is a moſt ſumptuous lodge for the ranger; and the ſkirts of the chace are ſtored with country-ſeats belonging to the citizens of London. This chace was full of deer, and all ſorts of game, when James I. reſided at Theobalds; but in the civil wars it was ſtripped both of the game and timber, and let out in farms. Yet after the reſtoration it was laid open again, woods and groves were re-planted, and the whole chace ſtored with deer. But, by an act of parliament in 1779, it was diſforeſted. Part of it was allotted to different pariſhes, and enclofed, when it was found to contain 8349 acres; and another part, reſerved to the crown, was afterwards ſold, in eight lots, at the office of the duchy of Lancaſter. The church is large and very ancient, and has been lately repaired and beautified. Oppoſite the church is an ancient ſtructure, built in the reign of Henry VII. by Sir Thomas Lovel. Henry VIII. is ſuppoſed to have purchaſed it as a nurſery for the royal children. Edward VI. went hence to the Tower on his acceſſion to the throne. In April, 1557, the Princeſs Elizabeth was eſcorted from Hatfield to Enfield

Chace, by a retinue of twelve ladies in white ſatin, on ambling palfries, and twenty yeomen in green, all on horſeback, that her grace might hunt the hart. On entering the chace, ſhe was met by fifty archers, in ſcarlet boots and yellow caps, armed with gilded bows, each of whom preſented her with a ſilver-headed arrow winged with peacock's feathers. By way of cloſing the ſport, the princeſs was gratified with the privilege of cutting the throat of the buck. In the garden is ſtill a fine cedar of Libanus, planted about the middle of the ſeventeenth century. It was planted by Dr. Uvedale, who kept a flouriſhing ſchool in the houſe at the time of the plague in 1665, and was a great botaniſt. Tradition ſays that the plant was brought immediately from Mount Libanus in a portmanteau. Enfield Park, part of this royal demeſne, affords a moſt beautiful diſplay of rural ſcenery. The market is on Saturdays; fairs September 23, and November 3. The river Lea runs through part of the pariſh, as does alſo the New River, which winds in various directions, and adds greatly to the beauty of the country. Here is a free-ſchool for boys belonging to the pariſh, and ſeveral other charities.

EN'FIELD, a townſhip of the American States, in Hartford county, Connecticut, on the eaſt bank of Connecticut river, bounded on the north by the Maſſachuſett's line, and ſettled in 1681. The parts contiguous to the river are extremely pleaſant and productive: eighteen miles north of Hartford.

EN'FIELD, a townſhip of the American States, in Grafton county, New Hampſhire, incorporated in 1761. It contains by the cenſus 724 inhabitants, chiefly farmers: eleven miles ſouth-eaſt of Dartmouth College.

ENFILA'DE, *ſ.* [French.] A ſtraight paſſage; any thing through which a right line may be drawn. In fortification, it is applied to thoſe trenches, and other lines, that are ranged in a right line, and ſo may be ſcoured or ſwept by the cannon lengthways, or in the direction of the line.—*A battery d'enfilade*, is that where the cannon ſweep a right line.—*A poſt* or *command d'enfilade*, is a height from whence a whole line may be ſwept at once.

To ENFILA'DE, *v. a.* To pierce in a right line; to ſweep lengthways by the firing of cannon, &c.—The avenues, being cut through the wood in right lines, were *enfiladed* by the Spaniſh cannon. *Expedition to Carthagena.*

ENFINE', a modern name for Antinoë; an ancient city of Egypt, built by Adrian in honour of his favourite Antinous. See the article EGYPT, p. 359, of this volume.

To ENFI'RE, *v. a.* To fire; to ſet on fire; to kindle. *Obſolete:*

So hard thoſe heavenly beauties be *enfir'd*,
As things divine, leaſt paſſions do impreſs. *Spenſer.*

To ENFOR'CE, *v. a.* [*enforcir*, Fr.] To give ſtrength to; to ſtrengthen; to invigorate. To make or gain by force:

Sometimes with lunatic bans, ſometimes with pray'rs
Enforce their charity. *Shakeſpeare.*

To put in act by violence. To inſtigate; to provoke; to urge on; to animate:

Fear gave her wings, and rage *enforc'd* my flight
Through woods and plains. *Spenſer.*

To urge with energy.—To avoid all appearance of diſaffection, I have taken care to *enforce* loyalty by an invincible argument. *Swift.*—To compel; to conſtrain:

For competence of life I will allow you,
That lack of means *enforce* you not to evil. *Shakeſpeare.*

To preſs with a charge. *Little uſed:*

If he evade us there,
Enforce him with his envy to the people,
And that the ſpoil got on the Antiates
Was ne'er diſtributed. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENFO'RCE, *v. n.* To prove; to evince; to ſhew beyond contradiction.—Which laws in ſuch caſe we muſt obey, unleſs there be reaſon ſhewed, which may neceſſarily *enforce* that the law of reaſon, or of God, doth enjoin the contrary. *Hooker.*

ENFOR'CE, *ſ.* Power; ſtrength. *Not uſed:*

He now defies thee thrice to ſingle fight,
As a petty enterpriſe of ſmall *enforce*. *Milton.*

ENFOR'CEDLY, *adv.* By violence; not voluntarily; not ſpontaneouſly; not by choice:

If thou did'ſt put this four cold habit on,
To caſtigate thy pride, 'twere well, but thou
Doſt it *enforcedly*: thoud'ſt courtier be,
Wert thou not beggar. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENFOR'CEMENT, *ſ.* An act of violence; compulſion; force offered:

Confeſs 'twas her's, and by what rough *enforcement*
You got it from her. *Shakeſpeare.*

Sanction; that which gives force to a law.—The rewards and puniſhments of another life, which the Almighty has eſtabliſhed as the *enforcements* of his law, are of weight enough to determine the choice. *Locke.*—Motive of conviction; urgent evidence.—The perſonal deſcent of God himſelf, and his aſſumption of our fleſh to his divinity, was an *enforcement* beyond all the methods of wiſdom that were ever made uſe of in the world. *Hammond.*—Preſſing exigence:

More than I have ſaid,
The leiſure and *enforcement* of the time
Forbids to dwell on. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENFOR'CER, *ſ.* Compeller; one who effects by violence.—When a man tumbles a cylinder or roller down an hill, 'tis certain that the man is the violent *enforcer* of the firſt motion of it. *Hammond.*

ENFOUL'DRED, *adj.* [from *foudre*, Fr.] Mixed with lightning. *Obſolete:*

Heart cannot think what courage and what cries,
With fould *enfouldred* ſmoak and flaſhing fire,
The hell-bred beaſt threw forth unto the ſkies. *Spenſer.*

To ENFRAN'CHISE, *v. a.* To admit to the privilege of a freeman.—The Engliſh colonies, and ſome ſepts of the Iriſhry, *enfranchiſed* by ſpecial charters, were admitted to the benefit of the laws. *Davies.*—Romulus was the natural parent of all thoſe people that were the firſt inhabitants of Rome, or of thoſe that were after incorporated and *enfranchiſed* into that name, city, or government. *Hale.*—To ſet free from ſlavery.—If they won a battle, priſoners became ſlaves, and continued ſo in their generations, unleſs *enfranchiſed* by their maſters. *Temple.*—To free or releaſe from cuſtody:

His miſtreſs
Did hold his eyes lockt in her cryſtal looks.
—Belike, that now ſhe hath *enfranchis'd* them,
Upon ſome other pawn for fealty. *Shakeſpeare.*

To denizen; to endenizen.—Theſe words have been *enfranchiſed* amongſt us. *Watts.*

ENFRAN'CHISEMENT, *ſ.* Inveſtiture of the privileges of a denizen.—The incorporating a man into any ſociety, or body politic. For example, he that is by charter made denizen of England, is ſaid to be *enfranchiſed*; and ſo is he that is made a citizen of London, or other city, or burgeſs of any town corporate, becauſe he is made partaker of thoſe liberties that appertain to the corporation. *Cowel.*—Releaſe from priſon or from ſlavery:

Never did captive with a freer heart
Caſt off his chains of bondage, and embrace
His golden uncontroul'd *enfranchiſement*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENFREE'DOM, *v. a.* To make free.—I mean ſetting thee at liberty, *enfreedoming* thy perſon. *Shakeſpeare's Love's Labour loſt.*—This unuſual word (being put into the mouth of Armado) is probably meant for the coinage of affectation. *Maſon's Supplement to Johnſon's Dictionary.*

ENFRO'ZEN, *part:* Congealed with cold. *Not uſed:*

Yet to augment the anguiſh of my ſmart,
Thou haſt *enfrozen* her diſdainful breaſt,
That no one drop of pity there doth reſt. *Spenſer.*

ENGADI'NA, a diſtrict in the country of the Griſons, in a valley on the banks of the river Inn, bordering on the Tyroleſe, divided into Upper and Lower. Upper Engadina is divided into two communities; the number of inhabitants is eſtimated at four thouſand, four or five hundred of whom emigrate to foreign countries in different capacities. The country, on account of its elevation, produces paſture, but not ſufficient corn for the wants of the people: Zutz is eſteemed the principal place. Lower Engadina is divided into three communities; the ſoil is more fertile than in Upper Engadina, and produces abundance of fruit, and all things neceſſary for the inhabitants. Cernetz is the principal place.

To ENGA'GE, *v. a.* [*engager*, Fr.] To make liable for a debt to a creditor:

I have *engag'd* myſelf to a dear friend,
Engag'd my friend to his mere enemy,
To find my means. *Shakeſpeare.*

To impawn; to ſtake:

They moſt perfidiouſly condemn
Thoſe that *engag'd* their lives for them. *Hudibras.*

To enliſt; to bring into a party.—All wicked men are of a party againſt religion: ſome luſt or intereſt *engageth* them againſt it. *Tillotſon.*—To embark in an affair.—Before I *engage* myſelf in giving any anſwer to this objection of inconſumptible rights, I would ſee the effect certainly averred. *Digby:*—To unite; to attach; to make adherent.—Good-nature *engages* every body to him. *Addiſon.*—To induce; to win by pleaſing means; to gain:

To ev'ry duty he could minds *engage*,
Provoke their courage, and command their rage. *Waller.*

So ſhall I court thy deareſt truth,
When beauty ceaſes to *engage!*
So thinking on thy charming youth,
I'll love it o'er again in age. *Prior.*

To bind by any appointment or contract.—We have been firm to our allies, without declining any expence to which we had *engaged* ourſelves, and we have even exceeded our engagement. *Atterbury.*—To ſeize by the attention: as, He was deeply *engaged* in converſation. To employ; to hold in buſineſs:

For I ſhall ſing of battles, blood, and rage,
Which princes and their people did *engage*. *Dryden.*

To encounter; to fight:

The rebel knave, who dares his prince *engage*,
Proves the juſt victim of his royal rage. *Pope.*

To ENGA'GE, *v. n.* To conflict; to fight.—Upon advertiſement of the Scots army, the earl of Holland was ſent with a body to meet and *engage* with it. *Clarendon.*—To embark in any buſineſs; to enliſt in any party:

'Tis not indeed my talent to *engage*
In lofty trifles, or to ſwell my rage
With wind and noiſe. *Dryden.*

ENGA'GEMENT, *ſ.* [from *engage*; *engagement*, Fr.] The act of engaging, imparting, or making liable to a debt. Obligation by contract.—We have, in expence, exceeded our *engagements*. *Atterbury.*—Adherence to a party or cauſe; partiality.—This practice may be obvious to any who impartially, and without *engagement*, is at the pains to examine. *Swift.*—Employment of the attention.—Play, either by our too conſtant or too long *engagement* in it, becomes like an employment or profeſſion. *Rogers.*—Fight; conflict; battle:

Our army, led by valiant Torriſmond,
Is now in hot *engagement* with the Moors. *Dryden.*

Obligation; motive.—This is the greateſt *engagement* not to forfeit an opportunity. *Hammond.*

ENGAN'HO, or ENGANNO, one of the Malayan iſles, in the eaſtern Sea; a little diſtant from the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland of Sumatra, and about ninety miles ſouth of fort Marlborough. It was ſcarcely known to have been inhabited, by reaſon of the inacceſſible rocks, and dreadful breakers, until Commodore Beaulieu viſited it, who calls it *L'Iſle Trompeuſe*, and adds, that the natives *murder all that come on ſhore*. Mr. Charles Miller, however, found this account greatly exaggerated. He went on ſhore from our ſhips of diſcovery, and ſays "the men were from five feet eight to five feet ten inches high, of a reddiſh colour, with black ſtrait hair cut ſhort; that of the women long, and rolled into a neat curl on the top of the head. The men went quite naked; the women had no more than a plantain leaf to hide their nakedneſs; the arms of the men were lances headed with the bone of fiſh, their canoes made of two boards ſewed together, and the ſeam filled with pitch. Their houſes were circular, ſupported on ſtakes of iron-wood; they had no ſort of fowl, cattle, or rice; they lived on cocoa nuts, ſugar canes, and ſweet potatoes, or fiſh dried in the ſmoke. The fiſh they caught with their lances, or in nets very neatly manufactured by themſelves. Their behaviour was hoſpitable, nor did they give any ſort of umbrage, till ſome imprudent conduct on our ſide excited an alarm. Conch ſhells, the murex tritonis, reſounded in all parts of the iſland, and our people thought fit to make a ſudden retreat."

To ENGA'OL, *v. a.* To impriſon; to confine:

Within my mouth you have *engaol'd* my tongue,
Doubly portcullis'd with my teeth and lips. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENGAR'RISON, *v. a.* To protect by a garriſon.—Neptune with a guard doth *engarriſon* her ſtrongly. *Howel.*

ENGASTRIMU'THI, *ſ.* [from ἐν, in, γαστὴρ, the belly, and μυθέομαι, Gr. to diſcourſe.] In pagan theology, the Pythians, or prieſteſſes of Apollo, who delivered oracles from within, like ventriloquiſts, without any action of the mouth or lips. Ancient philoſophers are divided upon the ſubject of the engaſtrimuthi. Hippocrates mentions it as a diſeaſe: others as a kind of divination: others attribute it to the operation or poſſeſſion of an evil ſpirit: and others to art and mechaniſm. Scottus maintains that the engaſtrimuthi of the ancients were poets, who, when the prieſts could not ſpeak, ſupplied the defect by explaining in verſe what Apollo dictated in the cavity of the baſon of the ſacred tripod.

EN'GELACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and biſhopric of Hildeſheim: fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Alfeld.

EN'GELBERG, an abbey of Swifferland, in the canton of Underwald, in a valley ſurrounded with lofty mountains. The cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald are its protectors: five miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Saxlen.

EN'GELBERT, [Sax.] A man's name.

EN'GELBRECHTS, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: five miles north-north-weſt of Bavarian Waldhoven.

ENGELHART'ZEL, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: nine miles eaſt of Paſſau.

EN'GELHAUS, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Saatz: two miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Carlſbad.

EN'GELHOLM, a ſea-port town of Sweden, on the eaſt ſide of the Categat, in a conſiderable bay, with good anchorage: thirty-ſix miles north of Lund, and forty-five weſt of Chriſtianſtadt. In 1678 it was taken by the Danes, after an obſtinate defence, in which the city was reduced almoſt to a heap of ruins. Lat. 56. 13. N. lon. 12. 49. E. Greenwich.

EN'GELSBERG, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Appau: five miles north-north-weſt of Freudenthal.

EN'GELSBURG, a town of Pruſſia, in the territory of Culm: twelve miles north-eaſt of Culm.

EN'GELSDORF, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleſlaw: ten miles north-north-eaſt of Krottau.

EN'GELSTEIN,

EN'GELSTEIN, a town of Pruſſia, in the province of Natangen: forty-eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Konigſberg.

ENGELSTET'TEN, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: twenty-three miles eaſt of Vienna.

EN'GEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, and principality of Stuhlingen: twelve miles north-north-eaſt of Schaffhauſen, and twenty-one north-north-weſt of Conſtance.

To ENGEN'DER, *v. a.* [*engendrer*, Fr.] To beget between different ſexes.—This baſtard love is *engendered* between luſt and idleneſs. *Sidney.*—To produce; to form:

Oh, nature! thou, who of the ſelf-ſame mettle,
Whereof thy proud child, arrogant man, is puffſt,
Engender'ſt the black toad and adder blue. *Shakeſpeare.*

To excite; to cauſe; to produce.—It unloads the mind, *engenders* thoughts, and animates virtue. *Addiſon.*

Say, can you faſt? your ſtomachs are too young,
And abſtinence *engenders* maladies. *Shakeſpeare.*

To bring forth.—Vice *engenders* ſhame, and folly broods o'er grief. *Prior.*

To ENGE'NDER, *v. n.* To be cauſed; to be produced.—Thick clouds are ſpread, and ſtorms *engender* there. *Dryden.*

EN'GENTHAL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia: thirteen miles eaſt of Nuremberg.

EN'GER, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Ravenſberg: three miles weſt of Hervorden.

EN'GER SEE, a lake of Carinthina, ten miles north-north-weſt of Feltkirchen.

EN'GERSTORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ten miles ſouth-weſt of Ziſterſdorf.

ENGHI'EN, or ENGHUIEN, a town of the Netherlands, in the county of Hainaut, near which was fought the famous battle of Steenkirk: eight miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Ath, and thirty north-north-eaſt of Valenciennes.

EN'GIA, an iſland near the coaſt of the Morea, in a gulf to which it gives name; anciently called *Egina*, *Oenone*, and *Myrmidonia*, which laſt name it obtained from the activity and induſtry of the inhabitants, compared to ants: about ten leagues in circumference; but rendered by rocks nearly inacceſſible, except on the north-weſt. It has no harbours. It has one town which contains about eight hundred houſes; and in it are ſeen the remains of a temple dedicated to Venus, and of another dedicated to Jupiter: twenty-five miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Athens. Lat. 37. 42. N. lon. 41. 20. E. Ferro.

EN'GIA, a gulf on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of European Turkey, ſo called from the iſland ſituated in it, about ſixty miles in length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and twenty-five wide at the mouth.

To ENGIL'D, *v. a.* To illuminate:

Fair Helena, who more *engilds* the night,
Than all yon fiery o's and eyes of light. *Shakeſpeare.*

E'NGINE, *ſ.* [*engin*, Fr. *ingegno*, Ital.]—Any mechanical complication, in which various movements and parts concur to one effect.—In all *engines* it muſt be conſidered, what weight every beam is to carry. *Adams.*—A military machine:

This is our *engine*, towers that overthrows;
Our ſpear that hurts, our ſword that wounds, our foes.
Fairfax.

Any inſtrument.—The ſword, the arrow, the gun, with many terrible *engines* of death, will be employed. *Raleigh.*

He takes the ſciſſars, and extends
The little *engine* on his fingers' ends. *Pope.*

Any inſtrument to throw water upon burning houſes.

Some cut the pipes, and ſome the *engines* play;
And ſome, more bold, mount ladders to the fire. *Dryd.*

Any means uſed to bring to paſs, or to effect; *commonly in an ill ſenſe.*—Prayer muſt be divine and heavenly, which the devil with all his *engines* ſo violently oppoſeth. *Duppa.* An agent for another; *in contempt:*

They had th' eſpecial *engines* been, to rear
His fortunes up into the ſtate they were. *Daniel.*

In Mechanics, this term is applied to wheels, ſcrews, levers, and all the mechanical powers, combined to lift, caſt, or ſuſtain a weight, or produce any other conſiderable effect; ſome of which are for war, as the baliſta, catapulta, ſcorpio, battering ram, &c. others for the arts of peace, as mills, cranes, preſſes, clocks, watches, &c. which ſee under their reſpective heads; alſo the articles MECHANICS, HYDROSTATICS, ARTILLERY, &c.

ENGINE'ER, *ſ.* [*engignier*, Fr.] One who manages engines; one who directs the artillery of an army. He is denominated either a *civil* or *military* engineer, according as the objects of his profeſſion reſpect civil or military purpoſes.—An author, who points his ſatire only at a great man, is like the *engineer* who ſignalized himſelf by this ungenerous practice. *Addiſon.*

Him thus enrag'd,
Deſcrying from afar, ſome *engineer*,
Dext'rous to guide th' unerring charge, deſign'd,
By one nice ſhot, to terminate the war. *Philips.*

A *military engineer* ſhould be an expert mathematician and draughtſman, and particularly verſed in fortification and gunnery, being the perſon officially employed to direct the operations both for attacking and defending works. It is their buſineſs alſo to draw the lines of circumvallation and contravallation; alſo to mark out the trenches, places of arms, batteries, and lodgments, and in general to direct the workmen in all ſuch operations.

EN'GINERY, *ſ.* [from *engine*,] The act of managing artillery.—They may deſcend in mathematics to fortification, architecture, *enginery*, or navigation. *Milton.*—Engines of war; artillery:

We ſaw the foe
Approaching, groſs and huge, in hollow cube
Training his dev'liſh *enginery*. *Milton.*

Machination in general:

Imbibe the novel daylight, and expoſe
Obvious the fraudful *engin'ry* of Rome. *Shenſtone.*

To ENG'IRD, *v. a.* [from *gird.*] To encircle; to ſurround; to environ; to encompaſs.

My heart is drown'd with grief,
My body round *engirt* with miſery;
For what's more miſerable than diſcontent? *Shakeſp.*

To ENGI'RT, *v. a.* To engird.—That gold muſt round *engirt* theſe brows of mine. *Shakeſpeare.*—*Johnſon* has produced this paſſage for an example of *engird*. *Maſon.*

ENGISO'MA, *ſ.* [from εγγιζω, Gr. to approach.] A ſurgical inſtrument for making the parts of the broken clavicle meet. Alſo a fracture of the cranium where the bone and the membrane of the brain meet.

ENG'LAND, or South-Britain, one of the ſmalleſt, though confeſſedly the moſt celebrious, of all the countries of Europe. It is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the eaſt by the German Ocean, on the ſouth by the Engliſh Channel, and on the weſt by St. George's Channel, the Atlantic Ocean, Wales, and the Iriſh Sea. The extent of England, including Wales, reckoned in ſquare miles, is computed at 49,450; and the population being eſtimated at eight millions four hundred thouſand of ſouls, the number of inhabitants to every ſquare mile will be one hundred and ſixty-nine. The whole iſland extends from fifty to fifty-eight and a half degrees of north latitude, whence it is about five hundred geographical miles in length, divided into two parts, viz. North Britain, commonly called Scotland; and South-Britain, or England; which, from the Land's End in Cornwall, to the North Foreland in Kent, is three hundred and twenty geographical miles. In Britiſh miles, the whole length of

of the iſland may be computed at five hundred and eighty, and the breadth, from the points above mentioned, at three hundred and ſeventy.

England is interſected by four very important rivers, the Severn, the Thames, the Humber, and the Merſey. The Severn riſes from the mountain Plenlimmon in North Wales, and after an eaſterly courſe to Shrewſbury, bends its progreſs almoſt ſouth to Glouceſter, whence it flows ſouth-weſt into the Briſtol Channel, a progreſs of about one hundred and fifty miles, navigable as far as Welch pool. Its chief tributary ſtreams are the northern and ſouthern Avons, the Teme, and the Wye.

The majeſtic Thames originates in Cotſwold-hills, Glouceſterſhire; and maintains a ſouth-eaſterly direction, to its egreſs into the German Ocean, after receiving the Cherwel, the Teme, the Kennett, another Wye, the Mole, and Lee. The Medway flows into the eſtuary of the Thames, as the Wye into that of the Severn. The courſe is computed at 140 miles, navigable to Cricklade. This pre-eminent river may truly boaſt of wafting to and from the metropolis, the principal riches of the world.

The Humber is a name almoſt confined to a large eſtuary, which receives many conſiderable rivers that fertilize the central parts of England. Of theſe the Trent is the moſt important, which riſes at New-pool, in Staffordſhire, and proceeding North-eaſt, enters the Humber, after a direct courſe of about one hundred miles, being navigable to Burton in Staffordſhire. The other principal rivers that iſſue into the Humber, are the Dun, a navigable ſtream which runs by Doncaſter; the Aire navigable to Leeds, and the Calder navigable to Halifax, both ſingularly uſeful in tranſporting the woollen manufactures; the Warf, navigable to Tadcaſter; and the noble river Ure, or Ouſe, which runs by York, and forms another grand branch of the Humber, navigable to Rippon: nor muſt the Derwent be omitted, which is navigable to New Malton; nor, though laſt and leaſt, the Hull. The Humber may be regarded as the ſtem of a venerable oak, which ſpreads its chief branches in a horizontal direction, and accumulates moiſture from every quarter, for the benefit of the parent-ſtock.

The Merſey preſents a grand eſtuary; yet its courſe is not of great extent. It riſes in the weſt riding of Yorkſhire, and runs to the ſouth-weſt; but the eſtuary bends towards the north. The direct courſe is not above fifty miles; and is navigable to Stockport: as the Irwell to near Mancheſter, and the Weever to near Northwich, and its mines of rock-ſalt. Not only theſe rivers, but many more in different parts of the kingdom are likewiſe navigable: the Avon is navigable to Bath, the Perrot to Ilcheſter, the Tone to Taunton, the Taw to Barnſtaple, and another branch to Biddeford; the Camil of Cornwall, to Wedbridge, while the Plym, Dart, and Ex, can alſo be pervaded to a conſiderable height. Another Avon is navigable to near Saliſbury, the Itchin to Wincheſter, the Arun to Arundel, the Ouſe to Lewes: the Rother, which forms the haven of Rye, is yet navigable, though fallen in fame. The Stour admits boats even to Canterbury; but the Medway preſents a navigable ſtream as far as Tunbridge. On the north of the Thames, the Lee is navigable to Biſhop's Stortford and Hertford: the Crouch conveys boats from the ſea to Hull-bridge in Eſſex; the Black-water to Chelmsford, and another branch to Colcheſter. The Stour is navigable to Sudbury; the Orwell to Stow, the Deben to Woodbridge: the Yare and Waveney to Foulſham and Bungay. Next is the eſtuary called the Waſh, which receives the Ouſe, the Nen, the Welland, the Witham, all ſtreams of conſiderable navigation. On the north of the Humber, the Tees admits veſſels to Stockton; the Tyne to Newcaſtle. On the weſt, the Eden is navigable to Carliſle; the Lon to Lancaſter and Hornby; the Dee to Cheſter; the Conway to within two miles of Llanrwſt; the Tivey to Llanpiter. Milford Haven preſents branches navigable to Haverford-weſt, and to near Wiſton: and laſtly, the Wye may be purſued as far as Hay, in Brecknockſhire.

In general it may be obſerved of the Britiſh rivers, that the length of their courſe is inconſiderable, when compared with that of the continental ſtreams. The length of the Thames compared with that of the Danube, is only as one to ſeven, and with that of the Nile, as one to twelve. The Kian Keu of China, and the river of Amazons in ſouth America, extend through a progreſs of more than fifteen times the length of that of the Thames. The rivers of the ſouthern and middle parts of England, preſent a ſtriking contraſt to thoſe of the north; the former purſuing a ſlow and inert courſe over mud, between level banks, amid rich and extenſive meadows; while the latter roll their clear torrents over beds of gravel, between elevated banks, and rocky precipices; and even when verdant levels occur, the ſtream ſtill retains its banks and beds of gravel. England has little to boaſt of extenſive lakes; yet thoſe of Coniſton, Windermere, and Derwent, in Cumberland, have been juſtly celebrated by deſcriptive and poetical writers, as poſſeſſing beauties of a rural and romantic nature, rarely to be ſurpaſſed.

The mountains in this country, though not lofty, form a grand feature of geographical limit and boundary. They ſeldom appear ſingle, but are either diſpoſed in ridges, called chains, or in cluſters. When they can be arranged under the firſt form or denomination, as the Alps for example, or the Pyrenees, they afford great clearneſs to geographical deſcriptions. While Bennevis, the higheſt mountain in Scotland, is not much above one quarter of height of Mont Blanc, the ſovereign of the Alps, the Engliſh and Welſh ſummits aſpire to heights ſtill leſs conſiderable; Snowden being only 3568 Engliſh feet above the ſea, while Bennevis is 4387, or, by other accounts, 4350. But Wharn, in Yorkſhire, was eſtimated at 4050. The mountains of Cheviot may be ſaid to form a regular ridge, running from the ſouth-weſt, where they join thoſe of Galloway to the north-eaſt. But there is a central ridge which pervades England from north to ſouth, beginning at Geltſdale foreſt, fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Carliſle, and paſſing on the weſt of Durham and Yorkſhire, where it contains mines of coal and lead, is ſplit into the appellations of fells and laws. Kelton-fell, Stanmore, Widehill-fell, Wildboar-fell, Bow-fell, Homefell, Bunhill, &c. ariſe on the weſtern limits of Yorkſhire. Cumberland and Weſtmoreland preſent many detached mountains, Skiddaw, &c. which can hardly be reduced to any diſtinct arrangement; but thoſe of Craven, in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire, as Wharn, or, as commonly called by the country people, Wharnſide, Ingleborough, and Pennigant; and Pendle on the eaſt of Lancaſter; belong to the Central Chain, which proceeds ſouth, through Derbyſhire to the Peak, abounding with minerals and natural curioſities; but here it ſeems to terminate, ſpreading a little into Cheſhire. Still, however, a central chain of ſmaller elevation, may be traced, in a zig-zag line, to near Saliſbury, with two diverging and irregular branches on the eaſt, one towards Norfolk, another into Kent, while a third runs ſouth-weſt into Cornwall. To the firſt belong the hills of Gogmagog, in Cambridgeſhire, &c. to the ſecond, the northern hills of Hampſhire, Surrey, and Kent. Malvern hills, in Worceſterſhire, deviate from the central ridge, while thoſe of Cotſwold, in Glouceſterſhire, may be regarded as a continuation of it. The hills of Mendip, Polden, Sedgemoor, Blackdown, in Somerſetſhire; the Tores and Wilds of Dartmore, in Devon; and the hills and upland downs of Cornwall extend this chain to the Land's End: and, after paſſing this laſt rocky province, it expires in the iſlands of Scilly. The ſouthern range, commonly called the South Downs, forms a long and remarkable line of continuity from weſt to eaſt; commencing with great abruptneſs at Old Wincheſter, oppoſite Portſdown, in Hampſhire, and thence continuing over the lofty brow of Butſur to Uppark, the telegraph heights of Marden, Rook's hill above Goodwood-park, bending towards Lavington, and thence running with incomparable beauty of land

and ſea proſpect, and richneſs of paſturage, which has given ſo much celebrity to the South-down breed of ſheep, quite to the eaſtern extremity of the county of Suſſex, after paſſing the towns of Steyning, Brighthelmſtone, Lewes, &c. and ſerving as a barrier to the ſea on the ſouthern coaſt.

Wales is moſt abundant in alpine mountains, eſpecially the northern provinces; but their orology remains indeterminate, and it would require the actual ſurvey of an experienced engineer, to reduce them to chains or groupes. To begin with the North, Snowden commands the firſt attention, a mountain of eminent height and fame. The top is called Y Widdfa, or the conſpicuous, forming almoſt a point, and preſenting a view of the county of Cheſter, the mountains of Yorkſhire, parts of Scotland and Ireland, and the iſles of Man and Angleſey. Mr. Pennant obſerves, that large coarſe cryſtals are often found in the fiſſures, and very frequently cubic pyritæ, the uſual attendants on alpine tracts. From Snowden, a line of mountains extends by the ſea to Plenlimmon, whence iſſue the noble rivers, Severn and Wye. Of theſe hills, Urrou Seth, Caer Idris, and Moyle Vadiau, are the moſt memorable. The hills on the eaſt of North Wales, are far from attaining ſuch conſiderable elevation, and gradually decline to the hills of Shropſhire, of which the Wrekin is one of the moſt noted. A chain alſo proceeds due ſouth to near Cardiff, in South Wales; it is of far inferior height, and a ſmall branch diverges to the weſt, conſiſting of Cwn Cothy, Mynydd, Carreg, Briſley, and Cwm Kerrun-hills. On the eaſt of South Wales, are the hills of Herefordſhire, the Black Mountain, Cuſop-hill, Hargeſt, Stockley-hill, &c.

In the northern and weſtern mountains and hills, chalk is unknown, while it forms a chief material of thoſe of the ſouth and eaſt. Mr. Pennant obſerves, that a line drawn from Dorcheſter, in the county of Dorſet, to the county of Norfolk, would form a boundary of the great chalky ſtratum which interſects the kingdom, none being found in any quantity to the north or weſt of that line. The northern mountains are moſtly compoſed of limeſtone, free-ſtone, ſlate, or ſchiſtus, with mines of lead or coal; thoſe of Derbyſhire preſent vaſt maſſes of limeſtone, interſected with thick veins of toad-ſtone, by ſome aſſerted to be the produce of fire, while others aſſign an aqueous origin. See the article EARTH, p. 177, of this volume.

The ſummit of Skiddaw preſents white ſhivery ſlate, or argillaceous ſchiſtus; but ſome of the Weſtmoreland mountains contain ſiliceous ſchiſtus; and it is probable that granite may exiſt in thoſe of Cheviot. The vaſt baſe of Ingleborough, near thirty miles in circuit, conſiſts of lime-ſtone; on the eaſt ſide full of ſhells to near the ſummit, which is of grit and ſand-ſtone flag; the foſſils, black and brown marble, thin ſlate near Ingleton, rotten-ſtone or tripoli, and ſome lead-ore. And ſuch is this chain to its termination; while further to the ſouth, the eaſterly elevations are of chalk; and thoſe on the weſt, as Mendip-hills, in Somerſetſhire, are wholly calcareous. The granite begins at Dartmoor, in Devonſhire, and continues through Cornwall, where it occurs of various colours, the grey granite, or moorſtone; the red, or oriental; the white, the yellow, and the bluiſh, or pigeon-coloured. Near the Lizard and Mullion, are rocks of ſerpentine and ſteatites, the latter being alſo found in a ſingular variolite, at Thorverton, between Exeter and Upton Pyne. The china-ſtone, or petunſi, uſed in making fine porcelain, is here a decompoſed granite, the felſpar having become ſoft like lithomarga.

The Welſh mountains abound in various granites, with large maſſes of quartz and ſerpentine: a French mineralogiſt, Coquebert, obſerves a ſimilarity between the ſubſtances of the Welſh mountains, and thoſe of Wicklow in Ireland, whence he infers a primitive junction. While on the eaſt of England the lime-ſtone ſucceeds the chalk, (of which change the noble promontory of Flamborough-head affords a ſtriking inſtance,) on the coaſt towards Wales, are found granite, and other primitive rocks. The Wrekin, about ten miles eaſt of Shrewſbury, is chiefly compoſed of reddiſh chert, or petroſilex, with ſileceous ſand-ſtone, baſalt, and a kind of granite. The great coal diſtrict of Colebrook-dale, reſts on indurated clay, while that near Briſtol is accompanied by black freeſtone, and even the calcareous freeſtone near Bath is interſperſed with numerous veins of coal. The Malvern-hills, on the ſouth-weſt of Worceſterſhire, run north and ſouth about ten miles, and afford many granitic rocks, with chert and hornblende ſlate. Theſe notices muſt ſuffice on the compoſition of the Engliſh mountains; a ſubject (ſays Mr. Pinkerton) which only begins to attract that attention which its curioſity merits.

England, in its primeval ſtate, muſt have been half covered with woods and foreſts. Many of the foreſts in the Anglo-Saxon times, were eſteemed royal demeſnes; and the Norman monarchs were ſo much addicted to the chace, that upwards of ſixty foreſts at one time appertained to the crown; of which the chief now remaining are the foreſts of Dean in Glouceſterſhire; Sherwood, in Nottinghamſhire; Windſor, in Berkſhire; the New Foreſt, and the Foreſt of Bere, in Hampſhire. Beſides theſe, other diſtricts ſtill retain the name, as Dartmoor-foreſt, in Devonſhire; Enfield-chaſe, in Middleſex; Witham and Epping-foreſt, and that of Henault, in Eſſex; Sacy and Wittleborough-foreſt, and Rockingham-foreſt, in Northamptonſhire; Peak-foreſt, in Derbyſhire; Malvern-chaſe and Wyre-foreſt, in Worceſterſhire; Cannock-chaſe and Neidwood-foreſt, in Staffordſhire, Mogg-foreſt and Clun-foreſt, and that of Hays and Mocktree, in Shropſhire; Macclesfield-foreſt, in Cheſhire; Netherdale-foreſt and Langſter-chaſe, in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; the foreſt of Galtres, and Arkengarth and Stainmore, and Leyne, in the North Riding; Teeſdale and Weredale-foreſts, in the county of Durham; Roſendale-foreſt, in Lancaſhire; Sleddell and Martindale-foreſts, &c. in Weſtmoreland; Geltſdale and Inglewood-foreſts, in Cumberland. The relics of a ſub-marine foreſt on the coaſt of Lincolnſhire, manifeſt a ſtriking proof of the mutations and changes on the face of the globe, occaſioned by volcanic, electric, or other, diſturbance in the bowels of the earth, whereby ſome tracts of country are abſorbed by the ſea, whilſt others are thrown up from the bottom of the ocean, and converted into dry land. See the article EARTHQUAKE, p. 207 of this volume.

Of luxuriant fruits, and rich vegetable productions, England is by nature very ſcantily ſupplied. The frequent rains, the blaſting winds, the nipping froſts, and the uncertain and irregular heat of the ſun, deny to this country thoſe vegetable treaſures, which, in the tropical regions, offer themſelves in abundance as food for man. The humidity of the climate, however, clothes the vales and meadows, and even the hills and mountains, with a rich verdure almoſt unknown to any other country, and ſhews how admirably England is adapted to the growth and ſupport of graminivorous quadrupeds. This partiality of nature in ſcanting to the aboriginal inhabitants the ſupply of vegetable food, while it is profuſely offered to the grazing herds of every kind, obliged them to depend for their ſupport principally on the fleſh of animals; and thus inducing a robuſt and vigorous habit, gave them ſtronger motives to perſonal exertion, than a more favoured ſtate in a warmer climate could have afforded. While the native of the tropical climates was receiving from the bountiful hand of nature an exuberant ſupply of bread-fruit, bananas, and cocoa-nuts, the aboriginal Briton was obliged to earn his daily food by the hard labour of each returning day, to chaſe the flying deer through the woods, or to diſpute his prey with the boar or the wolf. Thus, the ſeverity of climate, and paucity of vegetable food, was the firſt germ of induſtry

duſtry and invention in England, which, at length, by the aid of huſbandry and horticulture, has laid all the vegetable riches of the globe at our feet.

It is the peculiar felicity of England to be infeſted with very few animals, but what are, or may be made, ſubſervient to the uſes of man. Of the domeſtic kinds, this country boaſts peculiar pre-eminence, particularly in horſes, beeves, veniſon, and mutton, in conſequence of the natural luxuriance of its paſtures. That noble and uſeful animal, the horſe, is found in England of many mingled breeds, while moſt other kingdoms produce only one kind. The high-bred horſes deſcend from Arabian ſtallions, originally barbs. The great ſtrength and ſize of the Engliſh draught-horſes, are derived from thoſe of Germany, Flanders, and Holſtein; and other breeds have been ſo intermingled, that native horſes may be found adapted to every purpoſe of pomp, pleaſure, and utility. Thoſe of Yorkſhire are celebrated for their great ſpirit and beauty; thoſe of Lincolnſhire and Leiceſterſhire for their ſuperior draught and ſtrength. The ſpeed of Childers was computed at a mile in a minute; and ſuch is the ſtrength of a Yorkſhire pack-horſe, that he will uſually carry 420 pounds; and a mill-horſe of Leiceſterſhire will ſupport a weight of 910 pounds. Mr. Pennant obſerves, that though the Britiſh cavalry was remarkable, even in the time of Julius Cæſar, yet we know nothing of the primitive breed.

The indigenous breed of horned cattle is now only known to exiſt in Neidwood-foreſt, in Staffordſhire, and at Chillingham caſtle in Northumberland. They are long-legged and wild like deer, of a pure white colour, with black muzzles, ears, and tails, and a ſtripe of the ſame hue along the back. The Engliſh breeds of black cattle are almoſt as various as thoſe of our horſes; thoſe of Wales and Cornwall are uſually ſmall; while the Lincolnſhire kind derive their great ſize from thoſe of Holſtein, ſince bred and foſtered in their immenſe fens.

The number and value of ſheep in England, may be appreciated from the ancient ſtaple commodity of wool. Of this moſt uſeful animal ſeveral breeds appear, generally denominated from their particular counties or diſtricts; thoſe of Herefordſhire, Suſſex, Devonſhire, and Cotſwold-downs, are noted for fine fleeces, while the Lincolnſhire and Warwickſhire kind, are remarkable for the quantity. The Teeſdale breed of the county of Durham, though lately neglected, ought not to loſe their fame. The wool is beautiful, but the length of their legs leſſens their value in the eyes of the breeder. The mutton of Wales, on the contrary, is eſteemed, while the wool is coarſe, yet employed in many uſeful and ſalutary manufactures. The Suſſex breed is remarkable for black faces and ſhort legs; but they are chiefly preferred on account of their hardy nature, the eaſe with which they paſs the winter on a ſpare diet, the fineneſs and value of their fleece, and the facility with which they fatten on turnip: hence the South-down breed of ſheep has of late years been in great requeſt throughout England. Thoſe of Leiceſterſhire are very large, with abundance of wool, but coarſe; and without horns, like the Suſſex breed, with which they have of late been pretty much croſſed.

The goat, an original inhabitant of our rocks, has, even in Wales, begun to yield to the more uſeful breed of ſheep; that country being, like Scotland, more adapted to the woollen manufacture. The breeds of ſwine are alſo various and uſeful: originally the boar was wild, and hunted in our foreſts and woods. England alſo abounds in valuable breeds of dogs, ſome of which were celebrated even in the Roman times. In the reign of Elizabeth, Dr. Caius enumerates ſixteen denominations of Engliſh dogs. Some ſeem to be now extinct; and the blood-hound only occurs in Staffordſhire. The cat is one of the moſt univerſal, and moſt identic of animals, thoſe of Angola excepted, with their white fleeces, and thoſe of Ruſſia with a bluiſh fleece, and eyes of topaz.

Of our ſavage animals, the moſt fierce and deſtructive is the wild cat, which is three or four times as large as the domeſtic, with a flat broad face, colour yelloviſh white, mixed with deep grey, in ſtreaks running from a black liſt on the back; hips always black, tail alternate bars of black and white; only found in the moſt mountainous and woody parts. The wolf has been long extinct, but the fox abounds. It is ſufficient to name the badger, the fitchet, the martin, the ſtoat or ermin, the otter, ſquirrel, dormouſe, rat, and various kinds of mice. The mole, urchin, and bat, ſeem to become more rare; the ſeal is chiefly found on the coaſt of Wales.

In the parks of the great, the roe is now extinct, but fallow deer abound, of great beauty, and the red deer; the latter are known by the terms, ſtag, hind, young, or calf; while the former are ſtyled buck, doe, and fawn; the red kind are more vicious than the other, and becoming more uncommmon. Veniſon, in its wild ſtate, has been long extinct in England.

The chief of our birds of prey, are the golden eagle, ſometimes found on Snowden; the black eagle has appeared in Derbyſhire; the oſprey, or ſea eagle, ſeems extinct in England. The peregrine falcon breeds in Wales; and many kinds of hawks in England. The nightingale, one of the moſt celebrated birds of ſong, is not found in North Wales, nor any where to the north, except about Doncaſter, where it abounds; nor does it travel ſo far weſt as Devonſhire and Cornwall. This limitation is remarkable, as theſe birds are found in the ſevere climate of Sweden. Engliſh poultry ſeem to originate from Aſia; the peacocks are from India; the pheaſants from Cholchis; the guinea-fowl from Africa. Our ſmalleſt bird is the golden-creſted wren, which ſports on the higheſt pine-trees; and our largeſt the buſtard, ſome of which weigh twenty-five pounds, and are now ſcantily found in the open countries of the ſouth and eaſt. But the tame buſtard, which is the turkey, richly ſupplies the defect; the largeſt are reared in Norfolk and Suffolk. Game abounds ſo much in England, that the right of killing and eating it conſtitutes the moſt vexatious of our laws.

The reptiles in England are very few, and rarely injurious; they are the coriaceous tortoiſe, frogs, toads, ſeveral kinds of lizards: of ſerpents, the viper or adder alone is venomous; other kinds are the ringed ſnake, ſometimes found four feet in length; and the blind worm, ſeldom exceeding eleven inches.

Of fiſh, the whale ſeldom appears near the Engliſh coaſts, nor the dolphin; the porpoiſe and others of the ſame genus are not uncommon. The baſking ſhark ſometimes appears off the ſhores of Wales. Numerous are our edible ſea-fiſh. Some of the moſt celebrated are the turbot, doree, ſoal, cod, plaice, mullet, &c. The conſumption of herrings and mackarel extends to moſt parts of the kingdom; but pilchards are confined to the Corniſh coaſts. Our chief river fiſh are the ſalmon and the trout, which are brought from the northern parts in prodigious numbers, generally packed in ice; but ſometimes the trout are brought alive, in veſſels provided with a well or baſon for that purpoſe. It is ſaid that not leſs 30,000 ſalmon are brought from one river, the Tweed, to London, in the courſe of a ſeaſon. The lamprey, though a ſea-fiſh, is chiefly found in the Severn; it reſembles the eel, but has a line of ſeven apertures near the head. The charr is chiefly found in the lakes of Weſtmoreland, the ſides ſprinkled with red ſpots. The umber, or grayling, ſomewhat reſembles the trout. The ſamlet is the ſmalleſt of the trout kind, and has erroneouſly been ſuppoſed the young of the ſalmon; in Scotland it is called the par. Our carps are from Poland, and the inferior ſort from Pruſſia: the tench and perch are eſteemed by ſome as dainties of the table. The lobſter is found on moſt of the rocky coaſts, particularly off Scarborough, and the Iſle of Wight, Portland, Purbeck, &c. Of ſhell-fiſh, the pearl mya, a large kind of muſſel, was found in the Conway, in Wales, and the Irt, in Cumberland; but it ſeems

now

now confined to Ireland and Scotland. The Engliſh oyſters maintain their Roman reputation; but they ſeem to yield in flavour to thoſe of more northern countries. The green from Colcheſter in Eſſex, and the white from Milton in Kent, have the chief reputation in the London market.

In valuable mineral productions, England is far from being deficient. The tin-mines of Cornwall are not only venerable from their antiquity, but are, it is ſuppoſed, the richeſt of the kind in the world. Tin is alſo found in Bohemia, Saxony, and Hungary, and in the oriental regions of Malacca, Banca, and Siam, but not in ſuch laſting exuberance as in the Corniſh mines. That kind of ſilver, termed by mineralogiſts horn-ore, is alſo found in that diſtrict; but the profound ſecrecy obſerved in working it, forbids any inveſtigation of the amount. The Hucl rock boaſts of what is called bell-metal ore; and of wolfram. Cornwall alſo produces copper at Redruth, Helſtone, and the Land's End. The ſame metal is found in Yorkſhire and Staffordſhire; but no where in ſuch abundance as in the Parrys mountain, in the north-weſt of Anglefea. This valuable mine was diſcovered about thirty years ago.

Lead is found in the Mendip-hills of Somerſetſhire; which alſo produce calamine and manganeſe. The lead-mines in Derbyſhire are well known, not only for that metal, but for the beautiful veins of fluor which accompany it, and which is manufactured into ſeveral ornamental articles. In general, the northern central ridge of mountains abounds with lead ore. The lead-mines of Aldſton, on the eaſtern verge of Cumberland, employ upwards of eleven hundred men. No metal is ſo widely diffuſed through the globe as iron; and England not only contains excellent mines, but excels all nations in the variety of fabrication. The moſt remarkable mines of iron, are thoſe of Colebrook-dale, Shropſhire; Dean-foreſt, in Glouceſterſhire; with ſome in the north of England, particularly near Ulverſton, in Lancaſhire. Zinc, in the form of lapis calaminaris, and blend, is found in Derbyſhire, Cornwall, and other regions. Nickel and arſenic ſometimes appear in Cornwall; and recently, what is called menachanite. But one of the moſt important of this kind is plumbago, which is found in the ridge of Borrowdale, near Keſwick, in Cumberland.

Gold has been diſcovered in various quarters of England, particularly near Silſoe, in Bedfordſhire; but the metal has never recompenſed the labour and expence. The real gold mines of England are thoſe of coal, found in the central, northern, and weſtern parts, but particularly in the northern, round Newcaſtle. The whole opulence of England has been aſcribed to her coal, as being the very ſoul of her manufactures, and conſequent commerce. The coals of Whitehaven and Wigan are more pure; and the cannel and peacock coals of Lancaſhire are ſo beautiful, that they are ſuſpected by ſome to have conſtituted the *gagates*, or jet, which the ancients aſcribed to Britain. See the article COAL, vol. iv. p. 703, &c.

The mines of rock-ſalt in Cheſhire particularly deſerve notice. They appear to have been known to the Romans, as a place called *Salinæ* is mentioned by the geographer of Ravenna. Leland has deſcribed them in the time of Henry VIII. nor were they unknown even in the Saxon periods. Thoſe of Northwich are the moſt remarkable: at Namptwich and Middlewich, are only ſalt-ſprings; and others occur at Droitwich, in Worceſterſhire, and Weſton in Staffordſhire. The immenſe mines on the ſouth ſide of Northwich, were diſcovered about the beginning of the eighteenth century. The quarries, with their pillars and cryſtal roof, extending over many acres, preſent a beautiful ſpectacle; the ſtratum of ſalt, lies under a bed of whitiſh clay, at the depth of about forty yards.

Marbles and free-ſtone, or calcareous ſand-ſtone, of various colours and textures, alſo occur; the moſt celebrated of the latter are thoſe of Portland, Purbeck, &c. Fine alabaſter appears in Derbyſhire; fullers'-earth in Berkſhire, and ſome other countries. Quarries of beautiful ſlate are likewiſe worked in ſeveral parts; and it is highly to the advantage of the proprietors of all theſe mineral productions, as well as to the public at large, that the mines and quarries are for the moſt part contiguous to the coaſt, whereby their produce can be carried coaſtways, or tranſported to any part of the world.

England preſents an extent of coaſt of great variety and beauty, in every direction except to the north, where it trends upon Scotland. From the mouth of the Tweed at Berwick, to Bamborough-caſtle, the ſhore is ſmooth and ſandy; and the moſt remarkable object is Lindesfarn, or Holy Iſland, divided from Northumberland by a level, which is dry at low water, but out of which the flowing tide oozes ſuddenly, often to the peril of the unwary traveller. From Bamborough-caſtle to Flamborough-head, are moſtly low cliffs of lime-ſtone and other materials; and at Sunderland, of a peculiar ſtone uſed in building, and which ſeems the work of marine inſects. Scarborough ſtands on a vaſt rock, projecting into the waves; but Flamborough-head is a far more magnificent object, being formed of lime-ſtone, of a ſnowy whiteneſs, and ſtupendous height, viſible far off at ſea. "Grand caverns (ſays Pennant) open on the north ſide, giving wide and ſolemn admiſſion, through moſt exalted arches, into the body of the mountain; together with the gradual decline of light; the deep ſilence of the place, unleſs interrupted by the ſtriking of the oar, the colliſion of a ſwelling wave againſt the ſides, or the loud flutter of the pigeons, affrighted from their neſts in the diſtant roof, afford pleaſures of ſcenery, which ſuch formations as this alone can yield. Theſe alſo are wonderfully diverſified. In ſome parts the caverns penetrate far, and end in darkneſs; in others are pervious, and give a romantic paſſage by another opening, equally ſuperb. Many of the rocks are inſulated, of a pyramidal form, and ſoar to a great height. The baſes of moſt are ſolid, but in ſome pierced through and arched. All are covered in the ſeaſon of incubation with innumerable flocks of migratory birds, which reſort here annually to breed, and fill every little projection, every hole, which will give them leave to reſt."

Hence to the Humber are commonly clay cliffs; and near Spurnhead amber is ſometimes found. The extenſive coaſt of Lincolnſhire is flat, part of which appears to have been gained from the ſea; though, in ſome parts, the ſea has in its turn invaded the land, particularly where the remains of the ſub-marine foreſt are viſible under the waves. The county of Lincoln, and part of ſix others, form the low countries of Britain; and the coaſt is diſtinguiſhable by churches, not by hills. The ſhores of Norfolk and Suffolk preſent ſometimes loamy, or clayey precipices, ſometimes hillocks of ſand, and ſometimes low and flat ſpaces. Hunſtanton-cliff riſes to the height of about eighty feet, compoſed of chalk and friable ſtone, reſting on a baſe of what is called iron-coloured pudding ſtone, projecting into the ſea. The coaſt of Eſſex is generally low; but to the ſouth of the Thames, ariſe continued cliffs of chalk, with layers of flint, reſembling maſonry. The North Foreland is a lofty chalky promontory; and the Cliffs of Dover are known to every reader of the immortal Shakeſpeare. This port being moſt contiguous to the coaſt of France, it is on that account, in peaceable times, the principal place of embarkation from England to the continent; and where packets are then conſtantly paſſing and repaſſing to and from Calais, Oſtend, Boulogne, &c.

From Dover, and the South Foreland, the ſhore ſlopes away and becomes flat quite to Dungeneſs, which is the moſt noted headland on the coaſt of Kent, and terminates that tract of land which has always been known by the name of Romney Marſh. From this headland, which is low, the ſouthern coaſt of England might be ſaid to commence, as well as the ſhores of Suſſex. Paſſing the town of Haſtings to the weſtward, Beachy rears its venera-

Berwick
Belford
Alnwick
Rothbury
NORTHUMBERLAND
Morpeth
Blyth
Newcastle
Longtown
Carlisle
Durham
CUMBERLAND
DURHAM
Cockermouth
Whitehaven
Penrith
Darlington
Stockton
Hartlepool
Richmond
WESTMORELAND
Kendal
Sedbergh
Bedale
Thirsk
NORTH RIDING
Middleham
Scarborough
Whitby
Malton
Helmsley
Kirkby Moorside
Pickering
Flamborough Hd
Bridlington
EAST RIDING
Driffield
YORKSHIRE
Lancaster
Preston
Clitheroe
Skipton
Knaresboro
York
Pocklington
Beverley
Kingston upon Hull
Headon
Patrington
Humber Mouth
Leeds
Halifax
Blackburn
Wigan
Bolton
Pontefract
Barton
WEST RIDING
Barnsley
Doncaster
Manchester
Liverpool
Holyhead
Parys Mine
Gt Ormes Hd
Caernarvon
Caernarvon Bay
Bangor
Conway
Denbigh
Flint
Wrexham
Chester
Northwich
Middlewich
Nantwich
Newcastle
CHESHIRE
Sheffield
Chesterfield
Bakewell
Derby
DERBY
Lincoln
Gainsboro
Louth
Wragby
Horncastle
Spilsby
Newark
Tuxford
Tattershall
LINCOLNSHIRE
Nottingham
Mansfield
Retford
Steaford
Boston
The Wash
Grantham
Stamford
Peterboro
Thornham Market
Castle Rising
Holt
Lynn
Lynn R.
Walton
Wymondham
Norwich
Yarmouth
NORFOLK
Downham
Brandon
Thetford
Ely
Cambridge
Bury St Edmunds
Eye
Beccles
SUFFOLK
Aldborough
Orford
Ipswich
Harwich
Colchester
Chelmsford
Maldon
ESSEX
Rochford
Tilbury Fort
Gravesend
Thames Isle
Canterbury
Rochester
Maidstone
KENT
Deal
Dover
Romney
Hythe
Rye
Winchelsea
Hastings
Beachy Hd
Lewes
Stevning
Chichester
SUSSEX
Arundel
Horsham
Petersfield
Portsmouth
Southampton
Isle of Wight
Yarmouth
Newport
Cowes Castle
New Forest
Ringwood
Christchurch
Poole
Wareham
Dorchester
Bridport
Weymouth
Lyme Regis
DORSETSHIRE
Salisbury
Winchester
Andover
Basingstoke
Alresford
Petersfield
Haslemere
Guildford
SURREY
Kingston
Epsom
Croydon
London
Windsor
Staines
Egham
Chertsey
Hampton Court
Richmond
Brentford
Uxbridge
Harrow
Edgware
Hendon
Barnet
Watford
Rickmansworth
Chorley Wood
Amersham
Chesham
Aylesbury
Wendover
Tring
Berkhamstead
Hemel Hempstead
Hertford
HERTFORDSHIRE
Ware
Buntingford
Royston
Baldock
Hitchin
Letchworth
Stevenage
Knebworth
Welwyn
Hatfield
Barnet
Enfield
Edmonton
Tottenham
Hackney
Islington
Kensington
Chelsea
Westminster
Lambeth
Southwark
Deptford
Greenwich
Woolwich
Bromley
Croydon
Sevenoaks
Tonbridge
Cranbrook
Tenterden
Hythe
Romney Marsh
Ashford
Wye
Faversham
Sittingbourne
Milton
Whitstable
Herne Bay
Margate
Ramsgate
Sandwich
Thanet Isle
Reculver
Isle of Sheppey
Sheerness
Queenborough
Rochford
Southend
Leigh
Hadleigh
Canvey Island
Tilbury Fort
Gravesend
Dartford
Crayford
Bexley
Erith
Plumstead
Blackheath
Deptford
Greenwich
Woolwich
Lewisham
Camberwell
Peckham
Dulwich
Clapham
Battersea
Chelsea
Kensington
Hammersmith
Fulham
Putney
Wandsworth
Tooting
Mitcham
Croydon
Addington
Godstone
Reigate
Dorking
Leatherhead
Epsom
Ewell
Kingston
Esher
Walton
Chertsey
Weybridge
Woking
Guildford
Godalming
Farnham
Alton
Petersfield
Midhurst
Chichester
Arundel
Littlehampton
Worthing
Shoreham
Brighton
Lewes
Newhaven
Seaford
Beachy Hd
Eastbourne
Pevensey
Hastings
Winchelsea
Rye
Romney
Hythe
Dover
Deal
Sandwich
Ramsgate
Margate
Thanet Isle
Reculver
Whitstable
Herne Bay
Faversham
Sittingbourne
Milton

ble head, a lofty promontory, which projects perpendicularly over the beach, and is called by ſeamen the Seven Cliffs, into which it is divided. Within this point lies Eaſtbourn Seaford, and the elegant town of Brighthelmſtone; which is alſo a place of regular embarkation for the continent in peaceable times, and from whence packets ſail for Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Cherbourg, &c. The coaſt from hence continues low, as the South Downs recede ſomewhat inland, preſenting a ſmooth, ſandy, and ſometimes a deep clayey, ſhore. Culver cliff, and Dunnoſe, are the next objects of elevated grandeur; Bognor rocks being mere pebbles. Within the Wight, the coaſt is more or leſs flat, but ſuperbly variegated with the towns of Portſmouth, Goſport, Eaſt and Weſt Cowes, Yarmouth, the Southampton river, the port of Lymington, Calſhot and Hurſt caſtles, the beautiful verdure of the New Foreſt, Ride, St. Helen's, and other ſubordinate villages. The back of the Wight preſents a leſs pictureſque, though a much more majeſtic, ſcene. From Dunnoſe to St. Catharine's point, the coaſt is rocky and abrupt; but from this lofty eminence to the Needles, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtupendous cliffs that any where elſe appears, partaking in the fulleſt ſenſe of the ſublime and beautiful. In part of the months of May and June, which is the breeding ſeaſon, theſe ſtupendous rocks have their native whiteneſs darkened by immenſe clouds of large migratory birds, which here annually perform the duties of incubation, and then retire; no naturaliſt knows where, with their accumulated offſpring. Theſe elevated cliffs, and the adjoining coloſſal Needles, which ſtand erect in the ſea, conſtantly braving the moſt tremendous winds and waves, have alike afforded ample ſcope to the genius of the painter and of the poet.

From the Needle rocks to Chriſtchurch the ſhore is flat, where it preſents a grand view of the church, ſituated in a rich fertile vale, which terminates the coaſt of Hampſhire. The ſhores of Dorſet next commence, and lead to the port and handſome county-town of Poole, long enriched by its extenſive trade to Newfoundland. Studland Bay, Swanage, St. Alban's Head, and Ringſtead Bay, lead to the calm and beautiful cove of Weymouth, formed by nature for a royal bathing-place, where the ſoft ſilken ſandy bottom declines with a gentle ſlope into the pureſt water, and ſuits every time of tide, without even a pebble to offend the moſt tender foot; and where the ſurrounding circular expanſe of elevated land ſecludes the valetudinarian from the rude ſcrutinizing eye of the bold and inquiſitive. Yet is our bark no ſooner ſteered from without this calm and unruffled cove, and the point or promontory of the Iſle of Portland weathered, than a ſea preſents itſelf, which, in tempeſtuous weather, fails not to appal the heart of the ſtouteſt ſeaman, and has conſigned too many to the horrors of a watery grave. This is the Race of Portland. On this coaſt the loſs of the Halſewell is for ever to be deplored.

Paſſing Abbotſbury and Lyme, we approach the coaſt of Devonſhire, and enter the ſafe and ſecure anchorage of Torbay, formed by Providence, as an aſylum for our Britiſh channel fleets in tempeſtuous weather. This bay lies between Dartmouth and the broad mouth of the Ex, which carries veſſels of a hundred tons burthen up to the quays of Exeter. Sidmouth is contiguous. The ſpacious haven of Dartmouth is alſo capable of containing a large number of ſhips, ſecure from all winds. Beyond this haven is the Start Point, from which promontory the coaſt is interſected with many little creeks and harbours quite up to Plymouth Sound. In the midſt of the ſea, oppoſite this place of anchorage, is the Eddiſtone light-houſe, a laſting monument of the ſuperior abilities of the late Mr. Smeaton, as a civil engineer and architect.

The coaſt of Cornwall begins with Ram-head, and paſſing Eaſt Looe, extends along to Deadman's Point, and Falmouth haven. The ſhores are here moſt remarkably incurvated, quite up to the Lizard Point; round which we are led into Mount's Bay, and to the Land's End, where the ſouthern coaſt of England terminates. Weathering this remarkable point, the weſtern coaſt of England begins with Penzance, paſſes the northern ſide of the county of Cornwall, and enters the Briſtol channel, which has the ſhores of North Devon and Somerſetſhire on one ſide, and South Wales on the other; paſſing Cardiff and Briſtol, and entering the broad mouth of the Severn, where the contending currents conſtantly preſent a troubled element.

Turning out of the Briſtol channel to the northward, we enter Milford Haven, ſaid to be the moſt commodious harbour belonging to Great-Britain, and ſufficiently ſpacious to contain a thouſand ſail of ſhipping in perfect ſecurity: but its approaches are ſaid to participate of great danger in tempeſtuous weather, and equally hazardous to get out of it, except with particular winds. Within the haven is the town and port of Pembroke, with ſeveral other bays, roads, and creeks. Proceeding hence into St. George's channel, after weathering Greſholm or Gatcholm, we enter St. Bride's Bay; and then paſſing Ramſey Iſle and the ancient city of St. David's, we enter the ſpacious mouth of Cardigan Bay, wherein are many ports and havens on the Welſh coaſt. Turning out of this bay round Bardſey Iſle, we paſs the ſhores of Caernarvon to the Iſle of Angleſea and Holyhead, the celebrated point of embarkation and debarkation, to croſs the Iriſh Sea to and from Dublin. Paſſing round Craven Point, the ſmall portions of the ſhores of Denbigh and Flintſhire preſent themſelves, whence we enter the river Dee, and approach the venerable city of Cheſter. Thus, in paſſing from the Briſtol channel to the mouth of the Dee, the principality of Wales occupies all the central part of the weſtern coaſt, characterized by an almoſt continued range of mountains more or leſs wild and lofty, with interjacent valleys more or leſs extenſive and fertile; and thus out of the twelve Welſh counties, all except three touch the ſea coaſt in ſome part or other of their boundary.

Turning out of the river Dee to the northward, we enter Liverpool harbour, and the Merſey; which, after receiving above Stockport the waters of the Tame, and ſomewhat lower thoſe of the Irwell, brings down a conflux of other ſtreams from Manchester, winds through a rich and extenſive vale, and, after paſſing Warrington, dilates into a wide ſandy eſtuary, which, contracting again, reaches the ſea below Liverpool. Such an acceſſion of ports and creeks, improved by the natural induſtry of the inhabitants, has contributed to diſtinguiſh this part of Lancaſhire, for manufacturing and commercial enterpriſe, eſpecially of late years, beyond every other part of the kingdom. Here, inſtead of haggard jealouſy and narrow-minded oppoſition, the vaſt towns of Manchester and Liverpool are mutual aids to each other in the acquiſition of wealth.

Proceeding along the extended ſhores of Lancaſhire, we enter the Ribble, which is navigable up to Preſton. Bearing ſtill to the north, we enter the expanded ſandy bay which diſjoins the hundred of Furneſs from its appropriate county, runs up to the ſouth-weſtern corner of Weſtmoreland, and admits a navigation for ſmall veſſels up to the port of Lancaſter, the populous and well-built capital of the county, and which carries on a conſiderable trade to the Weſt-Indies. Furneſs, the diſjoined part of the Lancaſhire coaſt, is extremely rugged and romantic, yielding great quantities of iron ore, and ſlate. The long and narrow Iſle of Walney ſerves as its bulwark againſt the waves of the Iriſh Sea. The port of this diſtrict is at Ulverſtone, ſituated on a ſhallow arm of the ſea, into which the Leven and other ſtreams enter. This arm, as well as the broad eſtuary or bay which ſeparates Furneſs from the reſt of Lancaſhire, is continually croſſed by horſes and carriages at low water; though not without frequent accidents, and uniform danger.

After paſſing Walney Iſle, we enter upon the coaſt of the bleak and dreary county of Cumberland; which though barren and mountainous, is extremely rich in mi-

neral productions. Ravenglaſs is the firſt ſmall port which offers itſelf to view; then, after paſſing the mouths of two or three ſmall rivulets, ſucceeds St. Bees-head, a promontory noted for the great reſort of ſea fowl. A little beyond, ſeated on its bay, we reach Whitehaven, a large handſome town, and a port of conſiderable commerce, though entirely of modern date, brought about by the exertions of the late lord Lonſdale, and lord Muncaſter. Its great ſource of traffic is in the collieries ſituated in the vicinity, which are ſome of the moſt remarkable in the kingdom, being wrought under the ſea. Much of the coal is exported to Ireland; and the town has alſo a conſiderable trade with the Weſt Indies. Somewhat further north, is Workington, a port from whence large quantities of coal are likewiſe exported. This was the landing-place of the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots, when ſhe was driven to take refuge in the dominions of her inſidious rival, Elizabeth. In the neighbourhood of this port is a large iron foundery: and at ſome diſtance up the river, at the conflux of the Cocker with the Derwent, is the opulent town of Cockermouth, populous, and thriving very faſt by its manufactories. Further along ſhore lies Maryport, a new town raiſed by the coal-trade. From hence the coaſt proceeds northward to the inlet of Moricambe, at the entrance of Solway Frith. At Burgh-upon-Sands, on this arm of the ſea, died our great and victorious Edward I. Up this Frith alſo, we enter the mouth of the Eden, which leads to the celebrated city of Carliſle. Thus the weſtern coaſt of England terminates like its eaſtern ſide, upon the ſouthern extremity of North Britain, once the hardy and warlike kingdom of Scotland.

Such is the ſhort, but faithful ſketch, of the coaſts and ſhores of England; ſhores which are defended, in conſequence of their peculiar ſituation, and the higher bleſſing of Providence, by unconquerable and imperiſhable bulwarks, againſt the malevolent attacks of an invading foe; namely, the raging ſea, the rough and inconſtant winds, the contending currents, and the beguiling tides, which deceive the eye, by covering the rocks and ledges near land, the conſtant harbingers of deſtruction and death to ſtrangers. While, therefore, the hardy and loyal race of people in England act with becoming ſpirit and unanimity, and in uniſon with its "floating batteries and wooden walls"—its invincible navy,—the theatre of deſtructive war can never reach them, nor, but in a tranſient manner, diſturb their peaceful abodes.

The iſlands which are dependent on or attached to the coaſt of England, are of conſiderable number and importance. In the Engliſh Channel, firſt appears the iſle of Wight, by the Romans called *Vectis*, by the Saxons *Vihtlond*, of an oval form, about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. This iſle is fertile and beautiful, and decorated with many picturesque villas; the principal port is that of Cowes. The chief mineral products are pipe-clay, and fine white ſand, for the fabrication of pure glaſs; and at Alum-bay, on the north ſide of the Needles, have been found conſiderable quantities of native alum. At the diſtance of about ſeventy miles from the Wight, to the ſouth-weſt ariſes the little iſle of Alderney, off Cape la Hogue; which is afterwards followed by the more important iſles of Guernſey and Jerſey; Sark being a ſmall iſle interpoſed between the two latter. Guernſey, the largeſt of theſe iſles, is twelve miles long, nine broad, and about thirty-ſix in circuit. It is verdant, though the ſoil be hilly, and barren of wood. The only town is that of Port St. Pierre. Jerſey is about twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth, a well watered and fertile iſland, producing excellent butter and honey. The winters are milder, but more windy, than thoſe of England. The inhabitants are computed at 20,000, of which 3000 are capable of arms. Alderney is a ſmall iſle, with a town, and about 1000 inhabitants. Sark has about 300 inhabitants. It is remarkable that theſe iſlands, though ſo much nearer, and even in view of the French coaſt, ſhould have ſo long continued under the dominion of England. This can only be accounted for from the free and open ſpirit of the people, a mixed breed, and their love of liberty and a free conſtitution; and from the great ſuperiority of the Britiſh navy, which conſtantly protects them from the rapacity of their neighbours.

Returning to the Engliſh ſhore, we firſt deſcry the Ediſtone light-houſe, beat by all the fury of the weſtern waves. About thirty miles to the weſt of the land's end, appear the iſles of Scilly, which have been deemed the Caſſiterides of the ancients, though theſe rocks would ſeem to be too minute to have attracted their notice. This cluſter pretends to the name of 145 iſles, covered with graſs or moſs, beſides innumerable dreary rocks. The largeſt is that of St. Mary, which is about five miles in circuit, and has a caſtle and garriſon: inhabitants about ſix hundred. That of St. Agnes is rather fertile: inhabitants about three hundred. The whole inhabitants of the Scilly iſles, are computed at about one thouſand. On turning to the north, firſt appears the little iſle of Lundy, ſituated in the Briſtol channel, about three miles long, but not a mile in breadth, with about five hundred acres of good land, ſome rivulets, and a caſtle. It was formerly a noted retreat for pirates. Some ſmall iſles lye off the Welſh coaſt of Pembrokeſhire and Caernarvon, ſuch as Caldy, Skomar, Bardſey, and others: but the Iſle of Angleſea deſerves more attention, being the Mona of Tacitus, while the Iſle of Man is more properly the Monæda of the ancients. Angleſea is about twenty-five miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. That of Man is about thirty miles in length, and fifteen in its greateſt breadth. In the midſt is a high mountain, called Snafel. The chief mineral productions are black marble, ſlate, lime-ſtone, lead, copper, and iron. There are alſo ſome ſmall iſlands off the eaſtern coaſt, as Lindisfarn and Coquette iſland, near the mouth of the river of that name, in Northumberland. The Iſle of Thanet is now joined to the land of Kent; but Sheppey remains a pleaſant and intereſting iſle. See all theſe, with the various ports and places on the Engliſh coaſt, fully deſcribed under their reſpective names, in this work.

PRIMITIVE HISTORY.

It has ever been found a ſubject of extreme difficulty to aſcertain the origin of the firſt ſettlers, even in a continental country; but particularly in an iſland, like Britain, whoſe ſhores could not but attract the earlieſt attention of thoſe bold and enterpriſing men, who firſt braved the dangers of the ocean in purſuit of commerce, or in view of gain. Hence the Phœnicians, recorded as the moſt ancient enlightened navigators, are generally ſuppoſed to have firſt diſcovered this iſland; which is the largeſt in Europe; and to have ſettled colonies on its coaſts, particularly in Cornwall, for the acquiſition of its tin. Bochart even ſuppoſes the name *Britain*, to be derived from a Phœnician word; and Huet infers that the name *Caſſiterides*, or iſlands of tin, afterwards reſtricted to the iſles of Scilly, was likewiſe given to it by the Greeks, in common with Ireland; but for the various etymologies, ſee the article BRITAIN, vol. iii. p. 415.—The name of *Anglia*, or England, was not given to South Britain until the Saxon heptarchy, when it took that name from the Angles, a people of the ancient Cimbric Cherſoneſe, or modern Jutland, who conquered a conſiderable portion of the iſland. See ANGLES, vol. i. p. 699.

The earlieſt population of this country, however, which can with more plauſibility be traced, is that of the ſouthern Celts, about nine hundred years before the birth of Chriſt, when the Phrygians had acquired the ſovereignty of the Mediterranean Sea. But the events of that period of our hiſtory have been very imperfectly, and in many inſtances unfaithfully, recorded. Add to theſe difficulties which oppoſe our reſearches on this ſubject, that the nations of Europe were then a mixed multitude,

conſiſting of the aboriginal inhabitants, and the ſavage hordes, which proceeding from the northern regions of Aſia, the wilds of Phrygia and Scythia, had diſſolved the petty ſtates which the primeval condition of ſociety had formed, and made themſelves lords of Europe. Amid this confuſion, and claſhing intereſts of nations, it is almoſt impoſſible to trace any regular ſeries of authenticated events. Yet, as the hiſtory of ancient times is not wholly loſt, and as the obſcure and imperfect records in which it is preſerved, may throw ſome light on the turbulent tranſactions of that rude and illiterate age, it may not be unintereſting thus to notice them.

As in later times the Belgic ſettlers in England were ſubdued by the northern Saxons, ſo the Celtic colony from the ſouth was vanquiſhed by the Cimbri of the north, the anceſtors of the Welſh, who ſtyle themſelves Cymri, and their language Cymraig, to this day. The original Gælic inhabitants appear then to have almoſt entirely evacuated the country, and to have retired to Ireland, alſo originally peopled from Gaul. There, and in the Highlands of Scotland, to which a Gælic colony paſſed from Ireland, the Gælic dialect of the Celtic language ſtill exiſts. See the articles CELTÆ and CIMBRI, vol. iv. p. 18, and 597.

To the Celtic population of England ſucceeded the Gothic. The Scythians or Goths, advancing from Aſia, drove the Cimbri or northern Celts before them; and, at a period ſtill preceding the Chriſtian era, had ſeized on that part of Gaul which is neareſt to Britain, where they acquired the provincial denomination of *Belgæ*, or men of tumult. Their paſſage to England followed of courſe: and when Cæſar firſt explored this iſland, he informs us, that the aboriginal inhabitants were driven into the interior parts, while the regions on the ſouth-eaſt were peopled with Belgic colonies. Thoſe Belgæ may therefore be juſtly regarded as the chief anceſtors of the Engliſh nation; for the Saxons, Angles, and other northern invaders, though of diſtinguiſhed courage, were inconſiderable in numbers, when compared with the Belgic ſettlers. "Till a recent period (ſays Mr. Pinkerton), antiquaries had imagined that the Belgæ uſed the Celtic language, and had execrated the cruelties of the Saxons for an extirpation which never happened. But as it appears that two-thirds of England were poſſeſſed by the Belgic Goths, for ſix or ſeven hundred years before the arrival of the Saxons, it is no wonder that no Celtic words are to be found in the Engliſh language, which bears more affinity to the Friſic and Dutch, than to the Jutlandic or Daniſh."—It is not decided, whether the Friſones of Procopius be the Saxons or the Belgæ. The original documents evince, that all theſe northern colonies, while they conquered by ſuperior valour and hardihood, were far from being ſufficiently numerous to form even a ſemblance of population. Scarcely an inſtance occurs of their being accompanied by women; and their invaſions may, in part, be paralleled by the ſubſequent conqueſts of the Danes and Normans. Yet as the period was far more remote and barbarous, the changes were greater; and the Belgic inhabitants, the genuine population, ſeem to have been reduced to various degrees of ſervitude, and to have conſtituted thoſe numerous ſlaves mentioned in the Anglo-Saxon times; while intermarriages, and other fortunate circumſtances, contributed to lighten the Norman yoke. Hence there ſeems little room to doubt that the Belgæ conſtituted the chief anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and that their language gradually prevailed, though tinged in the north with the Anglic or Daniſh, and in the ſouth with the Saxon. This ſubject has been the longer dwelt upon, becauſe it is not only of eſſential importance in itſelf, but becauſe it has hitherto been clouded with many erroneous aſſertions and opinions.

England, or South Britain, when firſt invaded by the Romans, was divided into ſeventeen diſtinct nations, or ſeparate ſtates, whereof the inhabitants were called Danmonii, Durotriges, Belgæ, Attrebatii, Regni, Cantii, Dobuni, Cattieuchlani, Trinobantes, Iceni, Coritani, Cornavii, Silures, Dimetæ, Ordovices, Brigantes, and Ottadini.

The Danmonii were ſituated in that part of Britain which ſtands a conſiderable way toward the weſt, and is bounded by the Severn ſea on the north; by the Britiſh ocean on the ſouth; and by St. George's channel on the weſt. In the tract now comprehending the counties of Cornwall and Devon, Ptolemy notices the eſtuary Vexalla, formed by the confluence of the two rivers Pedredus and Ivellus, now the Parrett and the Ill; the promontory of Hercules, and the promontory Belerium, which is the moſt weſtern part of the iſland, now known by the name of the Land's End. The principal places, mentioned by the ſame geographer, on the ſouthern coaſt, were Voliba, now Falmouth; the mouth of the Tamara, on which is now ſituated the town of Plymouth; and the mouth of the Iſca, now the Ex. The chief inland towns were Iſca-Danmoniorum, Exeter; Tamare, Taviſtock; and Uxella, according to Camden, Leſtwithiel.

The Durotriges were ſeated to the eaſt of the Danmonii, in that tract which is now called Dorſetſhire. In this part of the county Ptolemy notices one place only, which he calls Dunium. It is, however, generally agreed among the learned, that, inſtead of Dunium, we ſhould read Durnium; and that this was the ancient name of Dorcheſter, the principal town in the county of Dorſet.

The Belgæ appear to have occupied Somerſetſhire, Wiltſhire, and Hampſhire. Ptolemy notices, among their moſt conſiderable towns, thoſe of Magnus Portus, Portſmouth; Triſantonis Portus, Southampton; Venta Belgarum, Wincheſter; Aquæ-calidæ, Bath; and Iſcalis, now Ilcheſter.

The Attrebatii, or inhabitants of Berkſhire, are ſaid to have come originally from Belgic Gaul, and to have retained their ancient name in their new ſettlement. Their chief city was Calcua, now Wallingford. Antoninus mentions another place called Spinæ, Speenhamland, the fauxbourg of Newbury.

The Regni inhabited a tract of country comprehending Surry, Suſſex, and part of the ſea-coaſt of Hampſhire. Ptolemy mentions only one city, viz. Noviomagus, in this part of the iſland; but Antoninus notices Othona, the ſite of the preſent Haſtings; Portus Adurni, now the ſmall village of Ederington; and Regnum, now Ringwood, whither the Regni are ſaid to have fled for protection from their invaders.

The Cantii inhabited that portion of country, on the eaſt of the Belgæ and Attrebatii, which is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of Kent. Their chief towns appear to have been Durovernum, Durobrivis, Durolenum, Portus Dubris, Regulium, and Portus Lemanis; now Canterbury, Rocheſter, Lenham, Dover, Reculver, and Lime.

The Dobunii are placed, by Ptolemy, on the north ſide of the Thames, in the counties of Glouceſterſhire and Oxfordſhire. The principal places in this diſtrict were Durocornovium, which ſtood on the ſite of the preſent town of Cirenceſter; Altone, Alvington or Abingdon; and Glevum, now Glouceſter.

The Cattieuchlani ſeem to have poſſeſſed the greateſt part of Buckinghamſhire, Bedfordſhire, and Hertfordſhire. Antoninus mentions the following places as belonging to this people: Lactodorum, Bedford; Magiovinium, Aſhwell; Durocobrivis, Hertford; and Verulamium, the ruins of which, near St. Alban's, are ſtill called Verulam. Before the arrival of Julius Cæſar, the Cattieuchlani had ſubjugated a conſiderable part of the country belonging to the Dobuni, and were conſtantly engaged in hoſtilities with their neighbours.

The Trinobantes inhabited the preſent counties of Middleſex and Eſſex, and poſſeſſed the city of Londinium, or London, which ſeems to have been founded about the time of Claudius, and is mentioned by Tacitus as a place famous for trade and the concourſe of merchants, though not diſtinguiſhed with the title of colony. The other principal towns of the Trinobantes were Durolitum, Cæſaromagus,

ſaromagus, Conomium, Camalodunum, and Colonia; now Leiton, Burghſtead, Cannonden, Malden, and Colcheſter.

The Iceni occupied the country bordering on that of the Trinobantes, and comprehending the preſent counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. Their chief towns, as mentioned by Ptolemy and Antoninus, were Villa Fauſtini, Cambretonium, Sitomagus, Venta Icenorum, Garienis Oſtium, Iciani, Brannodium, and Durobrivæ; now St. Edmund's Bury, Brettenham, Thetford, Yarmouth, Ichborough, Brancaſter, and Dornford: to which we may add Camboritum, on the banks of the Cam, which are at preſent adorned with the town and univerſity of Cambridge.

The Coritanii poſſeſſed an extenſive territory bordering on the Iceni, and comprehending the counties of Northampton, Leiceſter, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, and Derby. Their principal towns were Lindum, Lincoln; Tripontium, Towceſter; Beneventa, Northampton; Ratæ, Leiceſter; Verometum, Burrowhill; and Agelocum, now Idleton. In this country are ſtill viſible the ruins of ſome ancient fortifications and military fences, ſaid to have been erected by Oſtorius, to prevent the irruption of thoſe who inhabited Wales, and the northern parts of Britain.

The Cornavi were ſeated to the weſt of the Coritani, and ſeem to have poſſeſſed Warwickſhire, Worceſterſhire, Staffordſhire, Shropſhire, and Cheſhire. Their principal places were, Præſidium, Warwick; Branogenium, Worceſter; Viroconium, out of whoſe ruins roſe the preſent town of Shrewſbury; Pennocrucium, Penkridge; Deva, Cheſter; Condate, Congleton; and Rutunium, Routon.

The Silures inhabited that diſtrict which is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of South Wales, and compriſes Radnorſhire, Brecknockſhire, and Glamorganſhire, with the counties of Hereford and Monmouth. Tacitus is of opinion, that this people came originally from Spain, on account of their ruddy complexion, their curled hair, and their ſituation over againſt that country. In Herefordſhire ſtood Bletium, now the Old Town on the Manor; Brecknock appears to have been inhabited in the Roman times. Some ruins of Venta Silurum, or the city Venta, are ſtill to be ſeen in Monmouthſhire. Phily caſtle, in Glamorganſhire, is, in the opinion of Camden, the moſt noble piece of ancient architecture remaining in Britain.

The Dimetæ occupied the remaining part of South Wales, comprehending Caermarthenſhire, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardiganſhire. Ptolemy, however, mentions none of their towns, except Loventium, at the mouth of the Tuerobis, and Maridunum, now Caermarthen.

The Ordovices are repreſented as a powerful and warlike nation, who poſſeſſed the diſtrict called North Wales, and comprehending Montgomeryſhire, Merionethſhire, Caernarvonſhire, Denbighſhire, and Flintſhire. In this country are the veſtiges of ſeveral forts raiſed by the Romans to keep the natives in ſubjection; and oppoſite Caernarvonſhire lies the iſland of Mona, now Angleſea, the ancient ſeat of the Druids; firſt attempted by Paulinus Suetonius, and afterwards reduced by Agricola.

The Brigantes, a numerous and powerful people, are ſaid to have inhabited Yorkſhire, Durham, Lancaſhire, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland. In the weſt riding of Yorkſhire ſtood the city of Danum, now called Doncaſter; near the confluence of the Calder and the Arc ſtood Lageolium, now dwindled to the ſmall village of Caſtleford; and Iſurium Brigantum is ſuppoſed to have occupied the ſite of the preſent village of Aldborough, near Boroughbridge. Eboracum, now York, was both a Roman colony and a municipium, and contained a palace, in which the emperors Septimius Severus and Conſtantius Chlorus died. In the eaſt riding, about ſeven miles from York, ſtood Dewentis, now the village Auldby; and on the promontory Ocellum, or Holderneſſe, ſtood the city of Prætorium, now Patrington. In Lancaſhire were Mancunium, Mancheſter; and Alone, Lancaſter. In Weſtmoreland ſtood Veteræ, now the village Burgh, and Aballaba, which retains its ancient name, being called, by contraction, Apelby. In Cumberland the Romans threw up fortifications on ſuch parts of the ſea-coaſt as were convenient for landing; and various remains of antiquity are ſtill viſible in that county.

The Ottadini were ſituated in the tract of country now called Northumberland. Here are ſtill to be ſeen many veſtiges of antiquity; but the only places taken notice of by the ancients between Bremenium and Edinburgh Frith, are Tavi Oſtium, the mouth of the Tweed; and Caſtra Alata, which moſt antiquaries ſuppoſe to be the ſame with Edinburgh.

Thoſe who reſided beyond the two friths are comprehended, by Dio Caſſius, under the names of Mæatæ and Caledonii; the former of whom poſſeſſed the ſouth part of Britannia Barbara, and the latter the north. From the Caledonii, or Dicalidones, the north part of Britain was called Caledonia; and they appear to have been a diſtinct nation from the Attacotti and Scotti, under the reign of Valentinian and Valens, for Ammianus Marcellinus, writing of that time, obſerves, "The Picts, under which denomination are comprehended the Dicalidones and the Vecturiones, the Attacotti likewiſe, a warlike nation, and the Scotti, roaming about, committed great devaſtations."—Theſe people are deſcribed by Gibbon as follows: "The hand of nature had contributed to mark the ancient diſtinction of the Scots and Picts. The former were the men of the hills, and the latter thoſe of the plain. The eaſtern coaſt of Caledonia may be conſidered as a level and fertile country, which, even in a rude ſtate of tillage, was capable of producing a conſiderable quantity of corn; and the epithet of *cruithnich*, or wheat-eaters, expreſſed the contempt or envy of the Pict, or carnivorous highlander. The cultivation of the earth might introduce a more accurate ſeparation of property, and the habits of a ſedentary life; but the love of arms and rapine was ſtill the ruling paſſion of the Picts: and their warriors, who ſtript themſelves for battle, were diſtinguiſhed, in the eyes of the Romans, by the ſtrange faſhion of painting their naked bodies with gaudy colours and fantaſtic figures, whence their name. The weſtern part of Caledonia irregularly riſes into wild and barren hills, which ſcarcely repay the toil of the huſbandman, and are moſt profitably uſed for the paſture of cattle. The highlanders were condemned to the occupations of ſhepherds and hunters; and as they ſeldom were fixed to any permanent habitation, they acquired the expreſſive name of *Scots*, which, in the Celtic tongue, is ſaid to be equivalent to that of *wanderers* or *vagrants*."

Nothing completely ſatisfactory can be advanced reſpecting the affairs of Britain before the time of Julius Cæſar, who, having ſubjugated all the warlike nations on the oppoſite coaſt, conceived the deſign of bringing the Britons alſo under the dominion of Rome. In order to facilitate the execution of this project, he diſpatched C. Voluſenus with a ſingle galley to view the iſland, to learn the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants, and to get ſome knowledge of their ports and havens; while the Roman troops were drawn up in the country of the Morini, now Picardy, and a numerous fleet lay at anchor in readineſs for the deſtined expedition. The Britons, receiving intelligence of theſe preparations, thought proper to elude the impending danger by voluntary conceſſion, and accordingly ſent an embaſſy to Cæſar, offering to ſubmit to the authority of Rome, and to deliver hoſtages for their fidelity. Cæſar received the ambaſſadors with apparent kindneſs, but would not abandon his ſcheme of an invaſion, which the proximity of the iſland to the coaſt of Gaul ſeemed ſtrongly to invite; and which the doubtful intelligence of a pearl fiſhery ſeemed alſo to attract; but Cæſar concealed that ignoble motive, though it is acknowledged by Suetonius.

At that time, according to Cæſar and other hiſtorians, the Britons were very numerous, and had their country well ſtocked with cattle. Their houſes reſembled thoſe

of

of the Gauls; and they uſed copper and iron plates or rings, weighed by a certain ſtandard, as the circulating medium for money. Their towns were a confuſed group of huts, placed at a ſmall diſtance from one another, generally in the middle of a wood, to which all the avenues were guarded by mounds of earth, or with trees. The people were in a ſtate of barbariſm, much reſembling the Gauls and Germanic tribes on the continent. The uſe of clothes was but little regarded: the common inhabitants covered themſelves with the ſkins of beaſts; and this rather to avoid giving offence to ſtrangers, who came to trade with them for corn, tin, and hides, than to defend their bodies from the rigour of the ſeaſons. It was then a cuſtom among the Britons to paint their bodies with the juice of woad, of a light azure blue; which was ſometimes done for ornament, and ſometimes with a view to terriſy their enemies. They ſhaved the beard, all except the upper lip, and wore long hair. The arms, both of the man and woman, who frequently fought by her huſband's ſide, were a ſword, a lance, and a ſhield. Breaſt-plates and helmets they looked upon rather to be incumbrances, and therefore made but little uſe of them. They uſually fought in chariots, ſome of which were armed with ſcythes at the wheels, and which, being driven furiouſly among the thickeſt of the enemy, mowed down multitudes at once. In the rage of war they were fierce and cruel, and extremely blood-thirſty. When driven to diſtreſs, they could ſubſiſt on the hardeſt fare; and would eat even the bark and roots of trees. The ſouthern and middle nations were ſaid to be ſomewhat more civilized; and the Cantii, or inhabitants of Kent, more ſo than any of the reſt; they appeared to poſſeſs loftier ſentiments, and to have had more experience of men and manners.

The general characteriſtic attributed to the Britons, in this barbarous and uncultivated age, ſeems to have been, that, though fierce in the field, and terrible to an enemy, they were nevertheleſs gentle in their domeſtic capacity, and took pride in acts of magnanimity and friendſhip. Among their own tribes, hoſpitality was indulged with the moſt unbounded freedom. The entertainer, when his humble fare was exhauſted, carried his gueſt to the houſe of his next neighbour. Invitations were not waited for; nor was it of conſequence to be invited. A reception equally warm was at all times certain. On theſe occaſions, giving way to the movements of the heart, they delighted in preſents; but they neither thought themſelves entitled to a return for what they gave, nor laid under an obligation for what they received. They yielded to the impulſe of paſſion, and the pleaſure they felt was their recompenſe. Their gifts were directed by no view of an immediate or diſtant advantage; their generoſity was no traffic of intereſt, and proceeded from no motive of deſign. When ſupplied to their deſire with intoxicating liquors, they were no leſs invincible in vice than in valour; yet they applied ſedulouſly to public affairs, and debated concerning peace and war. Every one conſidered himſelf intereſted in the well-being of his particular tribe. They marched, on all weighty occaſions, to the aſſembly of their prince or leader, where a freedom of ſpeech, entire and unlimited, was allowed them. The age, the eloquence, the rank, and the honours acquired in war, were the qualities which procured attention to the ſpeaker; and the people were influenced by perſuaſion, not by authority. A murmur, coarſe and rude, expreſſed their diſſent; whilſt the tinkling of their armour was the mark of their applauſe. Such is to this day the common ſtate of ſavage nations.

In their religion they were groſs, like almoſt all the kingdoms of the earth, in that dark and diſtant age which preceded about fifty-five years the birth of Chriſt. They believed in a plurality of ſubordinate gods; but confided in one Supreme Being, as the author and ruler of the whole. Their groves or druidical temples were appropriated to the uſes of devotion; and, in the awful reſpect inſpired by ſilence in the deep receſſes of their woods, they felt, or pretended to feel, and to acknowledge, the power of their deities, and of the Supreme Being. They conſidered the oak as the emblem of the Almighty; and accordingly chaplets of it were worn by the prieſts and people in their religious ceremonies; the altars were ſtrewed with its leaves, and encircled with its branches. The fruit of it, or rather its paraſitical offſpring, the miſletoe, was thought to contain a divine virtue, and to be the peculiar gift of heaven. It was therefore ſought for on the ſixth day of the moon with the greateſt earneſtneſs and anxiety, and when found, was hailed with raptures of joy, and carefully laid up in their ſacred repoſitories. It was then conſecrated by the prieſts, and adminiſtered as a ſovereign ſpecific in almoſt every diſeaſe to which the natives were ſubject. They were much addicted to augury and divination; and were fond of drawing prognoſtics from the running of waters, the flight of birds, and the neighing of horſes. Their prieſts had greater authority than their kings or chieftains, and they were governed in all their great undertakings, whether of war or of peace, of flight or of battle, by the impulſes or ſuppoſed dictates of their divinities, as revealed or explained to them by their miniſters and bards, the diſpenſers of the druidical doctrines. See BARD, vol. ii. p. 716, and the article DRUIDS, p. 87, of this volume.

The more common office of magiſtrate, if ſuch it might be called in thoſe rude times, was uſually filled by the leader of a tribe, who, with the body of his officers and followers, conſtituted a court, which heard accuſations and determined concerning crimes. Traitors and deſerters were hung on trees. Cowardice, and the crime againſt nature, were conſidered as of equal atrocity; and the perſons convicted of them were choaked in mires and ſwamps by the preſſure of hurdles. A corporal puniſhment, and compenſations in corn and cattle, were the atonements of ſmaller delinquencies.

The remoter and more ſequeſtered tribes, who dwelt principally in caves and foreſts, were not however ſo civilized, nor ſo religiouſly inclined. To the moſt ſavage fierceneſs, they united an unconquerable ſpirit. They clothed themſelves with the ſkins of beaſts, fed chiefly on herbage, and ſlept on the earth. Their chief dependence was on their arrows, and their women accompanied them to the chace, and partook of the prey. A covering, inwrought with boughs, was all the ſhelter which defended their infants from the rigour of ſeaſons, or the ferocity of animals. This predatory life, the fierce inhabitants of the caves and mountains of Wales, preferred to the fatigue of cultivating the earth, or building huts; to the agitations of hope and fear attendant on a care of their own fortunes, and on a connection with thoſe of others. Unapprehenſive of any danger from men, and awed by no terror of the gods, they had reached a ſtate which is nearly unattainable to the utmoſt human endeavours—that of being entirely without a wiſh.

Amongſt all the nations and tribes of Britain, courage, intrepidity, and ſuperior proweſs, were the qualifications which entitled to the office and juriſdiction of a chief; and the general of an army was to command leſs by authority than from example. He drew reſpect and obſervation by his activity, his addreſs, and the ſplendour of his exploits. Even the hopes and ambition of the ſimple individual were made to depend on his perſonal exertion and courage. Yet, with all this attention to merit, and with all their rigidneſs of character, they were prone to deceive and to circumvent. They accounted it meritorious to ſteal upon their enemies in the darkeſt nights; they blackened their ſhields, and painted their bodies, to appear more terrible; and, to give ground, or run away, and unexpectedly to face about and return to the charge, was a common and an admired feat of their prudence. It is alſo remarkable, that, though attentive to juſtice, with a punctilious exactneſs, within the bounds of their particular nations, they deſpiſed it with regard to other ſtates and communities; and hence that continual ſource of diſ-

ſenſion and animoſity, which kept them at perpetual war with each other. At home, to commit violence and depredation was a crime of the deepeſt dye; but when directed againſt a rival nation, though at peace, was a mark of valour, and an expreſſion of virtue. To make incurſions upon a neighbouring tribe, to carry off their cattle, and lay waſte their territory, were actions of renown and greatneſs. Theſe adventures rouſed the ambition of the valorous, and were enterpriſes in which they acquired reputation, and qualified themſelves for ſcenes of greater danger and glory.

The Britiſh nations were therefore brave and reſolute, owing to the continual diſſenſions among themſelves. They conſequently proved very formidable to the Romans; but the ſame diſſenſions which had taught them to be reſolute in war, alſo prevented them from uniting in one common cauſe, the defence of their country. Yet when Cæſar arrived on the coaſt near Dover, he ſaw the "white cliffs of Albion" covered with armed men to oppoſe his landing. But finding it impracticable to gain the ſhore where he firſt intended, he reſolved to chooſe a place of greater ſecurity. The place where he made good his landing, which was in the year before Chriſt 55, was about eight miles farther on, ſome ſuppoſe at Deal, where an inclining ſhore and a level country invited his attempts. Here, however, he alſo found the Britiſh chariots and cavalry drawn up to oppoſe his landing, and a material difficulty proceeded from the conſtruction of his veſſels, which required a conſiderable depth of water, ſo that the ſoldiers, encumbered as they were with heavy armour, were obliged to leap into the ſea, and wade, with extreme difficulty, toward the enemy, who, ſtanding on the beach, or advancing forward, ſecurely threw their darts, and repulſed their aſſailants with great facility. This diſadvantage operated ſo powerfully on the ſpirits of the Romans, that they ſeemed unwilling to continue the engagement; but on Cæſar's cauſing his galleys to advance with their broadſides toward the ſhore, whereby his legions were enabled to come to action with their javelins and arms, the Britons began to give ground; and the ſtandard-bearer of the tenth legion leaping boldly into the ſea, and calling aloud upon his comrades to defend their enſign, the Romans preſſed forward, and began the fight with their accuſtomed fury. The Britons ſuſtained the attack, for ſome time, with undaunted bravery, and even threw their aſſailants into great confuſion; but they were at length overpowered, and compelled to elude deſtruction by a precipitate retreat.

Upon this defeat the Britons thought proper to appeaſe the enemy by timely ſubmiſſions, and accordingly ſent a deputation to ſue for peace. Cæſar, anxious to return to the continent, agreed to pardon them on condition they delivered a certain number of hoſtages. But, in the meanwhile, the tranſports containing the Roman cavalry, were driven back to the ports of Gaul by a tremendous ſtorm; and the fleet which lay in the road was greatly damaged, ſeveral veſſels being daſhed to pieces, and others rendered totally uſeleſs by the loſs of their anchors, cables, and rigging. The ſame night, alſo, the tide roſe ſo high, that the galleys which had been drawn aſhore were all filled with water. Theſe diſaſters excited a general joy in the Britiſh camp, and inſpired the Britons with the hope of deſtroying an enemy who was evidently in want of cavalry, ſhips, and proviſions. Accordingly the chiefs, who had aſſembled to perform their agreement with Cæſar, began to ſteal out of the camp, and to collect their troops with ſuch diligence, that they were ſoon enabled to attack the ſeventh legion, who had been ſent out in queſt of forage, and to revenge their late defeat by putting numbers of them to death. However, Cæſar having haſtened to the relief of his countrymen with all his other troops, the Britons were obliged to retire without completing their deſign. After this action a heavy fall of rain, which continued for ſeveral days, kept the Romans inactive in their camp.

The Britons, in the mean time, were not idle; for, having diſpatched meſſengers into all parts of the iſland to invite their countrymen to force the enemy's camp, they aſſembled a numerous army, and boldly advanced to the Roman intrenchments; but Cæſar drew up his legions ſo advantageouſly, and attacked the undiſciplined Britons ſo vigorouſly, that they were overthrown with great ſlaughter, and purſued through ſeveral of their towns and villages, which were ſacrificed to the vengeance of the Romans, till at length the conqueror returned to his camp, and the vanquiſhed Britons conſented to purchaſe a peace, by ſending double the number of hoſtages which had been required by the former treaty. Cæſar, having obtained this conceſſion, and refitted the greateſt part of his veſſels, deemed it adviſable to haſten his departure, leſt if he remained till the equinox his fleet might be again expoſed to the fury of a ſtorm, and his troops involved in ſome more ſerious embarraſſments. The ſame night, therefore, he weighed anchor, and paſſed over to Gaul, whence he wrote to inform the ſenate at Rome of his ſucceſs; for which a general thankſgiving was appointed for twenty days.

Provoked ſoon after at the neglect of the Britiſh ſtates, of whom two only ſent him hoſtages, Cæſar determined to make another deſcent, the following ſpring, with a more powerful fleet and army. Accordingly, during his winter reſidence at Rome, his lieutenants refitted all the old veſſels, and built ſo great a number of tranſports, that on his return he found ſix hundred ſhips and twenty-eight galleys ready to launch. With this formidable fleet he repaired to the Portus Itius, now Witſand, between Calais and Boulogne, and weighing anchor about ſun-ſet, arrived with his whole fleet the next day, by noon, at the ſame place where he had landed the year before. The Britons, aſtoniſhed at the ſight of ſo numerous an armament, abandoned the ſhore, and retired to the hills, whence they were driven by the Roman cavalry with conſiderable loſs; but, as the day was far ſpent, Cæſar gave up the purſuit of the fugitives, and returned to fortify his camp.

Next morning Cæſar reſolved to march in queſt of the enemy; but when he was come within ſight of their rear, he received the mortifying intelligence that moſt of his ſhips were ſtranded or daſhed to pieces by a violent ſtorm. This diſaſter checked his progreſs, and obliged him to return to the ſea-ſide. However, he ſet all the carpenters in the fleet and army to work; drew all his ſhips, that had eſcaped the tempeſt, on ſhore; and encloſed them within the fortifications of his camp. This extraordinary work being completed, by the diligence of the ſoldiers, in ten days, Cæſar left a ſufficient body of men to defend the intrenchments, and haſtened with the reſidue of his forces to the place where he had laſt ſeen the enemy. Upon his arrival he found their army greatly augmented, under the conduct of Caſſibelan, king of the Trinobantes, to whom the Britons had unanimouſly committed the management of the war. Whilſt the Romans were on their march they were attacked by the Britiſh chariots and cavalry, but the aſſailants were repulſed with great ſlaughter, and compelled to retire to the woods. An unexpected ſally was alſo made whilſt the Romans were buſied in fortifying their camp; and three legions were vigorouſly attacked whilſt in queſt of forage, but the aſſailants were eventually overthrown, and diſperſed with conſiderable loſs. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, Cæſar led his troops toward the Thames, in order to croſs that river, and carry the war into the territories of Caſſibelan; but when he came to the only place where the river could be forded, he perceived that the enemy had fortified the oppoſite bank with ſharp ſtakes, and drawn up a numerous body of forces to oppoſe his landing. However, the enterpriſing general ordered both his cavalry and the legions to advance to the attack. Theſe orders were immediately executed with ſuch alacrity and reſolution, that, though the infantry were up to the chin in water, the

J. Chapman sculp.t

Aborigines of England.

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the Britons were compelled to abandon the bank, and Caſſibelan, being unwilling to venture an engagement, diſbanded the major part of his forces, retaining only four thouſand chariots, with which he haraſſed the foraging parties of the enemy, and prevented them from making excurſions.

Meanwhile the Trinobantes ſent an embaſſy to Cæſar, tendering their ſubmiſſions, and requeſting him to appoint Mandubratius their king and governor, inſtead of Caſſibelan, who had forfeited their eſteem by ſome acts of oppreſſion. Theſe requeſts were readily complied with; and the example of the Trinobantes was ſoon followed by ſeveral other ſtates, which voluntarily ſubmitted to the Romans. Cæſar alſo marched with his legions againſt Verulamium, now St. Alban's, Caſſibelan's chief city, which he ſoon reduced, notwithſtanding the natural ſtrength of the fortifications, and the brave reſiſtance of the inhabitants. To repair this heavy loſs, and divert the enemy from purſuing his conqueſts, Caſſibelan perſuaded four petty princes of Kent, viz. Cingetorix, Carvilius, Segonax, and Taximagulus, to raiſe a body of forces, and attack the camp where the ſhips were laid up; but this deſign was rendered abortive by the vigilance of the Romans, and Caſſibelan was eventually compelled to ſue for peace. Cæſar, having now received a number of hoſtages from the Britons for the performance of their treaty, cauſed his fleet to be launched with all convenient expedition, leſt the winter ſhould prevent his voyage; and, weighing anchor about the ſecond watch of the night, reached the continent by break of day, after making himſelf rather the nominal than the real poſſeſſor of Britain —*to which he never after returned.*

In his Commentaries, Cæſar gives the following account of the evolutions of the Britons in battle. "This is their method of fighting from chariots: they firſt ride to all parts and throw their darts, and frequently break our ranks by the prancing of their ſteeds, and rattling of the wheels; and, when they have got amongſt the troops of horſe, they alight from their chariots, and fight on foot; the charioteers in the mean while draw off a little from the engagement, and place themſelves in ſuch a manner, that, if theſe ſhould be overborne by the numbers of the enemy, they may have an eaſy retreat to them. Thus they perform in battle the nimbleneſs of the horſe, and the firmneſs of the foot; and ſo expert are they by conſtant uſe and exerciſe, that they can ſtop their horſes on full gallop down hill, and can check and turn them in a ſmall compaſs, run upon the pole, riſe upon the harneſs, and quickly from thence recover the chariot." Upon the whole, the character given by Cæſar himſelf of his enemies, the Britons, conſidering their then a ſavage ſtate, is much more flattering, than degrading, of their native courage and magnanimous diſpoſition. He makes no other diſtinction between the colonies planted on its coaſts, and theſe interior tribes, than by ſimply calling them *Aborigines*.—The Rev. Geo. Richards, of Oriel College, Oxford, in his deſcription of this people, has drawn the following portrait of the aboriginal Briton:

Rude as the wilds around his ſylvan home
In ſavage grandeur ſee the Briton roam:
Bare were his limbs, and ſtrung with toil and cold,
By untam'd nature caſt in giant mould.
O'er his broad brawny ſhoulders, looſely flung,
Shaggy and long, his yellow ringlets hung.
His waiſt an iron-belted falchion bore,
Maſſy, and purpled deep with human gore;
His ſcarr'd and rudely painted limbs around
Fantaſtic horror-ſtriking figures frown'd,
Which, monſter-like, ev'n to the confines ran
Of Nature's work, and left him hardly man.

Upon the acceſſion of Auguſtus to the imperial purple of Rome, that emperor had formed a deſign of viſiting Britain; but was diverted from it by an unexpected revolt of the Pannonians. Some years after he reſumed his deſign; but being met in his way by the Britiſh embaſſadors, who promiſed the accuſtomed tribute, and made the uſual ſubmiſſions, he deſiſted from his intention. The year following, finding them remiſs in their ſupplies, and untrue to their former profeſſions, he once more prepared for the invaſion of the country; but a well-timed embaſſy again averted his indignation, and the ſubmiſſions he received ſeemed to ſatisfy his reſentment: upon his death-bed he appeared ſenſible of the overgrown extent of the Roman empire, and he recommended it to his ſucceſſors never to enlarge their territories. Tiberius followed the maxims of Auguſtus; and wiſely judging the empire already too extenſive, made no attempt on Britain. Some Roman ſoldiers having been wrecked on the Britiſh coaſt, the inhabitants not only aſſiſted them with the greateſt humanity, but ſent them in ſafety back to their general. In conſequence of theſe friendly diſpoſitions, a conſtant intercourſe of good offices ſubſiſted between the two nations; the principal Britiſh nobility reſorted to Rome, and many received their education there.

From this time the Britons began to improve in many of the arts which contribute to the advancement of human nature. The firſt art which a ſavage people is generally taught by their politer neighbours, is that of war. The Britons, thenceforward, though not wholly addicted to the Roman method of fighting, nevertheleſs adopted ſeveral of their improvements, as well in their arms as in their arrangement in the field. Their ferocity to ſtrangers, for which they had been always remarkable, was mitigated; and they began to permit an intercourſe of commerce in the internal parts of the country. They ſtill, however, continued to live as herdſmen and hunters; whilſt the wild extravagances of Caligula, by which he threatened Britain with an invaſion, ſerved rather to expoſe him to ridicule, than the iſland to danger. The Britons, therefore, for almoſt a century, enjoyed their liberty unmoleſted, till at length the Romans, in the reign of Claudius, began to think ſeriouſly of reducing them completely under their dominion. The expedition for this purpoſe was at firſt conducted by Plautius, with that ſucceſs which uſually attended the Roman arms. Claudius himſelf, in the year of Chriſt 43, finding affairs ſufficiently prepared for his reception, entered the iſland, and received the ſubmiſſion of ſuch ſtates as, living by commerce, were willing to purchaſe tranquillity at the expence of freedom. It is true that many of the inland provinces preferred their native ſimplicity to imported elegance, and, rather than bow their necks to the Roman yoke, opened their boſoms to the ſword. But the ſouthern coaſt, with all the adjacent inland country, was ſeized by the conquerors, who ſecured the poſſeſſion by fortifying camps, building fortreſſes, and planting colonies. The other parts of the country either thought themſelves in no danger, or continued patient ſpectators of the approaching devaſtation.

Caractacus, king of the Silures, was the firſt who ſeemed willing, by a vigorous effort, to reſcue his country, and repel its inſulting and overbearing conquerors. The venality and corruption of the Roman prætors and officers, who were appointed to levy the contributions in Britain, ſerved to excite the indignation of the natives, and give ſpirit to his attempts. This rude ſoldier, though with inferior forces, continued, for about the ſpace of nine years, to oppoſe and haraſs the half-dejected Romans; till at length Oſtorius Scapula was ſent over to command their armies. He was more ſucceſsful than his predeceſſors. He advanced the Roman conqueſts over Britain, pierced the country of the Silures on the banks of the Severn, and at length, A. D. 50, came up with Caractacus, who had taken poſſeſſion of a very advantageous poſt upon an inacceſſible mountain, ſuppoſed to be Caer-Caradoc in Shropſhire, waſhed by a deep and rapid ſtream, formed by the conflux of the Colun and Teme. The heroic Britiſh chief, when he ſaw the enemy approaching, drew up his army, compoſed of different tribes, and, going from rank to rank, exhorted them to ſtrike the

the laſt blow for liberty, ſafety, and life. To theſe exhortations his ſoldiers replied with ſhouts of determined valour. But what could undiſciplined bravery avail againſt the attack of an army ſkilled in all the arts of war, and inſpired by a long train of conqueſts? The Britons were, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, totally routed; and a few days after Caractacus himſelf was impiouſly betrayed and delivered up to the conquerors by Cartiſmandua, queen of the Brigantes, with whom he had taken refuge. Notice of the capture of this prince was received with ſuch joy at Rome, that Claudius commanded that he ſhould be brought from Britain, in order to be exhibited as a ſpectacle to the Roman people. Accordingly, on the day appointed for that purpoſe, the emperor aſcending his throne, ordered the captives, and Caractacus among the number, to be brought into his preſence. The vaſſals of the Britiſh king, with the ſpoils taken in war, were firſt brought forward; theſe were followed by his family; and laſt of all came Caractacus, with an undaunted and a dignified aſpect. He appeared no way dejected at the amazing concourſe of ſpectators that were gathered upon this occaſion. When he came before the imperial throne, he addreſſed Claudius in the following magnanimous and ſenſible ſpeech: "If my moderation in proſperity, O Claudius! had been as conſpicuous as my birth and fortune, I ſhould now have entered this city as a friend, and not as a priſoner; nor would you have diſdained the friendſhip of a prince deſcended from ſuch illuſtrious anceſtors, and governing ſo many nations. My preſent condition, I own, is to you honourable, to me humiliating. I was lately poſſeſſed of ſubjects, horſes, arms, and riches. Can you be ſurpriſed that I endeavoured to preſerve them? If you Romans have a deſire to arrive at univerſal monarchy, muſt all nations, to gratify you, tamely ſubmit to ſervitude? If I had ſubmitted without a ſtruggle, how much would it have diminiſhed the luſtre of my fall, and of your victory? And now, if you reſolve to put me to death, my ſtory will ſoon be buried in oblivion; but if you think proper to preſerve my life, I ſhall remain a laſting monument of your clemency." It is greatly to the honour of Claudius, that he was ſo much charmed with the boldneſs of his illuſtrious priſoner, that he pardoned him and his whole retinue, and commanded their chains to be immediately taken off.

Notwithſtanding their misfortunes, and the capture of their king, the Britons were not yet ſubdued; and this iſland was regarded by the ambitious Romans as a field in which military honour might ſtill be acquired. The Britons made one expiring effort more to recover their liberty, in the time of Nero, by taking advantage of the abſence of Suetonius Paulinus the Roman general, who was employed in ſubduing the Iſle of Angleſey. That ſmall iſland, ſeparated from Britain only by a narrow channel, ſtill continued the chief ſeat of the Druidical ceremonies, and conſtantly afforded a retreat to their defeated forces. It was thought neceſſary therefore to ſubdue that place, in order to extirpate a religion that diſdained ſubmiſſion to foreign laws or leaders; and Suetonius Paulinus, the greateſt general of his age, undertook the taſk, A. D. 59. The Britons endeavoured to obſtruct his landing on that laſt retreat of their falling liberties, both by the force of their arms, and the terrors of their religion. The prieſts and highlanders were drawn up in order of battle upon the ſhore, to oppoſe his landing. The women, dreſſed like furies, with diſhevelled hair, and torches in their hands, poured forth the moſt terrible execrations. Such a ſight at firſt confounded and aſtoniſhed the Romans, and fixed them motionleſs on the ſpot; ſo that they received the firſt aſſault without being able to make the leaſt oppoſition. But Suetonius, exhorting his troops to deſpiſe the terrors of an abſurd ſuperſtition, and the unavailing menaces of poor weak deluded women, impelled them to the attack with redoubled courage; drove the Britons off the field, burnt many of the Druids in the ſame fires they had prepared for their captive enemies, and deſtroyed all their conſecrated groves and altars.

Yet ſtill the principal tribes of the Britons reſolved, by a general inſurrection, to free themſelves at once from that ſtate of abject ſervitude to which they were reduced. They had many motives to aggravate their reſentment; the greatneſs of their taxes, which were levied with unremitting ſeverity; the inſolence of their conquerors, who reproached that very poverty which they had cauſed; but particularly the cruel treatment of Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, drove them at laſt into open rebellion. Praſatagus, king of the Iceni, at his death, had bequeathed one half of his dominions to the Romans, and the other to his daughters; thus hoping, by the ſacrifice of a part, to ſecure the reſt in his family: but it had a different effect; for the Roman procurator immediately took poſſeſſion of the whole; and when Boadicea, the widow of the deceaſed, attempted to remonſtrate, he ordered her to be ſcourged like a ſlave, and violated the chaſtity of her daughters. Theſe outrages excited a revolt through the whole iſland. The Iceni, being the moſt deeply intereſted in the quarrel, were the firſt to take arms; the other ſtates ſoon followed the example: and Boadicea, a princeſs of great beauty, and of an invincible ſpirit, was appointed to head the common forces, which amounted to 230,000 fighting men. Theſe oppreſſed people, exaſperated by their wrongs, attacked ſeveral of the Roman ſettlements and colonies with ſucceſs. Suetonius haſtened to relieve London, which was already a flouriſhing colony; but he was obliged to abandon that place to the fury of the Britons. London was therefore reduced to aſhes; and the Romans, with all other ſtrangers that were found in it, to the number of ſeventy thouſand, were, without diſtinction, put to the ſword. Fluſhed with theſe ſucceſſes, the Britons no longer fought to avoid the enemy, but boldly came to the place where Suetonius awaited their arrival, poſted in a very advantageous manner, with a body of ten thouſand men. The battle was obſtinate and bloody. Boadicea appeared in a chariot with her two daughters, and harangued her army with maſculine intrepidity; declaring, "That ſhe, though a woman, was fully determined to conquer or to die; the men, if they pleaſed, might live and be ſlaves." But the irregular and undiſciplined bravery of her troops was unable to reſiſt the cool intrepidity of the Romans. They were routed with prodigious ſlaughter: eighty thouſand periſhed in the field, and an infinite number were made priſoners, while Boadicea herſelf, fearing to fall into the hands of the victor, put an end to her life by poiſon. Nero ſoon after recalled Suetonius from a government, where, by ſuffering and inflicting ſo many ſeverities, he was judged improper to calm the angry and agitated minds of the natives. After an interval of ſome conſiderable time, during which Petronius Turpilianus, Trebellius Maximus, and Vectius Bolanus, had ſucceeded each other, Cerealis received the chief command from Veſpaſian, and by his bravery propagated the terror of the Roman arms. Julius Frontinus ſucceded Cerealis both in authority and reputation. But the general who finally eſtabliſhed the dominion of the Romans in Britain was Julius Agricola, who governed it during the reigns of Veſpaſian, Titus, and Domitian, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as well by his courage, as by his great humanity.

Agricola, celebrated in hiſtory both for clemency and wiſdom, formed a regular plan for ſubduing and civilizing the iſland, and thus rendering the acquiſition of it uſeful to the conquerors. As the northern part of the country was leaſt tractable, he carried his victorious arms thither, and defeated the undiſciplined enemy in every encounter. He pierced into the hitherto inacceſſible foreſts and mountains of Caledonia, he drove onward all thoſe fierce and untractable ſpirits who preferred famine to ſlavery, and who, rather than ſubmit, choſe to remain in perpetual hoſtility.

hoſtility. Nor was it without oppoſition that he thus made his way into a country rude and impervious by nature. He was oppoſed by Galgacus, the celebrated Caledonian chief, at the head of a numerous army, whom he defeated in a deciſive action, and in which conſiderable numbers were ſlain. Being thus ſucceſsful, he did not think proper to purſue the enemy into their retreats; but, embarking a body of troops on-board his fleet, he ordered the commander to navigate the whole coaſt of Britain, which they had not diſcovered to be an iſland till the preceding year. This armament, purſuant to his orders, ſteered to the northward, and there ſubdued the Orkneys; then making the tour of the whole iſland, it arrived in the port of Sandwich, without having met with the leaſt diſaſter.

During theſe military enterpriſes, Agricola was ever attentive to the arts of peace. He attempted to humaniſe the fierceneſs of thoſe who acknowledged his power, by introducing the Roman laws, habits, and cuſtoms. He taught them to deſire and to raiſe all the conveniences of life, inſtructed them in the arts of agriculture; and, in order to protect them in their peaceable poſſeſſions, he drew a rampart, and fixed a train of garriſons between them and their northern neighbours, cutting off the ruder and more barren parts of the iſland, and ſecuring the Roman province from the invaſion of a fierce and neceſſitous enemy. Thus, in exchange for liberty and independence, the Britons gained urbanity and civilization—they acquired the manners and language, the arts and ſciences, of the Romans; and, ſecured by the fortification which Agricola had erected, they lived a long time in undiſturbed quiet, without once thinking of the liberty they had loſt. From that time, A. D. 78, the Romans ſeemed more deſirous of ſecuring what they already poſſeſſed in Britain, than of making new conqueſts; and were employed rather in repreſſing, than in puniſhing, their reſtleſs northern invaders.

Nothing remarkable has been recorded concerning the affairs of Britain from this period till the reign of Adrian, A. D. 120, when Priſcus Licinius was ſent over to quell the inroads of the Caledonians; and the emperor himſelf, arriving ſhortly afterward, excited ſuch terror in the breaſts of thoſe marauders, that they haſtily evacuated all the places they had ſeized, and retired toward the more northern part of the inland. Adrian, deeming it adviſable to terminate the war, relinquiſhed all the tract of country lying between the Tyne and the two friths, but cauſed a wall to be built, extending from the Eden in Cumberland to the Tyne in Northumberland, a diſtance of eighty miles, in order to reſtrain the Caledonians from making any irruption into South Britain in future. Having thus ſettled the affairs of the iſland, and redreſſed ſeveral grievances, Adrian returned to Rome, where he was ſaluted with the title of "Reſtorer of Britain."

During the reign of Antoninus Pius, the Brigantes endeavoured to ſhake off the yoke; and the Caledonians, having demoliſhed a conſiderable part of Adrian's rampart, began to make freſh incurſions into the ſouthern territories. However, Lollius Urbicus chaſtiſed the revolted Brigantes; compelled the northern barbarians to retire into their own country; and confined them within narrower bounds than before, by a new wall, extending from the Forth to the Clyde. This wall was paſſed by the Caledonians in the time of Commodus, and ſome dreadful devaſtations were then again committed; but, on the arrival of Ulpius Marcellus, the marauders were defeated, and chaſed into their own territories with prodigious ſlaughter.

The emperor Severus, A. D. 207, divided Britain into two governments, and beſtowed the ſouthern part of the iſland upon Heraclius, and the northern on Virius Lupus. However, the ſouthern territories were ſtill ſo dreadfully ravaged by the Caledonians, that Severus deemed it adviſeable to repair thither in perſon. Accordingly he ſet out, with his two ſons, Caracalla and Geta, at the head of a numerous army, and landing on the iſland, marched with all poſſible expedition into the northern countries, which he ravaged with ſuch ſucceſs, that the Caledonians were compelled to purchaſe a peace by relinquiſhing part of their territories, and delivering up their arms. The victorious emperor then commanded a new wall to be built for a further defence, and retired to York, where he fell ſick and died, A. D. 211. His two ſons Geta and Caracalla ſucceeding to the empire, they immediately repaired to Rome; and from this time to the reign of Diocletian, A. D. 284, there is a chaſm in the Britiſh hiſtory.

In the commencement of Diocletian's reign, Britain was dreadfully infeſted by pirates. To repel their incurſions, it was found neceſſary to create a naval power; and the judicious meaſure was proſecuted with prudence and vigour. Geſſoriacum, or Boulogne, in the ſtraights of the Britiſh channel, was choſen by the emperor for the ſtation of the Roman fleet; and the command of it was entruſted to Carauſius, a Menapean of the meaneſt origin, but who had long ſignalized his ſkill as a pilot, and his valour as a ſoldier. The integrity of the new admiral correſponded not with his abilities. When the German pirates failed from their own harbours, he connived at their paſſage, but he diligently intercepted their return, and appropriated to his own uſe an ample ſhare of the ſpoil which they had acquired. The wealth of Carauſius was, on this occaſion, very juſtly conſidered as an evidence of his guilt; and orders had been already given for his death. But the crafty Menapian foreſaw and prevented the ſeverity of the emperor. By his liberality he had attached to his fortunes the fleet which he commanded, and ſecured the barbarians in his intereſt. From the port of Boulogne he ſailed to Britain, A. D. 287, perſuaded the legion, and the auxiliaries which guarded the iſland, to embrace his party, and boldly aſſuming the ſovereignty of Britain, under the title of Auguſtus, he defied the juſtice and the arms of the legal emperor. While Britain was thus diſmembered from Rome, its importance was ſenſibly felt, and its loſs ſincerely lamented. The Romans celebrated, and then perhaps magnified, the extent of ſo noble an iſland, provided on every ſide with convenient harbours; the temperature of the climate, and the fertility of the ſoil, alike adapted for the production of corn and of cattle; the valuable minerals with which it abounded; its rich paſtures covered with innumerable flocks, and its woods free from wild beaſts or venomous ſerpents. Above all, they regretted the large amount of the revenue of Britain, whilſt they confeſſed, that ſuch a province well deſerved to become the ſeat of an independent monarchy. During the ſpace of ſeven years, it was thus poſſeſſed by Carauſius; and fortune continued propitious to a rebellion, ſupported with courage and ability. The new Britiſh emperor defended the frontiers of his dominions againſt the Caledonians of the north, invited from the continent a great number of ſkilful artiſts, and diſplayed, on a variety of coins that are ſtill extant, his taſte and opulence. Born on the confines of the Franks, he courted the friendſhip of that formidable people, by the flattering imitation of their dreſs and manners. The braveſt of their youth he enliſted among his land or ſea forces; and in return for their uſeful alliance, he communicated to the barbarians a greater knowledge of military and naval arts. Carauſius ſtill preſerved the poſſeſſion of Boulogne and the adjacent country. His fleets rode triumphant in the channel, commanded the mouths of the Seine and of the Rhine, ravaged the coaſts of the ocean, and diffuſed beyond the columns of Hercules the terror of his name. Under his command, Britain, deſtined in a future age to obtain the empire of the ſea, already aſſumed its natural and reſpectable ſtation of a maritime power.

By ſeizing the fleet of Boulogne, Carauſius had deprived the Romans of the means of purſuit and revenge. And when, after a vaſt expence of time and labour, a new

new armament was launched into the water, the imperial troops, unaccuſtomed to that element, were eaſily baffled and defeated by the veteran ſailors of the uſurper. During the three years which Conſtantius employed in preparing another fleet, adequate to the conqueſt of Britain, he ſecured the coaſt of Gaul, invaded the country of the Franks, and deprived the uſurper of the aſſiſtance of thoſe powerful allies. But before the preparations were finiſhed, Conſtantius received intelligence of the tyrant's death. The ſervants of Carauſius imitated the example of treaſon which he had given them. He was murdered by his firſt miniſter Alectus; and the aſſaſſin ſucceeded to his power and to his danger. But he poſſeſſed not equal abilities either to exerciſe the one, or to repel the other. He beheld, with anxious terror, the oppoſite ſhores of the continent, already filled with arms, with troops, and with veſſels; for Conſtantius had very prudently divided his forces, that he might likewiſe divide the attention and reſiſtance of the enemy. The attack was at length made by the principal ſquadron, which, under the command of the præfect Aſclepiodatus, an officer of diſtinguiſhed merit, had been aſſembled in the mouth of the Seine. So imperfect in thoſe times was the art of navigation, that orators have celebrated the daring courage of the Romans, who ventured to ſet ſail with a ſide wind, and on a ſtormy day. The weather proved favourable to their enterpriſe. Under the cover of a thick fog they eſcaped the fleet of Alectus, which had been ſtationed off the Iſle of Wight to receive them, and they landed in ſafety on ſome part of the weſtern coaſt. Aſclepiodatus had no ſooner diſembarked the imperial troops, than he ſet fire to his ſhips; and, as the expedition proved fortunate, his heroic conduct was univerſally admired. The uſurper had poſted himſelf near London, to expect the formidable attack of Conſtantius, who commanded in perſon the fleet of Boulogne; but the deſcent of a new enemy required his immediate preſence in the weſt. He performed this long march in ſo precipitate a manner, that he encountered the whole force of the præfect with a ſmall body of haraſſed and diſheartened troops. The engagement was ſoon terminated by the total defeat and death of Alectus; a ſingle battle, as it has often happened, decided the fate of this great iſland; and when Conſtantius landed on the ſhores of Kent, he found them covered with obedient ſubjects. Their acclamations were loud and unanimous; and the virtues of the conqueror may induce us to believe, that they ſincerely rejoiced in a revolution, which, after a ſeparation of ten years, again reſtored Britain to the body of the Roman empire.

The two emperors, Diocletian and Maximian, having reſigned the imperial dignity to Galerius and Conſtantius, the latter paſſed over into Britain, ſhortly after his acceſſion, and obtained a victory over the turbulent Picts and Caledonians; but he alſo fell ſick and died at York. Conſtantine, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Conſtantius, altered the diviſion of Britain, which had been formed by Severus into two provinces only, but which he now divided into three; viz. Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, and Maxima Cæſarienſis. The removal of the imperial ſeat from Rome to Conſtantinople, which happened during this reign, gave the northern nations an opportunity of making ſeveral irruptions into Britain, and emboldened the Picts and Scots to commit many horrid depredations on the ſouthern territories. Six years after the death of Conſtantine, the continued and deſtructive inroads of theſe barbarians, required the preſence of his youngeſt ſon, who reigned in the weſtern empire. Conſtans therefore viſited Britain, A. D. 343. The calamities which the conquered Britons continued to experience, from foreign war and domeſtic tyranny, had been aggravated by the feeble and corrupt adminiſtration of the eunuchs of Conſtantius. The ſums of gold and ſilver which had been liberally tranſmitted for the payment of the troops, were intercepted by the avarice of the commanders; diſcharges, or, at leaſt, exemptions, from the military ſervice, were publicly ſold; the diſtreſs of the ſoldiers, who were injuriouſly deprived of their legal and ſcanty ſubſiſtence, provoked them to frequent deſertion; the nerves of diſcipline were relaxed, and the highways were infeſted with robbers; a fact, which ſeems to have eſcaped the diligence of our Britiſh antiquaries. The oppreſſion of the good, and the impunity of the wicked, equally contributed to diffuſe through the iſland a ſpirit of diſcontent and revolt; and every ambitious ſubject, every deſperate exile, might entertain a reaſonable hope of ſubverting the weak and diſtracted government of the Romans in Britain. The hoſtile tribes of the north, who deteſted the pride and power of the Romans, ſuſpended their domeſtic feuds; and the barbarians of the land and ſea, the Scots, the Picts, and the Saxons, ſpread themſelves, with rapid and irreſiſtible fury, from the wall of Antoninus to the ſhores of Kent. Every production of art and nature, every object of convenience or luxury, which they were incapable of creating by labour, or procuring by trade, had been accumulated in the rich and fruitful province of Britain. "A philoſopher (ſays Gibbon) may deplore the eternal diſcord of the human race, but he will confeſs, that the deſire of ſpoil is a more rational provocation than the vanity of conqueſt." This rapacious ſpirit long continued to inſtigate the poor and hardy Caledonians: and the ſame people, whoſe generous humanity ſeems to inſpire the ſongs of Oſſian, was always diſgraced by a ſavage ignorance of the virtues of peace, and of the laws of war. Their ſouthern neighbours have felt, and perhaps exaggerated, their cruel depredations; and a valiant tribe of Caledonia, the Attacotti, are accuſed, by an eye-witneſs, of delighting in the taſte of human fleſh. When they hunted the woods for prey, it is ſaid, that they attacked the ſhepherd rather than his flock; and that they curiouſly ſelected the moſt delicate and brawny parts, both of males and females, which they prepared for their horrid repaſts. If, in the neighbourhood of the commercial and literary town of Glaſgow, a race of canibals has really exiſted, which is aſſerted in the text of Jerom, and copied by Gibbon, we may contemplate with pleaſure in the preſent period of the Scottiſh hiſtory, the oppoſite extremes of ſavage and civilized life.

During the ſhort reigns of Julian and Jovian, nothing is mentioned, by hiſtorians, concerning the affairs of Britain; but, under Valentinian I. the Picts, Scots, Attacotti, Saxons, and other northern nations, committed ſuch outrages, that the defence, or rather the recovery, of Britain, was entruſted to the abilities of the brave Theodoſius. The exploits of that general, the father of a line of emperors, have been celebrated, with peculiar complacency, by the writers of the age: but his real merit deſerved their applauſe; and his nomination was received in Britain with univerſal joy. He ſeized the favourable moment of navigation, and ſecurely landed his numerous and veteran bands on the Britiſh coaſt, A. D. 367. In his march from Sandwich to London, Theodoſius defeated ſeveral parties of the barbarians, releaſed a multitude of captives, and, after diſtributing to his ſoldiers a ſmall portion of the ſpoil, eſtabliſhed the fame of diſintereſted juſtice, by the reſtitution of the remainder to the rightful proprietors. The citizens of London, who had almoſt deſpaired of their ſafety, threw open their gates; and as ſoon as Theodoſius had obtained the aid of a military lieutenant, and a civil governor, he executed, with wiſdom and vigour, the laborious taſk of the deliverance of Britain. The vagrant ſoldiers were recalled to their ſtandard; an edict of amneſty diſpelled the public apprehenſions; and his cheerful example alleviated the rigour of martial diſcipline. The ſcattered and deſultory warfare of the barbarians, who infeſted the land and ſea, deprived him of the glory of a ſignal victory; but the prudent ſpirit, and conſummate art, of the Roman general were diſplayed in the operations of two campaigns, in the years 368 and 369, which ſucceſſively reſcued every part of the province from the hands of a cruel and rapa-

cious enemy. The peace of the cities, and the ſecurity of the fortifications, were diligently reſtored, by the paternal care of Theodoſius; who with a ſtrong hand confined the trembling Caledonians to the northern angle of the iſland; and perpetuated, by the name and ſettlement of the new province of Valentia, the glories of the reign of Valentinian. The voice of poetry and panegyric may add, perhaps with ſome degree of truth, that the unknown regions of Thule were ſtained with the blood of the Picts; that the oars of Theodoſius daſhed the waves of the Hyperborean ocean; and that the diſtant Orkneys were the ſcene of his naval victory over the Saxon pirates. He then left the province with a fair, as well as ſplendid, reputation, A. D. 370, with the ſatisfaction of having reſtored Britain to perfect tranquillity.

In the joint reign of the ſucceeding emperors, Valentinian II. and Gratian, Maximus uſurped the ſovereignty in Britain. It is not very important to enquire from what cauſes this revolt was produced. Accident is commonly the parent of diſorder; the ſeeds of rebellion had for ſome time been diſſeminated among the legions in the iſland; and the name of Maximus was proclaimed by the tumultuary, but unanimous voice, both of the ſoldiers and of the provincials. The emperor, or the rebel, for his title was not yet aſcertained by fortune, was a native of Spain, the countryman, the fellow-ſoldier, and the rival, of Theodoſius, whoſe elevation he had not ſeen without ſome emotions of envy: the events of his life had long ſince fixed him in Britain; and he is ſaid to have contracted marriage with the daughter of a wealthy lord of Caernarvonſhire. But he was not inveſted with the authority either of governor or general. His abilities, and even his integrity, are flattered by the partial writers of that age. In the midſt of the tumult, he artfully refuſed to aſcend the throne; and ſome credit appears to have been given to his own poſitive declaration, that he was *compelled* to accept the dangerous preſent of the imperial purple.

From the moment that Maximus had violated his allegiance, he could not hope to reign, or even to live, if he confined his ambition within the narrow limits of Britain. He boldly reſolved to prevent the deſigns of Gratian; the youth of Britain crowded to his ſtandard, and he invaded Gaul with a fleet and army, which were long afterwards remembered, as the emigration of a conſiderable part of the Britiſh nation. The whole emigration conſiſted of 30,000 ſoldiers, and 100,000 plebians, who ſettled in Bretagne. The emperor Gratian, in his peaceful reſidence of Paris, was alarmed by their hoſtile approach; and the darts which he idly waſted on lions and bears, might have been employed more honourably againſt the rebels. The armies of Gaul, inſtead of oppoſing the march of Maximus received him with joyful acclamations. The emperor fled towards Lyons, with a train of only three hundred horſe; and, in the cities along the road, where he hoped to find a refuge, or at leaſt a paſſage, he was taught, by cruel experience, that every gate is ſhut againſt the unfortunate. Gratian was amuſed by proteſtations of doubtful fidelity by the perfidious governor of the Lyoneſe, till the arrival of Andragathius, the general of the cavalry of Maximus, put an end to his ſuſpenſe. That ſanguinary officer executed, without remorſe, the orders of the uſurper. Gratian, as he roſe from ſupper, was delivered into the hands of the aſſaſſin; and his body was even denied to the pious entreaties of his brother Valentinian. The uſurper Maximus, however, ſoon after this, met his fate in the plains of Italy, where his head was ſevered from his body by the common ſoldiers in the victorious army of Theodoſius, A.D. 388. Britain, in the mean while, was not forgotten: Theodoſius was aware of the marauding watchfulneſs of the Scots and Picts, and he therefore wiſely counteracted them: theſe warlike nations were kept in awe by Chryſantius, who, being entruſted with the government of the iſland, acquitted himſelf in that capacity with equal juſtice and reputation.

In the early part of the reign of Honorius, A. D. 407, the vigilance of Stilicho, his brave, but ill-fated, general, had ſucceſsfully guarded the iſland of Britain from her inceſſant enemies both of the ocean, the mountains, and the Iriſh coaſt. But thoſe reſtleſs barbarians could not neglect the fair opportunity of the foreign war, when the walls and ſtations of Britain were ſtripped of the Roman troops. If any of the legionaries were permitted to return from the Italian expedition, their report of the court and character of Honorius muſt have tended to diſſolve the bonds of allegiance, and to exaſperate the ſeditious temper of the Britons. The ſpirit of revolt was revived by the capricious violence of the ſoldiers; and the unfortunate, but ambitious, candidates, who were the objects of their choice, were the inſtruments, and at length the victims, of their paſſion. Marcus was the firſt whom, in their phrenzy, they ſet up as the emperor of Britain. They then violated, by the haſty murder of Marcus, the oath of fidelity which they had impoſed on themſelves; and their diſapprobation of his manners may ſeem to inſcribe an honourable epitaph on his tomb. Gratian, another unfortunate Roman, was the next whom they adorned with the title of king of Britain; and, at the end of four months, Gratian experienced the fate of his predeceſſor. The memory of the great Conſtantine, whom the Britiſh legions had given to the church and to the empire, ſuggeſted the ſingular motive of their third choice. They diſcovered in the ranks a private ſoldier of the *name* of Conſtantine, and their impetuous levity had already ſeated him on the throne, before they perceived his incapacity to govern. Yet the authority of Conſtantine was leſs precarious, and his government was more ſucceſsful, than the tranſient reigns of Marcus and of Gratian. He nevertheleſs met a ſimilar fate with his two predeceſſors, and was put to death as a traitor.

The Britons, during the bloody war of the laſt king they had ſet up, with the army of Honorius, became an eaſy prey to their old enemies the Scots, Picts, and other northern nations, who ravaged the country with fire and ſword, and reduced the natives to the moſt deplorable condition. Supplications were now made to Honorius; and one legion was ſent over, which defeated the invaders with great ſlaughter, and chaſed them into their ancient limits: but theſe auxiliaries had no ſooner returned to the continent, than the barbarians poured in upon the Britiſh territories like an overwhelming torrent, and revenged their late defeat by marking their progreſs with ſlaughter, rapine, and deſolation. The Britons again made application to Rome, and again obtained the aſſiſtance of one legion, which proved effectual for their relief: but Honorius, fatigued with theſe repeated expeditions, and reduced to extremities at home, informed the Britons that they muſt no longer look to Rome for ſuccour; he exhorted them to provide for their own ſecurity by an exertion of their ancient bravery; and urged the neceſſity of maintaining their independence againſt an enemy, whoſe ſtrength was not, in reality, ſuperior to their own. He then relinquiſhed all farther claim to Britain, after the greateſt part of it had been ſubject to the Roman empire for the ſpace of near four hundred years.

This revolution diſſolved the artificial fabric of the civil and military government, which had been eſtabliſhed at the expence of much blood and treaſure, in Britain; and the independent country, during a period of forty years, till the deſcent of the Saxons, appears to have been ruled by the authority of the clergy, the nobles, and the municipal towns. Zoſimus, who alone has preſerved the memory of this ſingular event, very accurately obſerves, that the letters of Honorius were addreſſed to the *cities* of Britain. Under the protection of the Romans, ninety-two conſiderable towns had ariſen in the ſeveral parts of the province; and, among theſe, thirty-three

three cities were diſtinguiſhed above the reſt by their ſuperior privileges and importance. Each of theſe cities, as in all the other juriſdictions of the empire, formed a legal corporation, for the purpoſe of regulating their domeſtic policy; and the powers of municipal government were diſtributed among annual magiſtrates, a ſelect ſenate, and the aſſembly of the people, according to the old model of the Roman conſtitution. The management of a common revenue, the exerciſe of civil and criminal juriſdiction, and the habits of public counſel and command, were inherent to theſe petty republics; and when they aſſerted their independence, the youth of the city, and of the adjacent diſtricts, would naturally range themſelves under the ſtandard of the magiſtrate. But the deſire of obtaining the advantages, and of eſcaping the burthens, of a political ſociety, is a perpetual and inexhauſtible ſource of diſcord; nor can it reaſonably be preſumed, that the reſtoration of Britiſh freedom was exempt from tumult and faction.

The juriſdiction of each city over the adjacent country, was ſupported by the patrimonial influence of the principal ſenators; and the ſmaller towns, the villages, and the proprietors of land, conſulted their own ſafety by adhering to the ſhelter of theſe riſing republics. The ſphere of their attraction was proportioned to the reſpective degrees of their wealth and populouſneſs; but the hereditary lords of ample poſſeſſions, who were not oppreſſed by the neighbourhood of any powerful city, aſpired to the rank of independent princes, and boldly exerciſed the rights of peace and war. The gardens and villas, which exhibited ſome faint imitation of Roman elegance, would ſoon be converted into ſtrong caſtles, the refuge, in time of danger, of the adjacent country: the produce of the land was applied to purchaſe arms and horſes; to maintain a military force of ſlaves, of peaſants, and of licentious followers; and the chieftain might aſſume, within his own domain, the powers of a civil magiſtrate. Several of theſe Britiſh chiefs might be the genuine poſterity of their ancient kings; and many more would be tempted to adopt this honourable genealogy, and to vindicate their hereditary claims, ſo long ſuſpended by the uſurpation of the Cæſars. Their ſituation and their hopes would diſpoſe them to affect the dreſs, the language, and the cuſtoms, of their anceſtors. If the princes of Britain relapſed into barbariſm, while the cities ſtudiouſly preſerved the laws and manners of Rome, the whole iſland muſt have been gradually divided by the diſtinction of two national parties; again broken into a thouſand ſubdiviſions of war and faction, by the various provocations of intereſt and reſentment. The public ſtrength, inſtead of being united againſt a foreign enemy, was thus conſumed in obſcure and inteſtine quarrels; and the perſonal merit which had placed a ſucceſsful leader at the head of his equals, might enable him to ſubdue the freedom of ſome neighbouring cities; and to claim a rank among the tyrants, who infeſted Britain after the diſſolution of the Roman government.

The Britiſh church might at that time be compoſed of thirty or forty biſhops, with an adequate proportion of the inferior clergy; and the want of riches (for they ſeem to have been very poor) would compel them to deſerve the public eſteem, by a decent and exemplary behaviour. The intereſt, as well as the temper, of the clergy was favourable to the peace and union of their diſtracted country; thoſe ſalutary leſſons might be frequently inculcated in their popular diſcourſes; and the epiſcopal ſynods were the only councils that could pretend to the weight and authority of a national aſſembly. In ſuch councils, where the princes and magiſtrates ſat promiſcuouſly with the biſhops, and the important affairs of the ſtate, as well as of the church, might be freely debated; differences reconciled, alliances formed, contributions impoſed, wiſe reſolutions concerted, and ſometimes executed; and there is reaſon to believe, that, in moments of extreme danger, a *pendragon*, or dictator, was elected by the general conſent of the Britons. Theſe paſtoral cares, ſo worthy of the epiſcopal character, were interrupted, however, by zeal and ſuperſtition; and the Britiſh clergy inceſſantly laboured to eradicate the Pelagian hereſy, which they abhorred, as the peculiar diſgrace of their native country. See PELAGIUS.

About forty years after the diſſolution of the Roman government, Vortigern appears to have obtained the ſupreme command of the princes and cities of Britain. That unfortunate monarch has been almoſt unanimouſly condemned for the weak and miſchievous policy of inviting a formidable ſtranger, to repel the vexatious inroads of a domeſtic foe. His ambaſſadors are diſpatched, by the graveſt hiſtorians, to the coaſt of Germany; they addreſs a pathetic oration to the general aſſembly of the Saxons, and thoſe warlike people reſolve to aſſiſt with a fleet and army the ſuppliants of a diſtant and unknown iſland. If Britain had, indeed, been *unknown* to the Saxons, the meaſure of its calamities would have been leſs complete. But the ſtrength of the Roman government could not always guard the maritime province againſt the pirates of Germany: the independent and divided ſtates were expoſed to their attacks; and the Saxons often joined the Scots and the Picts, in a tacit, or expreſs, confederacy of rapine and deſtruction. Vortigern could only balance the various perils, which aſſaulted on every ſide his throne and his people; and his policy may deſerve either praiſe or excuſe, if he preferred the alliance of thoſe barbarians, whoſe naval power rendered them the moſt dangerous enemies, and the moſt ſerviceable allies. Hengiſt and Horſa, as they ranged along the eaſtern coaſt, with three ſhips, were engaged, by the promiſe of an ample ſtipend, to embrace the defence of Britain; and their intrepid valour ſoon delivered the country from the Caledonian invaders. The Iſle of Thanet, a ſecure and fertile diſtrict, was allotted for the reſidence of theſe German auxiliaries, and they were ſupplied, according to the treaty, with a plentiful allowance of clothing and proviſions. This favourable reception encouraged five thouſand freſh warriors to embark with their families in ſeventeen veſſels, and the infant power of Hengiſt was fortified by this ſtrong and ſeaſonable reinforcement. The crafty barbarian ſuggeſted to Vortigern the obvious advantage of fixing, in the neighbourhood of the Picts, a colony of faithful allies: a third fleet of forty ſhips, under the command of his ſon and nephew, then ſailed from Germany, ravaged the Orkneys, and diſembarked a new army on the coaſt of Northumberland. It was eaſy to foreſee, but it was impoſſible to prevent, the impending evils. The two nations were ſoon divided and exaſperated by mutual jealouſies. The Saxons magnified all that they had done and ſuffered in the cauſe of an ungrateful people; while the Britons regretted the liberal rewards which could not ſatisfy the avarice of thoſe aſpiring mercenaries. The cauſes of fear and hatred were thus inflamed into an irreconcileable quarrel.

Hengiſt, who had in view the conqueſt of Britain, exhorted his countrymen to embrace the favourable opportunity: he painted in lively colours the fertility of the ſoil, the wealth of the cities, the puſillanimous temper of the natives, and the convenient ſituation of a ſpacious iſland, acceſſible on all ſides to the Saxon fleets. The ſucceſſive colonies which iſſued, in the period of a century, from the mouths of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the Rhine, were principally compoſed of three tribes, or nations of Germany, the Jutes, the old Saxons, and the Angles. The Jutes, who fought under the peculiar banner of Hengiſt, aſſumed the merit of leading their countrymen in the paths of glory, and of erecting the firſt independent kingdom. The fame of the enterpriſe was attributed to the primitive Saxons; and the common laws and language of the conquerors are deſcribed by the national appellation of a people, which, at the end of four hundred years, produced the firſt monarchs of South Britain. The Angles were diſtinguiſhed by their numbers and

and their ſucceſs; and they claimed the honour of fixing a perpetual name on the country, of which they occupied the moſt ample portion. Each intrepid chieftain, according to the meaſure of his fame and fortunes, aſſembled his followers; equipped a fleet of veſſels; choſe the place of the attack; and conducted his ſubſequent operations according to the events of the war, and the dictates of his private intereſt. In the invaſion of Britain many heroes were vanquiſhed and fell; but only ſeven victorious leaders aſſumed, or at leaſt maintained, the title of kings. Seven independent thrones, the Saxon heptarchy, were founded by the conquerors; and ſeven families, one of which has been continued, by female ſucceſſion, to our preſent ſovereign, derived their equal and ſacred lineage from Woden, their provincial god of war. It has been pretended, that this republic of kings was moderated by a general council and a ſupreme magiſtrate. But ſuch an artificial ſcheme of policy is repugnant to the rude and turbulent ſpirit of the Saxons: their laws are ſilent; and their imperfect annals afford only a dark and bloody proſpect of inteſtine diſcord.

Hiſtorians have ſtrangely diſfigured the ſtate of Britain at the time of its ſeparation from the Roman empire. Gildas deſcribes in florid language the improvements of agriculture, the foreign trade which flowed with every tide into the Thames and the Severn, the ſolid and lofty conſtruction of public and private edifices: he accuſes the ſinful luxury of the Britiſh people; of a people, according to the ſame writer, *ignorant* of the moſt ſimple arts, and incapable, without the aid of the Romans, of providing walls of ſtone, or of making weapons of iron for the defence of their native land! But the fact is, that under the long dominion of the emperors, Britain had been inſenſibly moulded into the elegant and ſervile form of a Roman province, whoſe ſafety was entruſted to a foreign power. The ſubjects of Honorius contemplated their new freedom with ſurpriſe and terror; they were left deſtitute of any civil or military conſtitution; and their uncertain rulers wanted either ſkill, or courage, or authority, to direct the public force againſt the common enemy. So averſe were the Britons, or ſo completely eſtranged, from the enjoyment of their ancient liberty, that Honorius expreſſed his ſurpriſe at being obliged to *compel* the reluctant province to accept a privilege, which it ought moſt ardently to have ſolicited. Inſtead of which, the Britons ſeem to have regarded the gift of a free conſtitution as the laſt and moſt cruel evil that could befal them! In ſuch a ſtate of things, the introduction of the Saxons betrayed their weakneſs, and degraded the character both of the prince and people. Their conſternation magnified the danger; the want of union diminiſhed their reſources; and the madneſs of civil factions was more ſolicitous to accuſe, than to remedy, the evils, which they imputed to the miſconduct of their adverſaries. Yet the Britons were ſurely not ignorant; they could not be ignorant of the manufacture or the uſe of arms: the ſucceſſive and diſorderly attacks of the Saxons allowed them to recover from their amazement, and the proſperous or adverſe events of the war added diſcipline and experience to their native valour.

While the continent of Europe and Africa yielded, without reſiſtance, to the barbarians, the Britiſh iſland, alone and unaided, maintained a long, a vigorous, though an unſucceſsful, ſtruggle, againſt the formidable pirates, who, almoſt at the ſame inſtant, aſſaulted the northern, the eaſtern, and the ſouthern, coaſts. The cities which had been fortified with ſkill, were defended with reſolution; the advantages of ground, hills, foreſts, and moraſſes, were diligently improved by the inhabitants; the conqueſt of each diſtrict was purchaſed with blood; and the defeats of the Saxons are ſtrongly atteſted by the diſcreet ſilence of their own annaliſt. Hengiſt might hope to achieve the conqueſt of Britain; but his ambition, in an active reign of thirty-five years, was confined only to the poſſeſſion of Kent; and the numerous colony which he had planted in the north, was extirpated by the ſword of the Britons. The life of Cerdic, one of the braveſt of the children of Woden, was conſumed in the conqueſt of Hampſhire and the Iſle of Wight; and the loſs which he ſuſtained in the battle of Mount Badon, reduced him to a ſtate of inglorious repoſe. Kenric, his valiant ſon, advanced into Wiltſhire; beſieged Sarum, at that time ſeated on a commanding eminence; and vanquiſhed an army which advanced to the relief of the city. In the ſubſequent battle of Beran-birig, near Marlborough, his Britiſh enemies diſplayed their military ſcience. Their troops were formed in three lines; each line conſiſted of three diſtinct bodies; and the cavalry, the archers, and the pikemen, were diſtributed according to the principles of Roman tactics. The Saxons charged in one weighty column, boldly encountered with their ſhort ſwords the long lances of the Britons, and maintained an equal conflict till the approach of night. Two deciſive victories, the death of three Britiſh kings, and the reduction of Cirenceſter, Bath, and Glouceſter, eſtabliſhed the fame and power of Ceaulin, the grandſon of Cerdic, who carried his victorious arms to the banks of the Severn.

After a war of an hundred years, the independent Britons ſtill occupied the whole extent of the weſtern coaſt, from the wall of Antoninus to the extreme promontory of Cornwall; and the principal cities of the inland country ſtill oppoſed the arms of the barbarians. Reſiſtance became more languid, as the number and boldneſs of the aſſailants continually increaſed. Winning their way by ſlow and painful efforts, the Saxons, the Angles, and their various confederates, advanced from the north, from the eaſt, and from the ſouth, till their victorious banners were united in the center of the iſland. Beyond the Severn the Britons ſtill aſſerted their national freedom, which ſurvived even the monarchy of the Saxons. The braveſt warriors who preferred exile to ſlavery, found a ſecure refuge in the mountains of Wales: the reluctant ſubmiſſion of Cornwall was delayed for ſome ages; and a band of fugitives acquired a ſettlement in Gaul, by their own valour, or the liberality of the Merovingian kings. The weſtern angle of Armorica acquired the new appellations of *Cornwall* and the *Leſſer Britain*; and the vacant lands of the Oſiſmii were filled by the people of this iſland, who, under the authority of their counts and biſhops, preſerved the laws and language of their anceſtors. To the feeble deſcendants of Clovis and Charlemagne, the Britons of Armorica refuſed the cuſtomary tribute, ſubdued the neighbouring dioceſes of Vannes, Rennes, and Nantes, and formed the powerful, though vaſſal, ſtate of Bretagne, which was not united to the crown of France till 1532.

In a century of perpetual, or at leaſt implacable, war, much courage, and ſome ſkill, muſt have been exerted for the defence of Britain. Yet if the memory of its champions is almoſt buried in oblivion, we need not repine; ſince every age, however deſtitute of ſcience or virtue, ſufficiently abounds with acts of blood and military renown. The tomb of Vortimer, the ſon of Vortigern, was erected on the margin of the ſea ſhore, as a landmark formidable to the Saxons, whom he had thrice vanquiſhed in the fields of Kent. Ambroſius Aurelian was a Briton deſcended from a noble family of Romans; his modeſty was equal to his valour, and his valour, till the laſt fatal action, was crowned with ſplendid ſucceſs. But every Britiſh name is effaced by the illuſtrious name of *Arthur*, the hereditary prince of the Silures, in South Wales, and the elective king or general of the nation. According to the moſt rational account, he defeated, in twelve ſucceſſive battles, the Angles of the north, and the Saxons of the weſt; but the declining age of the hero was embittered by popular ingratitude and domeſtic miſfortunes. The events of his life are leſs intereſting than the ſingular revolutions of his fame. During a period of five hundred years the tradition of his exploits was preſerved, and rudely embelliſhed, by the obſcure bards of

Wales and Armorica, who were odious to the Saxons, and unknown to the reſt of mankind. Every nation embraced and adorned the popular romance of Arthur, and his Knights of the Round Table: their names were celebrated in Greece and Italy; and the voluminous tales of ſir Lancelot and ſir Triſtram were devoutly ſtudied by the princes and nobles of antiquity.

Reſiſtance, if it cannot avert, muſt increaſe the miſeries of conqueſt; and conqueſt has never appeared more dreadful and deſtructive than in the hands of the Saxons, who hated the valour of their enemies, diſdained the faith of treaties, and violated, without remorſe, the moſt ſacred objects of Chriſtian worſhip. The fields of battle might be traced, almoſt in every diſtrict, by monuments of bones; the fragments of falling towers were ſtained with blood; the Britons, without diſtinction of age or ſex, were maſſacred; and the repetition of ſuch calamities was frequent and familiar. The arts and religion, the laws and language, which the Romans had ſo carefully planted in Britain, were extirpated by their ſavage ſucceſſors. After the deſtruction of the principal churches, the biſhops, who had declined the crown of martyrdom, retired with the holy relics into Wales and Armorica; the remains of their flocks were left deſtitute; the practice, and even the remembrance, of Chriſtianity were aboliſhed. The proceedings of civil and criminal juriſdiction, the titles of honour, the forms of office, the ranks of ſociety, and even the domeſtic rights of marriage, teſtament, and inheritance, were finally ſuppreſſed; and the indiſcriminate crowd of noble and plebeian ſlaves was governed by the traditionary cuſtoms, which had been coarſely framed for the ſhepherds and pirates of Germany. The language of ſcience, of buſineſs, and of converſation, which had been introduced by the Romans, was loſt in one general deſolation.

Out of this ruin of the Roman empire in Britain aroſe the ſeven petty ſtates or kingdoms of the Saxons, which conſtitutes a memorable epoch in its hiſtory. Hengiſt kept his ground in the moſt opulent and commercial part of the country, and founded the kingdom of Kent, fixing his reſidence at Canterbury, and leaving his newly-acquired dominions to his poſterity, A. D. 488. A body of his countrymen, under the command of Ælla and his three ſons, had alſo laid the foundation of the kingdom of the South Saxons, which included Surry and Suſſex, and extended to the frontiers of Kent. Another tribe of Saxons, under the command of Cerdic and his ſon Kenric, had landed in the weſt, and from thence took the name of Weſt Saxons. Their kingdom, called Weſſex, included the counties of Cornwall, Devonſhire, Dorſet, Somerſet, Hants, Wilts, Berks, and the Iſle of Wight. It was in oppoſing this Saxon invader that the celebrated prince Arthur acquired his fame.

Freſh ſwarms of adventurers ſtill pouring over from Germany, one body of them, under the command of Uffa, A. D. 575, ſeized upon the counties of Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk, with the iſle of Ely, and gave their commander the title of king of the Eaſt Angles, which was the fourth Saxon kingdom founded in Britain. Another body of theſe invaders formed a kingdom under the title of Eſſex, or Eaſt Saxony, comprehending Eſſex, Middleſex, and part of Hertfordſhire, A. D. 585. This kingdom, which had been diſmembered from that of Kent, formed the fifth Saxon principality founded in Britain. The kingdom of Mercia was the ſixth which was eſtabliſhed by theſe foreign depredators, comprehending all the middle counties, from the banks of the Severn to the frontiers of the two laſt-named diſtricts: viz. Glouceſter, Hereford, Warwick, Worceſter, Leiceſter, Rutland, Northampton, Lincoln, Huntingdon, Bedford, Buckingham, Oxford, Stafford, Derby, Salop, Nottingham, and the reſt of Hertfordſhire. The ſeventh kingdom which they obtained was that of Northumberland, one of the moſt powerful and extenſive of them all. This was formed from the union of two ſmaller Saxon kingdoms, the one, called Bernicia, containing the preſent county of Northumberland, quite up to the Frith of Edinburgh, and the biſhopric of Durham; the ſubjects of the other, called the Deiri, extending themſelves over Lancaſhire, Yorkſhire, Cumberland, and Weſtmoreland. Theſe kingdoms were united in the perſon of Ethelfrid, king of Northumberland, by the expulſion of Edwin, his brother-in-law, from the kingdom of the Deiri, and the ſeizure of his dominions. In this manner the ſeven kingdoms were eſtabliſhed in Britain, which were afterwards known in hiſtory by the name of the Saxon heptarchy.

This ſtrange ſubverſion of the populous ſtate and improving condition of Britain under the Roman juriſprudence, has perſuaded hiſtorians, and even philoſophers, that the provincials of Britain were totally extirminated; and that the vacant land was again peopled by the perpetual influx, and rapid increaſe, of the German colonies. A partial population doubtleſs ſupplied, in a conſiderable degree, the Engliſh who were driven from the coaſt; but neither reaſon nor facts can juſtify the unnatural ſuppoſition that the Saxons remained alone in the country which they had ſubdued. After the ſanguinary barbarians had ſecured their dominion, it was their intereſt to preſerve the peaſants, as well as the cattle, of the unreſiſting country, and to encourage the trade and population of the ſubjugated natives, in all the interior parts of the iſland.

When the Saxons had eſtabliſhed their government in all the deſirable parts of the iſland, and having no longer the Britons to contend with, they began to quarrel among themſelves. A country divided into a number of petty independent principalities, muſt ever be ſubject to contention, as jealouſy and ambition have more frequent incentives to operate. The wars and revolutions of theſe little rival ſtates were extremely numerous and ſanguinary; and the accounts of them have ſwelled the hiſtoric page. But theſe accounts are ſo confuſedly written, the materials ſo unintereſting, and filled with ſuch improbable adventures, that a repetition of them can neither gratify our curioſity, nor augment our knowledge.

The Chriſtian religion never ſuffered more perſecution than it now underwent in Britain, from the barbarity of the Saxon pagans, who maſſacred all thoſe whom they found profeſſing Chriſtianity. This deplorable ſtate of theology in Britain was firſt taken into conſideration by pope Gregory, ſurnamed Gregory the Great, who undertook to ſend miſſionaries to reclaim the morals of the conquerors. He named St. Auguſtine, and others of the ſame fraternity, to accept this miſſion in Britain. It was not, however, without ſome reluctance, that they undertook ſo dangerous a taſk; but ſome favourable circumſtances ſeemed providentially to prepare the way for their arrival. Ethelbert, king of Kent, in his father's life-time, had married Bertha, the only daughter of Caribert, king of Paris, one of the deſcendents of Clovis, king of Gaul. But before he was admitted to this alliance, he was obliged to ſtipulate that this princeſs ſhould enjoy the free exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion. She was therefore attended to Canterbury, the place of her reſidence, by Luidhard, a Gauliſh prelate, who officiated in a church dedicated to St. Martin, which had been built by the Romans, near the walls of Canterbury. The exemplary conduct of this primitive biſhop, added to the queen's learning and zeal, made very ſtrong impreſſions upon the king, as well as on the reſt of his ſubjects, in favour of Chriſtianity. Auguſtine, therefore, on his firſt landing in the Iſle of Thanet, ſent one of his interpreters to the Kentiſh king, declaring the nature of his miſſion. The king immediately ordered him to be furniſhed with neceſſaries, and even viſited him in perſon. Auguſtine, encouraged by this favourable reception, proceeded with redoubled zeal to preach the goſpel. So much aſſiduity, together with the earneſtneſs of his addreſs, the auſterity of his life, and the example of his followers, at length powerfully operated. The king openly eſpouſed the Chriſtian faith, while his example wrought ſo ſucceſsfully on his ſubjects, that numbers of them came voluntarily to be baptiſed. The heathen temples were now changed into places of Chriſtian wor-

ſhip,

ſhip, and ſuch churches as had been ſuffered to decay were repaired. The more to facilitate the reception of Chriſtianity, the pope enjoined his miſſioner to remove the pagan idols, but not to throw down the altars, obſerving, that the people would be allured to frequent thoſe places which they had formerly been accuſtomed to revere. He alſo permitted thoſe feats and cheerful entertainments which they had been formerly accuſtomed to celebrate near the places of their idolatrous worſhip. The people thus exchanged their ancient opinions with readineſs, ſince they found themſelves indulged in thoſe innocent relaxations which are only immoral when carried to exceſs. Auguſtine was conſecrated archbiſhop of Canterbury, endowed with authority over all the Britiſh churches, and his aſſociates, having ſpread themſelves throughout the country, ſoon completed that converſion which was ſo happily begun.

The kingdom of the heptarchy which next embraced the Chriſtian faith, was that of Northumberland. Edwin, a wiſe, brave, and active, prince, then king of that diſtrict, was married to Ethelburga, the daughter of Ethelbert, who had been ſo lately converted. This princeſs, emulating the glory of her mother, who had been the inſtrument of converting her huſband and his ſubjects to Chriſtianity, carried Paulinus, a learned biſhop, with her into Northumberland, having previouſly ſtipulated for the free exerciſe of her religion. Edwin, whom his queen unceaſingly ſolicited to embrace Chriſtianity, for a long time heſitated on the propoſal, willing to examine its doctrines before he declared in their favour. Accordingly he held ſeveral conferences with Paulinus, diſputed with his counſellors, meditated alone, and, after a ſerious diſcuſſion, declared himſelf a Chriſtian. The high prieſt alſo of the pagan ſuperſtition ſoon after declaring himſelf a convert to the arguments of Paulinus, the whole body of the people unanimouſly followed their example. The authority of Edwin, who was thus converted, ſoon after prevailed upon Earpwold, king of the Eaſt Angles, alſo to embrace Chriſtianity. This monarch, however, after the death of Edwin, relapſed into his former idolatry, at the perſuaſion of his wife. But upon his deceaſe, Sigebert, his half brother, who had been educated in France, reſtored Chriſtianity, and began to introduce literature among the Angles.

Mercia, the moſt powerful kingdom of all the Saxon heptarchy, owed its converſion, like the former, to a woman. The wife of Peada, who was the daughter of Oſwy, king of Northumberland, having been bred in the Chriſtian faith, employed her influence in converting her huſband and his ſubjects. But it ſeems the new religion was attended with ſmall influence on the manners of that fierce people, as we find Otto, one of their new-converted kings, in a few reigns after, treacherouſly deſtroying Ethelbert, king of the Eaſt Angles, at an entertainment to which he had been invited. However, to make atonement for this tranſgreſſion, we find him paying great court to the clergy, giving the tenth of his goods to the church, and making a pilgrimage to Rome, where his riches, more than his penitence, procured him the papal abſolution. It was upon this occaſion, the better to ingratiate himſelf with the pope, that he engaged to pay him a yearly donation for the ſupport of an Engliſh college at Rome; and, in order to raiſe the ſum, he impoſed a tax of a penny on each houſe poſſeſſed of thirty pence a-year. This impoſition being afterwards generally levied throughout the kingdom, went by the name of *Peter-pence*, and in ſucceeding times gave riſe to many eccleſiaſtical abuſes.

In the kingdom of Eſſex, Sebert, who was nephew to Ethelbert, king of Kent, was alſo prevailed upon by his uncle to embrace the Chriſtian religion. His ſons, however, relapſed into paganiſm and idolatry, and baniſhed Melitus, the Chriſtian biſhop, from their territories, becauſe he refuſed to let them eat the white bread which was diſtributed at the communion. But Chriſtianity was reſtored two or three reigns after, by Sigebert the Good; and ſuch was the influence of its doctrines upon Offa, the third in ſucceſſion from him, that he alſo went upon a pilgrimage to Rome, and ſhut himſelf up during the reſt of his life in a cloiſter.

We know but little of the propagation of Chriſtianity in the kingdom of Suſſex; but this being the ſmalleſt principality of the Saxon heptarchy, it is probable that it was governed in its opinions by ſome of its more powerful neighbours. It is ſaid, that, during the reign of Ciſſa, one of its kings, which continued ſeventy-ſix years, the kingdom fell into a total dependence upon that of Weſſex, and to this it is probable that it owed its converſion. The kingdom of Weſſex, which eventually ſwallowed up all the reſt, deſerves more particular attention. This principality, which, as already related, was founded by Cerdic, was, of all the Saxon eſtabliſhments in Britain, the moſt active and warlike. The great oppoſition the invaders of this province originally met with from the natives, ſerved to carry their martial ſpirit to the higheſt pitch. Ceaulin, a prince equally ambitious and enterpriſing, not ſatisfied with conqueſts over the Britons, attacked the Saxons themſelves, till, becoming terrible to all, he provoked a general confederacy againſt him; ſo that he was at laſt expelled the throne, and died in exile and miſery. His two ſons ſucceeded; and, after a ſucceſſion of two more, Kynegils inherited the crown. This prince embraced Chriſtianity through the perſuaſion of Oſwald, the king of Northumberland, his ſon-in-law. After ſome ſucceeding obſcure reigns, Ceodwalla aſcended the throne, an enterpriſing, warlike, and ſucceſsful, prince. He ſubdued entirely the kingdom of Suſſex, and annexed it to his own dominions. He made alſo ſome attempts upon Kent, but was repulſed with vigour. Ina, his ſucceſſor, was the moſt renowned and illuſtrious of all the kings who reigned during the heptarchy. This monarch inherited all the military virtues of Ceodwalla, improved by policy, juſtice, and prudence. He made war upon the Britons, who yet remained in Somerſetſhire; and having totally ſubdued that province, he treated the vanquiſhed with a humanity before unknown to the Saxon conquerors. In leſs than a year after he had aſcended the throne of Weſſex, he was declared monarch of the Anglo-Saxons, a remarkable proof of the great character he had acquired. He compiled a body of laws, which ſerved as the ground-work of thoſe which were afterwards publiſhed by Alfred. He alſo aſſembled a general council of the clergy, in which it was determined, that all churches, monaſteries, and places of religious worſhip, which had gone to decay, ſhould be rebuilt or repaired. At length, after a diſtinguiſhed reign of thirty-ſeven years, and in the decline of life, he made a pilgrimage to Rome; and, on his return, he ſhut himſelf up in a cloiſter, where he died. To him ſucceeded Oſwald, Cudred, Sigebert, Cenulph, and Brithric; all theſe claiming the crown, not entirely by hereditary right, nor yet totally rejecting their family pretenſions.

It was in the reign of the laſt-named monarch, that Egbert, a grand nephew of king Ina, began to grow popular among the Weſt Saxons, both on account of his family and perſonal accompliſhments. Being ſenſible, however, of the danger of popularity under ſuch a jealous monarch as Brithric, he withdrew ſecretly into France, to the court of Charlemagne, the moſt celebrious prince in Europe. This was a ſchool in which young Egbert failed not to make a rapid proficiency; and he ſoon acquired ſuch accompliſhments, both in arts and in arms, as raiſed him greatly ſuperior to any of his countrymen at home. Nor was it long before this prince had an opportunity of diſplaying his natural and acquired talents; for, Brithric being poiſoned by his wife Eadburga, the nobility recalled him from France, in order to fill the throne of his anceſtors. About that time alſo, a fortunate concurrence of events ſeemed to prepare the way for his becoming ſole monarch of the whole country. In all the kingdoms of the heptarchy, an exact rule of ſucceſſion was but little

regarded; while, at the ſame time, family pretenſions were not laid aſide. Every perſon of the collateral line had an equal claim to aſſert his right as thoſe who claimed by direct deſcent; ſo that the reigning monarch was under continual apprehenſions from the princes of the blood, whom he was taught to conſider as rivals, and whoſe death alone could enſure him tranquillity. From this cauſe, together with the monkiſh fancy princes then had of retiring to monaſteries, and the high opinion of merit attending the preſervation of chaſtity, even in a married ſtate; from theſe concurrent cauſes the royal families had been nearly extinguiſhed in all the kingdoms, except that of Weſſex. Thus Egbert was the only ſurviving deſcendant of thoſe conquerors who boaſted their deſcent from Woden; and conſequently, beſide his perſonal merit, he had hereditary pretenſions to the throne of the united kingdoms. It is indeed probable that he had already planned the union of the heptarchy; but, in order to avert the ſuſpicions of the neighbouring ſtates, he attacked the unconquered Britons in Cornwall, and continued to act as mediator among the Saxon princes, whoſe differences were become almoſt irreconcileable. His moderation in theſe good offices, the prudence he manifeſted in his own government, and his known capacity in the affairs of war and peace, procured him ſuch a degree of reputation, that he was ſoon conſidered as the chief of the Saxon heptarchy.

But his ambition was not to be ſatisfied with a mere nominal ſuperiority; he ſtill aimed at breaking down all diſtinctions, and uniting theſe petty ſtates into one great and flouriſhing kingdom. The king of Mercia was the firſt who furniſhed him with a pretext for recovering the part of his dominions which had formerly been diſmembered by that ſtate. Beornulf, the monarch of that country, who had long aimed at the ſovereignty over the heptarchy, taking advantage of Egbert's abſence, invaded his dominions with a numerous army, compoſed of the flower of his country. Egbert was not remiſs in marching to oppoſe him, with a body of troops leſs numerous than thoſe of Beornulf, but more brave and reſolute. Both armies met at Wilton, and a battle enſuing, the Mercians were defeated with terrible ſlaughter.

In the mean time, the victorious Egbert purſued his conqueſt into the enemies' country; and he diſpatched his eldeſt ſon, Ethelwolf, with an army, into the kingdom of Kent, who ſoon made himſelf maſter of that nation, and expelled Baldred, their monarch, to whom his ſubjects had paid a very unwilling obedience. The Eaſt Saxons alſo, and part of Surry, diſſatisfied with their ſubjection to the Mercians, readily ſubmitted to Egbert; nor were the Eaſt Angles backward in ſending ambaſſadors to crave his protection and aſſiſtance, againſt that nation whoſe yoke they had for ſome time endured, and were reſolved no longer to bear. The Mercian king, attempting to repreſs their defection, was defeated and ſlain; and two years after, Ludecan, his ſucceſſor, experienced the ſame fate. Withalf, one of their coldermen, ſoon after put himſelf at their head, but being driven from province to province by the invincible Egbert, he was, at laſt, obliged to take ſhelter in the abbey of Croyland, while Egbert made himſelf maſter of the whole kingdom of Mercia. However, in order to ſeduce that people to his dominion, he permitted Withalf to govern the kingdom as a vaſſal, tributary under him; thus, at once ſatisfying his ambition, and flattering the people with an appearance of their former government.

The king of Northumberland was the laſt that ſubmitted to his authority. This ſtate had been long haraſſed by civil wars and uſurpations; all order had been deſtroyed among the people, and the kingdom was weakened to ſuch a degree, that it was in no condition to withſtand ſo formidable an invader as Egbert. The inhabitants, therefore, unable to reſiſt his power, and deſirous of poſſeſſing ſome eſtabliſhed form of government, cheerfully ſent deputies, who ſubmitted to his authority, and expreſſed their allegiance to him as their ſovereign. By this ſubmiſſion, all the kingdoms of the heptarchy were united under his command; but, to give ſplendour to his authority, a general council of the clergy and laity was ſummoned at Wincheſter, where he was ſolemnly crowned king of ENGLAND, by which name the united nations have been from thenceforth called.

Thus, about four hundred years from the firſt arrival of the Saxons in Britain, A. D. 827, the prudence and policy of Egbert united all the kingdoms of the heptarchy into one great and formidable ſtate; but to introduce knowledge and arts amongſt the inhabitants was a much more arduous taſk. Chriſtianity had not hitherto baniſhed their ignorance, or ſoftened the ferocity of their manners; credulity and ſuperſtition had accompanied the doctrines of Rome; and the reverence towards ſaints and relics ſeems almoſt to have ſupplanted the adoration even of the Supreme Being. Monaſtic obſervances were eſteemed more meritorious than the active virtues; and bounty to the church atoned for every violence againſt ſociety. The ſacerdotal habit was the only object of reſpect; hence the nobility preferred the ſecurity and ſloth of the cloiſter to the tumult and glory of war; and the kings, impoveriſhed by the continual benefactions to the church, were neither able to reward valour, nor retained influence to ſupport their government. Another inconvenience attended this corrupt ſtate of Chriſtianity: the Saxons were taught by the monks a profound veneration for the holy ſee; and the blindneſs and ſubmiſſive diſpoſition of the people encouraged the ſucceſſors of St. Peter to advance every day in their encroachments on the independence of the Engliſh church. In the eighth century, Wilfrid, biſhop of Lindisferne, the ſole prelate of the Northumbrian kingdom, appealed to Rome againſt the deciſions of an Engliſh ſynod, and thus laid the foundation of the papal pretenſions, which were afterwards carried to the moſt diſgraceful heights, and ſubmitted to with the moſt abject venality.

FROM EGBERT, THE FIRST KING OF ENGLAND, TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

Scarcely had Egbert ſeated himſelf on the united throne of the ſeven kingdoms of England, than the iſland found itſelf expoſed to freſh invaſions. In the year 819, a mighty ſwarm of thoſe nations bordering on the Baltic, began, under the denomination of Danes and Normans, to infeſt the weſtern coaſts of Europe, and to fill all places, wherever they came, with ſlaughter and devaſtation. Theſe were, in fact, no other than the anceſtors of the very people whom they came to deſpoil, and might be conſidered as the original ſtock from whence the rude colonies that infeſted Britain had migrated ſome centuries before. The Normans fell upon the northern coaſts of France; the Danes chiefly levelled their fury againſt England, their firſt appearance having been when Brithric was king of Weſſex. It was then that a ſmall body of them landed on the coaſts of that kingdom, with a view of ſpying out the ſtate of the country; and having committed ſome ſmall depredations, they fled to their ſhips for ſafety. About ſeven years after this firſt attempt, they made a deſcent upon the coaſt of Northumberland, where they pillaged a monaſtery; but their fleet being ſhattered by a ſtorm, they were defeated by the inhabitants, and put to the ſword. It was not till about five years after the acceſſion of Egbert, that their invaſions became formidable. From that time they continued their attacks with unceaſing ferocity, until the whole kingdom was reduced to a ſtate of the moſt diſtreſsful bondage.

No ſooner had the Saxons began to neglect their naval eſtabliſhment, than the Danes, who ſucceeded them in the empire of the ſea, found no difficulty in landing upon the iſle of Sheppey, in Kent, which they ravaged, and returned to their ſhips loaden with the ſpoil. Their next attempt, the year enſuing, was at the mouth of the Tyne, where they landed fifteen thouſand men, and made good their

EGBERT, THE FIRST KING OF ENGLAND.

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their ground againſt the efforts of Egbert; who, after an obſtinate battle, was obliged to draw off his forces by night. Within two years after, they landed in Cornwall; and being joined by the independent Britons there, they advanced towards the borders of Devonſhire, where they were totally routed by Egbert, at Hengſdown-hill, near Kellington. By this victory he ſecured the kingdom from invaſion for a conſiderable time; but his death put a period to the ſucceſſes of his country, and invited the enemy to renew their devaſtations with impunity.

He was ſucceeded by Ethelwolf his ſon, A. D. 838, who had neither the courage nor abilities of his father. This prince had been educated in a cloiſter, and had actually taken orders during the life of his elder brother; but, upon his death, he received a diſpenſation to quit the monkiſh habit, and to marry. He was ſcarcely ſettled on the throne, when a fleet of Daniſh veſſels, conſiſting of thirty-three ſail, landed at Southampton, who was repulſed, but not without great ſlaughter on both ſides. However, no defeat could repreſs the obſtinacy, nor any difficulties impede the inroads, of theſe fierce invaders, who ſtill perſevered in their deſcents; and, year after year, made freſh invaſions on the country, marking their way with ſlaughter and deſolation. Though often repulſed, they generally ſucceeded in carrying off the plunder. It was their method to avoid coming, if poſſible, to a general engagement; but ſcattering themſelves over the face of the country, they carried away, indiſcriminately, as well the inhabitants themſelves, as all their moveable poſſeſſions. If the military force of the country was drawn out againſt them, the invaders either ſtood their ground, if ſtrong enough to oppoſe, or retreated to their ſhips, if incapable of reſiſtance. Thus, by making continual and repeated deſcents, every part of England was kept in conſtant alarm, and every county was fearful of giving aſſiſtance to the next, as its own ſafety was in danger. From this general calamity the prieſts and monks were not exempted; they were rather the chief objects on whom the Daniſh idolaters wreaked their reſentment.

In this ſtate of fluctuating ſucceſs affairs continued for ſome time, the Engliſh often repelling, and as often being repulſed by their fierce invaders; till, at length, the Danes reſolved upon making a ſettlement in the country, and landing on the iſle of Thanet, A. D. 852, ſtationed themſelves there. In this place they kept their ground, notwithſtanding a bloody victory gained over them by Ethelwolf. From thence they ſoon after removed to the iſle of Sheppey, which they conſidered as more convenient for their tumultuary depredations. In the mean time Ethelwolf, inſtead of exerting his ſtrength to repel theſe invaders, was more ſolicitous to obey the dictates of monkiſh ſuperſtition. In order to manifeſt his devotion to the pope, he ſent his ſon Alfred to Rome, to receive confirmation from his holineſs; and, not ſatisfied with this teſtimony of his zeal, he undertook a pilgrimage thither in perſon. He paſſed twelve months in that city, and gained no ſmall applauſe for his devotion, which he teſtified by his great liberality to the church. In his return home he married Judith, daughter to the emperor Charles the Bald; but, on his landing in his own dominions, he was ſurpriſed to find his title to the crown diſputed. His ſecond ſon, Ethelbald, upon the death of his elder brother, perceiving the miſerable ſtate to which the kingdom was reduced by the king's weakneſs and ſuperſtition, formed a conſpiracy to expel him from the throne. The people were equally divided between the claims of the father and ſon; ſo that a bloody and unnatural war ſeemed likely to augment the calamities of the times. A diviſion of the ſovereignty at length terminated the diſpute; the king was content with the eaſtern part of the monarchy, while his ſon was appointed to govern the weſtern, which was the moſt powerful, and the moſt expoſed to danger. Having come to this agreement, a council was ſummoned of all the ſtates and nobles of the kingdom; and, beſides the ratification of this grant, a tithe of the produce of the land was ſettled upon the clergy.

Ethelwolf ſurvived this event only two years, when he left the kingdom between his two eldeſt ſons, Ethelbald and Ethelbert; the weſt being aſſigned to the former, the eaſt to the latter. The reign of Ethelbald was ſhort, but diſtinguiſhed by a number of vices. He married Judith, his own mother-in-law; but was prevailed upon to divorce her. The reign of his brother was of longer duration; and, as we are told, more meritorious. Nevertheleſs the kingdom was ſtill infeſted by the Danes, who committed great outrages. Ethelbald was ſucceeded by his brother Ethelred, a brave prince, but whoſe valour was inſufficient to repreſs the Daniſh incurſions. In theſe exploits he was often aſſiſted by his younger brother, Alfred, afterwards ſurnamed the Great, who ſacrificed all private reſentment to the public good, having been deprived by the king of a large patrimony. It was during this prince's reign that the Danes, penetrating into Mercia, took up their winter quarters at Nottingham. Their next ſtation was at Reading, from whence they infeſted the country in every direction. Ethelred, attended by his brother Alfred, marched againſt them at the head of the Weſt Saxons, and after many reciprocations of ſucceſs, and ſeveral obſtinate battles, the king died of a wound, and left to his brother Alfred the inheritance of a kingdom reduced to the brink of ruin.

Nothing could be more deplorable than the ſtate of the country when Alfred came to the throne. The Danes had ſubdued Northumberland and the Eaſt Angles, and had penetrated into the heart of Weſſex. The Mercians were united againſt him; the dependence upon the other provinces of the empire was but precarious: the lands lay uncultivated through fear of continual incurſions; and the churches and monaſteries were burnt to the ground. In this ſituation of affairs, nothing appeared but objects of terror, and every hope was loſt in deſpair. Yet the wiſdom and virtues of one man were alone ſufficient to reſtore happineſs, ſecurity, and order: all theſe calamities found redreſs from the ſagacious Alfred. This prince ſeemed born not only to defend his bleeding country, but even to adorn humanity. He had given very early inſtances of thoſe great virtues which afterwards adorned his reign; and was anointed by pope Leo as future king, when he was ſent by his father for his education to Rome. On his return from thence, he became every day more the object of his father's fond regard; and that, perhaps, was the reaſon why his education was at firſt neglected. He had attained the age of twelve before he was made acquainted with even the firſt elements of literature; but on hearing ſome Saxon poems read, which recounted the praiſe of heroes, his whole mind was ſtimulated, not only to obtain ſimilar glory, but alſo to be able to tranſmit that glory to poſterity. Encouraged by the queen his mother, and inſpired by a penetrating genius, he was ſoon able to read thoſe compoſitions; and proceeded from thence to a knowledge of the Latin authors, who directed his taſte, and rectified his ambition.

He was ſcarcely come to the crown when he was obliged to march againſt the Danes, who had ſeized Wilton, and were exerciſing their uſual ravages on the countries around. He could only oppoſe them with the few troops he could aſſemble on a ſudden, and a deſperate battle was fought, to the diſadvantage of the Engliſh. But it was not in the power of misfortune to abate the king's ardour, though it repreſſed his ability to do good. He was in a little time enabled to hazard another engagement; ſo that the enemy, dreading his courage and activity, propoſed terms of peace, which he did not think proper to refuſe. They had by this treaty bound themſelves to relinquiſh the kingdom; but, inſtead of complying with their engagements, they only removed from one place to another, burning and deſtroying wherever they came, while freſh ſwarms of their countrymen were

pouring in to their aſſiſtance. Alfred, thus oppoſed to an enemy whom no ſtationary force could ſubdue, nor any treaty bind, found himſelf unable to repel the efforts of thoſe barbarians, who from all quarters invaded him. It was in vain that he purſued them, and compelled them to treaties: they broke every league; and continuing their attacks with ferocious perſeverance, they at length diſpirited his army, and induced his ſuperſtitious ſoldiers to believe themſelves abandoned by heaven, ſince it thus permitted the outrages of the fierce idolaters to go on with impunity. Many of them quitted their country, and retired into Wales, or fled to the continent. Others, ſubmitting to the conquerors, purchaſed their lives by bartering their freedom. In this univerſal defection, Alfred vainly attempted to remind them of the duty they owed their country and their king; ſo that, finding his remonſtrances ineffectual, he was obliged to give way to the wretched neceſſity of the times. Accordingly, relinquiſhing all enſigns of dignity, and diſmiſſing his attendants, he dreſſed himſelf in the habit of a peaſant, and lived for ſome time in the houſe of an herdſman, who had been entruſted with the care of his cattle. In this manner, though abandoned by the world, and ſurrounded by enemies in every quarter, ſtill he reſolved to continue in his country, in order to ſeize the ſlighteſt occaſions for bringing it relief. In his ſolitary retreat, which was in the county of Somerſet, at the confluence of the rivers Parret and Thone, he ſolaced himſelf with muſic, and ſupported his humble lot by the hopes of better fortune. It is ſaid that, one day, being ordered by the herdſman's wife, who was ignorant of his quality, to take care of ſome cakes which were baking by the fire, he happened to let them burn, for which ſhe ſeverely reprimanded, or boxed him on the ear.

Previous to his retirement, Alfred had concerted meaſures for aſſembling a few truſty friends, whenever an opportunity ſhould offer of annoying the enemy, who were now in poſſeſſion of all the country. This choſen band, ſtill faithful to their monarch, took ſhelter in the foreſts and marſhes of Somerſet, and from thence made occaſional irruptions upon ſtraggling parties of the Danes. Their ſucceſs, in this predatory method of living, encouraged many more to join them, till at length, ſufficiently augmented, they repaired to Alfred, who was by this time reduced to the laſt extremity.

Mean-while, Ubba, the chief of the Daniſh commanders, had carried terror over the whole land, and now ravaged Wales without oppoſition. The only place where he found reſiſtance was, in his return, from the caſtle of Kenwith, into which the earl of Devonſhire had retired with a ſmall body of troops. This gallant ſoldier finding himſelf unable to ſuſtain a ſiege, and knowing the danger of ſurrendering to a perfidious enemy, was reſolved to force his way through the beſiegers, ſword in hand. The propoſal was embraced by all his followers, while the Danes, ſecure in their numbers, and in their contempt of the enemy, were not only routed with great ſlaughter, but Ubba, their general, was ſlain. This victory gave courage to the diſpirited Saxons; and Alfred, embracing the favourable diſpoſition, prepared to animate them to make a vigorous ſtand. He appriſed them of the place of his retreat, of the veteran band that had attached itſelf to him, and inſtructed them to be ready with all their ſtrength at a minute's warning. But none was found hardy enough to watch and give intelligence of the forces and poſture of the enemy. Not knowing, therefore, a perſon in whom to confide, he undertook this dangerous talk himſelf. In the ſimple dreſs of a ſhepherd, with an harp in his hand, he entered the Daniſh camp, tried all his arts to pleaſe, and was ſo much careſſed, that he was brought into the preſence of Guthrum, the Daniſh prince, with whom he remained ſome days. There he noticed the ſupine ſecurity of the Danes, their contempt of the Engliſh, their negligence in foraging, and their diſſolute waſte of ſuch ill-gotten booty. Having made theſe obſervations, he returned to his retreat, and diſpatched meſſengers to his ſubjects, appointing them to meet him in arms in the foreſt of Selwood—a ſummons which they gladly obeyed.

It was againſt the moſt unguarded quarter of the enemy that Alfred directed his attack. The Danes, ſurpriſed to behold an army of Engliſh, whom they conſidered as totally ſubdued, made but a faint reſiſtance, notwithſtanding the ſuperiority of their number. They were routed with great ſlaughter: and, though ſuch as eſcaped fled for refuge into a fortified camp in the neighbourhood, yet, being unprovided for a ſiege, they were ſoon compelled to ſurrender, A. D. 876. By Alfred's permiſſion, thoſe who did not chuſe to embrace Chriſtianity, embarked for Flanders, under the command of one of their generals, named Haſtings. Guthrum, their prince, became a convert, with thirty of his nobles, and the king himſelf anſwered for him at the font. Of the pagan Danes who had enliſted with Haſtings, a part ſoon returned, contrary to ſtipulation, again to ravage that country where they had been ſo mercifully ſpared; and landing on the coaſt of Kent, they advanced towards Rocheſter, in hopes of ſurpriſing that city. They were deterred, however, from proceeding, by hearing that Alfred was upon his march to oppoſe them. That ſuch depredations might be prevented for the future, this monarch equipped a ſtrong fleet, with which he attacked and deſtroyed ſixteen of their veſſels in the port of Harwich. There was ſtill the port of London open to the invaders; but, as that city was but weakly garriſoned, he ſoon reduced it to capitulation. Having augmented its fortifications, and embelliſhed it with a number of new edifices, he delivered it in charge to his ſon-in-law, Ethelred, and thus ſecured the whole country from foreign depredators.

Alfred had now attained the meridian of glory; he poſſeſſed a greater extent of territory than had ever been enjoyed by any of his predeceſſors; the kings of Wales did him homage for their poſſeſſions; the Northumbrians received a king of his own appointing; and no enemy appeared to give him the leaſt alarm. In this ſtate of tranquillity, which laſted for twelve years, Alfred was diligently employed in cultivating the arts of peace, and in repairing the damages which the kingdom had ſuſtained by war. After rebuilding the towns which had been deſtroyed by the Danes, he eſtabliſhed a regular militia for the defence of the kingdom. He took care that all his ſubjects ſhould be armed and regiſtered; he aſſigned them a regular rotation of duty;—a part was employed to cultivate the land, while others were appointed to military duty. He took care to provide a naval force that was more than a match for the invaders, and trained his ſubjects to naval tactics. A fleet of an hundred and twenty ſhips of war was thus ſtationed along the coaſts; and, being well ſupplied with all things neceſſary both for ſuſtenance and war, it impreſſed the incurſive enemy with awe. Not but that there occaſionally happened ſome very formidable deſcents, which the king found it difficult to repreſs. Haſtings, the Daniſh chieftain in particular, appeared off the coaſt of Kent with a fleet of three hundred and fifty ſail; and, although his forces were vigorouſly oppoſed and repulſed by the vigilance of Alfred, yet he found means to ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion of Bamflete, in the county of Eſſex. But it was not long before his garriſon was overpowered by a body of the citizens of London, with great ſlaughter, and his wife and two ſons made captives. Theſe experienced the king's clemency: he reſtored them to Haſtings, on condition that he ſhould immediately depart from the kingdom. Nor were the Eaſt-Anglian Danes, nor the inſurgents of Northumberland, more ſucceſsful. Theſe broke out in open rebellion; and, yielding to their favourite habits of depredation, embarked on board two hundred and forty veſſels, and appeared before the city of Exeter. There, however, they experienced a very bloody reception from Alfred, and were ſo diſcouraged, that

ALFRED the GREAT.

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that they put to sea again without attempting any other enterprise. A third body of piratical Danes were still more unsuccessful than either of the former. Great numbers of them, after the departure of Hastings, seized and fortified Shobury; and, having left a garrison there, marched along the banks of the river till they came to Bodington, in the county of Gloucester, where, being reinforced by a body of Welchmen, they threw up entrenchments to defend this camp; but they were surrounded by the king's forces, and reduced to the utmost extremity. After having eaten their horses, and many of them perishing with hunger, they made a desperate sally, in which numbers were cut to pieces. Those who escaped being pursued by the vigilance of Alfred, were finally dispersed, or totally destroyed. Nor did he treat the Northumbrian rebels with less severity. Falling upon them while they were exercising their ravages in the West, he took twenty of their ships; and having tried all the prisoners at Winchester, he hanged them as the common enemies of the state.

Having, by this vigilance and well-timed severity, given peace and security to his subjects, his next care was to adorn his country by arts, as he had protected it by arms. He is said to have drawn up a code of laws; but those which remain to this day under his name seem to be only the laws already practised in the country by his Saxon ancestors, and to which, probably, he gave his sanction. The trial by jury, mulcts, and fines for offences, by some ascribed to him, are of a much more ancient date. But the care of Alfred for the encouragement of learning, did not a little tend to improve the morals, and restrain the habits, of the people. When he came to the throne, he found the English sunk into the grossest ignorance and barbarism, proceeding from the continued disorders of the government, and from the ravages of the Danes. He himself complains, that, on his accession, he knew not one person south of the Thames who could so much as interpret the Latin service. To remedy this defect, he invited over the most celebrated scholars from all parts of Europe; he founded, or at least re-established, the university of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges. He gave, by his own example, the strongest incentives to study. He usually divided his time into three equal portions; one was given to the refection of the body, diet, and exercise; another to the dispatch of business; and the third to study and devotion. He made a considerable progress in grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, architecture, and geometry. He was an excellent historian, an adept in music, and was acknowledged to be the best Saxon poet of the age. He left many works, of which some remain to this day. He translated the Pastoral of Gregory I. *Boëthius de Consolatione*, and Bede's Ecclesiastical History, into the Saxon language. Sensible that his illiterate subjects were not much susceptible of speculative instruction, he endeavoured to convey his morality by parables and stories, and is said to have translated from the Greek the fables of Æsop. Nor did he even neglect the more mechanical arts of life. Before his time, the generality of the people chiefly made use of timber in building. Alfred raised his palaces of brick, and the nobility by degrees began to imitate his example. He introduced and encouraged manufactures of all kinds, and no inventor or improver of any ingenious art was suffered to go unrewarded. Even the elegancies of life began to be brought to him from the Mediterranean; and his subjects, by seeing the productions of the peaceful arts, were taught to respect the virtues of justice and industry, by which alone they could be procured. It was after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years, thus spent in the advancement of his subjects' happiness, that he died, A. D. 901, in the vigour of his age, and the full enjoyment of his faculties, an example to princes, and an ornament to human nature.

The character of Alfred seems to have made as near approaches to perfection, as the frailty inseparable from human nature will allow. He was unquestionably, in every respect, one of the greatest men that ever gave splendour to a throne, or dignified the annals of a people. His capacity was naturally brilliant, and was so much improved by cultivation, that he became one of the most politic and intelligent princes of his time. His discernment was quick, his memory retentive, and his judgment sound. His talents and virtues were not only of that splendid kind which qualified him for the exercise of royalty, but were such as would have procured him a high reputation in the sphere of private life. He was bold, active, and enterprising; was possessed of great fortitude and vigour of mind, and the most steady and indefatigable perseverance. Though firm, he was of a mild and placable temper; and, notwithstanding the elevation of his rank, he displayed on all occasions the most easy condescension, and the most winning affability. Some instances of great severity occur in the history of his reign; but even these do not derogate from his general character of lenity and moderation. His acts of rigour were always merited, and never unseasonable; for the disorders of the times, which mildness and forbearance would have encouraged, required, for their extirpation, the use of powerful remedies. He was liberal without profusion, and charitable without ostentation; and, though prudently economical in the disposal of his revenues, he maintained in his court every requisite of regal pomp. His goodness of heart was conspicuous in his whole conduct. He considered himself as born to promote, to the utmost of his power, the accommodation and felicity of his fellow-creatures; and though he was personally reproved by one of his clerical friends for having neglected the occasional complaints of those who petitioned him for redress in the reign of his brother Ethelred, this neglect might, perhaps, generally arise from the weak foundation on which the allegations of injury rested; and if it was justly imputed to him, it was amply atoned by his subsequent behaviour. His affection for his people was ardent and sincere, and was recompensed by a loyalty founded on gratitude and attachment. His administration of justice was distinguished by strict impartiality; and the influence of rank and wealth could never procure from him a more favourable sentence than he would give to the poorest and most unfriendly persons in a similar case. With respect to religion, he was less infected with the superstition of the times than any of his subjects. His devotion, though fervent, was rational; and his firm adherence to Christianity arose not from idle credulity, but from deliberate study and conviction. Thus did this excellent prince diffuse around him the light of knowledge and improvement, and all the blessings which are deducible from a beneficent, liberal, and enlightened, plan of government. He was, in the strictest sense, a patriot king; one who invariably consulted the true interests of his country, and the universal welfare of his people, whom he protected as a sovereign, and loved as a father. He merited, equally with the amiable Titus, the honourable appellation of *humani generis deliciæ*, the delight of human nature; and, while the splendid talents of his mind, and the glorious actions of his reign, claimed and procured to him the surname of Great, the more attractive qualities of his heart, and his constant practice of virtue, entitled him to the epithet of Good. Alfred had, by his wife Ethelswitha, the daughter of a Mercian earl, three sons and three daughters. His eldest son Edmund, died without issue during his father's life-time. His third son Ethelward, inherited his father's passion for letters, and lived a private life. His second son Edward, succeeded him in the sovereignty of England.

Edward was scarcely settled on the throne, when his pretensions were disputed by Ethelwald, his cousin-german, who raised a large party among his Northumbrians to espouse his cause. At first his exertions seemed to be favoured by fortune; but he was soon after killed in battle, and his death freed Edward from a dangerous competitor.

competitor. Nevertheleſs, the death of their leader was not ſufficient to intimidate his turbulent adherents. During the whole of this prince's reign, there were but few intervals free from the attempts and inſurrections of the Northumbrian inſurgents. Many were the battles he fought, and the victories he won; ſo that, though he might be deemed unequal to his father in the arts of peace, he did not fall ſhort of him in military talents. He built ſeveral caſtles, and fortified different cities. He reduced Turkethill, a Daniſh invader, and obliged him to retire with his followers. He ſubdued the Eaſt Angles, and acquired dominion over the Northumbrians themſelves. He was aſſiſted in theſe conqueſts by his ſiſter Ethelfleda, the widow of Ethelbert, earl of Mercia, who, after her huſband's death, retained the government of that province. Thus, after Edward had reduced the whole kingdom to his obedience, and begun to promote the happineſs of his people by the arts of peace, he was prevented by death from the accompliſhment of his deſigns.

To him ſucceeded Athelſtan, his natural ſon, A. D. 925, the illegitimacy of birth not being then deemed an obſtacle to the inheritance of the crown. To this prince, as to the former, there was ſome oppoſition made in the beginning. Alfred, a nobleman of his kindred, is ſaid to have entered into a conſpiracy againſt him, in favour of the legitimate ſons of the deceaſed king, who were yet too young to be capable of governing themſelves. Whatever his attempts might have been, he denied the charge, and offered to clear himſelf of it by oath before the pope. The propoſal was accepted: and it is aſſerted by the legendary, that he had no ſooner ſworn himſelf innocent, than he fell into convulſions, and died in three days. This monarch received alſo ſome diſturbances from the Northumbrian Danes, whom he compelled to ſurrender; and reſenting the conduct of Conſtantine, king of Scotland, who had given them aſſiſtance, he ravaged that country with impunity, till at length he was appeaſed by the humble ſubmiſſions of that monarch. Theſe ſubmiſſions, however, being extorted, were inſincere. Soon after Athelſtan had evacuated that kingdom, Conſtantine entered into a confederacy with a body of Daniſh pirates, and ſome Welſh chiefs, who were jealous of Athelſtan's growing greatneſs. A bloody battle was fought at Brunſburg, in Northumberland, in which the Engliſh monarch was again victorious. After this ſucceſs, Athelſtan enjoyed his crown in tranquillity; and he is regarded as one of the ableſt and moſt active of the Saxon kings. During his reign the Bible was tranſlated into the Saxon language; and ſome alliances were alſo formed with the princes on the continent. He died at Glouceſter, after a reign of ſixteen years, A. D. 941, and was ſucceeded by his brother Edmund.

Edmund, like the reſt of his predeceſſors, met with diſturbances from the Northumbrians on his acceſſion to the throne; but his activity ſoon defeated their attempts. The great end, therefore, which he aimed at, during his reign, was to curb the licentiouſneſs of his people, by extending the mild influence of Chriſtianity. Among other regulations for the benefit of ſociety, he was the firſt monarch who, by law, inſtituted capital puniſhments in England. Remarking, that fines and pecuniary mulcts were inſufficient to repreſs highwaymen and robbers, he enacted, that when gangs of robbers were taken, the oldeſt of them ſhould be condemned to the gallows. This was conſidered a very ſevere law at the time, becauſe among our early anceſtors, all the penal laws were ſingularly mild and merciful. The proviſion made by this monarch againſt men of that deſperate way of living, was the cauſe of his own death. His virtues, abilities, wealth, and temperance, promiſed him a long and happy reign; when, on a certain day, as he was ſolemnizing a feſtival in Glouceſterſhire, he remarked that Léolf, a notorious robber whom he had ſentenced to baniſhment, had yet the boldneſs to enter the hall where he was dining, and to ſit at table among the gueſts. Enraged at this inſolence, he commanded him to leave the room; but, on his refuſing to obey, the king, whoſe temper was haſty, flew at him, and caught him by the hair. The ruffian drew a dagger, and with a furious blow ſtabbed the monarch to the heart, who fell down on the boſom of his murderer. The death of the aſſaſſin, who was inſtantly cut in pieces, was but a ſmall atonement for ſo horrid a crime.

The late king's ſons were too young to undertake the direction of the government; his brother Edred was therefore appointed to ſucceed; and, like his predeceſſors, this monarch found himſelf at the head of a rebellious and refractory people. The Northumbrian Danes, as uſual, made ſeveral attempts to ſhake off the Engliſh yoke; ſo that the king was at laſt obliged to place garriſons in their moſt conſiderable towns, and to appoint an Engliſh governor over them, who might ſuppreſs their inſurrections in the bud. About this time, too, the monks began to aſſume the direction in civil affairs; and, by artfully managing the ſuperſtitions and the fears of the people, erected a clerical authority that was not ſhaken off for ſeveral ſucceeding centuries. Edred had blindly delivered over his conſcience to the guidance of Dunſtan, abbot of Glaſtonbury, who was afterwards canonized; and this man, under the appearance of ſanctity, concealed the moſt boundleſs ambition. The monks had hitherto been a kind of ſecular prieſts, who, though they lived in communities, were neither ſeparated from the reſt of the world, nor uſeleſs to it. They often married; and were aſſiduouſly employed in the education of youth, and ſubject to the commands of temporal ſuperiors. The celibacy and the independency of the clergy, as being a meaſure that would contribute to the eſtabliſhment of the papal power in Europe, was warmly recommended by the ſee of Rome to all eccleſiaſtics in general, but to the monks in particular. The preſent opportunity offered of carrying this meaſure into an eccleſiaſtical law, from the ſuperſtitious character of Edred, and the furious zeal of Dunſtan. Edred implicitly ſubmitted to his directions both in church and ſtate; and the kingdom was in a fair way of being converted into a papal province by this zealous eccleſiaſtic, when he was checked in the midſt of his career by the death of the king, who died of a quinſy, in the tenth year of his reign, A. D. 954.

Edwy, his nephew, who aſcended the throne, as his own ſons were too young to govern, was a prince of great perſonal accompliſhments, and of a martial diſpoſition. But he was to inherit a kingdom wherein he had an enemy to contend with, againſt whom all military virtues could be of little avail. Dunſtan, who had governed during the former reign, was reſolved to remit nothing of his authority in this; ſo that Edwy, immediately upon his acceſſion, found himſelf involved in a quarrel with the monks, whoſe rage his virtues could neither ſoften nor mitigate. He ſeems to have been elected by the ſecular prieſts in oppoſition to the monks; ſo that their whole body, with Dunſtan at their head, purſued him with implacable animoſity while living, and even endeavoured to vilify his character when dead.

There was a lady of the royal blood, named Elgiva, whoſe beauty had made a ſtrong impreſſion on Edwy's heart. He had even ventured to marry her, contrary to the advice of his counſellors, as ſhe was within the degrees of conſanguinity prohibited by the canon law. On the day of his coronation, while his nobility were giving a looſe to the pleaſures of feſtivity in the great hall, Edwy retired to his wife's apartment; where, in company with his mother, he enjoyed the more pleaſing ſatisfaction of her converſation. Dunſtan no ſooner perceived his abſence, than, conjecturing the reaſon, he ruſhed fiercely into the apartment, and, upbraiding him with all the bitterneſs of eccleſiaſtical rancour, dragged him forth in the moſt outrageous manner. Dunſtan, it ſeems, was not without his enemies; for the king was adviſed to puniſh this inſult, by ordering him to account for the money with

with which he had been entrusted during the former reign. This account the haughty priest refused to give; wherefore he was deprived of all the ecclesiastical and civil emoluments of which he had been in possession, and banished the kingdom. But his exile only served to increase the reputation of his sanctity among the people; and Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, was so much enraged, that he pronounced a divorce between Edwy and Elgiva. Ecclesiastical censures were then attended with the most formidable consequences. The king could no longer resist the indignation of the church, but submitted to part with his beautiful wife. Accordingly Odo sent into the palace a party of soldiers, who seized the queen, and, by his orders, branded her on the face with an hot iron. She was then carried by force into Ireland, there to remain in perpetual exile. This injunction, however, was too distressing to her feelings; and, being cured of her wound, which was purposely made to deface her beauty, she once more ventured to return to the king, whom she still tenderly regarded as her husband. But misfortune continued to pursue her. She was taken prisoner by order of Odo, and put to death in the most cruel manner; having the sinews of her legs cut, and her body shamefully mangled. In the mean time, a secret revolt against Edwy became almost general, instigated by the archbishop; and Dunstan returned to England to put himself at the head of the party. The malcontents now proceeded to open rebellion; and, having placed Edgar, the king's younger brother, about thirteen years of age, at their head, they soon put him in possession of all the northern parts of the kingdom. Edwy's power, and the number of his adherents, every day declining, he was obliged to consent to a partition of the kingdom; when his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from all further inquietude, and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the government.

Edgar being placed on the throne by the influence of the monks, A. D. 959, affected to be entirely guided by their will in all his succeeding transactions. There has ever been some popular cry, some darling prejudice, amongst the English; and he who has taken the advantage of it, has always found it of excellent assistance to his government. The sanctity of the monks was the cry at that time; and the young king, chiming in with the people, at once promoted their happiness, and his own glory. Few English monarchs have reigned with more fortune, or more splendour, than Edgar. He not only quieted all domestic insurrections, but repressed all foreign invasions; and his power was so well established, and so widely extended, that he is said to have been rowed in his barge by eight tributary kings upon the river Dee. The monks, whom he promoted, are loud in his praise; and yet the example of his continence was no way corresponding with that chastity and forbearance on which they chiefly founded their superior pretensions to sanctity. It is indeed somewhat extraordinary, that one should have been extolled for his virtues by the monks, whose irregularities were so peculiarly opposite to the tenets they preached. His first transgression of this kind was the breaking into a convent, carrying off Editha, a nun, by force, and even committing violence on her person. For this act of sacrilege, no other penance was enjoined than that he should abstain from putting on his crown for seven years. As for the lady, he was permitted to continue his intercourse with her without scandal. There was another mistress of Edgar's, named Elfleda the Fair, with whom he formed a connection in a very singular manner. Being at the house of one of his nobles, and fixing his affections on the nobleman's daughter, he privately requested that the young lady should pass that night with him. The lady's mother, knowing his power, and the impetuosity of his temper, prevailed upon her daughter seemingly to comply; but, in the mean time, substituted a beautiful domestic in the young lady's place. In the morning, when the king awoke, instead of being displeased at the stratagem, he expressed pleasure in the adventure; and, transferring his love to Elfleda, she became his favourite, and maintained an ascendency over him till his marriage with Elfrida, daughter to the earl of Devonshire. The beauty and accomplishments of this lady, as represented by common fame, excited the passions of Edgar, and he resolved to have her; but, unwilling to credit report, he sent Ethelwald, his favourite friend, to see, and inform him, whether Elfrida was indeed that incomparable woman which the world had described her to be. Ethelwald arriving at the earl's, had no sooner cast his eyes upon the lovely fair one, than he became enamoured of her himself. Such was the violence of his passion, that, forgetting his duty to his master, he solicited only his own interests, and demanded for himself the beautiful Elfrida in marriage. The favourite of a king was not likely to find a refusal; the earl gave his consent, and their nuptials were performed in private. Upon his return to court, he assured the king that her riches alone, and her high quality, had been the only cause of her celebrity; and he appeared amazed how the world could talk so much, and so unjustly, of her charms. The king was satisfied, and no longer felt any curiosity, while Ethelwald secretly indulged in all the gratifications of connubial love. When he had, by this deceit, weaned the king from his purpose, he took an opportunity of turning the conversation on Elfrida, representing, that though the fortune of the earl of Devonshire's daughter would be a trifle to a king, yet it would be an immense acquisition to a needy subject like himself. He, therefore, humbly entreated permission to pay his addresses to her, as she was the richest heiress in the kingdom. A request so apparently reasonable was readily complied with; Ethelwald returned to his wife, and their nuptials were solemnized in public. His greatest care, however, was employed in keeping her from court; and he took every precaution to prevent her appearing before a king so susceptible of love, and so capable of inspiring that passion. But it was impossible to keep his treachery concealed. Favourites are never without enemies, who watch every opportunity of rising upon their ruin. Edgar was soon informed of the whole transaction; but, dissembling his resentment, he took occasion to visit that part of the country where this miracle of beauty resided, accompanied by Ethelwald, who reluctantly attended him thither. Upon coming near the lady's habitation, he told him that he had a curiosity to see his wife, of whom he had formerly heard so much, and desired to be introduced as his acquaintance. Ethelwald, thunderstruck at the proposal, did all in his power to dissuade the king from it, but in vain. All he could obtain, was permission to go before, on pretence of preparing adequately for his reception. On his arrival, he fell at his wife's feet, confessing what he had done to be possessed of her charms, and conjuring her to conceal, as much as possible, her beauty from the king, who was but too susceptible of its power. Elfrida, little obliged to him for a passion that had deprived her of a crown, promised compliance; but, prompted either by the vanity of her sex, or by revenge, she adorned her person with the most exquisite art, and called up all her beauty on the occasion. The event answered her expectations; the king no sooner saw, than he loved her, and was instantly resolved to obtain her. The better to effect his intentions, he concealed his passion from the husband, and took leave with a seeming indifference; but his revenge was not the less certain and fatal. Ethelwald was soon after sent into Northumberland, upon pretence of urgent affairs, and was found murdered in a wood by the way. Some say, he was stabbed by the king's own hand; some, that he only commanded the assassination; however this be, Elfrida was brought to court by the king's own order, and their nuptials were performed with the usual solemnity. Such was the criminal passion of a monarch, whom the monks have thought proper to represent as

the moſt perfect of mankind. His reign was ſucceſsful, becauſe it was founded upon a compliance with the prejudices of the people; but it produced very ſenſible evils, and theſe fell upon his ſucceſſor. He died after a reign of ſixteen years, in the thirty-third year of his age, being ſucceeded by his ſon Edward, whom he had by his firſt marriage with the daughter of the earl of Ordmer.

Edward, ſurnamed the Martyr, was made king, A. D. 957, by the intereſt of the monks, but lived only four years after his acceſſion. In his reign there is nothing remarkable, if we except his tragical end. Though this young monarch had been from the beginning oppoſed by Elfrida, his ſtep-mother, who ſeems to have united the greateſt deformity of mind with the higheſt graces of perſon, yet he ever ſhewed her the ſtrongeſt marks of regard, and expreſſed, on all occaſions, the moſt tender affection for her ſon, his half-brother. However, hunting one day near Corfe-caſtle in Dorſetſhire, where Elfrida reſided, he thought it his duty to pay her a viſit, though not attended by any of his retinue. Being thirſty, and deſiring ſome liquor to be brought him, while he was yet holding the cup to his mouth, one of Elfrida's domeſtics, inſtructed for that purpoſe, ſtabbed him in the back. The king, finding himſelf wounded, put ſpurs to his horſe; but, fainting with the loſs of blood, he fell from the ſaddle, and his foot hanging in the ſtirrup, he was dragged by his horſe till he was killed. Being tracked by the blood, his body was found, and privately interred at Wareham by his ſervants.

Ethelred the Second, the ſon of Edgar and Elfrida, ſucceeded to the throne, A. D. 978. He was a weak and irreſolute monarch, incapable of governing the kingdom, or of providing for its ſafety. After a train of diſſenſions and vices, which ſeem to have marked ſome of the former reigns, it is not ſurpriſing that the country was weakened; and the people, taught to rely entirely on preternatural aſſiſtance, were rendered incapable of defending themſelves. During this period, therefore, their old and watchful enemies, the Danes, who ſeem not to have been overloaded with the comforts or luxuries of life, were daily gaining ground. The weakneſs and the inexperience of Ethelred, appeared to give a favourable opportunity for renewing their depredations; and accordingly they landed on ſeveral parts of the coaſts, ſpreading terror and devaſtation. The Engliſh, ill-provided to oppoſe ſuch an enemy, made but a feeble reſiſtance; endeavouring by forbearance and treaty to avert the ſtorm they had not ſpirit to oppoſe. The northern invaders, now perceiving the defenceleſs condition of England, made a powerful deſcent, under Sweyn king of Denmark, and Olave king of Norway, who, ſailing up the Humber, committed on all ſides the moſt deſtructive ravages. The Engliſh oppoſed them with a formidable army, but were repulſed with great ſlaughter. The Danes, encouraged by their ſucceſs, marched into the heart of the kingdom, filling all places through which they paſſed with rapine and cruelty. Ethelred had, upon the former invaſion of theſe pirates, bought them off with money; and he now reſolved to put the ſame expedient in practice. He ſent ambaſſadors, therefore, to the two kings, and offered them ſubſiſtence and tribute, provided they would reſtrain their ravages, and depart the kingdom. It has often been remarked, that buying off an invaſion only ſerves to ſtrengthen the enemy, and to invite a repetition of hoſtilities. Such it happened upon this occaſion: Sweyn and Olave agreed to the terms, and peaceably took up their quarters at Southampton, where the ſum of ſixteen thouſand pounds was paid them. Olave returned to his native country, and never infeſted England more; but Sweyn was leſs ſcrupulous, and allowed but a ſhort interval of peace.

The Engliſh, A. D. 998, found their ſituation, on this account, truly deplorable. The weakneſs of the king, the diviſions of the nobility, the treachery of ſome, and the cowardice of others, fruſtrated all their endeavours for mutual defence. The Danes, well informed of their ſituation, again appeared on the Engliſh ſhore; and, ſeeing the incapacity of the country to oppoſe them, they demanded twenty-five thouſand pounds more. This ſum they alſo received; but this only ſerved to provoke their appetite for freſh exactions, which the ſubſequent events too amply put in their power. The Danes had made ſeveral ſettlements, for many years before, in different parts of the kingdom; and their military ſuperiority was generally acknowledged by all: hence the kings of England had been accuſtomed to keep in pay bodies of Daniſh troops, whom they quartered in different parts of the country. Theſe mercenaries, from an attention to cleanneſs and decency, had attained to ſuch an height of luxury, (according to the writers of thoſe days,) that they combed their hair *once a day*, bathed themſelves *once a week*; till by theſe arts, then eſteemed effeminate, they rendered themſelves ſo agreeable to the fair ſex, that they debauched the wives and daughters of the Engliſh, and diſhonoured many families. To thoſe vices were added the treachery of their conduct upon every threatened invaſion, when they ſhewed their attachment to their own countrymen, againſt thoſe among whom they were permitted to reſide. Theſe were motives ſufficient, in that barbarous age, to inſtigate a general maſſacre; and Ethelred, by a policy incident to weak princes, embraced the horrid reſolution of putting them all to the ſword. This plot was carried on with ſuch ſecrecy, that it was executed in one day, and all the Danes in England were deſtroyed without mercy. But this maſſacre, ſo perfidious in the contriving, and ſo cruel in the execution, inſtead of ending the long miſeries of the people, only prepared the way for greater calamities.

While the Engliſh were congratulating each other upon this deliverance from an inteſtine enemy, Sweyn appeared off the weſtern coaſts with a large fleet, meditating furious revenge. The Engliſh now vainly attempted to ſummon their forces; treachery and cowardice operated to diſpirit their leaders, or to diſſipate their troops. To theſe misfortunes were added a dreadful famine, partly from bad ſeaſons, and partly from the neglect of agriculture. For a while they ſuppoſed that the threats of the Danes might be averted by the payment of thirty thouſand pounds, which the invaders agreed to accept; but this, as in the former caſes, afforded only a temporary relief. For a while they placed their hopes in a powerful navy, which they found means to equip; but this was divided and diſperſed, without affording any actual ſervice. Nothing, therefore, remained, but their ſuffering the juſt indignation of the conqueror, and undergoing all the evils that war, inſtigated by revenge, could inflict. During this period, a general conſternation and diſſenſion prevailed in England. Ceſſations from theſe calamities were purchaſed, one after another, by immenſe ſums; but as they afforded only a ſhort alleviation of the common diſtreſs, no other reſource eventually remained than that of ſubmitting to the Daniſh monarch, of ſwearing allegiance to him, and giving hoſtages or pledges of ſincerity. Ethelred was obliged to fly into Normandy, and the whole country bowed to the ſuperior power of Sweyn, his victorious enemy.

The death of Sweyn, which happened about ſix weeks after, ſeemed to offer a favourable opportunity of reſtoring Ethelred to the throne, and his ſubjects to their liberties. Accordingly he ſeized it with avidity; but his miſtakes were incurable, and his indolence, credulity, and cowardice, obſtructed all ſucceſs: ſo that, after having ſeen the greateſt part of the kingdom wreſted from him by an inſulting enemy, and after refuſing to head his troops to oppoſe them, he retired to London, where he ended an inglorious reign of thirty-five years, leaving two ſons, the eldeſt of whom, Edmund, inherited his crown and his misfortunes.

Edmund ſucceeded to the throne of his father, A. D. 1016, and received the ſurname of Ironſide, from his hardy

hardy oppoſition to the enemy; but this oppoſition was as ineffectual to reſtore the happineſs of his country, as it was inſufficient to continue him in the poſſeſſion of the throne. He was oppoſed by one of the moſt powerful and vigilant monarchs then in Europe; for Canute, afterwards ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded Sweyn as king of Denmark, and alſo as commander of the Daniſh forces in England. The conteſt between theſe two monarchs was therefore conducted with great obſtinacy and perſeverance; the firſt battle that was fought appeared undeciſive; a ſecond followed, in which the Danes were victorious; but Edmund ſtill having intereſt enough to bring a third army into the field, the Daniſh and Engliſh nobility, equally haraſſed and diſtreſſed by theſe convulſions, obliged theſe monarchs to come to a compromiſe, and divide the kingdom between them. Canute reſerved to himſelf the northern parts of the kingdom; the ſouthern diſtricts were left to Edmund; but this prince being murdered at Oxford, about a month after the treaty, by his two chamberlains, Canute was left in quiet poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom.

Canute, though he had gratified his ambition in obtaining the Engliſh crown, was yet obliged to make ſome mortifying conceſſions; and, in order to gain the intereſt of ſome of the nobility, he conſented to gratify their avarice. But when his power grew ſtronger, and his title more ſecure, he recalled thoſe grants which he had made, and even put many of the Engliſh nobles to death, ſenſible that thoſe who had betrayed their native ſovereign would never be true to him. Nor was he leſs ſevere in his exactions upon the ſubordinate ranks of the people, levying at one time ſeventy-two thouſand pounds upon country, and eleven thouſand more upon the city of London. Having by this ſeverity ſtrengthened his authority, he began to ſhew the merciful ſide of his character. His firſt ſtep to reconcile the Engliſh to his yoke, was, by ſending back to Denmark as many of his followers as he could ſafely ſpare. He made no diſtinction between the Engliſh and Danes in the adminiſtration of juſtice, but reſtored the Saxon cuſtoms in a general aſſembly of the kingdom. The two nations thus uniting with each other, were glad to reſt for a while from the tumult and ſlaughter in which they had mutually involved each other; and, to confirm their amity, the king himſelf married Emma, the ſiſter of Richard duke of Normandy, who had conſtantly eſpouſed the intereſts of the Engliſh.

Canute, thus eſtabliſhed on the Engliſh throne, made a voyage to Denmark, his native dominions, which were then attacked by the king of Sweden. In this expedition, Godwin, an Engliſh earl, was particularly diſtinguiſhed for his valour, whereby he acquired that fame which afterwards laid a foundation for the immenſe power he aſſumed during the ſucceeding reigns. In another voyage which Canute made to Denmark, he attacked Norway; and, expelling Olaus from his kingdom, he annexed it to his own empire. Thus, wearing at once the triple crown of England, Denmark, and Norway, he was conſidered as the moſt warlike and potent prince in Europe.

As his reign was founded in blood, ſo he was, towards the end of it, deſirous to atone for his cruelties and injuſtice, by acts of penitence and devotion. He erected churches, endowed monaſteries, and appointed revenues, for the celebration of maſs. He undertook a pilgrimage to Rome, where he remained a conſiderable time; and, beſides obtaining from the pope ſome privileges for the Engliſh ſchool founded there, he engaged all the princes through whoſe dominions he paſſed, to aboliſh thoſe heavy impoſitions which they were accuſtomed to exact from the Engliſh pilgrims. The piety of the latter part of his life, and the invincible courage of the former, were topics that filled the mouths of his courtiers with flattery and praiſe. They even affected to inſinuate that his power was uncontroulable, and that all things would be obedient to his command. Canute, ſenſible of their adulation, is ſaid to have taken the following method to reprove them. He ordered his chair to be ſet on the ſeaſhore while the tide was coming in, and commanded the ſea to retire. "Thou art under my dominion, (cried he;) the land upon which I ſit is mine; I charge thee, therefore, to approach no farther, nor dare to wet the feet of thy ſovereign." He feigned to ſit ſome time in expectation of ſubmiſſion, till the waves began to ſurround him; then, turning to his courtiers, he obſerved, that the titles of Lord and Maſter belonged only to him whom both earth and ſeas were made to obey. Thus reſpected, he lived many years, honoured with the ſurname of Great, for his power, but deſerving it ſtill more for his virtues. He died at Shafteſbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, A. D. 1035; leaving three ſons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute. Sweyn was crowned king of Norway; Hardicanute was put in poſſeſſion of Denmark; and Harold ſucceeded his father on the Engliſh throne.

Harold, ſurnamed Harefoot, from his ſwiftneſs in running, upon his acceſſion to the crown, met with no ſmall oppoſition from his younger brother, Hardicanute. But, by the intervention of the nobles, a compromiſe was made between them; by which it was ſtipulated that Harold ſhould have London, and all the provinces north of the Thames, while the poſſeſſion of the ſouthern parts ſhould be ceded to Hardicanute; and, until that prince ſhould appear in perſon, Emma, his mother, ſhould govern in his ſtead. But this agreement was of ſhort duration; for queen Emma having brought over from Normandy Edward and Alfred, deſcendents of the ancient Saxon kings, Alfred was invited, with the warmeſt profeſſions of friendſhip, by Harold, to London, and treacherouſly waylaid by his orders. Six hundred of his train were murdered in the moſt cruel manner; he himſelf was taken priſoner; and his eyes being put out, he was conducted to the monaſtery of Ely, where he died. Edward and Emma, appriſed of his fate, fled to the continent, and Harold, without reſiſtance, took poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom. He lived to enjoy the fruits of his treachery but four years; and dying, very little regretted by his ſubjects, the ſucceſſion was left open to his brother, A. D. 1040.

Hardicanute's title was readily acknowledged both by the Danes and the Engliſh; and, upon his arrival from the continent, he was received with the greateſt demonſtrations of joy. The ceremony of his coronation was ſcarcely performed, when he gave the firſt ſpecimen of the baſeneſs of his diſpoſition, exemplified in his impotent inſults upon the body of his brother, which he ordered to be dug up, beheaded, and thrown into the Thames. When it was found ſome time after by a fiſherman, and buried, he ordered it to be again dug up, and to be thrown into the Thames a ſecond time. His malice, however, was in the end ineffectual; for it was again found, and buried with the greateſt ſecrecy. Hardicanute's next rigorous act was the impoſition of a grievous tax for the payment of his navy; which was the more intolerable, as the nation was threatened with a famine. In theſe degrading tranſactions, Godwin duke of Weſſex, who had been an inſtrument of treachery and oppreſſion during the former reign, was the principal adviſer. However, his baſe conduct did not ſcreen him from the reſentment of Emma, who had the ſtrongeſt reaſons to believe that he was inſtrumental in the death of prince Alfred her ſon. At her inſtigation, therefore, Alfric, archbiſhop of York, accuſed him of being an accomplice, and demanded juſtice accordingly. Godwin found means to evade the danger, by appealing to the king's avarice, and not to the juſtice of his cauſe. He preſented him with a magnificent galley, curiouſly carved and gilded, rowed by fourſcore men, who wore each of them a gold bracelet on his arm, weighing ſixteen ounces. The king, beguiled by this preſent, permitted him to purge himſelf by oath; and Godwin readily ſwore that he had no hand in the death of Alfred. This king's reign was but of ſhort duration; for he died two years after his

acceſſion, A. D. 1041, in conſequence of exceſſes at the marriage of a Daniſh lord, which was celebrated at Lambeth.

Edward, ſurnamed the Confeſſor, from his great piety, had many rivals, whoſe claims to the crown were, perhaps, better founded than his own. The lineal deſcendents of the laſt Saxon monarch were in being, though at the remote diſtance of the kingdom of Hungary. Sweyn, the eldeſt ſon of Hardicanute, was ſtill alive, but engaged in a deſultory war in Norway. It required therefore the utmoſt diligence and ſagacity in Edward to ſecure his claim, before either of theſe princes could come over to diſpute his title. His own authority, though great in the kingdom, was not ſufficient to accompliſh this end; his pretenſions were therefore ſeconded by Godwin, whoſe power was yet very extenſive. This nobleman, long an enemy to his family, finding, upon the preſent occaſion, that their intereſts were united, he laid aſide all former animoſity, and concurred in fixing him upon the throne. The firſt acts of his reign bore the appearance of injuſtice and ſeverity; for he claimed back all grants that had been made by the crown in former reigns; and he ordered his mother, Emma, who was ever intriguing againſt him, to be ſhut up in a monaſtery. As he had been bred in the Norman court, he ſhewed, in every inſtance, a predilection for the cuſtoms, laws, and even the natives, of that country, in preference to his own; and, though he had married Editha, the daughter of Godwin, yet, either from miſtaken piety, or fixed averſion, during his whole reign he abſtained from her bed.

However theſe actions might have been regarded by many of the king's ſubjects, (for they were all of a doubtful kind,) certain it is that Godwin, who had long grown too powerful for a ſubject, made them the pretext of his oppoſition. He began by complaining of the influence of the Normans in the government; and his animoſities ſoon broke out into action. Euſtace, count of Boulogne, who had married Edward's ſiſter, arrived in England upon a viſit to the king, and was received with great honour and affection. Upon his return to Dover, having ſent a ſervant before him to prepare accommodations, an affray happened between this domeſtic and the townſmen, in which he loſt his life. The count and his attendants attempting to revenge the death of his ſervant, the inhabitants took arms; and both ſides engaging with great fury, the count was obliged to fly, after having loſt about twenty of his men, and ſlain as many of the town's people. Exaſperated at this inſult, he returned to the court at Glouceſter, and demanded juſtice of the king, who very warmly eſpouſed his quarrel. He inſtantly gave orders to Godwin, in whoſe government Dover lay, to go and puniſh the inhabitants for their violation of the peace. This was a juncture highly gratifying to the ſchemes of this aſpiring nobleman; and, thinking that now was the time to ingratiate himſelf with the people, he abſolutely refuſed to obey the king's command. Senſible, however, that obedience would ſoon be enforced, unleſs he could defend his inſolence, he prepared for an immediate attack upon Edward. Under a pretence of repreſſing ſome diſorders in Wales, he ſecretly aſſembled a great army, and attempted to ſurpriſe the king, who continued, without ſuſpicion, at Glouceſter. Nevertheleſs, being ſoon informed of Godwin's treachery, his firſt ſtep was to ſummon all the aſſiſtance he could then get, and, in the mean while, to protract the time by a pretended negociation. But as ſoon as he found himſelf in a capacity to take the field, he marched out to attack Godwin; who, finding himſelf unable to oppoſe his ſuperior force, or to keep his ground, took ſhelter with Baldwin, earl of Flanders. His eſtates, together with thoſe of his ſons, were confiſcated; and the opulence and authority of the family ſeemed, for a time, to be wholly overthrown. But Godwin's power was too ſtrong to be ſhaken by ſo ſlight a blaſt; for, being aſſiſted with a fleet by the earl of Flanders, he landed on the iſle of Wight, where he was joined by his ſon Harold, with a ſquadron which that nobleman had collected in Ireland. From thence, being reinforced by great numbers of his former dependents and followers, he ſailed up the Thames, and, appearing before London, threw the metropolis into the utmoſt confuſion. In this exigence, the king alone ſeemed reſolute, and anxious to engage the enemy; but his nobility, many of whom were ſecretly inclined to Godwin, brought on a negociation, in which it was ſtipulated, that the king ſhould diſmiſs all his foreign ſervants, the primate being among the number, and that Godwin ſhould give hoſtages for his own future good behaviour. But Godwin's death, which ſoon followed, prevented him from reaping the fruits of an agreement, by which the king's authority was almoſt reduced to a ſhadow.

Godwin was ſucceeded in his government and offices by his ſon Harold, who in ambition was equal to his father, but in virtues and abilities far ſuperior. By a modeſt and gentle demeanor he acquired the good-will of Edward, or at leaſt ſoftened thoſe impreſſions of hatred which he had long borne the whole family. He greatly inſinuated himſelf into the affections of the people by his liberality, diſintereſtedneſs, and apparent candour. By theſe arts he not only ſupplanted Algar, duke of Mercia, whom the king raiſed up to rival his power, but he got his brother Toſti made duke of Northumberland, upon the death of Siward, who had long governed that province. Harold's engaging manners increaſed his popularity to ſuch a degree, that he began to be talked of as the moſt proper perſon to ſucceed to the crown. But nothing could be more adverſe to Edward than ſuch an event, as he abhorred a ſucceſſor from the family of Godwin. Rouſed, therefore, by theſe rumours, he ſent for his nephew, Edward, from Hungary, who was, in fact, the lineal deſcendent from the ancient Saxon kings. Prince Edward ſoon arrived, but was ſcarcely landed, when he died, leaving his pretenſions to Edgar Atheling, his ſon, who was too young to avail himſelf of his title. Edward was now thrown into new difficulties. He ſaw the youth and inexperience of Edgar, and dreaded the immoderate ambition of Harold. He could not, without reluctance, think of increaſing the power of a family which had riſen on the ruins of royal authority, and had been tainted with the blood of his own brother. In this dilemma he is ſaid to have caſt his eyes on William duke of Normandy, as a perſon moſt proper to ſucceed him; but of the truth of this conjecture we muſt for ever remain in uncertainty.

In the mean time, Harold remitted nothing of his reſpectful obedience to the king, or his aſſiduities to pleaſe the people; whereby he effectually prepared the way for his advancement, on the firſt vacancy, to the throne. In theſe aims fortune ſeemed conſtantly to aſſiſt him; and two incidents happened about this time, A. D. 1057, which contributed greatly to fix that popularity of which he had been ſo long in purſuit. The Welſh renewing their hoſtilities under prince Griffin, were repelled by him, and rendered tributary to the crown of England. The other incident was no leſs honourable: his brother Toſti, who had been appointed to the government of Northumberland, having grievouſly oppreſſed the people, was expelled in an inſurrection; and Harold was ordered by the king to reinſtate him in his power, and puniſh the inſurgents. While yet at the head of an army, preparing to take vengeance for the injury done to his brother, he was met by a deputation of the people, who had been cruelly governed. They aſſured him that they had no intention to rebel, but had taken up arms merely to protect themſelves from the violence of a rapacious governor. They enumerated the grievances they had ſuſtained from his tyranny, brought the ſtrongeſt proofs of his guilt, and appealed to Harold's equity for redreſs. Convinced of Toſti's unjuſt and rigid government, he ſacrificed fraternal affection to his duty; and not only procured a pardon for the people, but confirmed the governor in his office, whom the Northumbrians had choſen in his room. From

that

that time Harold became the idol of the people; and his virtues certainly merited their regard, had they not been excited by ambition.

Harold, now ſecure in the affections of the Engliſh, no longer ſtrove to conceal his views, but openly aſpired at the ſucceſſion. He every where inſinuated, that as the heir-apparent to the crown was utterly unequal to the taſk of governing, both from age and natural imbecillty, there was none ſo proper as a man of mature experience and tried integrity; he alleged, that a man born in England was only fit to govern Engliſhmen; and that none but an able general could defend them againſt ſo many foreign enemies as they were every day threatened with. The people readily diſcerned to what theſe ſpeeches tended, and, inſtead of diſcountenancing, they encouraged and applauded, them. Edward, broken down with age and infirmities, and engroſſed by the viſions of ſuperſtition, ſaw the danger to which the government was expoſed, but took feeble and irreſolute ſteps to ſecure the ſucceſſion. In this ſtate of indeciſion he was ſeized with a fever, which brought him to his end, on the fifth of January, A. D. 1066, in the ſixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign.

This prince, who was reverenced by the monks, under the titles of ſaint and confeſſor, had but weak pretenſions to either, being indolent, irreſolute, and credulous. The tranquillity of his reign was owing rather to the weakneſs of his foreign enemies than to his own exertions or ſtrength. But, though he ſeemed to have few active virtues, yet he certainly had no vices of an atrocious kind; and the want of the paſſions, rather than their reſtraint, was then, as it has been long ſince, the beſt title to canonization. He was the firſt who touched for the king's-evil: the opinion of his ſanctity procured belief to this cure among the people: his ſucceſſors regarded it as a part of their ſtate and grandeur to uphold the ſame opinion. It has been continued down to our time; and the practice was firſt dropped by the preſent royal family, who obſerved, that it could no longer give amazement even to the populace, and was attended with ridicule in the eyes of all men of underſtanding.

Harold, whoſe intrigues and virtues ſeemed to give a right to his pretenſions, ſtepped into the vacant throne without oppoſition. The citizens of London, who had been ever fond of an elective monarchy, ſeconded his claims; the clergy adopted his cauſe; and the body of the people, whoſe friend he had been, ſincerely regarded him. Nor were the firſt acts of his reign unworthy of the general prejudice in his favour. He took the moſt effectual meaſures for an impartial adminiſtration of juſtice; ordered the laws to be reviſed and reformed; and thoſe diſturbers of the public peace to be puniſhed, who had thriven under the lenity of the laſt reign. But neither his valour, his juſtice, nor his popularity, were able to ſecure him from the misfortunes attendant upon an ill-grounded title. The firſt ſymptoms of his danger came from his own brother Toſti, who had taken refuge in Flanders, and had endeavoured to engage the princes on the continent in a league againſt Harold, whom he repreſented as a tyrant and uſurper. Being furniſhed with ſome ſhips by the earl of Flanders, he made a deſcent upon the iſle of Wight, which he laid under contribution, and pillaged the Engliſh coaſt, until he was encountered and routed by Morcar, who had been appointed to the government from which he was expelled.

But he was not yet without ſuccour; for Harfagar, king of Norway, who had been brought over by his entreaties, arrived with a fleet of two hundred ſail at the mouth of the Humber, where he was joined by the ſhattered remains of Toſti's forces. It was in vain that the earls of Mercia and Northumberland attempted to ſtop their progreſs; they were quickly routed, and York was taken by the enemy. Harold was no ſooner informed of this misfortune, than he haſtened to the relief and protection of his people, and manifeſted the utmoſt ardour to ſhow himſelf worthy of their favour. He had given ſo many proofs of an equitable and prudent adminiſtration, that the people flocked to his ſtandard; and, as ſoon as he reached the enemy at Stanford, he found himſelf in a condition to give them battle. The action was obſtinate and bloody; but the victory was deciſive on the ſide of Harold, and ended in the total rout of the Norwegians, Harfagar their king, and Toſti, being both ſlain. Thoſe who eſcaped, owed their ſafety to the perſonal proweſs of a brave Norwegian, who is ſaid to have defended a bridge over the Derwent for three hours, againſt the whole Engliſh army; during which time, he ſlew forty of their beſt men with his battle-ax; but he at length fell by an arrow. Harold, purſuing his victory, made himſelf maſter of the Norwegian fleet that lay in the river Ouſe; and had the generoſity to give prince Olave, the ſon of Harfagar, his liberty, and allowed him to depart with twenty veſſels. There had never before been in England an engagement between two ſuch numerous armies, each being compoſed of no leſs than threeſcore thouſand men. The news of this deciſive victory diffuſed joy over the whole kingdom; they gloried in a monarch who had ſhewn himſelf able to defend them from inſult, and avenge them of their invaders; but they had no long interval for triumph: news was ſoon brought of a freſh invaſion, and that of the moſt formidable kind. This was under the conduct of William, duke of Normandy, who landed at Haſtings, September 29, 1066, with a powerful army of diſciplined veterans, and laid claim to the Engliſh crown.

William, afterwards called the Conqueror, was the natural ſon of Robert, duke of Normandy. His mother's name was Arlette, a beautiful maid of Falaiſe, whom Robert fell in love with as ſhe ſtood gazing at the door whilſt he paſſed through the town. William, who was the offspring of this amour, owed a part of his greatneſs to his birth, but ſtill more to his own perſonal merit. His body was vigorous, his mind capacious and noble, and his courage not to be repreſſed by difficulty or danger. His father Robert, growing old, and, as was common to princes then, ſuperſtitious alſo, reſolved upon a pilgrimage to Jeruſalem, contrary to the advice and opinion of his nobility. As his heart was bent upon the expedition, inſtead of attending to their advice, he ſhewed them his ſon William, whom, though illegitimate, he tenderly loved, and recommended to their care, exacting an oath from them of homage and fealty. He then put him, at ten years of age, under the tutelage of the French king; and ſoon after, going into Aſia, from whence he never returned, left prince William rather the inheritor of his wiſhes, than of his crown. In fact William, from the beginning, found himſelf expoſed to many dangers, and much oppoſition, ariſing from his youth and inexperience, from the reproach of his birth, from a ſuſpected guardian, a diſputed title, and a diſtracted ſtate. The regency, appointed by Robert, were under great difficulties in ſupporting the government againſt this complicated danger; and the young prince, when he came of age, found himſelf ſurrounded with difficulties. But the great qualities which he ſoon diſplayed in the field and the cabinet, gave encouragement to his friends, and ſtruck terror to his enemies. On all ſides he oppoſed his rebellious ſubjects, and repreſſed foreign invaders, while his valour and conduct prevailed in every action. The tranquillity which he had thus eſtabliſhed in his paternal dominions, induced him to extend his views; and ſome overtures, ſaid to have been made to him by Edward the Confeſſor, in the latter part of his reign, if true, muſt have inflamed his ambition with a deſire of ſucceeding to the Engliſh throne. On whatever ſide juſtice might lie, the conſtant pretext on William's part was, that he was appointed heir to the crown of England by Edward the Confeſſor, upon a viſit he had paid that monarch during his lifetime. In conſequence of theſe pretenſions, he laid his claims; but Harold would not admit them, and reſolved

to defend by his valour what his good fortune had won. William, finding that arms alone were to decide the diſpute, prepared to aſſert his claim with vigour. His ſubjects, as they had long been diſtinguiſhed for valour among the European nations, had at this time attained to the higheſt pitch of military glory. His court was the centre of heroiſm; and all who wiſhed for fame in arms, or were naturally fond of chivalry, flocked to put themſelves under his conduct. The fame of his intended invaſion of England was diffuſed over the whole continent; multitudes came to offer him their ſervices in the expedition; ſo that he was embarraſſed rather in the choice of whom he ſhould take into his army, than in levying forces. The pope himſelf was not behind the reſt in favouring his pretenſions; and, either influenced by the apparent juſtice of his claims, or by the hopes of extending the authority of the church, he immediately pronounced Harold an uſurper. He denounced excommunication againſt him, and all his adherents; and ſent the duke a conſecrated banner, to inſpire his troops with confidence. With ſuch favourable incentives, William ſoon found himſelf at the head of a choſen army of ſixty thouſand men, equipped in the moſt warlike and ſplendid manner. The diſcipline of the men, the vigour of the horſes, the luſtre of the arms and accoutrements, were objects that had been ſcarcely ſeen in Europe for ſome ages before. It was in the beginning of ſummer that he embarked this formidable army on board a fleet of three hundred ſail; and, after ſome ſmall oppoſition from the weather, landed at Pevenſey, on the coaſt of Suſſex. William himſelf, as he came on ſhore, happened to ſtumble and fall; but, inſtead of being ſuperſtitiouſly diſcompoſed at the accident, he had the preſence of mind to cry out, that he thus took poſſeſſion of the country. Different from all the invaſions to which England had been formerly accuſtomed, this prince made no ſhow of ravaging a foreign country, but rather of encamping in his own. Here he continued inactive for about a fortnight, either willing to refreſh his troops, or deſirous of knowing the reception his pretenſions to the crown would meet with among the people. After having refreſhed his men at this place, and ſent back his fleet to Normandy, in order that there might be no aſylum for cowardice, he advanced along the ſea-ſide to Haſtings, where he publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring the motives that induced him to undertake this enterpriſe.

He was now informed of the approach of Harold, who was reſolved to defend his right to the crown, and retain that ſovereignty which he had unanimouſly received from the people. Harold was returning, flushed with conqueſt, from the defeat of the Norwegians, with the victorious forces he had employed in that expedition, and all he could invite or collect in the country through which he paſſed. His army was compoſed of active and valiant troops, in high ſpirits, ſtrongly attached to their king, and eager to engage. On the other hand, the army of William conſiſted of the flower of the continent, and had been long inured to danger. The picked men of Bretagne, Boulogne, Flanders, Poictou, Maine, Orleans, France, and Normandy, were voluntarily united under his command. England never before, nor never ſince, ſaw two ſuch armies drawn up to diſpute its crown. The day before the battle, William ſent an offer to Harold to decide their claim by ſingle combat, and thus to ſpare the blood of thouſands; this Harold declined, by ſaying he would leave it to the God of armies to determine their right. Both armies, therefore, drew up in ſight of each other, expecting the dawning of the next day with impatience. The Engliſh paſſed the night in ſongs and feaſting; the Normans in devotion and prayer.

The next morning, at ſeven, both armies were ready to engage. Harold appeared on foot, in the center of his forces, encouraging them by his example of facing the greateſt danger. William fought on horſeback, leading on his army, ſinging the ſong of Roland, one of the famous chiefs of their country. The Normans began the fight with their croſs-bows, which, at firſt, galled and made great havoc among the Engliſh; and, as their ranks were cloſe, their arrows did great execution. But ſoon they came to cloſer fight, and the Engliſh, with their bills, hewed down their adverſaries with great ſlaughter. Confuſion was rapidly ſpreading through the Norman ranks, when William, who ſeeing himſelf on the brink of deſtruction, haſtened, with a ſelect band, to the relief of his forces. His preſence of mind reſtored the ſuſpenſe of battle; he was ſeen in every point of danger, endeavouring to pierce the ranks of the enemy, and had three horſes killed under him. At length, perceiving that the Engliſh line continued impenetrable, he pretended to give ground; which, as he expected, drew the enemy from their firm and cloſe ranks, and he was inſtantly ready to take advantage of their diſorder. Upon a ſignal given, the Normans ſuddenly faced about, and returned to the charge with greater fury than before, broke the Engliſh ranks, and purſued them to a riſing ground. It was in this extremity that Harold was ſeen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inſpiring his troops with freſh vigour; and, though he had toiled all day in front of his Kentiſh men, and in the hotteſt of the battle, yet he ſtill ſeemed unabated in ſtrength or courage, keeping his men rigidly to the poſt of honour. Once more, therefore, the victory ſeemed to turn againſt the Normans, and they fell in great numbers; ſo that the fierceneſs and obſtinacy of this memorable battle was often renewed by the ſuperior courage of the leaders, whenever that of the ſoldiers began to ſlacken. Fortune, at length, determined a victory which valour was unable to decide. Harold, making a furious onſet at the head of his troops, againſt the Norman heavy-armed infantry, was ſhot in the head by an arrow; and his two valiant brothers, fighting by his ſide, ſhared the ſame fate. He fell with his ſword in his hand, amidſt heaps of ſlain; and, after the battle, the royal corpſe could hardly be diſtinguiſhed among the dead. From the moment that he fell, all courage ſeemed to forſake the Engliſh; they gave ground on every ſide, and were purſued with dreadful ſlaughter by the victorious Normans. Thus, after a battle which was fought from morning till ſun-ſet, the invaders proved ſucceſsful, and the Engliſh crown became the reward of victory, October 14, 1066. There fell near fifteen thouſand of the Normans, while the loſs on the ſide of the vanquiſhed was yet more conſiderable, beſides that of the king, and his royal brothers. The next day the dead body of Harold was brought to William, and generouſly reſtored to his mother.

Thus terminated the Saxon monarchy in England, which had exiſted for more than ſix hundred years. Before the reign of Alfred, the kings of this race ſeemed totally immerſed in ignorance; and after his time, they were taken up with combating the ſuperſtition of the monks, or blindly obeying its dictates. As for the crown, during this period, it was neither wholly elective, nor yet totally hereditary, but diſpoſed of either by the will of the former poſſeſſor, or obtained by the intrigues or caprices of the nobles. As for the laws and cuſtoms of this race, they introduced many which had been long in practice among their German anceſtors; they adopted alſo many more which they found among the Britons, or which the Romans left behind them after their abdication. They aſſumed, in imitation of thoſe nations, the title of kings; nay, ſome of them took the Greek appellation of *Baſileus*, though unknown to the countries from whence they came. Their noblemen alſo aſſumed names of Roman authority, and were thence termed dukes or *duces*; while the lower claſſes of the people were bought and ſold with the farms they cultivated; a horrid cuſtom, firſt introduced by the Greeks and Romans, and afterwards adopted by the countries they conquered. Their canon laws alſo, which often controuled the civil authority, had primarily their origin in Rome; and the prieſts

WILLIAM, I. *surnamed the* CONQUEROR.

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and monks, who drew them up, had chiefly their education there. We muſt not, therefore, aſcribe the laws and cuſtoms which then prevailed over England, entirely to Saxon original, ſince many of them were derived from the Britons and Romans. But, when the Saxon monarchy was no more, all cuſtoms and laws, of whatever original, were caſt down into one common maſs, and cemented by thoſe of Norman inſtitution. The whole face of obligation was altered, and the new maſters inſtituted new modes of obedience. The laws were improved; but the taſte of the people for polite literature and philoſophy, for more than four hundred years after, was ſtill to continue the ſame. It appears ſurpriſing, that in ſuch a variety of events, amid ſo many improvements in military ſcience, and ſo many changes in the kingly government, that true politeneſs and refined taſte, ſhould not in all that time have received the ſmalleſt improvement.

From WILLIAM, ſurnamed the CONQUEROR, to the Termination of the direct NORMAN LINE in KING STEPHEN.

After the ſtrength of England had been broken by the diſaſtrous battle of Haſtings, very little remained in the choice of the inhabitants, but a tame ſubmiſſion to the will of the conqueror; and William, ſenſible of their conſternation and terror, was careful not to loſe the fruits of victory by delay. Accordingly, after the purſuit of the flying enemy, and a ſhort refreſhment of his army, he ſet forward on the completion of his deſign; and ſitting down before Dover, took it after a ſlight reſiſtance, and fortified it with freſh redoubts. He then advanced by quick marches towards London, where his approach ſerved to ſpread new alarms. The inhabitants for ſome time heſitated between their terrors and their loyalty; but, caſting their eyes on every ſide, they ſaw no perſon of valour or authority ſufficient to ſupport them in their independence. Edgar Atheling, the rightful heir to the crown, was a weak and feeble prince, without courage or ability; all their other leaders were either deſtroyed, or too remote to lend them aſſiſtance. The clergy, who had a large ſhare in the deliberations, declared openly for a prince whoſe pretenſions were acknowledged, and whoſe arms were bleſſed, by the holy ſee. As ſoon, therefore, as William paſſed the Thames, at Wallingford, Stigand, the primate, made ſubmiſſions to him in the name of the clergy; and, before he came within ſight of the city, all the chief nobility, and Edgar Atheling himſelf, who juſt before had been proclaimed king, came into his camp, and yielded to his authority. The conqueror, though he had it in his power to dictate his own terms, rather than receive them, yet choſe to have his election conſidered rather as the will of his ſubjects, than as a meaſure extorted from them. In order to give his claim the greater ſanction, he was crowned at Weſtminſter by the archbiſhop of York, and took the oath uſual in the times of the Saxon and Daniſh kings; which was, "to protect and defend the church, to obſerve the laws of the realm, and to govern the people with impartiality." Having thus given confidence and new hopes to the vanquiſhed Engliſh, his next care was to reward the brave adventurers who had followed his fortunes. He firſt divided the lands of the Engliſh barons who had oppoſed him among the Norman barons who had aſſiſted his enterpriſe; and ſuch as he could neither ſupply with money nor lands, he appointed to the vacant offices of the ſtate. But, as there were ſtill numbers unprovided for, he quartered them on the rich abbeys of the kingdom, until better means offered for their advancement. This, which gave no ſmall umbrage to the clergy, was but little regretted by the people, who were pleaſed to ſee their own burthens lightened, by having a part of them laid upon ſhoulders that were ſuppoſed much better able to bear them.

But what gave conſiderable alarm was, to ſee him place all the power in the hands of his own countrymen, and to ſuffer them only to have poſſeſſion of the ſword, while he diſarmed all the Engliſh citizens. He nevertheleſs introduced into England that ſtrict execution of juſtice, for which his adminiſtration had been celebrated in Normandy; he reſtrained by ſevere diſcipline the inſolence of his troops; he appeared ſolicitous to unite the Normans and the Engliſh by intermarriages and alliances; he confirmed the liberties and immunities of London, and the other cities of England; and ſeemed deſirous of replacing every thing on the ancient eſtabliſhment. Yet amidſt this apparent confidence, he built citadels in London, Wincheſter, Hereford, Oxford, and the towns beſt ſituated for commanding the kingdom, and truſted to the ſword, rather than to their ſubmiſſion, which he knew to be precarious. By this mixture of vigour and lenity, he had ſo ſoothed or humbled the minds of the Engliſh, that he thought he might ſafely reviſit his native country, and enjoy the congratulations of his ancient ſubjects. Accordingly he ſet out for Normandy, leaving the adminiſtration in the hands of his brother Odo, biſhop of Baieux, and of William Fitz-Oſborne; and, that their authority might be leſs expoſed to danger, he carried over with him the chief of the Engliſh nobles, who, while they ſerved to grace his court by their magnificence, were in reality hoſtages for the fidelity of the nation.

During the abſence of William, affairs took a very unfavourable turn in England. It is probable, the Normans, deſpiſing a people who had ſo eaſily ſubmitted to the yoke, and envying their riches, were deſirous of provoking them to rebellion. Be this as it may, their arrogance certainly multiplied diſcontents and complaints every where; and ſecret conſpiracies were entered into againſt the government. The inhabitants of Kent, who had firſt ſubmitted to the conqueror, were the firſt that attempted to throw off his yoke; and, encouraged by Euſtace count of Boulogne, who had been alſo diſguſted by the Normans, made an unſucceſsful attempt on Dover. Edric the foreſter, whoſe poſſeſſions lay on the banks of the Severn, provoked at the depredations of ſome Norman captains in his neighbourhood, formed an alliance with Blethyn and Rowallen, two Welſh princes, and endeavoured to repel force by force. The diſaffection of the Engliſh daily increaſed; a ſecret project was entertained to perpetuate a maſſacre of the Normans, like that which had been formerly executed upon the Danes; and the animoſity became ſo general and natural, that the vaſſals of earl Coxo having deſired him to head them in an inſurrection, and finding him reſolute in maintaining his fidelity to William, put him to death, as a traitor to his country. The return of the king, however, diſconcerted the plans of the conſpirators; and the confiſcation of their eſtates ſtill farther enriched the Normans. Though highly irritated againſt the Engliſh, William ſtill preſerved the appearance of juſtice in his oppreſſions; he reſtored to their inheritance ſuch as had been arbitrarily expelled during his abſence; but he ſeized this opportunity of renewing the tax of Danegelt on the people, under pretence of being thereby better able to defend them.

This tax rendered his government completely odious: the inhabitants of Exeter roſe in arms; the people of Devonſhire and Cornwall followed their example; but Exeter was ſoon terrified into ſubmiſſion by the preſence of William. A citadel was erected to reſtrain in future their levity; and Devonſhire and Cornwall had juſt implored the clemency of the ſovereign, when a new and more formidable inſurrection in the north excited the general attention, and ſeemed to threaten more important conſequences. At the head of this were Edwin and Morcar, two of the moſt powerful of the Engliſh nobility, who had been encouraged by the aſſurance of ſupport from their nephew, Bleithyn prince of North Wales, from Malcolm king of Scotland, and from Sweyn king of Denmark. The breaſt of Edwin was inflamed with private as well as public wrongs, and he accuſed William of having broken his promiſe, of beſtowing on him his daughter in marriage. Before the earls, however, could concert their meaſures, or receive the foreign ſuccours they expected, they were ſurpriſed by the vigilance of the king. As they

they were incapable of reſiſtance, they condeſcended to ſue for mercy; but, though William pardoned the chiefs, he ſeized and beſtowed on his Norman adherents the lands of their followers; and the numerous colonies of foreigners, which he eſtabliſhed in the north, left the Saxons in that quarter deſtitute of any real power.

The Engliſh now clearly foreſaw that the king was determined to rely on the ſupport and affection of foreigners, and that new forfeitures would be the reſult of every attempt to ſupport their rights. Impreſſed with this diſmal proſpect, many fled into foreign countries: Edgar Atheling himſelf, dreading the inſidious careſſes of William, eſcaped with his ſiſters, Margaret and Chriſtine, into Scotland, where Malcolm, king of Scotland, afterwards eſpouſed Margaret, and by the ſucceſſion of James VI. to the Engliſh throne, the Saxon line was reſtored. Others, however, ſtill hoped to acquire ſecurity from arms; from their retreat in Ireland, Godwin, Edmond, and Magnus, three ſons of Harold, paſſed into England, and landed in Devonſhire; but were repulſed and obliged to return, by Brien, ſon of the count of Brittany. In the north, the inhabitants of Northumberland and York threw off their allegiance, and killed their foreign governors; theſe inſurgents were ſtrengthened by a large body of forces from Denmark, and were animated by the preſence of Edgar Atheling, who quitted Scotland to place himſelf at their head. Hareward, a nobleman of Eaſt Anglia, celebrated for his valour, aſſembled his followers, and taking ſhelter in the iſle of Ely, made frequent inroads on the neighbouring country; while Edric the foreſter, calling in the aſſiſtance of the Welſh, laid ſiege to Shrewſbury.

This general commotion was however ſoon calmed by the policy and vigour of William, who ſtimulated his followers by the promiſe of new forfeitures, purchaſed the retreat of the Danes, and reduced to obedience Northumberland and York. Edgar Atheling again ſought refuge in Scotland; Edric implored the clemency of the conqueror, and was once more received into favour; Hareward alone, confiding in the advantages of his ſituation, ſcorned to make a ſubmiſſion.

Though William ſtill preſerved the language of clemency and forgiveneſs towards the chiefs, his heart was hardened againſt the people. To chaſtiſe the turbulence of the Northumbrians, he laid waſte that fertile country between the Humber and the Tees, deſtroying the houſes, and extirpating the inhabitants; and the lives of an hundred thouſand perſons are computed to have been ſacrificed by this barbarous ſtroke of policy. Taking advantage of the imprudence with which the bulk of the landed property had engaged in theſe inſurrections, he involved the proprietors in confiſcation: their eſtates were tranſferred to the Normans; and the moſt ancient and honourable Engliſh families were reduced to beggary; while every path which led to riches or preferment was carefully ſhut againſt them. The feudal law, which had ſome time been eſtabliſhed in Normandy and France, William introduced into England. He divided, with very few exceptions, beſides the royal demeſnes, the lands of the country into baronies; and conferred them, with the reſervation of ſtated ſervices and payments, on the moſt conſiderable of his adventurers. Theſe barons made grants of a great part of their lands to other foreigners, under the denomination of knights or vaſſals, who paid their lords the ſame duty and ſubmiſſion in peace and war, which the chieftain paid to his ſovereign. The whole kingdom contained about ſeven hundred chief tenants, and 60,215 vaſſals or knights fees; and as none of the native Engliſh were admitted into the firſt rank, the few who retained their landed property were glad to be received into the ſecond, under the protection of ſome powerful Norman.

The doctrine which exalted the papacy above all human power, had gradually diffuſed itſelf from Rome; but at this time, was more prevalent in the ſouthern than in the northern kingdoms of Europe. Pope Alexander, who had aſſiſted William in his conqueſts, naturally expected that he would extend to England the reverence for this ſacred character, and break the ſpiritual independence of the Saxons. As ſoon, therefore, as the Norman prince was eſtabliſhed on the throne, Alexander diſpatched to him Eſmenfroy, biſhop of Sion, as his legate; and the king, though he was probably led by principle to pay reſpect to Rome, embraced the opportunity to degrade thoſe Engliſh prelates who were obnoxious to him. In a council of the principal eccleſiaſtics, he depoſed every native dignitary, and ſupplied their place with Norman clergy, among whom Lanfranc, a Milaneſe monk, was preferred to the ſee of Canterbury. The ſuperſtitious ſpirit, however, which became dangerous to ſome of William's ſucceſſors, was checked by the abilities of that monarch: he prohibited his ſubjects from acknowledging any one for pope whom he himſelf had not previouſly received; nor would he ſuffer any letters or bulls from Rome to be produced without the ſanction of his authority. But he was ſtill more vigilant to humble the Engliſh: he even formed a project of extinguiſhing the Engliſh language; and ordered that in all ſchools youth ſhould be inſtructed in the French tongue; and that all law proceedings ſhould be directed in the ſame idiom; whence ariſes that mixture of French which is at preſent found in the Engliſh tongue, and particularly in legal forms.

The ſituation of the two great earls Edwin and Morcar became daily more diſagreeable. Senſible that they had entirely loſt their dignity, they determined to attempt its recovery by force. While Edwin retired to his eſtate in the north, with a view of commencing an inſurrection, Morcar took ſhelter in Ely with the brave Hareward. To ſubdue that iſle, William ſurrounded it with flat-bottomed boats, and made a cauſeway through the moraſſes to the extent of two miles. The rebels ſurrendered at diſcretion; Hareward alone forced his way ſword in hand through the enemy, and continued his hoſtilities at ſea, till William, admiring his bravery, received him into favour. Morcar was thrown into priſon; Edwin was killed in attempting to eſcape; and Edgar Atheling, weary of a fugitive life, ſubmitted to the conqueror, and obtained a penſion for life, with the liberty of reſiding in England.

Scarcely, however, had William ſettled the inſurrections of the native lords, A. D. 1073, when ſome of the moſt powerful Norman barons aſſociated in arms, provoked by the arrogance of their maſter. Of theſe the chief were Roger, earl of Hereford, and Ralph de Gueder, earl of Norfolk; and carl Waltheof, the laſt of the Engliſh who for ſome generations poſſeſſed any power, and who had married Judith the niece of William, raſhly joined in the league; but on reflection, dreaded the effects of the enterpriſe in which he was engaged. Diſtracted and irreſolute, he imparted the project and his doubts to his wife Judith, who having conceived an impure paſſion for another, conveyed in exaggerated terms the particulars of the conſpiracy to her uncle. Waltheof, in the mean time, had made a full confeſſion of the ſecret to Lanfranc, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who urged him to make atonement for his guilt, by aknowledging it. He accordingly paſſed over to Normandy, where William had for ſome time been, and laid open the whole deſign to the king. The conſpirators, informed of his departure, immediately flew to arms; but before the arrival of the Danes, on whoſe aſſiſtance they had depended, they were defeated and diſperſed. The earl of Hereford was checked by Walter de Lacy, a great baron in the king's intereſt. The earl of Norfolk was defeated by Odo, the king's brother; and the priſoners who were taken had each the right foot cut off, in order to deter others from a ſimilar treaſon. The earl himſelf retired to Denmark; ſo that William, upon his arrival in England, found that nothing remained for him to do but to puniſh the criminals; which was performed with unuſual ſeverity. Many of the rebels were hanged, ſome had their eyes put out, and others their hands cut off. The unfortunate Waltheoff, though promiſed a pardon, found no mercy. He was rich, and an Engliſhman; two faults

that

that ſerved to aggravate his guilt: he was accordingly tried, condemned, and executed. His infamous wife did not long enjoy the fruits of her perfidy; but, falling ſome time after under the king's diſpleaſure, was abandoned by the world, and paſſed the reſt of her life in contempt, remorſe, and miſery. Some aſſert, that this nobleman fell a ſacrifice to the cruelty of Odo, not of William; but, however that may be, it is certain that Waltheoff, and Fitz-Aubert, a noble Norman, who was alſo beheaded on this occaſion, were the only perſons of note that were executed during the reign of William the Conqueror. Having thus re-eſtabliſhed the peace of his government, and extinguiſhed the laſt embers of rebellion with a deluge of blood, William returned once more to the continent, in order to purſue Ralph de Gueder, who, eſcaping from England, had taken refuge with the count of Bretagne. Finding him, however, too powerfully protected by that prince, inſtead of proſecuting his vengeance, he wiſely came to a treaty with the count, in which Gueder was included.

William, A. D. 1076, having thus ſecured the peace of his dominions, naturally expected reſt from his labours. But ſuch is the blindneſs of human hope, that he found enemies where he leaſt expected them, and ſuch too as ſerved to embitter all the latter part of his life. His laſt troubles were excited by his own children, from the deſtruction of whom he could expect to reap neither glory nor gain. He had four ſons, Robert, Richard, William, and Henry, beſides ſeveral daughters. Robert, his eldeſt ſon, ſurnamed Curthoſe, from the ſhortneſs of his legs, was a prince who inherited all the bravery of his family and nation, but was more bold than prudent, and more enterpriſing than politic. Eager after fame, and impatient that his father ſhould ſtand in the way, he aſpired at that independence to which his temper, as well as circumſtances of ſituation, conſpired to invite him. He had formerly been promiſed by his father the government of Maine, a province of France, which had ſubmitted to William, and was alſo declared ſucceſſor to the dukedom of Normandy. However, when he came to demand the execution of theſe engagements, he received an abſolute denial; the king ſhrewdly obſerving, that it was not his cuſtom to throw off his clothes till he went to bed. Robert openly ſhewed his reſentment, and was often heard to expreſs his jealouſy of his two ſurviving brothers, William and Henry, Richard having been killed by a ſtag, in hunting. Theſe younger ſons, by greater aſſiduity, had wrought upon the affections of the king, and were the moſt obnoxious to Robert. A mind, therefore, ſo well prepared for reſentment, ſoon found a cauſe for open rupture. The princes were one day in ſport together, and, in the idle petulance of play, took it in their heads to throw water upon their elder brother as he paſſed through the court. Robert, alive to ſuſpicion, turned this frolic into a ſtudied indignity; and, having theſe jealouſies further inflamed by one of his favourites, he drew his ſword, and ran up ſtairs to take revenge. The whole caſtle was filled with tumult, and it was not without difficulty that the king himſelf was able to appeaſe it. But he never could allay the animoſity which from that moment prevailed in his family. Robert, attended by ſeveral of his confederates, withdrew to Rouen, hoping to ſurpriſe the caſtle; but his deſign was defeated by the governor.

The flame, thus kindled, engaged all the young nobility of Normandy and Maine, as well as of Anjou and Bretagne, to eſpouſe his quarrel; even his mother, it is ſaid, ſupported him by ſecret remittances, and aided his obſtinate reſiſtance of his father by private encouragement. This unnatural conteſt continued for ſeveral years; and William was obliged to have recourſe to England for ſupport againſt his ſon. Accordingly, drawing an army of Engliſhmen together, he led them over into Normandy; where he ſoon compelled Robert and his adherents to quit the field, and he was quickly reinſtated in all his dominions. As for Robert, being no longer able to reſiſt his father, he was obliged to take ſhelter in the caſtle of Gerberoy, which the king of France had provided for him, where he was ſhortly after beſieged by his father. As the garriſon was ſtrong, and conſcious of guilt, they made a moſt gallant defence; and many were the ſkirmiſhes and duels that were fought under its walls. In one of theſe, accident brought the king and his ſon together; but, being both concealed by their helmets, they attacked each other with mutual fury. A fierce and dreadful combat enſued between them, till at laſt the young prince wounded his father in the arm, and threw him from his horſe. The next blow would probably have put an end to the king's life, had he not called for aſſiſtance. Robert immediately recollected his father's voice; and, ſtung with a conſciouſneſs of his crime, he leaped from his horſe, and raiſed the fallen monarch from the ground. He then proſtrated himſelf in his preſence, and craved pardon for his offences, promiſing for the future a ſtrict adherence to his duty. The reſentment harboured by the king was not ſo eaſily appeaſed; perhaps his indignation at being overcome by the ſtripling added to his anger: inſtead, therefore, of pardoning his ſon, he gave him his malediction, and departed for his own camp on Robert's horſe, which the prince had aſſiſted him to mount. However, the conduct of the ſon ſerved, after ſome reflection, to appeaſe the father. As ſoon as William was returned to Rouen, he became reconciled to Robert, and brought him back to England, where he was ſucceſsfully employed in retaliating an invaſion of Malcolm king of Scotland.

William, A. D. 1081, being thus freed from foreign and domeſtic enemies, began to have ſufficient leiſure for a more attentive application to the duties of peace. For this purpoſe, the Doomſday Book was compiled by his order, which contains a general ſurvey of all the lands in the kingdom; their extent in each diſtrict; their proprietors, tenures, value, the quantity of meadow, paſture, wood, and arable land, which they contained; and in ſome counties, the number of tenants, cottagers, and people of all denominations, who lived upon them. This detail enabled him to regulate the taxations in ſuch a manner, that all the inhabitants were compelled to pay their ſhare in proportion to their abilities. He was no leſs careful of the methods of ſaving money than of accumulation. He reſerved a very ample revenue for the crown; and, in the general diſtribution of land among his followers, he kept poſſeſſion of no leſs than fourteen hundred of the choiceſt manors in different parts of the kingdom. Such was his income, that it is juſtly ſaid to have exceeded that of any Engliſh prince either before or ſince his time. No king of England was ever ſo opulent or arbitrary; none ſo able to ſupport the ſplendour and magnificence of a court; none had ſo many places of truſt and profit to beſtow; and none, conſequently, had his commands attended with ſuch implicit obedience.

There was one pleaſure to which William, as well as all the Normans and ancient Saxons, was addicted, which was hunting. To indulge the ſport in its utmoſt extent, he is ſaid to have depopulated that beautiful part of the county of Hants called the New Foreſt, for thirty miles in extent, juſt as he had done in Northumberland; turning out the inhabitants, deſtroying all the villages, and making the wretched outcaſts no compenſation. In the time of the Saxon kings, all noblemen without diſtinction had a right to hunt in the royal foreſts; but William appropriated all theſe to himſelf, and publiſhed very ſevere laws to prohibit his ſubjects from encroaching on this part of his prerogative. The killing of a deer, a wild boar, or even a hare, was puniſhed with the loſs of the delinquent's eyes, at a time when the killing of a man might be atoned for by paying a moderate fine.

As the king's wealth and power were ſo great, it may be eaſily ſuppoſed that the riches of his miniſters were in proportion. Thoſe of his uterine brother Odo, biſhop of Baieux, were ſo great, that he reſolved to purchaſe

the papacy. For this purpoſe, taking the opportunity of of William's abſence, he equipped a veſſel at the Iſle of Wight, on-board of which he ſent immenſe treaſures, and prepared for his embarkation; but he was unfortunately detained by contrary winds. In the mean time William, having had intimation of his deſign, reſolved to prevent the exportation of ſo much wealth from his dominions. Accordingly, returning from Normandy, where he was then employed, he came into England at the very inſtant his brother was ſtepping on-board, and immediately ordered him to be made a priſoner. His attendants, however, reſpecting the immunities of the church, ſcrupled to execute his commands; ſo that the king himſelf was obliged with his own hands to ſeize him. Odo, diſconcerted at ſo unexpected an intervention, appealed to the pope; who, he alleged, was the only perſon upon earth to try a biſhop. To this the king replied, that he did not ſeize him as biſhop of Baieux, but as the earl of Kent; and in that capacity he expected, and would have, an account of his adminiſtration. He was therefore ſent priſoner into Normandy; and, notwithſtanding all the remonſtrances and threats of Gregory, he was detained in cuſtody during the remainder of William's reign.

The king had ſcarcely put an end to this tranſaction, when he felt a very ſevere blow in the death of Matilda, his queen; and, as misfortunes commonly tread on the heels of each other, he received information of a general inſurrection in Maine, the nobility of which had been always averſe to the Norman government. Upon his arrival on the continent, he found that the inſurgents had been ſecretly aſſiſted and excited by the king of France, whoſe policy conſiſted in thus leſſening the Norman power, by creating diſſentions among the nobles of its different provinces. The king's diſpleaſure was not a little increaſed by ſome railleries which that monarch had thrown out againſt him. William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed ſome time by ſickneſs; and Philip was heard to ſay, that he only lay in of a big belly. This ſo provoked the Engliſh monarch, that he ſent him word he ſhould ſoon be up, and would at his churching preſent ſuch a number of tapers, as would ſet the kingdom of France in a flame. In order to perform this promiſe, he levied a ſtrong army, and, entering the iſle of France, deſtroyed and burnt all the villages and houſes without oppoſition. He took the town of Mantc, which he reduced to aſhes. But the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities was ſtopped by an accident, which ſhortly after put an end to the Conqueror's life. His horſe, chancing to place his fore-feet on ſome hot aſhes, plunged ſo violently, that the king was thrown forward, and bruiſed upon the pommel of the ſaddle to ſuch a degree, that he ſuffered a relapſe, and was obliged to return to Rouen. Finding his illneſs increaſe, and perceiving the approach of death, he began to turn his eyes to a future ſtate, from which the purſuit of ambition had long eſtranged them. He was now ſtruck with remorſe for all the cruelties and deſolations he had committed: he endeavoured to atone for his former offences, by large preſents to churches and monaſteries, and by giving liberty to many priſoners whom he had unjuſtly detained. He was even prevailed on, though not without reluctance, to conſent, with his dying breath, to the enlargement of his brother Odo. He bequeathed Normandy and Le Maine to his eldeſt ſon Robert; to Henry, he left five thouſand pounds, and his mother's jointure, without the ſmalleſt territory; and, though he would not pretend to eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion of the crown of England, to which he now began to perceive that he had no title, he expreſſed his wiſh that it might devolve to his favourite ſon William, whom he immediately diſpatched with letters to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, entreating his aſſiſtance. Having thus regulated his temporal affairs, he was conveyed in a litter to a village near Rouen, where he died, in the ſixty-firſt year of his age, after having reigned fifty-two years in Normandy, and twenty-one in England. His body was interred in the church at Caen, which he himſelf had founded: but his interment was attended with a remarkable circumſtance. As the body was carrying to the grave, the prelates and prieſts attending with the moſt awful ſilence, a man, who ſtood upon an eminence, was heard to cry out with a loud voice, and to forbid the interment of the body in a ſpot that had been unjuſtly ſeized by the Conqueror: "That very place (cried the man) is the area of my father's houſe; and I now ſummon the departed ſoul before the divine tribunal to do me juſtice, and to atone for ſo great an oppreſſion." The biſhops and attendants were ſtruck with the man's intrepid conduct; they enquired into the truth of his charge, and, finding it juſt, agreed to ſatisfy him for the damages he had ſuſtained.

The character of this prince, ſays lord Lyttleton, has ſeldom been ſet in its true light; ſome eminent writers having been dazzled ſo much by the more ſhining parts of it, that they have hardly ſeen its faults; while others, out of a ſtrong deteſtation of tyranny, have been unwilling to allow him the praiſe he deſerves. He may with juſtice be ranked among the greateſt generals any age has produced. There was united in him activity, vigilance, intrepidity, caution, great force of judgment, and never-failing preſence of mind. He was ſtrict in his diſcipline, and kept his ſoldiers in perfect obedience; yet preſerved their affection. Having been from his very childhood continually in war, and at the head of armies, he joined to all the capacity that genius could give, all the knowledge and ſkill that experience could teach, and was a perfect maſter of the military art, as it was practiſed in the times wherein he lived. His conſtitution enabled him to endure any hardſhips, and very few were equal to him in perſonal ſtrength, which was an excellence of more importance than it is now, from the manner of fighting then in uſe. His aſpect was noble, his ſtature tall, and the compoſition of his muſcles ſo ſtrong, that there was ſcarcely a man to be found who could bend his bow, or handle his arms. His courage was heroic, and he poſſeſſed it not only in the field, but (which is more uncommon) in the cabinet, attempting great things with means that to other men appeared totally unequal to ſuch undertakings, and ſteadily proſecuting what he had boldly reſolved; being never diſturbed or diſheartened by difficulties, in the courſe of his enterpriſes; but having that noble vigour of mind, which, inſtead of bending to oppoſition, riſes againſt it, and ſeems to have a power of controlling and commanding fortune herſelf.

Nor was he leſs ſuperior to pleaſure than to fear: no luxury ſoftened him, no riot diſordered, no ſloth relaxed. It helped not a little to maintain the high reſpect his ſubjects had for him, that the majeſty of his character was never let down by any incontinence or indecent exceſs. His temperance and his chaſtity were conſtant guards, that ſecured his mind from all weakneſs, ſupported its dignity, and kept it always as it were on the throne. Through his whole life he had no partner of his bed but his queen; a moſt extraordinary virtue in one who had lived, even from his earlieſt youth, amidſt all the licence of camps, the allurements of a court, and the ſeductions of ſovereign power! Had he kept his oaths to his people as well as he did his marriage vow, he would have been the beſt of kings; but he indulged other paſſions of a worſe nature, and infinitely more detrimental to the public than thoſe he reſtrained. A luſt of power, which no regard to juſtice could limit, the moſt unrelenting cruelty, and the moſt inſatiable avarice, poſſeſſed his ſoul. It is true, indeed, that among many acts of extreme inhumanity, ſome ſhining inſtances of great clemency may be produced, that were either effects of his policy, which taught him this method of acquiring friends, or of his magnanimity, which made him ſlight a weak and ſubdued enemy, ſuch as was Edgar Atheling, in whom he found neither ſpirit nor talents able to contend with him for the crown. But where he had

had no advantage nor pride in forgiving, his nature diſcovered itſelf to be utterly void of all ſenſe of compaſſion; and ſome barbarities which he committed exceeded the bounds that even tyrants and conquerors preſcribe to themſelves. Moſt of our ancient hiſtorians give him the character of a very religious prince; but his religion was after the faſhion of thoſe times, belief without examination, and devotion without piety. It was a religion that prompted him to endow monaſteries, and at the ſame time allowed him to pillage kingdoms; that threw him on his knees before a relic or croſs, but ſuffered him unreſtrained to trample upon the liberties and rights of mankind.

As to his wiſdom in government, of which ſome modern writers have ſpoken very highly, he was indeed ſo far wiſe, that, through a long unquiet reign, he knew how to ſupport oppreſſion by terror, and employ the propereſt means for the carrying on a very iniquitous and violent adminiſtration. But that which alone deſerves the name of wiſdom in the character of a king, the maintaining of authority by the exerciſe of thoſe virtues which make the happineſs of his people, was what, with all his abilities, he does not appear to have poſſeſſed. Nor did he excel in thoſe ſoothing and popular arts, which ſometimes change the complexion of a tyranny, and give it a fallacious appearance of freedom. His government was harſh and deſpotic, violating even the principles of that conſtitution which he himſelf had eſtabliſhed. Yet ſo far he performed the duty of a ſovereign, that he took care to maintain a good police in his realm; curbing licentiouſneſs with a ſtrong hand, which, in the tumultuous ſtate of his government, was a great and difficult work. How well he performed it we may learn even from the teſtimony of a contemporary Saxon hiſtorian, who ſays, that during his reign a man might have travelled in perfect ſecurity all over the kingdom with his boſom full of gold, nor durſt any kill another in revenge of the greateſt offences, nor offer violence to the chaſtity of a woman. But it was a poor compenſation, that the highways were ſafe, when the courts of juſtice were dens of thieves, and when almoſt every man in authority, or in office, uſed his power to oppreſs and pillage the people. The king himſelf did not only tolerate, but encourage, ſupport, and even ſhare, theſe extortions. Though the greatneſs of the ancient landed eſtate of the crown, and the feudal profits to which he legally was entitled, rendered him one of the richeſt monarchs in Europe, he was not content with all that opulence, but by authorizing the ſheriffs, who collected his revenues in the ſeveral counties, to practiſe the moſt grievous vexations and abuſes, for the raiſing of them higher, by a perpetual auction of the crown lands, ſo that none of his tenants could be ſecure of poſſeſſion, if any other would come and offer more; by various iniquities in the court of exchequer, which was entirely Norman; by forfeitures wrongfully taken; and, laſtly, by arbitrary and illegal taxations, he drew into his treaſury much too great a proportion of the wealth of his kingdom.

It muſt, however, be owned, that if his avarice was inſatiably and unjuſtly rapacious, it was not meanly parſimonious, nor of that ſordid kind which brings on a prince diſhonour and contempt. He ſupported the dignity of his crown with a decent magnificence; and, though he never was laviſh, he ſometimes was liberal, more eſpecially to his ſoldiers and to the church. But, looking on money as a neceſſary means of maintaining and increaſing power, he deſired to accumulate as much as he could, rather, perhaps, from an ambitious than a covetous nature; at leaſt his avarice was ſubſervient to his ambition, and he laid up wealth in his coffers, as he did arms in his magazines, to be drawn out, when any proper occaſion required it, for the defence and enlargement of his dominions. Upon the whole, he had many great qualities, but few virtues; and if thoſe actions that moſt particularly diſtinguiſh the man or the king are impartially conſidered, we ſhall find that in his character there is much to admire, but ſtill more to abhor.

Upon the death of the Conqueror, his ſon William, ſurnamed Rufus from the red colour of his hair and florid complexion, haſtened to take meaſures for ſecuring himſelf on the throne. Arriving, therefore, before the news of his father's death had reached England, his firſt care was, to take poſſeſſion of the treaſure left by the king at Wincheſter, which amounted to the ſum of ſixty thouſand pounds. He then addreſſed the primate Lanfranc, who had always conſidered him with an eye of peculiar affection, and now inſtantly proceeded to the ceremony of his coronation. At the ſame time Robert, who had been appointed ſucceſſor to Normandy, took peaceable poſſeſſion of that government; where his perſon was beloved, and his acceſſion long deſired.

In the beginning of the reign of William II. the Engliſh began to think they had miſtaken this prince's character, who had always appeared to them rude and brutal. He at firſt ſeemed to pay the utmoſt regard to the counſels of Lanfranc, which were mild and gentle, and conſtantly calculated for the benefit of the nation. Nevertheleſs, the Norman barons, who poſſeſſed eſtates both in England and Normandy, were uneaſy at the ſeparation of thoſe territories: they reſpected the claim of primogeniture in Robert, and they preferred his bold and open diſpoſition, to the proud and imperious temper of his brother. A powerful conſpiracy was therefore carried on againſt William; and Odo, the late king's brother, undertook to conduct it to maturity. William, ſenſible of the danger that threatened him, endeavoured to gain the affections of the native Engliſh, whom he prevailed upon, by promiſes of future reward, and preference of the diſtribution of his favours, to eſpouſe his intereſts. He was ſoon in the field; and, at the head of a numerous army, ſhewed himſelf in readineſs to meet all who ſhould diſpute his pretenſions. In the mean time, Odo had written to Robert an account of the conſpiracy in his favour, urging him to uſe diſpatch, and exciting him to arms by the ſplendour of the reward. Robert gave aſſurances of ſpeedy aſſiſtance; but his indolence was not to be excited by diſtant expectations. Inſtead of employing his money in levies to ſupport his friends in England, he ſquandered it away in idle expences; and thus procraſtination, the thief of time, ſtole from him the only favourable opportunity of inheriting the crown of England. Rufus, in the mean while, exerted himſelf with incredible activity to diſſipate the confederacy. Nor was this difficult to effect: the conſpirators had, in expectation of Robert's co-operation, taken poſſeſſion of ſome fortreſſes; but the appearance of the king compelled them to implore for mercy. He granted them their lives, but confiſcated all their eſtates, and baniſhed them the kingdom. William, thus fixed in the peaceable poſſeſſion of the kingdom, ſhewed the firſt inſtance of his perverſe inclinations, in his ingratitude to the Engliſh, who had ſecured him on the throne.

The death of Lanfranc, which followed ſhortly after, took off all reſtraint from his inclinations; and his mind now appeared in its natural deformity, tyrannical and unjuſt. He ordered a new ſurvey to be made of all the lands and property of the kingdom; and wherever he found them undervalued in the Doomſday Book, he raiſed the proportion of taxes accordingly. Even the privileges of the church were but a feeble rampart againſt his uſurpations; he ſeized the vacant biſhoprics, and openly put to ſale ſuch abbeys as he thought proper. And, not content with thus exerting his tyranny over his own dominions, he was reſolved to extend his rapacity over thoſe of his brother. In conſequence of this reſolution, he appeared in Normandy at the head of a numerous army; but the nobility, on both ſides, ſtrongly connected by intereſt and alliances, brought on an accommodation. It was now ſtipulated, that in caſe either of the brothers ſhould die without iſſue, the ſurvivor ſhould inherit all

the dominions. It was in vain that Henry, the other brother, remonſtrated againſt this act of injuſtice; it was in vain that he took arms, and defended his little fortreſs on the coaſt of Normandy againſt their united ſtrength. He was obliged to ſubmit; and thus deſpoiled of the ſmall patrimony that was left him, he wandered about with a few attendants, and was often reduced to great poverty. It was in beſieging the fortreſs of Henry, that a circumſtance or two have been related, which ſerve to mark the character of the two brothers. As William was on horſeback at ſome diſtance from the camp, he perceived two horſemen riding out from the caſtle, who came up and attacked him. In the encounter the king's horſe being killed, it fell over, and lay upon him in ſuch a manner that he could not diſengage himſelf. His antagoniſt, while he remained in this ſituation, lifted up his arm to diſpatch him; when William exclaimed, in a menacing tone, "Hold, villain! I am the king of England." The two ſoldiers were ſtruck with awe; and, helping him up, accommodated him with one of their horſes. William was not ungrateful for this ſervice; he mounted the horſe, and, ordering the ſoldier to follow, took him into his ſervice. Soon after Robert had an occaſion to ſhew ſtill greater marks of generoſity; for, hearing that the garriſon was in great diſtreſs for want of water, he not only ordered that Henry ſhould be permitted to ſupply himſelf, but alſo ſent him ſome pipes of wine for his own table. Rufus did not at all approve of this ill-timed generoſity; but Robert anſwered his remonſtrances by ſaying, "Shall we ſuffer our brother to die with thirſt? Where ſhall we find another when he is gone?"

The petty diſcords that prevailed after this accommodation between Robert and Rufus, are unworthy the attention of hiſtory. They indeed produced more real calamities to the people, than ſplendid invaſions or bloody battles, as the depredations of petty tyrants are ever more ſeverely felt by the poor, than the magnanimous enterpriſes of ambition. A rupture enſued between Rufus and Malcolm, king of Scotland, in which the latter was ultimately defeated and ſlain, by a party from Alnwick caſtle.

A new breach was made, A. D. 1093, between the brothers, in which Rufus found means to encroach ſtill further upon Robert's poſſeſſions in Normandy. An incurſion from the Welſh, A. D. 1094, filled England with alarm; but they were quickly repelled, and obliged to find refuge in their native mountains. A conſpiracy of the Norman barons in England alſo threatened ſerious conſequences; but their ſchemes were prevented and fruſtrated. Robert Mowbray, earl of Northumberland, who was at the head of this plot, was thrown into priſon, where he died, after thirty years confinement. The count of Eu, another conſpirator, denying the charge, fought with his accuſer, in preſence of the court, at Windſor, and being worſted in the combat, was deemed guilty, and condemned to be caſtrated, and to have his eyes put out. Every conſpiracy, thus detected, ſerved to enrich the king, who took care to apply to his own uſe thoſe treaſures that had been amaſſed for the purpoſe of oppoſing him.

But theſe tranſient broils and treaſons were now totally eliplſed by the moſt noted enterpriſes that ever excited the attention of mankind—the croiſades, which were now firſt projected for the recovery of the Holy Land. See the article CROISADE, vol. v. p. 374. But in the midſt of this religious ardour, which diffuſed itſelf all over Europe, men were not entirely forgetful of their temporal concerns; for ſome, hoping a more magnificent ſettlement in the ſoft regions of Aſia, ſold their European property for whatever they could obtain, contented with receiving any thing for what they were predetermined to relinquiſh. Among the princes who felt and acknowledged this new ſpirit of enterpriſe, was Robert duke of Normandy. The croiſade was entirely adapted to his inclinations and his circumſtances; he was brave, zealous, covetous of glory, haraſſed by inſurrections, and, what was more than all, naturally fond of adventure. In order to raiſe money to defray the charges of ſo expenſive an undertaking, he offered to ſell or mortgage his dukedom of Normandy to his brother Rufus for ten thouſand marks; which ſum was readily advanced by Rufus, whoſe ambition was ever upon the watch to enlarge his dominions. In this manner was Normandy once more united to England; and from this union, afterwards, aroſe thoſe numerous wars with France, which, for whole centuries, continued to depopulate both nations, without once conducing to increaſe the power of either. Rufus was not a little pleaſed with this acquiſition; he made a voyage to his new dominion, and took poſſeſſion of it, A. D. 1095, according to agreement with his brother. He alſo demanded of the king of France a part of the territory of Vexin, which he pretended was an appurtenance to his duchy, and even attempted to enforce his claims by arms. But, though the ceſſion of Maine and Normandy greatly increaſed the king's territories, they added but little to his real power; for his new ſubjects were compoſed of men of a turbulent ſpirit, and more ready to diſpute than obey his commands. Many were the revolts and inſurrections which he was obliged to quell in perſon; and no ſooner was the flame of one conſpiracy ſuppreſſed, than another roſe out of its aſhes to give him freſh alarms.

In the midſt of theſe troubles, he found himſelf involved in a diſagreeable diſpute with Anſelm, archbiſhop of Canterbury, a prelate of a haughty diſpoſition, and extremely tenacious of the rights of the clergy. There was at that time a ſchiſm in the church, between Urban and Clement, who both pretended to the papacy; and Anſelm, who had already acknowledged Urban, was determined, without the king's conſent, to introduce his authority into England. William, imitating his father's example, had prohibited his ſubjects from recognizing any pope whom he had not previouſly approved; he was therefore highly incenſed at Anſelm's conduct. A ſynod was ſummoned at Rockingham for depoſing the prelate; but, inſtead of obeying the king, the members of it declared that none but the pope could inflict a cenſure on their primate. To this was ſoon after added a freſh offence. Anſelm being required to furniſh his quota of ſoldiers for an intended expedition againſt the Welſh, he ſent them ſo ill equipped, that Rufus threatened him with a proſecution. As the reſentments on both ſides were increaſed, their mutual anger proceeded to recrimination; and Anſelm, finding it dangerous to remain in the kingdom, deſired permiſſion to retire to Rome. This requeſt the king readily complied with; but, to mortify the prelate, he ſent an officer to ſearch his baggage after he was on-board, and to ſeize all his money, on pretence of a law which forbade the exportation of ſilver. Not content with this, he ordered all his temporalities to be confiſcated, and actually kept poſſeſſion of them the remaining part of his life.

This open infringement of what were deemed the rights of the church, ſerved to exaſperate the pope, as well as all the eccleſiaſtics of his own dominions, againſt him. Urban even menaced him with the ſentence of excommunication; but he happened to be too earneſtly engaged in the croiſade, to attend to any other concern. Rufus, therefore, little regarded thoſe cenſures, which he knew were ineffectual: he had but little religion at beſt; and the amazing infatuation of the times inſpired him with no very high ideas of the wiſdom of its profeſſors. It is reported of him, that he accepted fifty marks of a Jew, whoſe ſon had been converted to Chriſtianity, and who engaged the king by that preſent to aſſiſt in bringing back the youth to Judaiſm. William employed both menaces and perſuaſion for that purpoſe; but, finding his efforts ineffectual, he ſent for the father, and informing him that the new convert was obſtinate in his faith, he returned half the money, keeping the reſt as a remuneration for his labour. At another time, he is ſaid to have ſent for

ſome

WILLIAM II. *surnamed* RUFUS.

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ſome learned Chriſtian theologians and ſome Jewiſh rabbies, and bade them fairly diſpute the points of their religion before him. He was perfectly indifferent, he ſaid, which ſhould prevail; be had his ears open to both, and he would embrace that doctrine, which, upon compariſon, ſhould be found ſupported on the moſt ſolid arguments.

In this manner Rufus proceeded, careleſs of approbation or cenſure, and only intent upon extending his dominions, either by purchaſe or conqueſt. The earl of Poictou and Guienne, having alſo engaged in the croiſade, had gathered an immenſe army for that expedition, but wanted money to forward his preparations. He had recourſe, therefore, to Rufus, and offered to mortgage all his dominions for a very inconſiderable ſum. The king accepted this offer with his uſual avidity, and had prepared a fleet and an army to take poſſeſſion of the rich provinces thus conſigned to his truſt. But a fatal accident put an end to all his ambitious projects, and left a monarch even deſtitute of a friend to perform the laſt ſad office to his remains. His favourite amuſement was hunting. The New Foreſt, which had been depopulated for that purpoſe, was generally the ſcene of his ſport; and there he uſually ſpent thoſe hours which were not employed in buſineſs of a more ſerious nature. One day, as he was mounting his horſe in order to take his cuſtomary amuſement, he is ſaid to have been ſtopped by a monk, who warned him, from ſome dreams he had the night before, to abſtain from that day's diverſion. Rufus, ſmiling at his ſuperſtition, ordered him to be paid for his zeal, but deſired him to dream better dreams in future. Thus, ſetting forward, he began the chaſe, attended by Walter Tyrrel, a French knight, famous for archery. Towards ſun-ſet, they found themſelves ſeparated from the reſt of their retinue; when a ſtag bounded out from a thicket. Rufus, drawing his bow, wounded the animal, yet not ſo mortally but that it fled. He checked his horſe, and had raiſed his hands to guard his eyes from the ſun-beams, when Tyrrel let fly an arrow at the ſtag, which, glancing from a tree, ſtruck the king in the breaſt, and pierced him to the heart. He dropt dead inſtantaneouſly; and Tyrrel, terrified at the accident, put ſpurs to his horſe, haſtened to the ſea-ſhore, embarked for France, and joined the croiſade that was then ſetting out for Jeruſalem. The body, being afterwards found by ſome woodmen, was put into a collier's cart, and conveyed to Wincheſter, a diſtance of about ſeventeen miles; where it was interred in the choir of the cathedral. A raiſed grey ſtone, without any inſcription, ſtill marks the grave of Rufus; and an ornamented cheſt, on the contiguous wall of the choir, contains the bones of his brother Richard, who likewiſe periſhed in the New Foreſt, from being gored by the ſtag he was hunting.

There are various opinions as to the death of Rufus, although what is written above is generally credited. Eadmer gives it as a received opinion, that he fell with an arrow in his hand, and mortally wounded his breaſt. Suger, in his Life of Lewis the Fat, affirms that Tyrrel had, with ſolemn oaths, averred to him that he was not even in that part of the foreſt where the king fell, nor ſaw him there on the day of his death. And John of Saliſbury, comparing the death of William to that of Julian the apoſtate, ſays, that it was equally doubtful (at the time when he wrote) by whom either of them was killed. Yet there is in the New Foreſt a ford called Tyrrel's Ford; there is an eſtate too called Avon Tyrrel, and if (as the tradition of the foreſt affirms) theſe lands have been liable to pay a yearly fine to the exchequer of ſeventeen ſhillings on account of the above-mentioned ford having been ſhewn to the regicide by the then owner of the eſtate, there can be no doubt of Tyrrel's at leaſt preſuming himſelf guilty. A monument (which ſtill exiſts) was erected on the ſpot where Rufus fell, by lord Delaware, who avers that he had ſeen the oak on which the arrow had glanced. In the inſcription it is recorded, that a peaſant named *Purkiſs* drove the cart which conveyed the royal body to Wincheſter; and it is remarkable that two families of the ſaid name ſtill occupy cottages near the ſpot, and that within the laſt century an axle-tree and wheel were preſerved by one of theſe cottagers, which tradition aſſerted to have belonged to the very cart above-mentioned.

William Rufus, in perſon, was ſhort and fat, with eyes of different colours. He inherited all his father's vices, without his few virtues. He was a perfidious, encroaching, and a dangerous, neighbour; an unkind and ungenerous relation; a rapacious and prodigal prince. However, there remain to this day ſome noble monuments of of his public ſpirit; the Tower, Weſtminſter-hall, and London-bridge, were all built by him, and are evidences that the treaſures of government were not wholly expended in vain. William Rufus was ſlain in the thirteenth year of his reign, A. D. 1100, and the fortieth of his age; and, as he never was married, he left no legitimate iſſue behind him. But there were ſtill two competitors for the crown; Robert, who had engaged in the holy war, and Henry, the youngeſt brother, who continued at home. Had Robert been in Normandy when Rufus died, there is no doubt, from the popularity of his character, and from the treaty formerly concluded between the two brothers, but that he would have been elected without oppoſition. This valiant prince having led his followers into Paleſtine, and there diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his courage and generoſity, after the taking of Jeruſalem, began to think of returning home, and of enjoying in tranquillity that glory which he had won in the field againſt the infidels. But, inſtead of taking the direct road to England, he paſſed through Italy, where he fell in love with Sibylla, daughter of count Converſano, a lady of celebrated beauty; and, marrying her, he laviſhed away, in luxuriant repoſe, thoſe hours which ſhould have been employed in the recovery of his kingdom.

In the mean time Henry, who had been hunting in the New Foreſt when his brother was ſlain, took the earlieſt advantage of the occaſion, and haſtening to Wincheſter, reſolved to ſecure the royal treaſure, which he knew to be the beſt aſſiſtant in ſeconding his aims. William de Breteuil, who had the care of the treaſury, informed of the king's death, oppoſed himſelf boldly to Henry's pretenſions. He ventured to aſſure Henry, that the money in his cuſtody, as well as the crown, belonged to his elder brother, and that he was reſolved to continue firm in his juſt allegiance. The diſpute was on the point of producing bloodſhed, when ſeveral of Henry's partizans arriving, compelled Breteuil to ſurrender the treaſure, with a part of which they, in all probability, hoped to be rewarded for their ſervice. Without loſing time, he now haſtened to London, where he procured himſelf to be proclaimed king, and inſtantly proceeded to the exerciſe of the royal functions. The barons, as well as the people, acquieſced in a claim which they were unprepared to reſiſt. Henry eaſily foreſaw, that, to ſecure his uſurped title, his ſubjects were to be indulged, and that his power could only find ſecurity in their affections. His firſt care, therefore, was to make ſeveral conceſſions in their favour. He granted them a charter, eſtabliſhing the churches in poſſeſſion of all their immunities; aboliſhing thoſe exceſſive fines which uſed to be exacted from heirs; granting his barons, and military tenants, the power of bequeathing their money by will; remitting all debts due to the crown; offering a pardon for all former offences, and promiſing to confirm and obſerve all the laws of Edward the Confeſſor. Theſe conceſſions pleaſed the clergy and the people, while the king, who meant only to obſerve them while his power was in diſpute, boaſted of the lenity of his government. Still farther to ingratiate himſelf with the people, Henry expelled from court all the miniſters of his brother's debauchery and arbitrary power; he ſtripped Ralph Flambard of his dignity, who had been his

brother's worſt adviſer, and conſequently obnoxious to the people, and had him confined in the Tower. But what gave him the greateſt popularity was his recalling Anſelm, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who had been baniſhed during the laſt reign, to his former dignity and his favour. One thing only remained to confirm his claims without danger of a rival. The Engliſh ſtill remembered their Saxon monarchs with gratitude, and beheld them excluded the throne with regret. There ſtill remained ſome of the deſcendants of that favourite line, and, among others, Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling; which lady, having declined all pretenſions to royalty, was bred up in a convent, and had actually taken the veil. Upon her Henry fixed his eyes as a proper conſort, by whoſe means the long breach between the Saxon and Norman intereſts would be fully united. It only remained to get over the ſcruple of her being a nun; but this a council, devoted to his intereſts, readily admitted; and Matilda being pronounced free to marry, the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp and ſolemnity.

It was at this critical juncture that Robert returned from abroad, and, after taking poſſeſſion of his native dominions, laid claim to the crown of England. But he was now, as in all his former attempts, too late for ſucceſs. However, as he was a man of undaunted reſolution, he reſolved to enforce his right to the crown; and the great fame he had acquired in the eaſt, did not a little ſerve to forward his endeavours. He was alſo excited to theſe reſolutions by Flambard, who had eſcaped from the Tower; together with ſeveral others, as well of the Norman as the Engliſh nobility. Even the ſeamen were affected with the general popularity of his name, and revolted to him with the greateſt part of a fleet that had been equipped to oppoſe his paſſage. Henry, who outwardly affected to ſlight all theſe preparations, yet had penetration enough to perceive, that his ſubjects fluctuated in their inclinations between him and his brother. In this emergency, he had recourſe to the bigotry of the people to ſtifle their ſentiments of juſtice. He paid diligent court to Anſelm, whoſe ſanctity and wiſdom he pretended to revere; and this prelate, in return, employed all his abilities in ſecuring him on the throne. He ſcrupled not to aſſure the nobles of the king's ſincerity in his profeſſions of juſtice, and even rode through the ranks of the army, recommending to the ſoldiery the defence of their king, and promiſing to ſee their valour rewarded. Thus the people were retained in their allegiance to the uſurper, and the army marched cheerfully forward to meet Robert and his forces, which were juſt landed at Portſmouth. When the two armies came in ſight, they both appeared equally unwilling to hazard a battle; and their leaders, who ſaw that much more would be loſt than gained by ſuch a conflict, made propoſals for an accommodation. This, after the removal of a few obſtacles, was agreed to; and it was ſtipulated that Robert, upon the payment of a certain ſum, ſhould reſign his pretenſions to England; and that if either of the princes died without iſſue, the other ſhould ſucceed to his dominions. This treaty being ratified, the armies on each ſide were diſbanded; and Robert having lived two months in the utmoſt harmony with his brother, returned in peace to his dominions in Normandy.

But it was not in the power of formal treaties to bind up the reſentment of a monarch, who felt himſelf injured, and found it in his power to take revenge. Henry ſoon ſhewed his reſolution to puniſh all the heads of the party which had lately oppoſed him; and this he did, under different pretexts, and by repeated proſecutions. The earl of Shrewſbury, Arnulf de Montgomery, and Roger earl of Lancaſter, were baniſhed the kingdom, with the confiſcations of their eſtates. Robert de Pontefract Robert de Mallet, William de Warene, and the earl of Cornwall, were treated with equal ſeverity; ſo that Robert, finding his friends thus oppreſſed, came over to England to intercede in their behalf. Henry received him very coolly, and aſſembled a council to deliberate in what manner he ſhould be treated; ſo that Robert, finding his own liberty to be in danger, was glad to aſk permiſſion to return; which, however, was not granted him till he conſented to give up his penſion. But the conſequences of Robert's indiſcretion were not confined to his own ſafety alone; as he was totally averſe to buſineſs, and only ſtudious of the more ſplendid amuſements or employments of life, his affairs every day began to wear a worſe appearance. His ſervants pillaged him without compunction; and he is deſcribed as lying whole days in bed for want of clothes, of which they had robbed him! His ſubjects were treated ſtill more deplorably; for, being under the command of petty and rapacious tyrants, who plundered them without mercy, the whole country was become a ſcene of violence and depredation. In this miſerable exigence the Normans had recourſe to Henry, from whoſe prudent adminiſtration in his own dominions, they expected a ſimilitude of proſperity, ſhould he take the reins of government in their's. Henry the more readily promiſed to redreſs their grievances, as he knew it would be the direct means to ſecond his own ambition. The year enſuing, therefore, A. D. 1105, he landed in Normandy with a powerful army, took ſome of the principal towns, and ſhewed, by the rapidity of his progreſs, that he meditated the entire conqueſt of the country.

Robert, who had already mortgaged, or given away, the greateſt part of his demeſne, ſpent his time in the moſt indolent amuſements, and looked upon the progreſs of Henry with an eye of perfect indifference. But, being at laſt rouſed from his lethargy, and finding his affairs in a deſperate ſituation, he took the ſtrange reſolution of appealing, in perſon, to Henry's natural affections, which this brave, imprudent man, eſtimated by the emotions of his own heart. Henry received him, not only with coolneſs, but contempt; and ſoon taught him, that no virtues will gain perſonal eſteem who has forfeited his pretenſions to prudence. Robert, thus treated with indignity, quitted his brother in a tranſport of rage, expreſſing an ardent purpoſe of revenge; to which Henry paid no ſort of regard. Robert was reſolved, however, to ſhew himſelf formidable, even in the moſt diſtreſſed ſtate of his affairs. Poſſeſſed with romantic ideas of chivalry, which his expedition to the Holy Land had ſerved to heighten, he was determined to retrieve by valour what he had loſt by indolence. Being ſupported by the earl of Mortaigne and Robert de Beleſme, Henry's inveterate enemies, he raiſed an army, and approached his brother's camp, with the hope of finiſhing, by a deciſive battle, the quarrel between them. While the two armies were in ſight of each other, the clergy employed their mediation to bring on a treaty; but, as Henry inſiſted upon Robert's renouncing the government of his dominions entirely, and one half of the revenue, all accommodation was rejected with diſdain, and both ſides prepared for battle. Robert was now entered on that ſcene of action in which he chiefly gloried, and in which he was always known to excel. He animated his little army by his example, and led them to the encounter with that ſpirit which had formerly made his enemies tremble. There was no withſtanding his firſt onſet; that quarter of the Engliſh army where he made the impreſſion gave way, and he was nearly on the point of gaining a complete victory. But it was different on that quarter where Beleſme commanded; he was put to flight by one of the king's generals, who alſo advancing himſelf with a freſh body of horſe to ſuſtain his centre, his whole army rallied; while Robert's forces, exhauſted and broken, gave way on every ſide, in ſpite of all his efforts and acts of perſonal valour. But, though he now ſaw his army defeated, and numbers falling round him, yet he refuſed to fly, or turn his back upon an enemy that he ſtill diſdained. He was taken priſoner, with near ten thouſand of

J. Chapman sc.

HENRY, I.

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his men, and all the conſiderable barons who had adhered to his misfortunes. This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy, while Henry returned in triumph to England, leading with him his captive brother, who now found himſelf not only deprived of his patrimony and his friends, but alſo of his freedom. Henry, unmindful of his brother's former magnanimity with regard to him, kept him a priſoner during the remainder of his life, which was no leſs than twenty-eight years; and he died a miſerable death in the caſtle of Cardiff, in Glamorganſhire. It is even ſaid that he was deprived of his ſight by a red-hot copper baſon applied before his eyes; while his brother attempted to ſtifle the reproaches of his conſcience, by founding the abbey of Reading, which was in that age conſidered as a ſufficient atonement for every ſpecies of wickedneſs.

The firſt ſtep Henry took after his return to England, was to reform ſome abuſes which had crept in among his courtiers; for, as they were allowed by the feudal law to live upon the king's tenants whenever he travelled, they, under colour of this privilege, committed all manner of ravages with impunity. To remedy this diſorder, he publiſhed an edict, puniſhing with the loſs of ſight all ſuch as ſhould, under pretext of royal authority, commit any depredation in the places through which they paſſed. Some diſputes alſo concerning eccleſiaſtical affairs, which were ſupported by Anſelm, the archbiſhop of Canterbury, were compromiſed and adjuſted. Henry was content to reſign his right of granting eccleſiaſtical inveſtitures, but was allowed to receive homage from his biſhops for all their temporal properties and privileges. The marriage of prieſts was alſo prohibited, and laymen were not allowed to marry within the ſeventh degree of affinity. The laity were alſo prohibited from wearing long hair, a mode of dreſs to which the clergy ſhewed the utmoſt averſion.

Theſe regulations ſerved to give employment to Henry in his peaceful intervals; but the apprehenſions which he had from the diſſatisfaction of his Norman ſubjects, and his fears for the ſucceſſion, filled his hands with too much buſineſs to permit any long intervals of relaxation. His principal concern was to prevent his nephew, William, the ſon of Robert, from ſucceeding to the crown, in prejudice of William, his own ſon, for whom he was ſolicitous to ſecure it. His nephew was but ſix years of age, when he committed him to the care of Helie de St. Saen; and this nobleman diſcharged his truſt in his education with a degree of fidelity uncommon at the barbarous period we are deſcribing. Finding that Henry was deſirous of recovering poſſeſſion of his pupil's perſon, he withdrew, and carried him to the court of Fulk count of Anjou, who afforded him protection. This noble youth, wandering from court to court, evaded all the arts of his inſidious uncle, who was not remiſs in trying every method of ſeizing him, either by treaty or intimidation. In this ſtruggle, Louis king of France took the young adventurer's part, and endeavoured to intereſt the pope in his quarrel. Failing in this, he endeavoured to gain, by force of arms, what his negociations could not obtain. A war enſued between him and Henry, in which many battles were fought, but attended with no deciſive conſequences. In one of theſe, which was fought at Noyon, a city that Louis intended to ſurpriſe, the valour both of the nephew and the uncle were not a little conſpicuous. This young man, who inherited all his father's bravery, charged the van of the Engliſh army with ſuch impetuoſity, that it fell back upon the main body, commanded by the king in perſon, whoſe utmoſt efforts were unequal to the attack. Still, however, exerting all his endeavours to ſtem the torrent of the enemy that was pouring down upon him, a Norman knight, whoſe name was William Criſpin, diſcharged at his head two ſuch furious ſtrokes of a ſabre, that his helmet was cut through, and his head ſeverely wounded. At the ſight of his own blood, which ruſhed down his face, he was animated to a double exertion of his ſtrength, and retorted the blow with ſuch force, that his antagoniſt fell, and was taken priſoner. This decided the victory in favour of the Engliſh, who purſued the French with great ſlaughter; and it alſo ſerved to bring on an accommodation with the king of France, in which the intereſts of the nephew were entirely neglected. From this period, till the time of that brave youth's death, which happened about eight years after, A. D. 1119, he appears to have been employed in ineffectual ſtruggles to gain thoſe dominions to which he had the beſt founded claim, but which he wanted power to enforce.

Fortune now ſeemed to ſmile upon Henry, and to promiſe a long ſucceſſion of felicity. He was in peaceable poſſeſſion of two powerful kingdoms, and had a ſon who was acknowledged the undiſputed heir, arrived at his eighteenth year, whom he tenderly loved. His daughter Matilda was alſo married to the emperor Henry V. of Germany, and ſhe had been ſent to that court for her education. All theſe fair proſpects, however, were at once clouded by unforeſeen misfortunes and diſappointments, which tinctured his remaining years with miſery. The king, from the facility with which he had uſurped the crown, dreading that his family might be ſubverted with the ſame eaſe, took care to have his ſon recognized as his ſucceſſor by the ſtates of England, and carried him over to Normandy to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy. After performing this requiſite ceremony, Henry, returning to England, brought with him a numerous retinue of the chief nobility, who ſeemed to ſhare in his ſucceſſes. In one of the veſſels of the fleet, his ſon, and ſeveral young noblemen, the companions of his pleaſures, aſſociated together to render the paſſage more agreeable. The king ſet ſail from Barfleur, and was ſoon carried by a fair wind out of ſight of land. The prince was detained by ſome accident; and his ſailors, as well as their captain Fitz-Stephen, having ſpent the interval in drinking, became ſo diſordered, that they ran the ſhip upon a rock, and it immediately foundered. The prince was put into the boat, and might have eſcaped, had he not been impelled back by the cries of Maude, his natural ſiſter. He therefore nobly prevailed upon the ſailors to row back and take her in. The approach of the boat giving ſeveral others, who had been left upon the wreck, the hopes of ſaving their lives, numbers leaped in, and the whole went at once to the bottom. Above an hundred and forty young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were loſt on this diſtreſſing occaſion. A butcher of Rouen was the only perſon on-board who eſcaped; he clung to the maſt, and was taken up the next morning by ſome fiſhermen. Fitz-Stephen, the captain, while the butcher was thus contending with the waves for his life, ſwam up to him, and enquired if the prince was yet living; when being told that he had periſhed: "Then I will not out-live him," ſaid the captain, and immediately ſunk. The ſhrieks of theſe unfortunate people were heard from the ſhore, and the noiſe even reached the king's ſhip, but the cauſe was then unknown. Henry entertained hopes for three days that his ſon was put into ſome diſtant port of England; but when intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted, and was never ſeen to ſmile from that moment to the day of his death.

The reſidue of the prince's life ſeems a mere blank; his reſtleſs deſires having now nothing left worth contending for, he became more fond of repoſe than of ambition. His daughter Matilda, however, becoming a widow by the death of the emperor, he married her a ſecond time to Geoffry Plantagenet, eldeſt ſon of the count of Anjou, and endeavoured to inſure her acceſſion, by obliging his barons to recognize her as the heir of all his dominions. Some time after, that princeſs was delivered of a ſon, who received the name of Henry; and the king, further to inſure her ſucceſſion, cauſed all the nobility of England and Normandy to renew their oaths of allegiance.

ance. The barons of theſe times were ready enough to ſwear whatever the monarch commanded; but, it ſeems, they obſerved it no longer than while it ſuited their own intereſted views. Henry did not long ſurvive theſe endeavours to ſecure the ſucceſſion in his family. He was ſeized with a ſudden indiſpoſition at St. Denis, in Normandy, from eating too plentifully of lampreys; this brought on his death, Dec. 1, 1135, in the ſixty-ſeventh year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign, leaving, by will, his daughter Matilda heireſs of all his dominions.

This prince was one of the moſt accompliſhed that has filled the Engliſh throne; and poſſeſſed all the qualities both of body and mind, natural and acquired, which could fit him for the high ſtation to which he attained: his perſon was manly; his countenance engaging; his eyes clear, ſerene, and penetrating. The affability of his addreſs encouraged thoſe who might be overawed by the ſenſe of his dignity or his wiſdom; and though he often indulged his facetious humour, he knew how to temper it with diſcretion, and ever kept at a diſtance from all indecent familiarities with his courtiers. His ſuperior eloquence and judgment would have given him an aſcendant, even if he had been born in a private ſtation; and his perſonal bravery would have procured him reſpect, even though it had been leſs ſupported by art and policy. By his great progreſs in literature, he acquired the name of *Beauclerc*, or the Scholar; but his application to ſedentary purſuits abated nothing of the activity and vigilance of his government: and, though the learning of that age was better fitted to corrupt than improve the underſtanding, his natural good ſenſe preſerved itſelf untainted both from the pedantry and ſuperſtition which were then ſo prevalent among men of letters. His temper was very ſuſceptible of the ſentiments as well of friendſhip as of reſentment; and his ambition, though high, might be eſteemed moderate, had not his conduct towards his brother ſhewed, that he was too much diſpoſed to ſacrifice to it all the maxims of juſtice and equity.

As every expedient had been uſed during the life of Henry to fix the ſucceſſion in his family, he, among others, thought that the aggrandiſing his neareſt relations would not be an impolitic ſtep. He only dreaded the deſigns of Robert and his adherents, no way miſtruſting any attempts from another quarter. With theſe views, he was very liberal in heaping favours upon the children of his ſiſter Adela, who had been married to the count of Blois. He thought they would be the ſtrongeſt ſafeguard to protect him from the aſpiring attempts of his brother, or his poſterity; and he was reſolved to load them with favours, as being too far removed from the crown to entertain any hopes of ſucceeding in their deſigns to obtain it. In purſuance of this plan, he had, ſome years before his death, invited Stephen and Henry, the two youngeſt of his ſiſter's ſons, into England, and received them with great honour and eſteem. Thinking he could never do too much to ſecure their affections, he married Stephen to the daughter and heireſs of Euſtace count of Boulogne, who brought him an immenſe fortune. He conferred on him the great eſtates forfeited by Robert Mallet in England, and by the earl of Mortaigne in Normandy. Nor was Stephen's brother Henry without his ſhare in the king's liberalities. He was created abbot of Glaſtonbury, and biſhop of Wincheſter; ſo that the two brothers were thus become by far the moſt opulent perſonages in the kingdom.

Such great riches, ſo much power, and the conſciouſneſs of abilities, were the firſt incentives to Stephen's ambition. Placed at no great diſtance from the throne by birth, and perceiving the ſucceſs of his uncle's uſurpation, he reſolved to run the ſame career, and ſtrike for the crown. For this purpoſe, even during the king's lifetime, he uſed all his arts to procure popularity, and to cultivate the affections of the Engliſh nobility. By his bravery, activity, and vigour, he acquired the eſteem of the barons; by his generoſity and familiar addreſs, he obtained the regard of the people. No ſooner, therefore, was the king known to be dead, than Stephen, conſcious of his own influence, reſolved to ſecure to himſelf the poſſeſſion of what he ſo long deſired. He haſtened from Normandy, where he then was, and, ſetting ſail for England, landed at Dover. But there the garriſon ſhut their gates againſt him. From thence he went to Canterbury, where he was treated with ſimilar diſreſpect; till, paſſing on, he arrived at London, where he was inſtantly ſaluted king by all the lower ranks of the people. Being thus ſecure of the populace, his next object was to gain over the clergy; and for that purpoſe, his brother, the biſhop of Wincheſter, exerted all his influence. The archbiſhop of Canterbury, as he had taken the oaths of allegiance to Matilda, ſeemed for a while the moſt adverſe; but Hugh Bigod, ſteward of the houſehold, averring, upon oath, that the late king had expreſſed his intentions to make Stephen his heir, the archbiſhop anointed him without further ſcruple. Thus was Stephen made king, by one of thoſe ſpeedy revolutions which ever mark the inſtability of a ſtate in which they are cuſtomary. The people acquieſced in his claims from his popularity; the clergy allowed them, being influenced by the intrigues of his brother; and the nobility acknowledged a king, from the weakneſs of whoſe title they might hope to derive power to themſelves.

The firſt acts of an uſurper are always popular. Stephen, in order to ſecure his unſtable throne, paſſed a charter, granting ſeveral privileges to the different orders of the ſtate. To the nobility, a permiſſion to hunt in the royal foreſts; to the clergy, a ſpeedy ſucceſſion to all vacant benefices; and to the people, a reſtoration of the laws of Edward the Confeſſor. To fix himſelf ſtill more ſecurely, he took poſſeſſion of the royal treaſures at Wincheſter, and cauſed his title to be ratified by the pope, with a part of the money. A crown thus obtained, was to be kept only by repeated conceſſions. The nobility and the clergy, in proportion as they were indulged in one demand, ſoon found out others. The barons, in return for their ſubmiſſion, required the right of fortifying their caſtles, and putting themſelves in a poſture of defence; nor could the king refuſe his conſent to ſuch exorbitant demands, becauſe their oppoſition might be fatal. The clergy imitated the ſame pernicious example; and, in a ſhort time, all England was filled with theſe independent fortreſſes, which the noblemen garriſoned with their own vaſſals, or with mercenaries from the continent: nothing could exceed the miſery which the kingdom preſented. Unbounded rapine was exerciſed upon the people for the maintenance of thoſe troops; the private animoſities of the nobility were productive of wars in every quarter; and the whole country preſented a ſcene of petty tyranny and hoſtile preparation. It was in vain that a victory gained by the king over the Scots at Northallerton, A. D. 1138, promiſed to allay the murmurs of the people: their miſeries were riſen to too great a height for ſuch brilliant ſucceſſes to ſtifle or remove.

Not only real, but imaginary, grievances were added, to raiſe the diſcontents of the people, and fill the country with complaints againſt government. The clergy, whoſe power had been ingrafted on the ruins of the regal authority, continued, in imitation of the lay-barons, to erect caſtles, and entertain garriſons, ſenſible that their ſacred pretenſions would be more implicitly obeyed when their temporal power was ſufficient to enforce them. Stephen, who now perceived the miſchiefs attending theſe internal citadels, reſolved to begin with deſtroying thoſe of the clergy, whoſe profeſſion ſeemed averſe to the duties of war. Embracing, therefore, the conſequences of a fray, which had riſen between the vaſſals of the biſhop of Saliſbury and thoſe of the earl of Bretagne, he ſeized that prelate, and obliged both him and the biſhop of Lincoln to deliver up their caſtles which they had lately fortified. This the whole body of the clergy conſidered as a breach of that charter which he had granted upon his acceſſion; they loudly murmured at this infraction; and even the

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KING STEPHEN.

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biſhop of Wincheſter, his brother, reſolved to vindicate the privileges of the church. A ſynod was aſſembled, in which the diſgraced prelates openly inveighed againſt the king. But he, inſtead of anſwering the charge in perſon, deputed one of his barons to plead his cauſe, and intimidate his accuſers. In this critical ſituation of affairs, accounts were brought of Matilda's having landed in England, with a firm reſolution to diſpoſſeſs Stephen of the crown. Matilda, upon the death of the late king, being then in Normandy, found herſelf unable to oppoſe the rapid progreſs of her rival. She was not leſs unfortunate in her continental connexions than in thoſe at home. The Norman barons, unwilling to have the union with England diſſolved, almoſt unanimouſly declared for Stephen, and put him in poſſeſſion of their government; while Geoffry himſelf, Matilda's huſband, was content to reſign his pretenſions, and to receive a penſion from the Engliſh king. He had not, however, long acquieſced in this compromiſe, when he was incited to a renewal of his wife's claims by Robert, earl of Glouceſter, natural ſon of the late king, a nobleman who had, from the beginning, oppoſed the acceſſion of Stephen, and only waited a favourable opportunity to ſet on foot an inſurrection. This haughty baron, having at length ſettled the project of an oppoſition, retired to the court of Matilda, and from thence ſent Stephen a defiance, ſolemnly renouncing his allegiance. It was not long before he was in a capacity effectually to ſecond his declarations; for, ſenſible of the power of his party in England, he landed on the coaſt of Suſſex, in company with Matilda, whoſe claims he profeſſed to ſupport.

The whole of Matilda's retinue, upon this occaſion, amounted to no more than a hundred and forty knights, who immediately took poſſeſſion of Arundel caſtle; but the nature of her claims ſoon increaſed the number of her partiſans. Mean time Stephen, A. D. 1139, aſſured of her arrival, marched to beſiege Arundel, where ſhe had taken refuge, and where ſhe was protected by the queen dowager, who ſecretly favoured her pretenſions. This fortreſs was too feeble to promiſe a long defence; and it would have been ſoon taken, had it not been repreſented to the king, that, as it was a caſtle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the reſpect which was her due, to attempt taking it by force. There was a ſpirit of generoſity mixed with the rudeneſs of the times, that nobly prevailed in many tranſactions; Stephen permitted Matilda to remove in ſafety to Briſtol, another fortreſs, ſtronger than that from whence he permitted her to retire. It would be tedious and unintereſting to relate the various ſkirmiſhes on either ſide, in purſuance of their reſpective claims; ſuffice it to ſay, that Matilda's forces increaſed every day, while her antagoniſt ſeemed every hour to become more unpopular. The troops which Stephen led, were in general foreign mercenaries, commanded by tumultuous barons, more accuſtomed to pillage than to conquer. But, in this fluctuation of ſucceſs, the kingdom was expoſed to ruin, whichever ſide ſhould gain the victory. The caſtles of the nobility were become receptacles for licenſed robbers, who gave their rapine the name of attachment to party. The land was left untilled, the inſtruments of huſbandry were abandoned, and a terrible famine, the reſult of general diſorder, oppreſſed at once the ſpoiled and the ſpoilers. After numberleſs undeciſive conflicts, a complete victory, gained by the forces of Matilda, promiſed to terminate theſe diſputes. Stephen had marched his forces to relieve the city of Lincoln; the earl of Glouceſter led a body of troops to ſecond the efforts of the beſiegers. Theſe two armies engaged within ſight of the city, and a dreadful battle enſued, A. D. 1141. On the firſt onſet, the two wings of Stephen's army, which were compoſed of horſe, were put to flight; and the infantry, ſoon following the example, deſerted their king. All who inherited the blood of the Norman conqueror were brave. Stephen was for ſome time left without attendants, and fought on foot in the midſt of his enemies, aſſaulted by multitudes, and reſiſting all their efforts with aſtoniſhing intrepidity. Being hemmed in on every ſide, he made way for ſome time with his battle-axe; but that breaking, he drew his ſword, and dealt his blows round the circle in which he was incloſed. At length, after performing more than could be naturally expected from a ſingle arm, his ſword flying in pieces, he was obliged to ſurrender himſelf a priſoner. He was conducted to Glouceſter; and though at firſt treated with reſpect, he was ſoon after, on ſome ſuſpicions, thrown into priſon, and laid in irons.

Stephen and his party now appeared entirely overcome. Matilda was poſſeſſed not only of ſuperior power, but alſo of the juſter title. She was conſidered as the rightful ſovereign, and the barons came in daily from all quarters to do her homage. The biſhop of Wincheſter himſelf, who had eſpouſed her cauſe againſt his brother, admitted her claims; he led her in proceſſion into his cathedral, and bleſſed her with the greateſt ſolemnity; the archbiſhop of Canterbury alſo ſwore allegiance, and ſhortly after an eccleſiaſtical council, at which none of the laity aſſiſted, except deputies from the city of London, confirmed her pretenſions; and ſhe was crowned at Wincheſter with all imaginable ſolemnity. Yet ſuch is the vanity of human affairs, and ſuch was the great power of the barons, who were in effect maſters of thoſe they nominally elected as governors, that Matilda remained but a ſhort time in poſſeſſion of the throne. This princeſs, beſide the diſadvantages of her ſex, which weakened her influence over a martial people, was reſolved upon repreſſing the growing power of the nobles, who had left only the ſhadow of authority to their ſovereign. But having neither temper nor policy ſufficient to carry her views into execution, ſhe diſguſted thoſe by her pride to whom ſhe was obliged for her advancement. The firſt petition ſhe refuſed was the enlargement of Stephen; ſhe rejected the remonſtrance of the Londoners, who intreated her to mitigate the ſevere laws of the Norman princes, and revive thoſe of Edward the Confeſſor. She affected to treat the nobility with a degree of diſdain to which they had long been unaccuſtomed; while the fickle nation once more began to pity their depoſed king, and to repent the ſteps they had ſo haſtily taken in her favour. The biſhop of Wincheſter, who probably was never her ſincere friend, was not remiſs in fomenting theſe diſcontents; and when he found the people ripe for revolt, he detached a party of his vaſſals to block up the city of London, where the queen had then her court. At the ſame time meaſures were taken to inſtigate the Londoners againſt her, and to ſeize her perſon. Matilda, having notice of this conſpiracy, retired to Wincheſter, whither the biſhop, ſtill her ſecret enemy, followed her, watching an opportunity to ruin her cauſe. The inſidious prelate was ſoon ſufficiently ſtrong to throw off the maſk, and to beſiege the queen in the very place where ſhe firſt received his benediction. There ſhe continued for ſome time; but the town being oppreſſed by famine, ſhe was obliged to eſcape, while her brother, the earl of Glouceſter, endeavouring to follow, was taken priſoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who had till now remained in captivity. Thus a revolution, as ſudden as the former, took place; Matilda was depoſed, and obliged to ſeek an aſylum in Oxford. Stephen was again recogniſed as king, and taken from a dungeon to be placed on the throne.

The civil war now broke out afreſh, with all its train of deſolations. Many were the battles fought, and various the ſtratagems of thoſe who conducted the affairs of either party. Matilda eſcaped from Oxford, at a time when the fields were covered with ſnow, by being dreſſed in white, with four knights, her attendants, habited in the ſame manner. Stephen was upon another occaſion ſurpriſed by the earl of Glouceſter at Wilton, and narrowly eſcaped by flight. At length the empreſs was obliged to quit the kingdom; and the death of the earl

of Glouceſter ſoon after, who was the life of her party, gave a dreadful blow to her intereſts. Yet ſtill the affairs of Stephen continued to fluctuate. Though this monarch had the good fortune to ſee his rival fly to the continent, and leave him entire poſſeſſion of the kingdom; though his brother was poſſeſſed of the higheſt authority among the clergy; yet he was ſtill inſecure. Finding that the caſtles built by the noblemen of his own party encouraged a ſpirit of independence, and were little leſs dangerous than thoſe which remained in the hands of the enemy, he endeavoured to gain theſe; and this attempt united many of his own adherents againſt him. His danger was increaſed by the oppoſition of the clergy, who, from having been on his ſide, began to declare loudly in favour of his opponents. The pope laid his whole party under an interdict, for having refuſed to ſend deputies, to be named by himſelf, to the general council at Rheims. By this ſentence, which was now firſt practiſed in England, divine ſervice was prohibited, and all the forms of religion ceaſed, except baptiſm and extreme unction. This ſtate of Stephen's affairs looked ſo unpromiſing, that a revolution was once more expected, when his ſubmiſſion to the ſee of Rome for a while ſuſpended the threatened blow.

Stephen had hitherto been oppoſed only by men who ſeconded the pretenſions of another; and who conſequently wanted that popularity which is uſually attached to thoſe who fight their battles. But he was now to enter the liſts with a rival, who was every day coming to maturity, and growing more formidable. This was Henry, the ſon of Matilda, who had now, A. D. 1149, reached his ſixteenth year, and gave the greateſt hopes of future magnanimity and proweſs. It was the cuſtom of thoſe days for young noblemen to receive the honour of knighthood before they were permitted to carry arms; and Henry propoſed to receive his admiſſion from his great uncle, David, king of Scotland. With this view, and in hopes of once more inſpiring his mother's party, he landed in England with a vaſt retinue of knights and ſoldiers, accompanied by many of the nobility, as well Engliſh as foreigners. The ceremony was performed by the Scots' king at Carliſle, amidſt a multitude of people aſſembled on this occaſion, who all, pleaſed with the vigour, the addreſs, and ſtill more perhaps with the noble mein, of the young prince, ſecretly began to wiſh for a revolution in his favour. Soon after his return to Normandy, he was, by his mother's conſent, inveſted with that duchy, which had ſome time before revolted to her. He was alſo, upon the death of his father Geoffrey Plantagenet, ſecured in the poſſeſſion of his dominions; and, to add ſtill more to his increaſing power, he married Eleanor the daughter and heireſs of the duke of Guienne and Poictou; and took poſſeſſion of theſe extenſive territories. With this great acceſſion of power young Henry was reſolved to claim the hereditary crown of England, and to diſpute once more Stephen's uſurped pretenſions. For this purpoſe, being previouſly aſſured of the diſpoſitions of the majority of the people in his favour, he made an invaſion on England, A. D. 1158, where he was joined by almoſt all the barons of the kingdom. Though it was the middle of winter, he advanced to beſiege Malmſbury; and took the town, after having defeated a body of the enemy that attempted to oppoſe his march. Soon after, the caſtle of Reading, and above thirty other fortreſſes, ſubmitted to his arms.

In the mean time Stephen, alarmed at the popularity and ſucceſs of his young rival, had been trying every method to anticipate the purpoſe of his invaſion, by depriving him of a ſucceſſion he ſo earneſtly ſought after. He had convoked a council in London, where he propoſed his own ſon Euſtace, a weak prince, for his aſſociate in the government, as well as for his ſucceſſor. He had even expreſſed a deſire of immediately proceeding to the coronation; but was mortified to find that the archbiſhop of Canterbury refuſed to perform the ceremony. It was then no time to proſecute his reſentment, when his rival was landed, and making haſty ſtrides to the throne; he therefore marched with all poſſible diligence to oppoſe him, while he was beſieging Wallingford; and, coming in ſight, he reſted his army to prepare for battle. In this ſituation the two armies remained for ſome time, within a quarter of a mile of each other, a deciſive action being expected every day. But while they continued in this menacing poſture, a treaty was ſet on foot by the interpoſition of William earl of Arundel, for terminating the diſpute without blood. The death of Stephen's ſon, which happened during the courſe of the treaty, facilitated its concluſion. It was therefore agreed by all parties, that Stephen ſhould reign during the reſidue of his life; and that juſtice ſhould be adminiſtered in his name; that Henry ſhould on Stephen's death, ſucceed to the kingdom; and William, Stephen's ſon, ſhould inherit Boulogne and his patrimonial eſtate. After all the barons had ſworn to this treaty, which filled the kingdom with gratulation, Henry evacuated England, and Stephen returned to the peaceable enjoyment of his throne. His reign, however, was ſhortly after terminated by his death, which happened at Canterbury, Oct. 25, 1154;—in the cathedral of which city he was interred.

The good fortune and brilliant ſucceſs of many princes, gives them, with poſterity, the reputation of wiſdom and virtue: Stephen wanted ſucceſs in all his ſchemes but that of aſcending the throne; and conſequently his virtues and abilities remain clouded and doubtful. If we eſtimate them by the happineſs of his ſubjects, they will appear in a very humble point of view, ſince England was never more rent with internal commotion and inquietude, than during his reign; but if we conſider them as they appear in his private conduct, few monarchs can boaſt more. Active, generous, and brave, his ſole aim was to deſtroy a vile ariſtocracy that oppreſſed the people; but the abilities of no man, however politic or intrepid, were then ſufficient to reſiſt an evil that was too firmly rooted, and interwoven with the very exiſtence of the prince. The moſt prominent faults, therefore, of this monarch's reign, are chiefly to be imputed to the ungovernable ſpirit of the people; but his virtues were his own.

From the COMMENCEMENT of the PLANTAGENETS, in the perſon of HENRY II. to the ſigning of MAGNA CHARTA and DEATH of KING JOHN.

Henry Plantagenet, when called to the throne of England, was maſter, in right of his father, of Anjou and Touraine; in that of his mother, of Normandy and Maine; in that of his wife, of Guienne, Poictou, Xaintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, and the Limoſin; and he ſoon after annexed Brittany to his other dominions; all which rendered him one of the moſt powerful monarchs in Chriſtendom, and an object of dread and jealouſy to the king of France. But to diminiſh the glory of ſwaying the ſceptre over ſuch extenſive territories, the ſubjects of Henry were diſunited by ſituation and by law, by language and by manners; and the prince himſelf, from his reſidence in England, was conſidered as a kind of foreigner in his French dominions, and but little regarded. Yet under every circumſtance, the riſing grandeur of the houſe of Plantagenet, could not fail to impreſs with terror the king of France. Louis VII. had ever maintained a ſtrict union with Stephen, and had endeavoured to prop the unſtable fortunes of that aſpiring uſurper. But after his death, it was too late to think of oppoſing the ſucceſſion of Henry, who had been received in England with the acclamations of all orders of the people.

The firſt acts of Henry the Second's reign, alſo correſponded to the flattering hopes entertained of his abilities. Conſcious of his ſtrength, he began to correct thoſe abuſes, and to reſume thoſe privileges which had been extorted from the weakneſs or the credulity of his predeceſſors. He immediately diſmiſſed all thoſe mercenary ſoldiers who committed infinite diſorders in the nation. He or-

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HENRY II.

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dered all the caſtles, which wer erected ſince the death of Henry the Firſt, and were become receptacles of rapine, to be demoliſhed, except a few which he retained in his own hands for the protection of the kingdom. The adulterated coin was cried down, and new money ſtruck of the right value and ſtandard. He reſumed many of thoſe benefactions which had been made to churches and monaſteries in the former reigns. He gave charters to ſeveral towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom and privileges, independent of any ſuperior but himſelf. Theſe charters were the ground-work of Britiſh liberty. The ſtruggles which had long exiſted, whether the king, or the barons, or the clergy, ſhould be deſpotic over the people, now began to aſſume a new aſpect; and a fourth order, namely, that of the more opulent of the people, began to claim a ſhare in adminiſtration. Thus was the feudal government at firſt impaired; and liberty began to dawn more equably throughout the nation.

In the mean time his brother Geoffrey, by the voluntary election of the inhabitants, had acquired the city and county of Nantz; but dying ſoon after he had taken poſſeſſion of them, Henry, as his heir, claimed thoſe territories. By a contract of marriage which he entered into between his ſon, then only five years old, and a daughter of Louis VII. ſtill in her cradle, he prevailed on the latter prince not to oppoſe his pretenſions; and croſſing the ſeas, he entered Brittany with a formidable army. The able conduct of Henry procured him ſtill more important advantages; by his addreſs he concluded another marriage between his third ſon, Geoffrey, and the daughter and heireſs of the duke of Brittany: the duke of Brittany died ſoon after; and Henry, as the guardian of his infant ſon and daughter-in-law, took poſſeſſion of that principality. The French king had been a ſilent ſpectator of the progreſs of Henry in Brittany; but he reſiſted his attempts to ſeize the country of Thouloufe. An open war was kindled between the two monarchs; but it was productive of no memorable event; and the differences of theſe potent rivals were accommodated by the mediation of the pope; upon which Henry did homage to the king of France, under the feudal ſyſtem, for all the territories he held on the continent.

On his return to England, A. D. 1161, Henry directed his attention towards reſtricting the encroachments of Rome: theſe had grown with a rapidity not to be brooked by a prince of his high ſpirit; and to facilitate his deſign of ſuppreſſing them, he advanced to the dignity of chief metropolitan, Becket, his chancellor, of whoſe flexibility of temper he had made a very miſtaken eſtimate. That prelate had early inſinuated himſelf into the favour of Theobald archbiſhop of Canterbury, and obtained from him conſiderable preferment. This enabled him to purſue at Boulogne, the ſtudy of civil and canon law; and by gradual advances, he roſe to the dignity of chancellor of England. Being of a gay and ſplendid turn, and apparently little tenacious of eccleſiaſtical privileges, Henry thought him the fitteſt perſon, on the death of Theobald, for the high ſtation of archbiſhop of Canterbury; but no ſooner was he inſtalled in this dignity, than he altered his demeanor and conduct. He maintained in his retinue and attendants his ancient pomp and luſtre; but in his own perſon he affected the greateſt auſterity; ſeemed perpetually employed in reciting prayers and pious lectures; and all men of penetration plainly foreſaw that he was meditating ſome political innovation.

Henry, though he perceived that Becket was wholly intent on promoting the intereſts of his order, was far from relinquiſhing his deſign of retrenching the clerical uſurpations. The ſchiſm for the papacy which divided all Europe, afforded him an opportunity favourable to his projects. Among other inventions to obtain money, the clergy had inſiſted upon the neceſſity of a ſpecific penance as an atonement for ſin; and the ſums of money that were received by the prieſts in lieu of theſe penances, are ſaid to have exceeded the amount of the king's revenue. To eaſe his people of ſo heavy and impious an impoſition, Henry demanded that a civil officer of his appointment ſhould be preſent in all eccleſiaſtical courts, and ſhould for the future give his conſent to every bargain which was to be made with ſinners for their ſpiritual offences. The eccleſiaſtics in that age had renounced all immediate ſubordination to the magiſtrate; and as many of them were of low character, crimes of the blackeſt dye were committed with impunity by them. An hundred murders ſince Henry's acceſſion had been perpetrated by men in holy orders. A prieſt in Worceſterſhire, having debauched a gentleman's daughter, had proceeded to murder the father; the general indignation againſt the crime, moved the king to attempt the remedy of an abuſe which had become ſo infamous; he required that the prieſt ſhould be delivered up, and receive condign puniſhment from the magiſtrate. Becket inſiſted on the privileges of the church, and maintained that no greater puniſhment could be inflicted on the criminal than degradation. Henry, exaſperated, ſummoned an aſſembly of the prelates of England; and demanded whether they were willing to ſubmit the affair to the ancient laws of the kingdom: and though at firſt they endeavoured to evade the queſtion, by the exception of their own order, they yielded ſoon after to his menaces. Becket, however, for a long time remained inflexible; and at laſt rather complied in conſequence of the deſires of the court of Rome, than of the threats of the king. But Henry was not content with a declaration in general terms: he reſolved to define expreſsly thoſe laws to which he required obedience; and in order to mark the limits between the civil and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, he ſummoned a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon; when by his influence or authority, the laws ſo favourable to prerogative, known by the name of the *Conſtitutions of Clarendon*, were voted without oppoſition.

Henry, by thus reducing the ancient cuſtoms of the realm to writing, endeavoured to prevent all future diſpute on the ſubjects to which they related; and thought he had thus fully eſtabliſhed the ſuperiority of the legiſlature above all ſpiritual canons. Apprehenſive, however, that the biſhops might retract their conſent to theſe conſtitutions, he required that they ſhould ſet their ſeal to them. Becket, of all the prelates, alone oppoſed his will; but, finding himſelf deſerted even by his brethren, he at length gave way, and engaged by oath, legally, with good faith, and without fraud or reſervation, to obſerve them. The ratification of the pope was ſtill thought requiſite; but, though Alexander owed the higheſt obligations to Henry, he rejected the conſtitutions of Clarendon, which he plainly ſaw would render England independent of the papal power; and therefore offered, for the ſake of peace, to ratify a few of the leaſt important articles. Becket no ſooner perceived the determination of the Roman pontiff, than he expreſſed the deepeſt ſorrow for his compliance, and endeavoured to engage the other biſhops to adhere to their common rights, in which he repreſented the intereſt and honour of God to be concerned. To make him feel his reſentment, Henry inſtituted againſt him a proſecution for ſome land that he held; and, when the primate excuſed himſelf, on account of indiſpoſition, from appearing, that prince ſummoned a great council at Northampton, in which Becket was arraigned as guilty of a contempt of the king's court; and being condemned, all his goods and chattels were confiſcated. Henry, not ſatisfied with this ſentence, however haſty and oppreſſive, ſoon after required Becket to give in the accounts of his adminiſtration while chancellor; and eſtimated the balance in arrear at forty-four thouſand marks, for which he demanded ſureties. In this emergency, ſeveral of the primate's friends adviſed him to reſign his ſee, on condition of receiving an acquittal; but the daring ſpirit of Becket rejected theſe timid counſels; and he determined to brave his enemies. After celebrating maſs, where he had previouſly ordered that the

entrois

entroit to the communion ſervice ſhould begin with the words, *princes ſat and ſpake againſt me*, arrayed in the ſacred veſtments, and bearing the croſs before him, he entered the royal apartments, and declared that he put both himſelf and his ſee under the protection of the ſupreme pontiff. This appeal to the pope in a civil cauſe, was a matter new and unprecedented; but Becket perſevered in it. He refuſed to hear the ſentence which the barons and ſheriffs had paſſed on the king's claim; and, having in vain aſked permiſſion to leave Northampton, he withdrew ſecretly to the ſea-coaſt, and found a veſſel which conveyed him to France, where he was received with every token of regard.

To provide againſt the conſequences of the breach which was impending between England and the apoſtolic ſee, Henry inhibited, under ſevere penalties, all appeals to the pope or archbiſhop: he declared it treaſonable to bring from either of them an interdict upon the kingdom, and puniſhable, in ſecular clergymen, by the loſs of their eyes, and caſtration; in regulars, by amputation of their feet; and in laics, with death. On the other hand, Becket not only iſſued a cenſure, excommunicating the king's chief miniſters by name, but alſo abrogated and annulled the Conſtitutions of Clarendon; and declared that he ſuſpended the ſpiritual thunder over Henry himſelf, ſolely that the prince might avoid the blow by a timely repentance.

Henry eluded the immediate danger, by flattering Alexander with the proſpect of a ſpeedy reconciliation between himſelf and Becket, which at length took place; and Becket was allowed to return, on conditions which may be conſidered both honourable and advantageous to that prelate. He was not required to give up any rights of the church, or reſign any of thoſe pretenſions which had been the original ground of the controverſy. It was agreed that all theſe queſtions ſhould be buried in oblivion; but that Becket and his adherents ſhould, without making farther ſubmiſſion, be reſtored to all their livings, and that even the poſſeſſors of ſuch benefices as depended on the ſee of Canterbury, and had been filled during the primate's abſence, ſhould be expelled, and Becket have liberty to ſupply the vacancies. In return for conceſſions which trenched ſo deeply on the honour and dignity of the crown, Henry reaped only the advantage of ſeeing his miniſters abſolved from the ſentence of excommunication pronounced againſt them, and of preventing the interdict, with which his kingdom had been threatened. It was eaſy indeed to ſee how much he dreaded that event, when a prince of ſo high a ſpirit, on one occaſion humiliated himſelf ſo far as to hold the ſtirrup of the haughty Becket, while he mounted his horſe!

Henry did not even gain a temporary tranquillity by this conceſſion. While he daily dreaded the ſentence of excommunication, he had thought it prudent to aſſociate his ſon prince Henry in the royalty. The ceremony had been performed by the archbiſhop of York; but Becket pretended, as archbiſhop of Canterbury, that he had the ſole right to officiate, and therefore, in the name of the pope, he ſuſpended the archbiſhop of York, and excommunicated the biſhops of London and Saliſbury, with others who had aſſiſted at the coronation of the prince. The king, who was then at Baieux, being extremely agitated on hearing of this new inſtance of Becket's malignant behaviour, burſt forth into an exclamation againſt his ſervants, whoſe want of zeal, he ſaid, had ſo long expoſed him to the arrogance of that ungrateful and imperious prelate. Four gentlemen of his houſehold, Reginald Fitz-Urſe, William de Traci, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito, taking theſe poignant expreſſions to be a hint for the primate's death, immediately communicated their thoughts to each other; and ſwearing to avenge their prince's quarrel, ſecretly withdrew from court. Some menacing expreſſions which they had dropped, gave a ſuſpicion of their deſign; and the king diſpatched a meſſenger after them, charging them to attempt nothing againſt the perſon of Becket: but theſe orders arrived too late to prevent their fatal purpoſe. The four aſſaſſins, though they took different roads to England, arrived nearly at the ſame time at Saltwood, near Canterbury, and from thence proceeded to the archiepiſcopal palace. They found the primate, who truſted entirely to the ſacredneſs of his character, very ſlenderly attended; and, though they threw out many menaces and reproaches againſt him, he was ſo devoid of fear, that, without uſing any precautions, he immediately proceeded to St. Benedict's church to veſpers. They followed him thither, attacked him before the altar, and having cloven his head with many blows, retired without any oppoſition. Such was the tragical end of Thomas à Becket, a prelate of the moſt lofty, intrepid, and inflexible, ſpirit, who was able to maſk the enterpriſes of pride and ambition, under the diſguiſe of ſanctity, and of zeal for the intereſts of religion; but who certainly was a bad ſubject, and therefore could not be a good man.

Henry, on the firſt report of Becket's violent meaſures, had purpoſed to have him arreſted, and had already taken ſome ſteps towards the execution of that deſign; but the intelligence of his murder threw the prince into great conſternation; and he immediately felt the dangerous conſequences which he had reaſon to apprehend from ſo horrible an event. An archbiſhop of the higheſt reputed ſanctity, aſſaſſinated before the altar in the exerciſe of his function, and on account of his zeal in maintaining eccleſiaſtical privileges, could not fail to attain the higheſt honours of martyrdom; while his reputed murderer would be ranked among the moſt bloody tyrants of the age. Theſe conſiderations gave the king the utmoſt anxiety; and, as it was extremely his intereſt to clear himſelf from all ſuſpicion, he took no care to conceal the depth of his affliction. He ſhut himſelf up from the light of day, and from all commerce with mankind; he even refuſed, during three days, all food and ſuſtenance. The courtiers, apprehending dangerous effects from his deſpair, were at laſt obliged to break in upon his ſolitude; and, employing every means of conſolation, induced him to accept of nouriſhment, and occupied his leiſure in taking precautions againſt the conſequences which he ſo juſtly apprehended.

The moſt important point which Henry had to eſtabliſh, was to convince the world and the pope of his innocence; or rather to diſſuade him from proceeding with his excommunications againſt England. The archbiſhop of Rouen, the biſhops of Worceſter and Evreux, with five perſons of inferior quality, were forthwith diſpatched to Rome; they were with difficulty admitted to an audience; and the rage of Alexander was not appeaſed until they made oath before the whole conſiſtory, of their ſovereign's innocence, and engaged that he would make every ſubmiſſion to the holy ſee, that ſhould be required of him. Though the rage of the clergy was thus diverted from the king, their zeal for the memory of Becket found ample employment in extolling the merits of his martyrdom. Endleſs were the panegyrics on his virtues; and the miracles wrought at his ſhrine were more numerous, more ridiculous, and more impudently atteſted, than thoſe which ever filled the ſuperſtitious legend of any confeſſor or martyr. Two years after his death he was canonized by pope Alexander; a ſolemn jubilee was eſtabliſhed for celebrating his memory: his body was enriched with preſents from all parts of Chriſtendom; pilgrimages were performed to obtain his interceſſion with heaven; and it was computed, that in one year, above an hundred thouſand pilgrims arrived in Canterbury, and paid their devotions at his tomb.

In the mean time Henry, thus delivered from the thunders of the Vatican, A. D. 1172, undertook an expedition againſt Ireland. That iſland, about the middle of the twelfth century, beſides ſeveral ſmall tribes, contained the principal ſovereignties of Munſter, Leinſter, Meath, Ulſter,

Ulſter, and Connaught; and, as it had been uſual for the one or the other of theſe ſtates to take the lead in their wars, there was commonly ſome prince who ſeemed, for the time, to act as monarch of Ireland. Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught, was then advanced to this dignity; but his government, ill obeyed even within his own territory, could not unite the people in any meaſures, either for the eſtabliſhment of order, or for defence againſt foreigners. The ambition of Henry had, very early in his reign, been moved by the proſpect of theſe advantages, to attempt the ſubjugation of Ireland; and a pretence was only wanting to invade a people, who, being always confined to their own iſland, had never given offence to their neighbours. For this acquiſition, Henry had recourſe to Rome, which aſſumed a right to diſpoſe of kingdoms and empires; and, not foreſeeing the dangerous diſputes which he was one day to maintain with that ſee, he aſſiſted to give ſanctions to claims which were now become dangerous to all ſovereigns. Adrian III. who then filled the papal chair, was by birth an Engliſhman; and, being on that account the more diſpoſed to oblige Henry, he readily countenanced the plan; ſo that Henry only waited for a favourable opportunity of carrying his arms into Ireland.

Dermot Macmorrogh king of Leinſter, having rendered himſelf obnoxious by his licentious tyranny, had been expelled his dominions by a confederacy, of which the king of Connaught was the chief. The exiled prince applied to Henry for ſuccour, who furniſhed him with letters patent, by which he empowered his ſubjects to aid him in the recovery of his dominions. Dermot engaged with Richard, ſurnamed Strongbow, earl of Strigul; who ſtipulated, for this aſſiſtance, the hand of his daughter Eva, and a promiſe that he ſhould be declared heir to his territories. While Richard was aſſembling his vaſſals, Dermot went into Wales; and, meeting with Robert Fitz-Stephens, conſtable of Abertevi, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, he alſo engaged them in his ſervice, and obtained their promiſe of invading Ireland: he himſelf immediately croſſed the Iriſh ſea, concealed himſelf in a monaſtery that he had founded, and prepared every thing for the reception of his Engliſh allies. The troops of Fitz-Stephens were firſt ready. He landed in Ireland with thirty knights, ſixty eſquires, and three hundred archers; and, with this ſmall body, ſtruck a great terror into the native inhabitants. The conjunction of Maurice de Pendergaſt, who, about the ſame time, brought over ten knights and ſixty archers, enabled Fitz-Stephens to attempt the ſiege of Wexford, a town then inhabited by the Danes; and, after gaining an advantage, he made himſelf maſter of the place. Soon after, Fitz-Gerald arrived with ten knights, thirty eſquires, and a hundred archers; and, being joined by the former adventurers, they compoſed a force which nothing in Ireland was able to withſtand.

Roderic, the chief monarch of the iſland, was foiled in different actions; the prince of Oſſory was obliged to ſubmit, and give hoſtages for his peaceable behaviour; and Dermot, not content with being reſtored to his kingdom of Leinſter, projected the dethroning of Roderic, and aſpired to the ſole dominion of Ireland. In proſecution of theſe views, he ſent over a meſſenger to the earl of Strigul, challenging the performance of his promiſe, and diſplaying the mighty advantages which might be reaped by a reinforcement of warlike troops from England. Strongbow firſt ſent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and ſeventy archers, who, landing near Waterford, defeated a body of three thouſand Iriſh that had ventured to attack him; and, as Richard himſelf, who brought over two hundred horſe and a body of archers, joined them a few days after, the victorious Engliſh made themſelves maſters of Waterford, and proceeded to Dublin, which was taken by aſſault. Roderic, in revenge, cut off the head of Dermot's natural ſon, who had been left as a hoſtage in his hands; and Richard, marrying Eva, became ſoon after, by the death of Dermot, maſter of the kingdom of Leinſter, and prepared to extend his authority over all Ireland. Roderic and the other Iriſh princes, alarmed at the danger, and combining together, beſieged Dublin with an army of thirty thouſand men; but earl Richard, making a ſudden ſally at the head of ninety knights, with their followers, put this numerous army to rout, and purſued them with great ſlaughter. Henry, now become jealous of the progreſs of his own ſubjects, ſent orders to recall the Engliſh, and himſelf landed in Ireland, at the head of five hundred knights. The adventurers appeaſed him by offering to hold their acquiſitions in vaſſallage to his majeſty; and, the ſpirits of the Iriſh being broken, nothing remained but to receive their ſubmiſſion. The whole iſland was formally annexed to the Engliſh crown; and Henry, after a few months ſtay, returned in triumph to England.

The joy which this conqueſt diffuſed throughout the realm was very great; and Henry ſeemed now to have attained the ſummit of his utmoſt wiſhes. He was the undiſputed monarch of the greateſt domain in Europe; father of a numerous progeny, that gave both luſtre and authority to his crown; victorious over all his enemies, and implicitly obeyed by all his ſubjects. Henry, his eldeſt ſon, had been anointed king, and was acknowledged as undoubted ſucceſſor; Richard, his ſecond ſon, was inveſted with the duchy of Guienne and Poictou; Geoffrey, his third ſon, inherited, in right of his wife, the duchy of Bretagne; and John, his youngeſt, was deſigned to be king in Ireland. Such was the proſpect of grandeur before the royal eyes; but ſuch is the inſtability of human affairs, that this very exaltation of his family proved the means of embittering his future life, and of diſturbing the peace of his government.

Among the few vices aſcribed to this monarch, unreſtrained gallantry was one. Queen Eleanor, whom he had married from motives of ambition, and who had been divorced from her former conſort for her incontinence, was long become diſagreeable to Henry; and he ſought in others thoſe ſatisfactions he could not find in her. Among the number of his miſtreſſes we have the name of Fair Roſamond, whoſe perſonal charms, and whoſe ſorrowful death, make ſo conſpicuous a figure in the romances of that period. It is true that the ſeverity of criticiſm has rejected moſt of theſe accounts as fabulous; yet well-known fables, when much celebrated, make a part of the hiſtory, at leaſt of the manners, of the age. Roſamond Clifford is ſaid to have been the moſt beautiful woman of her day. Henry loved her with a moſt faithful attachment; and, in order to ſecure her from the reſentment of his queen, who, from having been formerly incontinent herſelf, now became jealous of his incontinence, he concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodſtock Park, where he paſſed in her company his hours of relaxation and pleaſure. How long this intercourſe continued, is not known; but it was not ſo cloſely concealed but that it came to the queen's knowledge, who, as the ſtory goes, being guided by a clue of ſilk to her fair rival's retreat, compelled her, by holding a drawn dagger to her breaſt, to ſwallow poiſon. Whatever may be the veracity of this account, certain it is, that this imperious queen, though formerly offenſive by her own gallantries, was now no leſs ſo by her jealouſy; and ſhe it was who firſt ſowed the ſeeds of diſſenſion between the king and his children.

Young Henry was taught to believe himſelf injured, when, upon being crowned as partner in the kingdom, he was not admitted into an active ſhare of the adminiſtration. The diſcontent of young Henry was ſoon followed by that of his brothers Geoffrey and Richard, whom the queen had perſuaded to aſſert their title to the territories reſpectively aſſigned them; and, upon the king's refuſing their demands, they all fled ſecretly to the court of France, where Louis gave them countenance and protection. Queen Eleanor herſelf was meditating an eſcape

to the ſame court, and had put on man's apparel for that purpoſe, when ſhe was ſeized by the king's order, and put into confinement. Thus Henry ſaw all his long-concerted views of future happineſs totally clouded; his ſons, ſcarcely yet arrived at manhood, eager to ſhare the ſpoils of their father's poſſeſſions; his queen warmly encouraging thoſe undutiful princes in their rebellion; and many potentates of Europe not aſhamed to encourage and ſupport their pretenſions. Nor were his proſpects much more flattering when extended to his nobles and ſubjects: his licentious barons, diſguſted with a vigilant adminiſtration, wiſhed to be governed by princes whom they could flatter or intimidate: the clergy had not yet forgotten Becket's death; and the people conſidered him as a ſaint and a martyr, whoſe blood had not yet been ſufficiently atoned. In this univerſal diſaffection, Henry ſupported that intrepidity of character which he had ſhewn through life, and prepared for a conteſt from which he could expect to reap neither profit nor glory.

It was not long before the young princes had ſufficient influence upon the continent to raiſe a powerful confederacy in their favour. Beſide the king of France, Philip count of Flanders, Matthew count of Boulogne, Theobald count of Blois, and Henry count of Eu, all declared themſelves in their intereſts. William king of Scotland alſo made one of this aſſociation, and a plan was concerted for a general invaſion of Henry's extenſive dominions. This was put into execution, A. D. 1173. The king's continental dominions were attacked on one ſide by the counts of Flanders and Boulogne; and, on the other, by the king of France with a large army, which the young Engliſh princes animated by their preſence and popularity. But Henry found means to diſcomfit them in every quarter; the count of Boulogne being mortally wounded in the aſſault of the town of Driencourt, his death ſtopped the progreſs of the Flemiſh arms on that ſide. The French army being obliged to retire from the ſiege of Verneuil, Henry attacked their rear, put them to the rout, and took many priſoners. The barons of Bretagne alſo, who had riſen in favour of the young princes, ſhared no better fate; their army was driven from the field, and, taking ſhelter in the town of Dol, were there made priſoners of war. Theſe ſucceſſes repreſſed the pride and the expectations of the confederated forces, and a conference was ſolicited by the French king, to which Henry readily agreed. In this interview, he had the mortification to ſee his three ſons ranged on the ſide of his mortal and inveterate enemy; but he was ſtill more aggravated to find that their demands roſe in proportion to their incapacity to obtain them.

While Henry was thus quelling the inſolence of his foreign enemies, his Engliſh ſubjects were on the point of revolting from their obedience at home. The nobility were in general united to oppoſe him; and an irruption at this time by the king of Scotland aſſiſted their ſchemes of inſurrection. The earl of Leiceſter, at the head of a body of Flemings, invaded Suffolk, but was repulſed with great ſlaughter. The earl of Ferrars, Roger de Mowbray, and many others of equal dignity, roſe in arms; while the king of Scotland broke into the northern provinces, with an army of eighty thouſand men, and made the country one extenſive ſcene of deſolation. Henry, after defeating his enemies in France, haſtened to oppoſe thoſe in England; but he imagined that his long diſſenſions with Becket ſtill operated to his diſadvantage in the minds of the people, and it was his determination effectually to do them away. As ſoon, therefore, as he came within ſight of the church of Canterbury, alighting from his horſe, he walked barefoot towards the town, proſtrated himſelf before the ſhrine of the ſaint, remained in faſting and prayer a whole day, watched all night the holy relics, made a grant of fifty pounds a year to the convent for a conſtant ſupply of tapers to illuminate the ſhrine; and, not ſatisfied with theſe ſubmiſſions, he aſſembled a chapter of monks, diſrobed before them, put a ſcourge of diſcipline into each of their hands, and preſented his bare ſhoulders to their infliction. Next day he received abſolution; and, departing for London, received the agreeable news of a victory over the Scots, ſaid to have been obtained in the very hour of his penitential diſcipline.

Having in this ſuperſtitious manner made his peace with the church, and brought over the minds of the people, he fought upon ſurer grounds; every victory he obtained was imputed to the favour of the reconciled ſaint, and every ſucceſs thus tended to aſcertain the growing confidence of his party. The victory which was gained over the Scots was ſignal and deciſive. William, their king, after having committed the moſt horrible depredations upon the northern frontiers, had thought proper to retreat, upon the advance of an Engliſh army, commanded by Ralph de Glanville, the famous Engliſh lawyer. As he had fixed his ſtation at Alnwick, he thought himſelf perfectly ſecure, from the remoteneſs of the enemy, againſt any attack. In this, however, he was deceived; for Glanville made a haſty and fatiguing march to the place of his encampment, and approached it during the obſcurity of a miſt. The Scots were ſurpriſed in the morning to find themſelves attacked by the enemy, which they thought at ſuch a diſtance; and their king, venturing with a ſmall body of a hundred horſe to oppoſe the aſſailants, was quickly ſurrounded, and taken priſoner. His troops fled on all ſides with the utmoſt precipitation, and made the beſt of their way to their own country.

Henry's affairs now began to wear a better aſpect; the barons, who were preparing for a revolt, made inſtant ſubmiſſion; they delivered up their caſtles to the victor, and England in a few weeks was reſtored to perfect tranquillity. Young Henry, who was ready to embark with a large army, to ſecond the efforts of the Engliſh inſurgents, finding all diſturbances quieted at home, abandoned all thoughts of the expedition. Louis attempted in vain to beſiege Rouen, which Henry haſtened over to ſuccour. A ceſſation of arms, and a conference, were once more agreed upon by the two monarchs. Henry granted his ſons much leſs advantageous terms than they formerly refuſed to accept; the moſt material, were ſome penſions for their ſupport, ſome caſtles for their reſidence, and an indemnity to all their adherents. Thus England emerged from the numerous calamities that threatened to overwhelm it, and the king was anxious to make various proviſions for the glory, the happineſs, and the ſecurity, of his people.

His firſt care was to make his priſoner, the king of Scots, undergo a proper puniſhment for his unmerited and ungenerous attack. That prince was obliged to ſign a treaty, by which he was compelled to do homage to Henry for his dominions in Scotland. It was agreed, that his barons and biſhops alſo ſhould do the ſame; and that the fortreſſes of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, Roxborough, and Jedborough, ſhould be delivered into the hands of the conqueror till the articles were performed. This treaty was rigorouſly executed; and the king, barons, and prelates, of Scotland, did homage to Henry in the cathedral of York. His domeſtic regulations were as judicious as his political conduct was ſplendid. He enacted ſevere penalties againſt robbery, murder, falſe coining, and burning of houſes; ordaining, that theſe crimes ſhould be puniſhed by the amputation of the right hand and right foot. He partitioned out the kingdom into four diviſions; and appointed judges to go their reſpective circuits to try cauſes, to reſtrain the cruelties of their barons, and to protect the lower ranks of the people in ſecurity. He renewed the trial by juries, which, by the ferocious cuſtom of camp-fight, had almoſt grown obſolete; and, to ſecure the kingdom more effectually againſt invaſion, he eſtabliſhed a well-armed militia, capable of defending the realm upon any emergency.

But it was not in the power of human ability to conciliate the turbulent and ambitious diſpoſition of his ſons; who,

who, not content with rebelling againſt their father, now warmly proſecuted their enmities againſt each other. Richard, whom Henry had made maſter of Guienne, and who had already diſplayed uncommon valour in humbling his mutinous barons, refuſed to obey his father's orders in doing homage to his elder brother for that duchy. Young Henry and Geoffrey, A. D. 1180, uniting their arms, carried an implacable war into their brother's dominions; and while the king was endeavouring to compoſe their differences, he found himſelf ſecretly conſpired againſt by them all. What the reſult of this conſpiracy might have been, is uncertain; but it was defeated by the death of young Henry, who expired in the twenty-ſixth year of his age, at Martel-caſtle, near Turenne, not without the deepeſt remorſe for his undutiful conduct towards his father; who alſo ſhortly after loſt his ſon Geoffrey, who was killed in a tournament at Paris, A. D. 1183. The loſs of this prince gave few, except the king himſelf, any uneaſineſs, as he was univerſally hated, and went among the people under the opprobrious name of *The Child of Perdition*.

But the death of the prince did not wholly remove the cauſe of his revolt; for Philip the Great, or Auguſtus, then king of France, diſputed his title to the wardſhip of Arthur, the ſon of Geoffrey, who inherited Bretagne on the death of his father. Some other cauſes of diſſenſion inflamed the diſpute between the two monarchs. Philip had again allured Richard from his duty; and inſiſted upon his marriage being completed with Adelais, his ſiſter, to whom he had been affianced. In conſequence of this claim, another conference was held between Giſors and Trie, under a vaſt elm, ſaid to have ſhaded more than an acre. It was in the midſt of this conference upon their mutual rights, that a new object of intereſt was offered to their deliberation, which quickly bore down all ſecular conſiderations before it. This was no leſs than the projection of a ſecond cruſade to the Holy Land. Richard, who had long wiſhed to partake in the glory of ſuch an expedition, and who could not bear to have even his father a partner in his victories, entered into a confederacy with the king of France, who promiſed to confirm him in thoſe wiſhes, at which he ſo ardently aſpired. He therefore began by making an inroad into the territories of the count of Thouloufe, a vaſſal of the king of France; and this monarch, in order to retaliate, carried the war into Berri and Auvergne. Henry, who was appriſed of their ſecret confederacy, made depredations in turn upon the dominions of the French king. Conferences were again propoſed, attended, and diſmiſſed. At length, Henry found himſelf compelled to enter upon a war with France and his eldeſt ſon, who were thus unnaturally leagued againſt him. He now ſaw the confederacy daily gaining ground. Ferte-Bernard fell firſt into the hands of the enemy; Mans was next taken by aſſault; Amboiſe, Chaumont, and Château de Loire, threw open their gates; Tours was inveſted; and the king, who had retired to Saumur, had daily inſtances of the cowardice and defection of his governors. While in this ſtate of deſpondency, the duke of Burgundy, the count of Flanders, and archbiſhop of Rheims, interpoſed their good offices; and a treaty was concluded, in which he ſubmitted to many mortifying conceſſions. It was agreed that Richard ſhould marry the princeſs Adelais, and be crowned king of England during the life-time of his father. It was ſtipulated, that Henry ſhould pay twenty thouſand marks to the king of France, as a compenſation for the charges of the war; that his own barons ſhould engage to make him obſerve this treaty; and in caſe of violating it, to be at liberty to join Philip and Richard againſt him; and that all thoſe who had fought on the ſide of Richard, ſhould receive a free pardon. Theſe were terms ſufficiently humiliating to a prince, who had always been accuſtomed to give, not receive, ſtipulations: but what was his aſtoniſhment, when upon demanding a liſt of the perſons who had lifted the ſword againſt him, he found his ſon John, his favourite child, among the number. He had long borne an infirm ſtate of body with calm reſignation; he had ſeen his children rebel without much emotion; he ſaw his own ſon his conqueror, himſelf bereft of his power, reduced to the condition of a fugitive, and almoſt ſuppliant, in his old age; and all this he endured with equanimity of temper: but when he ſaw that child, whoſe intereſts always lay next his heart, among the number of thoſe who were in rebellion againſt him, he could no longer contain his indignation. He broke out into expreſſions of the utmoſt deſpair; curſed the day in which he had received his birth; and beſtowed on his ungrateful children a malediction which he never after could be prevailed upon to retract. The more his heart was diſpoſed to friendſhip and affection, the more he reſented this unnatural return; and now, not having one corner in his heart where he could look for comfort, or fly for refuge from his conflicting paſſions, he loſt all his former vivacity. A lingering fever ſoon terminated his life and his miſeries. He died at the caſtle of Chinon, near Saumur, July 6, 1189, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign. His corpſe was conveyed to the nunnery of Fonteverard; and next day, while it lay in the abbey church, Richard chancing to enter, was ſtruck with horror at the ſight. At his approach the blood was ſeen to guſh out at the mouth and noſtrils of the corpſe; and this, which, without doubt, was accidental, was interpreted by the ſuperſtition of the times as the moſt awful rebuke. Richard could not endure the ſight; he exclaimed, "that he was his father's murderer;" and expreſſed a ſtrong, though late, ſenſe of that undutiful conduct which brought his parent to an untimely grave.

Thus died Henry II. the firſt monarch of the houſe of Plantagenet, the greateſt prince of his time for wiſdom, virtue, and ability, and the moſt powerful in extent of dominion, of all thoſe that had ever filled the throne of England. His character, both in public and private life, is almoſt without a blemiſh; and he ſeems to have poſſeſſed every accompliſhment, both of body and mind, which makes a man eſtimable or amiable. He was of a middle ſtature, ſtrong, and well proportioned; his countenance was lively and engaging; his converſation affable and entertaining; his elocution eaſy, perſuaſive, and ever at command. He loved peace, but poſſeſſed both conduct and bravery in war; was provident without timidity; ſevere in the execution of juſtice without rigour; and temperate without auſterity. He preſerved health, and kept himſelf from corpulency, to which he was ſomewhat inclined, by an abſtemious diet, and by frequent exerciſe, particularly by hunting. When he could enjoy leiſure, he recreated himſelf in learned converſation, or in reading; and he cultivated his natural talents by ſtudy, above any prince of his time. His affections, as well as his enmities, were warm and durable; and his long experience of ingratitude and infidelity of men never deſtroyed the natural ſenſibility of his temper, which diſpoſed him to friendſhip and ſociety. His death was deeply lamented by his ſubjects, whoſe happineſs ſeems to have been the chief aim of all his endeavours. He not only enacted wholeſome laws, but ſaw them executed with great punctuality. He was generous, even to admiration, with regard to thoſe who committed offences againſt his own perſon; but he never forgave the injuries that were offered to his people; in thoſe caſes atrocious crimes were puniſhed ſeverely, without reſpect of perſons. He was eloquent, agreeable, and facetious; remarkably courteous and polite; compaſſionate to all in diſtreſs; ſo charitable, that he conſtantly allotted one-tenth of his houſhold proviſions to the poor, and in time of dearth he maintained ten thouſand indigent perſons, from the beginning of ſpring till the end of autumn. His talents, naturally good, he had cultivated with great aſſiduity, and delighted in the converſation of learned men, to whom he was a generous benefactor. His memory was ſo ſurpriſingly tenacious, that he never forgot a face nor a circumſtance that

was worth remembering. Though ſuperior to his contemporaries in ſtrength, riches, true courage, and military ſkill, he never engaged in war without reluctance, and was ſo averſe to bloodſhed, that he expreſſed an uncommon grief at the loſs of every private ſoldier. Yet he was not entirely exempt from human frailties; his paſſions, naturally violent, often hurried him to exceſs; he was prone to anger, tranſported with the luſt of power, and particularly accuſed of incontinence, not only in the affair of Roſamond, but alſo in a ſuppoſed commerce with the French princeſs Adelais, who was bred in England as the future wife of his ſon Richard. This infamous breach of honour and hoſpitality, if he was actually guilty, is the foulеſt ſtain upon his character; though the fact is doubtful, and we hope the charge untrue.

Henry left two legitimate ſons, Richard who ſucceeded him, and John, who inherited no territory, and therefore received the ſurname of *Lackland*. He left three legitimate daughters, Maud, who was married to the duke of Saxony; Eleanor, married to Alphonſo king of Caſtile; and Joan, to William king of Sicily. He left two natural ſons by Roſamond; Richard Longſword, who was afterwards married to the daughter and heireſs of the earl of Saliſbury; and Geoffrey, who was afterwards archbiſhop of York.

Richard, ſurnamed *Cœur de Lion*, now aſcended the throne of his father, and ſeemed reſolved to diſcourage future diſobedience, by diſmiſſing from his ſervice all thoſe who had encouraged his former undutiful behaviour. He retained in his ſervice all the loyal adherents of the late king; and more than once obſerved, that thoſe who were faithful to one ſovereign would probably continue ſo to another. He eagerly releaſed his mother from confinement, and was profuſe in heaping favours upon his brother John, who made but a very indifferent return for his indulgence.

Richard, agreeable to the knight-errantry of the times, had conſtantly formed a romantic deſire for heroic adventures; and an immoderate zeal for the external rites of Chriſtianity was become the ruling paſſion of Richard and his aſſociates. The Jews, who had been for ſome time increaſing in the kingdom, were the firſt who fell a ſacrifice to this enthuſiaſtic zeal; and great numbers of them were ſlaughtered by the citizens of London, upon the very day of the king's coronation. Five hundred of that perſecuted people had retired into York caſtle for ſafety; but finding themſelves unable to defend the place, they reſolved to periſh by killing one another, rather than meet the fury of their purſuers. Having taken this dreadful reſolution, they firſt murdered their wives and children; threw the dead bodies over the wall againſt their enemies, who attempted to ſcale it; and then, ſetting fire to the houſes, periſhed voluntarily in the flames.

After this ſhocking ſpecimen of the mild influence of Chriſtianity upon the royal mind, Richard determined upon an expedition to the Holy Land, and took every method to raiſe ſupplies for ſo expenſive an undertaking. His father had left him in poſſeſſion of above a hundred thouſand marks; and this ſum he endeavoured to augment by all expedients, however pernicious to the public, or ſubverſive of royal authority. He put up to ſale the revenues and manors of the crown, and ſeveral offices of the greateſt truſt and power. Liberties, charters, caſtles, and employments, were given to the beſt bidders. When his friends intimated the danger of this venality, he told them he would ſell London itſelf, if he could find a purchaſer. In theſe times we find but one man who was honeſt enough to retire from employment when places were become thus ignominious. This was the great lawyer Glanville, who reſigned his poſt of juſticiary, and took the croſs. Richard was not much diſpleaſed at his reſignation, as he was able ſhortly after to ſell his employment to Hugh biſhop of Durham, who gave a thouſand marks for the office. Thus the king, elated with the hopes of fame, was blind to every other conſideration. Numerous exactions were practiſed upon people of all ranks and ſtations; menaces, promiſes, expoſtulations, were uſed to frighten the timid, or allure the avaricious. At length, Richard having got together a ſufficient ſupply for his adventure, and having even ſold his royal prerogative over Scotland, he ſet out for the Holy Land, whither he was impelled by repeated meſſages from Philip Auguſtus king of France, who waited to embark with him in the ſame enterpriſe.

The place of rendezvous for the armies of England and France, was the plain of Vezelay, on the borders of Burgundy; where, when Richard and Philip arrived, they found at their command a choſen body of a hundred thouſand fighting men. This formidable army, not long after, put to ſea; and were obliged, by ſtreſs of weather, to take ſhelter in Meſſina, the capital of Sicily, where they were detained during the whole winter. Richard took up his quarters in the ſuburbs, and poſſeſſed himſelf of a ſmall fort, which commanded the harbour. Philip quartered his troops in the city, and lived upon the beſt terms with the Sicilian king. But it happened that the Meſſineſe ſoon took occaſion to treat the Engliſh with great inſolence; ſhut their gates, manned their walls, and ſet the king of England at defiance. Richard endeavoured to uſe the mediation of Philip to compromiſe this inſult; but while the two monarchs were in deliberation, a body of Sicilians iſſued from the town, and attacked the Engliſh with great impetuoſity. This was ſufficient to excite the fury of Richard, who attacked the city with ſuch fury, that it was ſoon taken, and the ſtandard of England diſplayed on the ramparts. Philip, who conſidered the place as his quarters, exclaimed againſt this mark of ſuperiority, and ordered ſome of his troops to pull down the Engliſh colours. To this, however, Richard returned for anſwer, that he himſelf would take down the ſtandard, ſince it diſpleaſed his aſſociate; but that no power on earth ſhould *compel* him to do ſo. This produced a mutual jealouſy between the two monarchs, which never after ſubſided. At length, however, having ſettled all controverſies, they ſet ſail for the Holy Land, where the French arrived much ſooner than the Engliſh. Richard's fleet encountered a violent tempeſt, and two of his ſhips were driven upon the iſland of Cyprus. Iſaac, prince of that country, either impelled by avarice, or willing to diſcourage the reſt of Richard's fleet from landing, pillaged the ſhips that were ſtranded, and threw the ſeamen and ſoldiers into priſon. But Richard, who ſoon after arrived, took ample revenge for the injury. He diſembarked his troops, defeated the petty tyrant, entered the capital by ſtorm, obliged Iſaac to ſurrender at diſcretion, and took the whole iſland into his poſſeſſion. It was there that Richard married Berengaria, daughter to the king of Navarre, who had attended him in his expedition; and whom he had preferred to Adelais, the king of France's ſiſter, whoſe charms were not ſo powerful, or whoſe fidelity was more ſuſpected. Upon the arrival of the Chriſtian armies in Paleſtine, fortune was ſeen to declare in a moſt extraordinary manner in favour of the Engliſh king. But for the exploits of Richard, and the event of this cruſade, ſee the article EGYPT, p. 323, &c. of this volume.

Richard, having concluded his expedition to the Holy Land with more glory than advantage, began to think of carrying his laurels home; but was at a total loſs how to effect his purpoſe. Taking ſhipping for Italy, he was wreeked, near Aquileia. From thence directing his travels towards Raguſa, and putting on the diſguiſe of a pilgrim, he reſolved to make his way, in that humble manner, through Germany. But, unfortunately, his intentions and perſon were not ſo concealed, but that his quality was ſuſpected; and the governor of Iſtria purſued him, in order to make him a priſoner. Being thus forced from the direct road, he was obliged to paſs by Vienna, where his expenees and liberalities betraying his dignity, he was recogniſed by the infatiable Leopold duke of Auſtria, who commanded him to be impriſoned and loaded with ſhackles,

RICHARD I. *surnamed* COEUR DE LION.

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ſhackles, to the diſgrace of honour and humanity. This prince had ſerved under Richard at the ſiege of Acre; and being diſguſted at ſome affront offered him on that occaſion, he took this baſe method of retaliating the injury. Henry the Sixth, then emperor of Germany, was equally an enemy to Richard, on account of the alliance contracted between him and Tancred king of Sicily, by his marriage with Berengaria. When, therefore, he received the news of Richard's being in the cuſtody of Leopold, he required the priſoner to be delivered up to him, engaging to pay one half of the expected ranſom to the duke, as a reward for this ſervice. Thus the king of England, who had filled the eaſtern world with his fame, was baſely thrown into a dungeon, loaded with irons, and bought and ſold, by thoſe fellow Chriſtians who now expected to reap a ſordid advantage from his misfortunes. It was a long time before his ſubjects in England knew what was become of their ſovereign. So little intercourſe was there between different nations at that time, that this diſcovery is ſaid by ſome to have been made by a poor French minſtrel, who playing upon his harp, near the fortreſs in which Richard was confined, a tune which he knew that unhappy monarch was fond of, he was anſwered by the king from within, who with his harp played the ſame tune; and this diſcovered the place of his confinement.

The emperor, in order to make him ſubmit to the payment of a large ranſom, treated him with the greateſt ſeverity, and reduced him to a condition worſe than that of the meaneſt malefactor. Richard, however, was too high-ſpirited to be meanly depreſſed by thoſe indignities. As he did not know what extremities he might be reduced to, or what condeſcenſions he might be compelled to make, he wrote to the juſticiary of England to obey no orders that ſhould come from him, if they ſeemed in the leaſt derogatory to his honour, or the good of the nation. His precautions were well founded; for the emperor accuſed him at the diet of Worms of many crimes and miſdemeanors, partly to juſtify his malevolence, and partly to ſwell the ranſom. There he charged the king of England with making an alliance with Tancred, the uſurper of Sicily; of turning the arms of the cruſade againſt a Chriſtian prince; of affronting the duke of Auſtria before Acre; of obſtructing the progreſs of the Chriſtian arms by his conteſts with the king of France; of concluding a truce with Saladin, and leaving Jeruſalem in the hands of the infidels. Theſe frivolous charges were heard by Richard with becoming indignation. He even waved his dignity to anſwer them; and ſo fully vindicated himſelf before the princes who compoſed the diet, that they exclaimed loudly againſt the conduct of the emperor, while the pope even threatened him with excommunication. This avaricious monarch now ſaw that he could no longer detain his priſoner; he therefore courted terms of accommodation. A ranſom was agreed upon, which amounted to no leſs than a hundred and fifty thouſand marks, or about three hundred thouſand pounds of our money. Of this, Richard was to pay one hundred thouſand before his enlargement, and ſixty-ſeven hoſtages were to be delivered for the remainder. The agreement being thus made, Richard ſent Hubert, one of his faithful followers in the Holy Land, to England, with the terms upon which he was to receive his liberty, and with a commiſſion to raiſe money for that purpoſe. In the feudal times, every military tenant was, by law, obliged to give aid for the ranſom of his lord from captivity. The tax ariſing from this obligation was accordingly raiſed throughout the kingdom. But the ardour of the people greatly outſtript the operation of the law: vaſt ſums were raiſed by voluntary contribution, to purchaſe the freedom of their king. The churches and monaſteries melted down their plate; the biſhops, abbots, and nobles, paid a fourth of their annual income; the inferior clergy contributed a tenth of their tithes; ſo that the requiſite ſum was ſoon raiſed, with which queen Eleanor, and the juſticiary, ſet out for Germany.

While the Engliſh were thus ſedulouſly employed in preparing the ranſom of their king, Philip Auguſtus was as aſſiduouſly occupied in endeavouring to prolong Richard's captivity. But in this the inſidious French monarch failed. Richard's enlargement was performed with great ceremony at Mentz, in preſence of the German nobility; the money was paid by queen Eleanor, the hoſtages were delivered as a ſecurity for the remainder, and the king of England once more reſtored to the boſom of his ſubjects. Nothing could exceed the joy of the Engliſh upon ſeeing their monarch return, after all his achievements and ſufferings. He made his entry into London in triumph; and ſuch was the profuſion of wealth ſhown by the citizens, that the German lords who attended him were heard to ſay, that if the emperor had known of their affluence, he would not ſo eaſily have parted with their king. He, ſoon after, ordered himſelf to be crowned anew at Wincheſter. He convoked a general council at Nottingham, at which he confiſcated all his traitorous brother's poſſeſſions; and then, having made proper preparations for avenging himſelf on the king of France, he ſet ſail with a numerous body of forces for Normandy.

Richard was but one day landed, A. D. 1194, when his faithleſs brother John came to make ſubmiſſion, and to throw himſelf at the monarch's feet. It was not without ſome degree of reſentment, that Richard received a prince who had all along been leagued with his moſt inveterate enemy. However, at the interceſſion of queen Eleanor, he was received into favour. "I forgive him," ſaid the king, "and I wiſh I could as eaſily forget his offences as he will forget my pardon." This condeſcenſion was not loſt upon a man, whoſe heart, though naturally bad, was not yet dead to every ſentiment of humanity. From that time he ſerved him faithfully; and did him ſignal ſervices in his battles with the king of France, which followed ſoon after. Theſe wars, which, like all others, produced no permanent good, only ſerved to keep alive the animoſity of the two nations. The moſt remarkable circumſtance in the journals of thoſe tranſactions, is the taking the biſhop of Beauvais captive, at the head of his vaſſals, and his being put in priſon by Richard. When the pope demanded his liberty, and claimed him as an inoffenſive child of the church, the king ſent his holineſs the bloody coat of mail which that prelate had worn in battle; aſking whether that was the coat of his ſon? The inhumanity of both parties was in this manner inflamed by inſult and revenge. Both kings frequently put out the eyes of their priſoners; and treaties were concluded and broken with little repugnance. At length, the pope's legate commenced a treaty, which promiſed to be attended with a firm reconciliation; but the premature death of Richard put an end to the conteſt.

Aymar, viſcount of Limoges, a vaſſal of the crown, had taken poſſeſſion of a treaſure, which was found by one of his peaſants in digging a field; and, to ſecure the remainder, he ſent a part of it to the king. Richard, as ſuperior lord, ſenſible that he had a right to the whole, inſiſted on its being ſent him; and, upon refuſal, attacked the caſtle of Chalus, where he underſtood this treaſure had been depoſited. On the fourth day of the ſiege, as he was riding round the place to obſerve where the aſſault might be made with the moſt promiſing ſucceſs, he was aimed at by Bertram de Gourdon, an archer, from the caſtle, and pierced in the ſhoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itſelf dangerous; but an unſkilful ſurgeon endeavouring to diſengage the arrow, ſo mangled the fleſh, that it brought on a mortification. Richard, when he found his end approaching, made a will, in which he bequeathed the kingdom, with all his treaſure, to his brother John, except a fourth part, which he diſtributed among his ſervants. He ordered alſo that the archer who

ſhot him ſhould be brought into his preſence, when he demanded "what injury he had done him, that he ſhould take away his life?" The priſoner anſwered with deliberate intrepidity: "You killed with your own hands my father and my two brothers; and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and my torments may give you revenge; but I will endure them with pleaſure, ſince it is my conſolation that I have rid the world of a tyrant." Richard, ſtruck with this anſwer, ordered the ſoldier to be preſented with one hundred ſhillings, and ſet at liberty; but Marcadé, the king's general, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged. Richard died, April 6, 1199, in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-ſecond of his age, leaving one natural ſon, named Philip.

The moſt ſhining part of this prince's character was his military talents; no man ever in that romantic age carried courage and intrepidity to a greater height; and this quality gained him the appellation of the lion-hearted *cœur de lion*. He paſſionately loved glory; and, as his conduct in the field was not inferior to his valour, he ſeems to have poſſeſſed every talent neceſſary for acquiring it: his reſentments alſo were high, his pride unconquerable, and his ſubjects, as well as his neighbours, had therefore reaſon to apprehend, from the continuance of his reign, a perpetual ſcene of blood and violence. Of an impetuous and vehement ſpirit, he was diſtinguiſhed by all the good, as well as the bad, qualities which are incident to that character. He was open, frank, generous, ſincere, and brave; he was revengeful, domineering, ambitious, haughty, and cruel; and was thus better calculated to dazzle men by the glare of his enterpriſes, than either to promote their happineſs, or his own grandeur, by a ſound and well-regulated policy. As military talents make great impreſſion on the people, he ſeems to have been much beloved by his Engliſh ſubjects; and he is remarked to have been the firſt reigning prince over Normandy who bore a ſincere affection and regard for them. He paſſed, however, only four months of his reign in that kingdom: the croiſade employed him near three years: he was detained about four months in captivity; the reſt of his reign was ſpent either in war, or preparations for war, againſt France: and he was ſo pleaſed with the fame which he had acquired in the eaſt, that he ſeemed determined, notwithſtanding all his paſt misfortunes, to have further exhauſted his kingdom, and to have expoſed himſelf to new hazards, by conducting another croiſade againſt the infidels. In his perſon he was tall, ſtrong, ſtraight, and well-proportioned. His arms were remarkably long; his eyes blue, and full of vivacity; his hair was of a yellowiſh colour; his countenance fair and comely, and his air majeſtic. He was endowed with good natural underſtanding; his penetration was uncommon; he poſſeſſed a fund of manly eloquence; his converſation was ſpirited; and he was much admired for his talents of repartee. He was interred at Fonteverard, in the ſame monaſtery with his brother Henry.

John, who had nothing to fear from a diſputed ſucceſſion, immediately aſcended the Britiſh throne. The king of France, who was the only monarch that could aſſiſt the pretenſions of a rival, had long declared for John's title; and, during the life of his brother, had given him the moſt flattering proofs of ſincerity and friendſhip. But it was otherwiſe now Richard was no more. Philip began to ſhew that his former friendſhips were calculated not to ſerve John, but to harraſs England; not to diſtribute juſtice, but to augment his own power. There was an old claimant of the crown, whom indeed Richard had declared heir to the throne; but who was afterwards ſet aſide, at the inſtance of the dowager-queen. This was Arthur, the ſon of his brother Geoffrey, a youth who, though but twelve years of age, promiſed to be deſerving of the imperial dignity. Philip, who anxiouſly deſired to embarraſs John, reſolved to ſecond this young prince's claim; and ſeveral of the continental barons then declared in favour of Arthur.

John after being put in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh throne, loſt no time in regulating his intereſt on the continent; and his firſt care was to recover the revolted provinces from young Arthur, his nephew. The war, therefore, between John and Philip Auguſtus, was renewed with all its former animoſity. At length however a treaty put an end to thoſe conteſts which only ſerved to thin mankind; and it was haſtened by a circumſtance peculiarly favourable. Arthur, together with Conſtantia his mother, miſtruſting the deſigns of the king of France, who only intended to betray them, came and threw themſelves on the mercy of John, and reſtored to him the provinces which continued in their intereſt. Thus, after a ſhort conteſt, John ſaw himſelf undiſputed monarch of all the dominions which were annexed to the Engliſh throne. But he very ſoon loſt all his power and pre-eminence by his folly and imprudence. His firſt unpardonable conduct was his marriage with Iſabella daughter of the count of Angouléme, while his queen was yet alive; and what ſtill increaſed the adulterous connection, while Iſabella belonged to another huſband, the count of Marche, who ardently loved her. This open violation of the rights of civilized ſociety, produced an inſurrection; to repreſs which, John was obliged to have recourſe to his Engliſh ſubjects for aſſiſtance, by whoſe means the confederacy was ſoon broken; and he imagined from his preſent ſucceſs, that he might in future commit every ſpecies of violence with impunity. But an event yet remained to render John more hateful to his ſubjects, and deſervedly abhorred by all good and virtuous men. Young Arthur, who, with his mother, had reſigned themſelves to the king's protection, ſoon perceived their error, and found that nothing honourable was to be expected from a prince of his abandoned character; they therefore fled from Mans, where he detained them, and once more took refuge with the king of France. They were received by Philip with every mark of diſtinction; and young Arthur's intereſts were vigorouſly ſupported. One town after another ſubmitted to his authority; and his arms ſeemed every where attended with ſucceſs. But his unreaſonable ardour ſoon put an end to his hopes and his claims. Being of an enterpriſing diſpoſition, he had laid ſiege to a fortreſs, with a very ſmall force, in which the dowager-queen was protected. John, therefore, falling upon the rear of his little army before they were aware of his approach, the young prince was taken priſoner, together with the moſt conſiderable of the revolted barons. The greater part of the priſoners were ſent over to England; but the young prince was ſhut up in the caſtle of Falaiſe. John, thus finding his nephew at his mercy, began to meditate upon meaſures which would moſt effectually remove his future apprehenſions. No other expedient ſuggeſted itſelf, but what is foremoſt in the mind of tyrants; namely, the young prince's death. The king therefore hired one aſſaſſin after another, who engaged to diſpatch him; but the cruelty of their hearts relented, and each ruffian returned without accompliſhing the murder. John, thus finding that all his emiſſaries had more compunction than himſelf, reſolved, with his own hands, to execute the bloody deed; and, for that purpoſe, ordered prince Arthur to be removed to the caſtle of Rouen, the capital of Normandy, ſituated on the Seine. John came in a boat to the place at midnight, and ordered the young prince to be brought before him; who, ſuſpecting that his death was meditated, threw himſelf in the moſt ſuppliant manner upon his knees before his uncle, and implored for mercy. But his youth, his affinity, his merits, were all diſregarded: the unfeeling tyrant made no reply, but ſtabbed him in cool blood with his own hand; and, faſtening a ſtone to the dead body, threw it into the Seine!

All men were ſtruck with horror and deteſtation of the perpetrator of this cruel deed; and, as John had in his hands Eleanor, the ſiſter to Arthur, the people of Bretagne choſe for their ſovereign Alice, the younger daughter of Conſtantia by a ſecond marriage. They ſolicited

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the aſſiſtance of Philip Auguſtus, who received their application with pleaſure; ſummoned John to a trial under the feudal law; and, on his non-appearance, declared him to have forfeited to his ſuperior lord all his fiefs in France. Nor was this a vain threat. Philip extended his conqueſts along the banks of the Loire, while John conſumed his hours in laſcivious pleaſures at Rouen. "Let the French go on, (ſaid he,) I will retake in a day what it has coſt them years to acquire." Yet, inſtead of fulfilling this vain boaſt, he meanly claimed the protection and interpoſition of the Roman pontiff; but Philip, inſtead of retiring at the command of the pope's legates, laid ſiege to Chateau Gaillard, A. D. 1204, which was the moſt conſiderable fortreſs on the frontiers of Normandy; and which, being taken in a night-aſſault, Rouen alone maintained ſome reſiſtance, and the citizens demanded thirty days to advertiſe their prince of their danger. Upon the expiration of that term they opened their gates; and Philip, not ſatisfied with this acquiſition, carried his victorious arms into the weſtern provinces, and ſoon reduced Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and part of Poictou. To recover theſe foreign dominions, John landed with a conſiderable army at Rochelle, in 1206; but, on the approach of Philip, he deſerted his troops in a moſt cowardly manner, and returned to England covered with ſhame; and, though he obtained a ſhort reſpite from war, by a truce for two years with the French monarch, that interval was ſtill more diſgraceful to him, by the alternate weakneſs and deſpotiſm of his government, and by the encroachments and arrogance of the pope.

Innocent the Third, a lofty and enterpriſing genius, availing himſelf of a diſpute which had ariſen from an irregular election for the ſee of Canterbury, now claimed the right of nominating the primate of England. He commanded the monks or canons of Chriſtchurch, who had hitherto poſſeſſed that important privilege, to chooſe, on pain of excommunication, cardinal Langton, an Engliſhman by birth, but warmly attached to the ſee of Rome. In vain the monks repreſented, that an election, without a previous writ from the king, would be highly irregular: one only had the courage to perſevere in his oppoſition; the reſt, overcome by the menaces of the pope, complied with his mandate. John, inflamed with the utmoſt rage at this interference of the court of Rome, expelled from the monaſtery the prior and the monks of Chriſtchurch; and, when threatened with the reſentment of Innocent, he burſt out into violent invectives, and ſwore if the pope preſumed to lay his kingdom under the cenſures of the church, that he would expel all the biſhops and clergy in England, and confiſcate all their eſtates. Theſe ſallies of paſſion, however, were far from ſhaking the reſolution of the Roman pontiff, who, ſenſible that the king had loſt the confidence of his people, fulminated againſt him the ſentence of interdict. The execution of this ſentence was calculated to ſtrike a ſuperſtitious people with the deepeſt awe. The nation was of a ſudden deprived of all the exterior forms of its religion; the altars were deſpoiled of their ornaments; the dead, inſtead of being interred in conſecrated ground, were thrown into ditches, or buried in the common fields; marriage was ſolemnized in the church-yards; and every circumſtance carried ſymptoms of the moſt immediate apprehenſion of divine vengeance.

John now confiſcated the eſtates of all the clergy who obeyed the interdict; and treated with the utmoſt rigour the adherents of the church of Rome. Though ſome of the clergy yielded to his threats, and celebrated divine ſervice, they complied with reluctance, and were regarded both by themſelves and the people, as men who ſacrificed their conſciences to their fears or their intereſt. During this conteſt, the king attempted military expeditions againſt Scotland, againſt Ireland, and againſt the Welſh; and commonly prevailed more from the weakneſs of his enemies, than his own vigour or abilities; and ſo great was his want of juſtice and generoſity, that the luſtre of theſe enterpriſes was obſcured by the tyranny of his government, and the licentiouſneſs of his private conduct.

The court of Rome, in 1213, finding that the interdict had not produced the deſired effect, determined to proceed to ſentence of excommunication. John, alarmed at this ſtep, now offered to acknowledge Langton as primate, and to reſtore the exiled clergy; but Langton inſiſting on full reparation for the rents of their confiſcated eſtates, the king broke off the conference. The haughty pope, without temporizing any longer, abſolved John's ſubjects from their oaths of fidelity and allegiance; but declared him to have forfeited, by his contumacy, his crown and kingdom; and he offered it to the king of France. Philip could no how withſtand this tempting prize. He levied a powerful army, and collected in the ports of Normandy and Picardy one thouſand ſeven hundred veſſels. To oppoſe him, John aſſembled at Dover ſixty thouſand men; a force ſufficient, had they been animated with zeal; but the minds of the common people were impreſſed by ſuperſtition; and alienated from their duty by the arrogance of the tyrant. The difficulties of John were alſo augmented by his cowardice and incapacity. Inſtead of braving, he reſolved to yield to the tempeſt; and, in a conference with Pandulf, the pope's legate, he acquieſced in all the exorbitant demands of his infallible maſter; and even paſſed a charter, in which he declared he had, for the remiſſion of his own ſins, reſigned England and Ireland to God, to St. Peter and St. Paul, and to pope Innocent, and his ſucceſſors in the apoſtolic chair for ever; agreeing to hold thoſe dominions as feudatories of the church of Rome, by the annual payment of a thouſand marks. He did homage to Pandulf in the moſt abject manner; and paid part of the tribute, which he owed for his kingdom as the patrimony of St. Peter; while the legate, elated by the triumph of ſacerdotal power, trampled on the money that was laid at his feet, as an earneſt of the ſubjection of the kingdom.

Philip ſoon heard, that England was placed under the protection of the ſee of Rome, and perceived with indignation, that the pope had over-reached him in politics. He therefore complained of being fruſtrated in an expedition which had coſt him ſo much money; and declared his intentions to perſevere, notwithſtanding the inhibitions of the legate. But the vigour and activity of the earl of Saliſbury, John's natural brother, who commanded the Engliſh fleet, was more effectual than the menaces of Pandulf; he ſurpriſed the French ſhips in their harbours; and, by the deſtruction of the greater part of them, compelled Philip to abandon the enterpriſe, without the remuneration he expected. In the mean while John, to retaliate ſome of the injuries he had received, attempted to penetrate with a large army into France; but the intelligence of a deciſive victory which Philip obtained at Bovines over one hundred and fifty thouſand Germans, led by the emperor Otho, inſpired him with humbler thoughts; his hopes were confined to ruling peaceably over England: but even this was denied him; and a much more humiliating ſcene of calamity ſtill awaited him.

The feudal ſyſtem, which had long been eſtabliſhed in England, gave ſuch influence to the ariſtocracy, that the royal authority was in a great meaſure borne down by that of the nobles. When the conqueſt of England was achieved by William, the neceſſity of entruſting great power in the hands of a prince who was to maintain a military dominion over a vanquiſhed nation, had engaged the Norman barons to ſubmit to a more ſevere and abſolute prerogative, than that to which men of ſimilar rank were commonly ſubjected; and England, during a courſe of an hundred and fifty years, was governed by an authority unknown in the ſame degree, to all the other kingdoms founded by the northern conquerors. Henry the Firſt, that he might allure the people to exclude his elder brother

ther Robert from the ſucceſſion, had granted them a charter highly favourable to their liberties; Stephen had renewed the grant; Henry the Second had confirmed it; but the conceſſions of all theſe princes now remained a dead letter; ſo that John, equally odious and contemptible, both in public and private life, provoked the people to form a general confederacy to vindicate their rights by arms. Nothing forwarded this confederacy ſo much as the concurrence of Langton, archbiſhop of Canterbury; a man, whoſe memory, though he was obtruded on the nation by a palpable encroachment, on the ſee of Rome, ought always to be reſpected by the Engliſh. This prelate formed the plan of reforming the government, and paved the way for it, by inſerting a clauſe in the oath, which he adminiſtered to the king, before he would abſolve him from excommunication, "that he would re-eſtabliſh the good laws of his predeceſſors, and aboliſh the wicked ones; and maintain juſtice and right throughout all his dominions. Soon after, he ſhewed to ſome of the barons a copy of the charter of Henry the Firſt, which was almoſt forgotten, and adviſed them to inſiſt on its renewal. The barons ſwore to each other that they would ſooner loſe their lives, than deſiſt from ſo reaſonable a demand: the confederacy ſpread wider; a more numerous meeting was ſummoned at St. Edmond's Bury, under colour of devotion; and the members, inflamed by the eloquence of Langton, and incited by the ſenſe of their own wrongs, took an oath before the altar to adhere to each other, and to make endleſs war on the king, until he ſhould reſtore their liberties.

On an appointed day, A. D. 1215, after having prepared themſelves to maintain their engagements by arms, the barons appeared in London, and required the king, in conſequence of his oath before the primate, to renew the charter of Henry, and confirm the laws of Edward the Confeſſor; time for conſideration was aſked and granted; and the interval was employed by John to influence the pope in his favour. Innocent, foreſaw that if the adminiſtration fell into the hands of the nobility, they would vindicate the rights of their country; but he adviſed the king to grant ſuch demands as ſhould appear reaſonable, and expreſſed his diſapprobation of the conduct of the barons; exhorting the prelates to interpoſe, and put an end to civil diſcord. The barons heard with perfect indifference the diſpleaſure of the court of Rome; and, as ſoon as the time granted to the king was expired, they met at Stamford, and collected their forces, conſiſting of above two thouſand knights, beſides retainers and inferior perſons without number. Elated with their power, they advanced in a body to Brackley, within twenty miles of Oxford, the place where the court then reſided; and ſent to the king a ſchedule containing their principal demands. John had no ſooner peruſed it, than he burſt into a furious paſſion, ſwearing he would never grant ſuch privileges as muſt reduce himſelf to ſlavery.

The confederated nobles, informed of his anſwer, had recourſe to their ſwords; they beſieged the caſtle of Northampton, were admitted into that of Bedford, occupied Ware, and entered London without oppoſition. They laid waſte the royal parks and palaces, and compelled the other barons to join them, on pain of ravaging their eſtates. So formidable indeed were their menaces, and ſo univerſal the diſaffection, that the king was left at Odiham, in Hampſhire, with a retinue of only ſeven knights; and, after in vain offering to ſubmit all differences to the arbitration of the pope, he found himſelf at laſt obliged to yield unconditionally to the will of the barons. It was at Runnymede, between Windſor and Staines, a ſpot which will ever be celebrated in Engliſh hiſtory, that the conference took place between John and his people on this intereſting occaſion. After a deliberation of ſome days, the king, with a facility ſomewhat unexpected, ſigned and ſcaled the famous deed called MAGNA CHARTA, or the *Great Charter of England*, on June 19, 1215; which was the ground-work of Britiſh liberty, and the corner-ſtone of that noble fabric which in time reſulted from it—the unperiſhable CONSTITUTION OF ENGLAND.

To ſecure the execution of this charter, London was left in the hands of the barons, and the Tower was conſigned to the cuſtody of the primate. With the conſent of the king, the confederates choſe from their own body twenty-five members as conſervators of the public liberty, to whoſe authority no limits were preſcribed, either in extent or duration. All men throughout the kingdom were obliged, under the penalty of confiſcation, to ſwear obedience to them: twelve knights from each county, choſen by the freeholders, were to make reports of ſuch evil cuſtoms as required redreſs, conformable to the tenor of the great charter; and this affords a very ſtriking proof that the houſe of commons was not then in being, or ſuch an election would not have been neceſſary.

John, although he apparently ſubmitted to theſe regulations and conceſſions with great cheerfulneſs, yet he only waited a proper opportunity for annulling them. Retiring to the Iſle of Wight, he meditated the moſt fatal vengeance againſt his people. He ſecretly ſent abroad his emiſſaries to invite the rapacious Brabançons (ſoldiers of fortune) into his ſervice; he diſpatched a meſſenger to Rome, to complain before that tribunal of the violence impoſed upon him; and pope Innocent, conſidering himſelf as feudal lord of the kingdom, iſſued a bull, by which he annulled the whole charter. He prohibited the barons from exacting the obſervance of it; he prohibited the king from paying any regard to it; and he pronounced a general ſentence of excommunication againſt every one who ſhould perſevere in maintaining ſuch iniquitous pretenſions. Under the ſanction of this bull, John, as ſoon as he had collected his foreign forces, threw off the maſk. The barons, ſeduced into a fatal ſecurity, had taken no rational meaſures for re-aſſembling their forces. The king was maſter of the field: his rapacious mercenaries were let looſe againſt the eſtates, the tenants, the houſes, and parks, of the nobility; nothing was to be ſeen but the flames of villages and caſtles reduced to aſhes, and the conſternation and miſery of the inhabitants; while the king, marching through the whole extent of England from Dover to Berwick, laid the provinces waſte on every ſide, as if he had been in an enemy's country.

The barons, reduced to this diſtreſſed ſituation, had recourſe to a remedy no leſs deſperate, and offered the king of France to acknowledge Louis, his eldeſt ſon, as their ſovereign, provided he would protect them from the further violence of the tyrant. The proſpect of ſuch a prize rendered Philip Auguſtus regardleſs of the menaces of the court of Rome, which threatened him with excommunication if he attacked a prince under the protection of the holy ſee; but he refuſed to intruſt his ſon and heir to the caprice of the Engliſh barons, without ſome pledge for his ſafety. He therefore demanded of them twenty-five of the moſt illuſtrious nobles; and no ſooner had he received theſe hoſtages, than he ſent over Louis in perſon with a numerous army. When that young prince appeared in England, John's foreign troops, being moſtly levied in Flanders, refuſed to ſerve againſt the heir apparent of their own monarchy. The barons either haſtened to join the ſtandard of Louis, or throw open to him the gates of their caſtles. Louis having landed in Kent, took Rocheſter caſtle, and was actually received in London with every demonſtration of joy. The friends and ſoldiers of John began to abandon him; and the French prince might have cruſhed him with eaſe, had he not made a raſh vow not to advance before he had reduced Dover caſtle. This was in conſequence of Philip's remark to his ſon, "that unleſs he reduced Dover caſtle, he would gain no footing in England." While he ſtrove for this in vain, the Engliſh barons had time to reflect on the evils their country might ſuſtain from a foreign king; and even to entertain ſuch ſuſpicions of Louis's integrity, that they determined to quit his party and (under reſtrictions)

reſtrictions) to reſtore the abhorred John. But that wicked and unfortunate prince was doomed to receive no benefit from their good intenſions. A violent flood had ſwept away his money, his proviſions, and even his regalia, as he marched along the ſhores of Lincolnſhire: no conſciouſneſs of rectitude, no magnanimity, was at hand to ſupport him under this unexpected calamity; with difficulty he reached Newark caſtle; and in that fortreſs broken-hearted and unlamented, he breathed his laſt. John had ſo ſtrong an attachment to Lynn in Norfolk, that he had given it a charter, and had girded the firſt mayor with his own ſword, a relic ſtill preſerved in that town. He alſo kept there his crown and other regalia; and it was in attempting to remove theſe to a ſtronger fortreſs that he met with the laſt misfortune.

A worſe prince never diſgraced any throne; and the hiſtorian may ſurely ſave himſelf the odious taſk of drawing up his character, by referring the reader to the annals of his life, as ſon, uncle, and king. He died in the forty-ninth year of his age, leaving five legitimate children, Henry (who ſucceeded him), and Richard earl of Cornwall; Joan, queen of Scotland; Eleanor, counteſs of Leiceſter; and Iſabella, wife of Frederic II. emperor of Germany. He had ſix natural children, whoſe names and poſterity are recorded at length by Sandford.

The perſon of John was tall and well-favoured; though it has not been well authenticated by his biographers. If, in the black gloom of his ſullen ſoul there was a ſingle ſpark of patriotiſm, it pointed its ray towards the navy. In the firſt year of his reign he had aſſerted the ſuperiority of the Engliſh flag by an ordinance; and in 1213, he had annihilated the naval power of France, by a gallant and ſucceſsful battle; and in his diſtreſs in 1215, the affection of the ſeamen (of the Cinque Ports particularly) was his only refuge. He even lived night and day on ſhip-board, for fear of being betrayed. Nor ſhould it be concealed that, from the beginning of his reign this inconſiſtent prince had ſhewn a ſingular readineſs to convert demeſne-towns into corporate burghs; a meaſure inimical to all deſpotiſm. Trifling too as the merit may appear, we muſt allow to John the honour of having been the firſt Engliſh king who perfected the coining of pure ſterling money. Had hiſtorians no ſtronger reaſons to accuſe this hated prince of impiety, than his pointing to a fat deer, and ſaying, "ſee how plump he is; and yet he has never heard maſs," we might have allowed ſomewhat for the humourous alluſion to the wonderful gluttony of the monks in his days. But John was uniformly wicked; and laughed at every obligation which the ſouls of men eſteem as ſacred. Matthew Paris, however, (who abhorred him,) owns, that once, when he was perſuaded to deface a ſplendid tomb erected over an enemy; he chid the adviſer, and added "would to heaven all my foes were as handſomely intombed."

From the Epoch of MAGNA CHARTA, and DEATH of KING JOHN, to the Aſſaſſination of RICHARD II.

On the death of king John, the crown of England devolved to his eldeſt ſon Henry, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valour, who had faithfully adhered to John in all the fluctuations of his fortune, was at the time of that prince's death marſhal of England, and conſequently at the head of the army. This nobleman determined to ſupport the intereſts of the young prince, and had him ſolemnly crowned by the biſhops of Wincheſter and Bath, at Glouceſter. In order alſo to enlarge and confirm his own authority, a general council of the barons was ſummoned at Briſtol, where the earl was choſen guardian to the king, and protector of the kingdom. One of the firſt acts of his adminiſtration was to renew the Great Charter of their liberties, a judicious meaſure, the darling objection which the people had ſet their hearts, and which brought great popularity to the royal cauſe. To this was added alſo a charter, aſcertaining the juriſdiction and the boundaries of the royal foreſts, which from thence was called *Charta foreſta*. By this it was enacted, that all the foreſts which had been incloſed ſince the reign of Henry the Second, ſhould be again reſtored to the rightful owners. Offences on the foreſts were no longer declared to be capital, but puniſhable by milder laws; and all the proprietors of land were granted a power of cutting and uſing their own timber at pleaſure. To theſe meaſures, which gave univerſal ſatisfaction, Pembroke took care to add his more active endeavours againſt the enemy. He wrote letters, in the king's name, to all the malcontent barons, aſſuring them of his reſolution to govern them by their own charters; and repreſented the danger which they incurred by their adherence to a French monarch, who only ſought to oppreſs them. Theſe aſſurances were attended with the deſired effect. The party in the intereſt of Louis began to loſe ground, and the earls of Saliſbury, Arundel, and Warenne, together with William Marſhall, eldeſt ſon of the protector, ſwore allegiance to the young king; and all the reſt of the barons appeared deſirous of an opportunity of following their example.

The count de Perche, in the mean while, who commanded for Louis, at the head of a ſuperior army, marched into Lincoln, and beſieged the caſtle. The protector, ſenſible that a deciſive blow was to be ſtruck, ſummoned his forces from every quarter to relieve a place of ſo much importance; and thus he, in turn, appeared ſo much ſuperior to the French, that they ſhut themſelves up in the city. But the governor of the caſtle having received a ſtrong reinforcement, made a vigorous ſally upon the beſiegers, while the Engliſh army aſſaulted them from without; and, ſcaling the walls, entered the city ſword in hand. Lincoln was now delivered over to be pillaged; the French army was totally routed in the ſtreets; the commander in chief was killed, and the principal officers made priſoners. This misfortune of the French was the immediate forerunner of another. Their fleet, which was bringing over reinforcements both of men and money, was attacked in the channel by the Engliſh under the command of Philip d'Albiney, and repulſed with conſiderable loſs. Louis, after theſe deciſive actions, was glad to ſubmit to any conditions favourable to his retreat. He concluded a peace with the protector, in which he agreed to quit the kingdom, upon an indemnity being granted for all his adherents. Thus, A. D. 1216, ended a civil war, which had drenched the kingdom in blood; and which threatened the ſubverſion of the laws, and the ſubjugation of the people, to the yoke of France.

Henry the Third was of a character the very oppoſite to that of his father; for as he grew up, he was found to be gentle, merciful, and humane. Without activity or vigour, he was ill qualified to conduct a war; without ſuſpicion, he was impoſed upon in times of peace. A king of ſuch beneficent qualifications was inadequate to the government of England, where every order was aſpiring to independence, and riſing on the ſpoils of the prerogative. Theſe evils ſoon became viſible after the death of the protector, who was ſucceeded in his office by Peter biſhop of Wincheſter, and Hubert de Burgh, high juſticiary; but no delegated authority could controul men who had been long uſed to civil diſcord, and who caught every ſlight occaſion to magnify misfortunes into public grievances. The nobles were now the tyrants of the people: for having almoſt deſtroyed the power of the crown, and being encouraged by the weakneſs of a minority, they conſidered the laws as the inſtruments of an arbitrary authority, with which they alone were to govern. They retained by force the royal caſtles which had been uſurped during the former convulſions; they oppreſſed their vaſſals, plundered their neighbours, and invited all diſorderly people to take refuge under their authority. In this unqualified ſtate of things, the barons being required to give up their caſtles, they not only re-

 fuſed,

fuſed, but ſeveral of them entered into a conſpiracy to ſurpriſe London; and, with the earls of Cheſter and Albemarle at their head, advanced as far as Waltham with that intention. Their aims, however, were fruſtrated by the diligence and vigour of the government. Moſt of the fortreſſes were at length ſurrendered; and the number at that time is ſaid to have amounted to above a thouſand. But though Henry gained this advantage by the prudence of his miniſter, yet his throne ſtood upon a very weak foundation. A conteſt with his brother Richard earl of Cornwall, who had amaſſed ſuch ſums of money as to be thought the richeſt prince in Europe, ſoon ſhowed the weakneſs both of his power and his policy. Richard had unjuſtly expelled a baron from his manor; and the king inſiſted upon his reſtoring him. The other perſiſting in his refuſal, a confederacy was formed, and an army aſſembled, which the king had neither inclination nor courage to reſiſt. Richard's injuſtice was now declared legal; and his reſentment was mollified by grants of much greater importance than the manor which had been the ground of the quarrel. Thus did Henry tamely ſubmit to all the demands of his haughty vaſſal; and had ſcarcely any perſon who ſeemed ſolicitous for his intereſts, but Hubert de Burgh, whom, nevertheleſs, he diſcarded in a ſudden caprice, and thus expoſed to the violent perſecution of his enemies. The pretence ſet up for the diſmiſſion of Hubert, was his ill management of the king's affairs on the continent; particularly on the death of Philip Auguſtus, and the ſucceſſion of his ſon Louis VIII. That prince, on his departure from England, and as part of the treaty of peace, is ſaid to have engaged to reſtore Normandy to the king of England, on his ſucceſſion to the crown of France. But when the performance of this article was demanded, Louis not only treated the demand with contempt, but prepared to invade Poictou, which ſtill belonged to England. After a deſultory war, which laſted only from 1225 to 1227, a truce was agreed upon for three years; but, before it expired, Louis VIII. died.

But as weak princes are never without governing favourites, the place of Hubert was ſoon ſupplied by Peter de Roches, biſhop of Wincheſter, a Poictevin by birth, who was equally remarkable for his arbitrary conduct, and for his courage and abilities. Henry, in purſuance of this prelate's advice, A. D. 1231, invited over a great number of Poictevins, and other foreigners, who, having neither principles nor fortunes at home, were willing to adopt whatever ſchemes their employer ſhould propoſe. Every office and command were beſtowed on theſe unprincipled ſtrangers, whoſe avarice and rapacity were exceeded only by their pride and inſolence. So unjuſt a partiality to ſtrangers naturally excited the jealouſy of the barons; and they even ventured to aſſure the king, that if he did not diſmiſs all foreigners from court, they would drive both him and them out of the kingdom. But the biſhop of Wincheſter had counteracted their meaſures ſo effectually, that he brought over many of the moſt powerful confederates, and the eſtates of the weaker barons were confiſcated for the benefit of his needy countrymen. In theſe flagrant acts of injuſtice the king was a calm ſpectator; he was contented with preſent advantages; and while theſe confiſcations procured immediate wealth, he little regarded the means by which it came. But as Henry was eaſily ſwayed by tumultuary remonſtrances, another confederacy broke out, at the head of which was the archbiſhop of Canterbury, by whom he was induced to diſmiſs his favourite miniſter, and to ſend him and his needy countrymen out of the kingdom. Encouragement to foreigners had long been the chief complaint againſt the king; and it was now expected that this unaccountable predilection would have been at an end. But their hopes were vain: for the king having married Eleanor, daughter of the count of Provence, A. D. 1236, he transferred his favours to the ſtrangers of that country, whom he careſſed with the fondeſt regard, and enriched with the moſt imprudent generoſity. Places, dignities, and treaſures, were laviſhed upon them; many young noblemen, who were wards to the crown, were married to wives of that country; and when the ſources of the king's treaſury were dried up, he reſumed all the grants he had formerly made, in order to continue theſe favours. The reſentment of all ranks of people was excited by this miſchievous attachment; but what muſt have been their reſentments, when they ſaw a new ſwarm of intruders brought over from Gaſcony, with Iſabella, the king's mother, who had been married to the count of Marche? To theſe juſt cauſes of complaint were added the king's unſucceſsful expeditions to the continent, his total want of economy, and his oppreſſive exactions, which were enforced as the only means of nouriſhing a race of vipers. The kingdom, therefore, waited with ſullen patience, reſolving to take ample vengeance when the general diſcontents were arrived at maturity.

To theſe domeſtic evils might be added thoſe ariſing from the rapacity of the ſee of Rome. The clergy of England, while they were contending for the power of the pope, were not aware that they were effectually oppoſing their own intereſts; for the pontiff having, by various arts, obtained the inveſtiture of all livings and prelacies in the kingdom, failed not to fill up every vacancy with his own creatures. His power being eſtabliſhed, he now began to turn it to his profit, and to enrich the church by every art of extortion and avarice. At this time, A. D. 1253, all the chief benefices of the kingdom were conferred on Italians. Great numbers of that nation were ſent over at one time to be provided for; the king's chaplain alone is ſaid to have held at once ſeven hundred eccleſiaſtical benefices! Theſe abuſes became too glaring even for the blind ſuperſtition of the people to ſubmit to; they roſe in tumults againſt the Italian clergy, pillaged their barns, waſted their fields, and inſulted their perſons. But theſe were tranſient obſtacles to the papal encroachments. The pontiff, claiming ſuperiority over the king of England, in conſequence of the grant from John, exacted the revenues of all vacant benefices, the twentieth of all eccleſiaſtical livings without exception; the third of ſuch as exceeded a hundred marks a-year, and the half of ſuch as were held by non-reſidents; he claimed the goods of all inteſtate clergymen; he pretended a right of inheriting all money got by uſury, and he levied voluntary contributions on the people. But the impoſitions of the church appeared in their moſt conſpicuous point of view in a tranſaction between the pope and the king. The court of Rome, ſome time before, had reduced the kingdom of Sicily to the ſame ſtate of vaſſalage to which England had ſubmitted; but Mainfroy, an uſurper, under pretence of governing the kingdom for the lawful heir, had ſeized upon the crown, and was reſolved to reject the pope's authority. As the pontiff found that his own force was not ſufficient to vindicate his claims, he had recourſe to Richard earl of Cornwall, the king's brother, whoſe wealth he was not ignorant of; and to him, and his heirs, he offered the kingdom of Sicily, provided he would regain it from the hands of the uſurper. Richard was too ſenſible of the difficulty of the enterpriſe, to comply with ſuch a propoſal; but when the offer was afterwards made to the king, the weak monarch, dazzled with the ſplendour of ſuch a conqueſt, embraced the propoſal with ardour. This was all the pope deſired; he ſoon brought Henry in debtor for more than a hundred thouſand marks. Henry was mortified at the greatneſs of the ſum, and ſtill more at the little proſpect of ſucceſs; but he dreaded the pope's diſpleaſure, and therefore reſolved to have recourſe to the barons for the money.

In this univerſal ſtate of degradation, it may readily be imagined that the barons were more liberal of complaints than of ſupplies. They determined not to laviſh their money on favourites without merit, and expeditions without a proſpect of ſucceſs. The clergy even began to turn againſt their ſpiritual father; and the biſhop of London boldly aſſerted, that if the king and the pope ſhould take

the

HENRY III.

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the mitre from his head, he would put on a helmet. But though the biſhops and clergy were obliged to acquieſce in furniſhing a part of this wanton expence, the barons ſtill continued refractory; and, inſtead of ſupplies, anſwered with expoſtulations. They urged the king's partiality to foreigners; they aggravated the injuſtice of his favourites, and the unfair ſeizures made by his officers from men of mercantile profeſſions. The parliament therefore was diſſolved (for ſo the general aſſembly of the nation began now to be called), and another was ſoon after convened with as little ſucceſs. The urgency of the king's affairs required that money ſhould be procured; and yet the legate never failed, upon thoſe occaſions, to obſtruct the king's demands, by making others for the pope. It was on this occaſion that Henry went amongſt ſuch of his ſubjects as were attached to him, and begged for aſſiſtance at their own houſes. At one time, he would get money by pretending to take up the croſs, on an expedition to the Holy Land; at another, he would prevail by aſſerting that he was reſolved to re-conquer his French dominions; till his barons, perceiving the diſtreſs to which he was reduced, reſolved, in mere pity, to grant him aid; and a very liberal ſupply was raiſed, for which he renewed their charter with more than uſual ſolemnity. All the prelates and abbots were aſſembled, A. D. 1205, with burning tapers in their hands; the Magna Charta was read in their preſence; and they denounced ſentence of excommunication againſt all who ſhould infringe its articles. Thus ſolemn were their mutual engagements; but the wretched Henry had no ſooner received the ſupplies for which his parliament had been convoked, than he forgot every article of what he had ſo ſolemnly agreed to obſerve.

About this time an inſurrection broke out in Gaſcony, which then formed a part of the Engliſh dominions; and that people even invited the king of Caſtile to take poſſeſſion of their country. But Henry, however unwarlike, reſolved to undertake an expedition to quell this rebellion. Accordingly he ſummoned all his military tenants to meet him at Portſmouth, and on the 15th of Auguſt, 1254, he arrived at Bourdeaux with a gallant army, which ſoon reſtored the province to order, and obliged the king of Caſtile to renounce his pretenſions to Gaſcony. The reconciliation was ſo complete, that a marriage was concluded between the king's ſon Edward, heir apparent of England, and Eleanora, princeſs of Caſtile. On this occaſion we have one of the moſt ſtriking inſtances of the low cunning and mean character of Henry: being ſtill covetous of gold to diſtribute among his friends in this new alliance, he carefully concealed the ſucceſs of his arms, and ſent over his commands to the queen and his brother earl of Cornwall, regents of England in his abſence, to call a parliament, and demand a further ſupply for carrying on the expedition. A parliament was aſſembled; but the wary barons refuſed to grant the aid, until they were better informed of the progreſs of the war. The earl of Leiceſter arriving from Gaſcony in the interim, made known the true ſtate of the king's affairs, and expoſed Henry's diſhonourable arts to impoſe on the people, which effectually ſerved to revive their former diſtruſt of his government, and contempt of his perſon.

Such imprudent meaſures eventually encouraged Simon de Montfort, earl of Leiceſter, to attempt to wreſt the ſceptre from the feeble hand which held it. This nobleman had eſpouſed Eleanor, dowager to William earl of Pembroke, and ſiſter to the king. His addreſs gained him the affections of all orders of men, but could not protect him againſt the levity of his ſovereign. He had alternately enjoyed the favour, and been expoſed to the hatred, of Henry; and, being of too independent a ſpirit to become ſubſervient to the minions of that prince, he found more honour and advantage in cultivating his intereſt with the public. He filled every place with complaints againſt the infringement of the great charter; and a quarrel which he had with William de Valence, the king's half brother, determined him, if poſſible, to ſtop the further encroachments of the dependents and favourites of the king. He ſecretly called a meeting of the moſt powerful barons, particularly Humphrey de Bohun, high conſtable, Roger Bigod earl mariſchal, and the earls of Warwick and Glouceſter. To theſe he depicted in glowing colours the oppreſſions exerciſed againſt all orders of the people; the violation of the barons' privileges, and the continual depredations made on the clergy; and while he magnified the generoſity of their anceſtors, who at the expence of their blood had extorted the great charter from the crown, he lamented their own degeneracy, who allowed ſo important an advantage to be wreſted from them by a weak prince, and a tribe of inſolent paraſites.

Theſe topics being well ſuited to the ſentiments of the people, the barons embraced a reſolution of redreſſing the public grievances, by taking into their own hands the adminiſtration of government. They entered the parliament clad in complete armour, with their ſwords by their ſides; and when the king, ſtruck with their martial appearance, aſked, whether they intended to make him priſoner? Roger de Bigod replied for the reſt, "That he was not their priſoner, but their ſovereign; but as he had ſo frequently ſuffered himſelf to be carried away by ill-adviſers, he muſt now yield to more ſtrict regulations, and confer authority on thoſe who were willing and able to redreſs the national grievances." Henry, partly allured by the hopes of a ſupply, and partly intimidated by the menacing aſpect of the barons, acquieſced, and ſummoned another parliament at Oxford, in order to digeſt the new plan of government. This parliament, which from the confuſion that attended its meaſures, was afterwards denominated the *mad parliament*, choſe twelve barons, to whom were added twelve more choſen by the king's miniſters. Theſe twenty-four barons, with the earl of Leiceſter at their head, were endowed with ſupreme authority, and authoriſed to reform the abuſes of the ſtate. Their firſt ſtep, June 11, 1258, was calculated for the good of the people, as it marked the rude outline of the houſe of commons. They ordered that four knights ſhould be choſen by each county, who ſhould examine into the grievances of their reſpective conſtituents, and to attend at the enſuing parliament, to give information of their complaints. They ordained that three ſeſſions of parliament ſhould be regularly holden every year; that a new high ſheriff ſhould be annually choſen; that no wards nor caſtles ſhould be truſted in the hands of foreigners; no new foreſts made; nor the revenues of any of the counties let to farm. Theſe regulations were ſo juſt, and their beneficial effects ſo obvious, that they merited the praiſe and approbation of every candid and ingenuous mind. But ſo dangerous and ſo deluſive is the exerciſe of arbitrary power, that it became no longer the ſecurity of the people, but the uncontrolled eſtabliſhment of its own authority, that this confederacy endeavoured to effect. Inſtead of reſigning when they had fulfilled the purpoſes of their appointment, they ſtill maintained themſelves in full power; at one time pretending that they had not yet digeſted the affairs of the ſtate; at another, that their continuance in authority was the only remedy the people had againſt the faithleſs character of the king. The whole ſtate accordingly underwent a complete alteration: its former officers were all removed, and dependents of the twenty-four barons were put in their room; they even impoſed an oath upon every individual of the nation, binding them to an implicit obedience of all the laws and regulations then ſuggeſted, or to be ſuggeſted, by themſelves. They not only abridged the authority of the king, but deſtroyed the efficacy of parliament, by giving up to twelve perſons all parliamentary power between each ſeſſion. Thus theſe ambitious nobles, after having trampled upon the crown, threw proſtrate all the rights of the people; and a vile oligarchy was on the point of being eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of their liberties.

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The firſt oppoſition made to theſe uſurpations aroſe out of that very power which they had ſo lately conſtituted to check the encroachments of the king. The knights of the ſhire, who for ſome time had begun to be regularly aſſembled in a ſeparate houſe, now firſt aſſailed this dangerous hydra. Theſe bold and patriotic men ſtrongly remonſtrated againſt the proceedings of their twenty-four rulers; and, for the firſt time, began to ſhow that ſpirit of juſt interference, which has ever ſince actuated the commons houſe of parliament. They repreſented, that though the king had on his part acceded to the conditions required of him, the twenty-four barons had too long ſwerved from their line of duty, and were only intent upon the aggrandiſement of themſelves, and the oppreſſion of others. They therefore called upon the king's eldeſt ſon, prince Edward, to interpoſe his authority, and ſave the ſinking nation. The heir apparent was at this time about twenty-two years of age, when the hopes which were conceived of his abilities and his integrity, rendered him an important perſonage in the tranſactions of the times, which in ſome meaſure atoned for his father's imbecility; and upon this occaſion his conduct was evidently calculated to impreſs the people with the higheſt opinion of his piety and juſtice. He alleged, when appealed to, that he had ſworn to the Conſtitutions of Oxford, which, though contrary to his own private ſentiments, he yet reſolved by no means to infringe. At the ſame time, however, he ſent a meſſage to the barons, requiring them to ſurrender up their authority to the parliament, or otherwiſe to expect the moſt vigorous oppoſition to their uſurpation. To this the barons replied by publiſhing a new code of laws, which, though it contained ſcarcely any thing material, yet they ſuppoſed would, for a while, dazzle the eyes of the people, until they could take meaſures to confirm their authority upon a firmer foundation. In this manner, and under various pretences, they continued in power for three years, while the whole nation perceived their drift, and condemned their treachery. The pope himſelf beheld them with indignation, and abſolved the king and all his ſubjects from the oath which they had taken to obſerve the Conſtitutions of Oxford.

The people now only wanted a leader to enable them to aboliſh this baronial tyranny. The king himſelf was weak, timid, irreſolute, and ſuperſtitious, and in a manner leagued with thoſe who oppoſed and depreſſed him; the clergy, who formerly gave the people redreſs, were become an independent body, and little regretted the commotions of the ſtate, which conſtantly tended to their aggrandiſement. In this dilemma they had recourſe to prince Edward, who for ſome time declined the people's earneſt application; but being at laſt perſuaded of the neceſſity, he directed a parliament to be called, in which the king reſumed his priſtine authority; and the barons, after making one fruitleſs effort more to take him by ſurpriſe at Wincheſter, were obliged to ſubmit to what they could not oppoſe. But in the mean time the earl of Leiceſter ſucceſsfully counteracted this momentary triumph of the king's friends. He formed a powerful confederacy with the prince of Wales, who invaded England with an army of thirty thouſand men; to which Leiceſter ſoon joined his own forces, and the whole kingdom was again expoſed to all the devaſtations of a civil war. The citizens of London alſo ſupported his cauſe, and under the command of their mayor, Thomas Fitz-Richard, they fell upon the inoffenſive Jews, and other wealthy inhabitants, pillaging and deſtroying wherever they came.

In this adverſe ſtate of the nation, nothing could be ſought for but an accommodation with the inſurgent barons; and, after ſome debate, a treaty was concluded, but upon the moſt diſadvantageous terms to the king and his party. The Conſtitutions of Oxford were again enforced, A. D. 1263, and the barons were re-eſtabliſhed in the ſovereignty of the kingdom. They immediately took poſſeſſion of all the royal caſtles and fortreſſes; they named the officers even of the king's houſehold; and ſummoned a parliament to meet at Weſtminſter, in order more fully to ſettle the plan of their government. By this aſſembly it was reſolved, that the authority of the twenty-four barons ſhould continue, not only during the reign of the king, but alſo during that of prince Edward. But theſe conditions, though ſubmitted to by the king, were reſiſted with ſpirit and dignity by the young prince, who was now determined to aſſert his father's prerogative, and defend his own right of inheritance. He appealed to the king of France, to whom he offered to refer all matters of animoſity and diſpute; and to which, after ſome previous explanation, the earl of Leiceſter, in the name of the twenty-four barons, readily agreed. Louis IX. who for his great wiſdom and virtue was afterwards canonized, undertook with alacrity and candour the kindly office of peace-maker; and for that purpoſe ſummoned the ſtates of France to meet at Amiens, on the 23d of January, 1264, to hear and diſcuſs the merits, in preſence of all the parties. On the 3d of February following, Louis publiſhed his award, as follows: "That the Conſtitutions of Oxford ſhould be annulled, as ſubverſive of the ancient conſtitution: that the king be reſtored to the poſſeſſion of his caſtles, lands, and revennes; to the nomination of the great officers of ſtate, and of his houſehold; and to all the inherent rights and privileges of the crown: and that a general amneſty ſhould be granted for all paſt offences; and the people reſtored to their ancient liberties." The earl of Leiceſter rejected this award with contempt; on which prince Edward reſolved to have recourſe to arms. Accordingly, ſummoning the king's military vaſſals from all quarters, and being reinforced by many of the more equitable barons, he took the field. His firſt attempts were ſucceſsful; Northampton, Leiceſter, and Nottingham, ſubmitted to his power; and he proceeded into the county of Derby, in order to ravage the eſtates of thoſe who had eſpouſed the oppoſite cauſe. On the other ſide, the earl of Leiceſter was beſieging Rocheſter, when he was informed of the king's ſucceſs; upon which he raiſed the ſiege, and retreated to London, where he was joined by a body of the citizens, amounting to fifteen thouſand men. Both armies being reſolved to come to an engagement, Leiceſter halted within about two miles of Lewes in Suſſex; offering, at the ſame time, terms of accommodation, which he well knew the king could not accept. Upon the refuſal of theſe, both ſides prepared for a battle. The royal army was formed in three diviſions: prince Edward commanded on the right; Richard, the king's brother, who had been ſome time before made king of the Romans, was poſted on the left wing; and Henry himſelf occupied the centre. The earl's army was divided into four bodies: the firſt was conducted by Henry de Montfort, ſon of the general; the ſecond was commanded by the earl of Glouceſter; the third was under the command of Leiceſter himſelf; and the fourth, conſiſting of Londoners, was under the direction of Nicholas Seagrave. To encourage the inſurgents, the biſhop of Chicheſter gave a general abſolution to their party, accompanied with aſſurances, on the principles of Mahomet, that if any of them fell in the action, they would infallibly be received into heaven, as a reward for their ſuffering in ſo meritorious a cauſe. The battle was begun by prince Edward, who ruſhed upon the Londoners with ſuch impetuoſity, that they were unable to ſuſtain the charge, and fled with great precipitation. The prince tranſported with this gleam of victory, purſued them far beyond the field of battle, cauſing a terrible ſlaughter. In the mean while the earl of Leiceſter, who was a ſkilful commander, puſhed with all his forces againſt the enemies' left wing, ſoon put them to the rout, and took both the king and his brother priſoners. It was a dreadful reverſe of victory, therefore, when the young prince returned, to find that his father and his uncle were defeated and taken. In this conflict of the filial feelings and paſſions, Edward at firſt endeavoured to inſpire his

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remaining troops with ardour and revenge; but being artfully amuſed by Leiceſter with a pretended negociation, he quickly found his little army ſurrounded, and he himſelf obliged to ſubmit to ſuch terms as the conqueror thought fit to impoſe. Theſe terms were ſhort, and immediate: prince Edward, and his couſin Henry d'Almaine, ſon of Richard earl of Cornwall, were to ſurrender themſelves as pledges in the place of the king and his brother, who were releaſed. The Conſtitutions of Oxford were to remain in force, but to be reviſed by ſix perſons appointed by the king of France, three prelates, and three noblemen, who, with three more of their own chooſing, were to be inveſted with full powers to ſettle all diſputes. This convention was called the *Miſe of Lewes*, as having taken place in that town, in 1264.

Theſe advantages were no ſooner gained by Leiceſter, than he reſolved to poſſeſs himſelf of that power for which he had ſo long been ſtruggling. Inſtead of referring the ſubjects in diſpute to the parties agreed on, he kept Richard earl of Coventry and king of the Romans, ſtill a priſoner; and though he had confined prince Edward, and Henry, Richard's ſon, in Dover caſtle, yet he effectually took care ſtill to continue the king alſo in bondage. To add to his injuſtice, he made uſe of the king's name for purpoſes the moſt inimical to the royal intereſts; and while he every where diſarmed the king's adherents, he kept his own partiſans in a poſture of defence. The king, a poor contemptible ſpectator of his own degradation, was carried about from place to place, and compelled to give his governors directions to deliver their caſtles into the hands of his enemy. To this uſurpation of the king's authority, Leiceſter added the moſt rapacious avarice. He ſeized the eſtates of no leſs than eighteen barons, for his ſhare of the ſpoil in the battle of Lewes. He converted to his own uſe the ranſom of all the priſoners; he monopoliſed the ſale of wool to foreign markets; and, to fix himſelf completely in authority, he ordained that the kingly power ſhould be exerciſed by a council of nine perſons, who were to be choſen by himſelf, the earl of Glouceſter, and the biſhop of Chicheſter. To eſtabliſh or confirm this new-fangled authority, the earl of Leiceſter was obliged to have recourſe to an aid till now unknown in England, namely, that of the body of the people. He called a parliament, Jan. 20, 1265, where, beſides the barons of his own party, the knights of ſhires, and ſeveral eccleſiaſtics who were not immediate tenants of the crown; he ordered returns to be made of deputies from the cities and boroughs, which had been hitherto conſidered as too inconſiderable to have a voice in legiſlation. This is the firſt confirmed outline of the meeting of a general houſe of commons, recorded in the Engliſh hiſtory.

A parliament, aſſembled in this multifarious manner, was found not ſo compliant as the earl of Leiceſter expected. Many of the barons who had long adhered to his party, appeared diſguſted at his unqualified ambition; and many of the people, who found that a change of maſters was not a change from miſery to happineſs, began to wiſh for the re-eſtabliſhment of the royal family. In this exigency, Leiceſter finding himſelf unable to oppoſe the concurring wiſhes of the nation, was reſolved to make a merit of what he could not prevent; and he accordingly releaſed prince Edward from confinement, and introduced him at Weſtminſter-hall, where his freedom was confirmed by the unanimous voice of the barons. But though Leiceſter acquired the popularity of reſtoring the prince, yet he was politic enough to keep him ſtill guarded by emiſſaries, who watched his motions, and fruſtrated his deſigns. But the prince, who had too much penetration not to perceive that he was made the tool of Leiceſter's ambition, ardently watched an opportunity to regain that freedom of which he then enjoyed but the ſhadow: and this opportunity ſoon offered. The earl of Glouceſter, one of Leiceſter's party, being diſconcerted, retired in diſguſt, and began to raiſe an army on the borders of Wales. Leiceſter was not ſlow in purſuing him; and to give greater authority to his arms, he took the king and the prince of Wales with him. This afforded the happy opportunity ſo long coveted by young Edward for effecting his eſcape. Being furniſhed with a horſe of extraordinary ſwiftneſs, under a pretence of taking the air with ſome of Leiceſter's retinue, who were in reality appointed to guard him, he propoſed that they ſhould run their horſes one againſt the other. When he perceived that his horſe had completely the advantage, he politely bid his attendants farewel. They followed him for ſome time; but the appearance of a body of troops belonging to the earl of Glouceſter, ſoon put an end to the purſuit. This event ſeemed the ſignal for the whole body of the royaliſts to riſe. The well-known valour of the young prince, the long train of grievances which the people endured, and the countenance of the earl of Glouceſter, a man of great power, all combined to increaſe their numbers, and inſpire their activity. An army was quickly aſſembled, which Leiceſter had no power to withſtand. His ſon, Henry Montford, attempting to bring a reinforcement of troops from London, was, by a vigorous march of prince Edward, ſurpriſed near Eveſham, and his army cut to pieces. Not long after, the earl himſelf, ignorant of his ſon's fate, paſſed the Severn, in expectation of the London army; but inſtead of the troops he expected, he ſoon perceived that the indefatigable prince was coming up to give him battle. He did not, however, abandon all hopes of victory; but drew up his men in a compact circle, and exhorted them to fight like men who had all to gain, or all to loſe. At the ſame time he obliged poor old king Henry to put on armour, and take his ſtation in front of the army. The battle ſoon began; but the earl's army, exhauſted by famine and fatigue, were but ill able to ſuſtain the impetuoſity of young Edward's attack, who aſſailed them with incredible fury. During this terrible day, Leiceſter behaved with aſtoniſhing intrepidity, and kept up the ſpirit of the action from two o'clock in the afternoon till nine at night. At laſt, his horſe being killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, the adverſe party refuſed it, with an inhumanity too common in thoſe barbarous times. The king had been wounded in the ſhoulder; and, not being known by his friends, was on the point of being killed by a ſoldier, when he cried out, "I am Henry of Wincheſter, the king!" Prince Edward, hearing the voice of his father, flew to the ſpot where he lay, and had him conducted to a place of ſafety. The body of Leiceſter being found among the dead, was ſhamefully mangled by Roger Mortimer; and then, with an accumulation of brutality, ſent to the wretched widow, as a teſtimony of the royal party's ſucceſs.

This victory proved deciſive; and, to the ſhame of the victors, thoſe who were formerly perſecuted, now became oppreſſors in their turn. The king, who was grown vindictive from his ſufferings, reſolved to take a ſignal vengeance on the citizens of London, who had long encouraged the inveteracy of his opponents. In this exigence, ſubmiſſion was their only reſource; and Henry was hardly reſtrained from totally deſtroying the city. The rebels every where ſubmitted, or were purſued with rigour; and their caſtles were taken and demoliſhed. Among the few who ſtill continued refractory, was Adam Gordon, formerly governor of Dunſter caſtle, and much celebrated for his prodigious ſtrength and great bravery. This vindictive baron maintained himſelf for ſome time in the foreſts of Hampſhire, and ravaged the counties of Berks and Surrey. Prince Edward was obliged to lead a body of troops into that part of the country, to force his camp. Urged by the natural impetuoſity of youth, he leapt over the trench by which it was defended, attended only by a few followers; and thus found himſelf unexpectedly cut off from the reſt of his army. Gordon ſoon diſtinguiſhed him from his attendants; and a ſingle combat took place between theſe two celebrated champions, which, for a

long time, continued doubtful. But the prince's fortune at length prevailed: Gordon's foot happening to ſlip, he received a wound, which diſabled him from continuing the action; and he lay at the mercy of the conqueror. Edward, merciful as brave, not only granted him his life, but introduced him that very night to his conſort at Guildford; procured him a pardon, ſecured to him his eſtate, and received him into favour. Gordon was not ungrateful; he ever after followed the fortunes of his prince, and was often found combating by his ſide in the hotteſt of the battle.

Edward having thus reſtored peace to the kingdom, found his affairs ſo firmly eſtabliſhed, that it was not in the power of any ſlight inſurrection to ſhake them. The earl of Glouceſter, however, who had been thus inſtrumental in reſtoring the king to the crown, thought no recompence could reward his merits, and became diſguſted. He therefore engaged in a new rebellion; but was ſoon brought to ſubmiſſion by Edward, who obliged him to enter into a bond of twenty thouſand marks, never to diſturb the peace in future. The kingdom being thus compoſed, that ſpirit of ardour and military glory, which ſhone forth in Edward's actions, impelled him to undertake an expedition againſt the infidels in the Holy Land. His proweſs in that vain and romantic warfare may be ſeen under EGYPT, p. 326, of this volume.

Edward had ſcarcely departed upon this holy expedition, when the health of king Henry began to decline; and he found, not only his own conſtitution, but alſo that of the ſtate, in ſuch a dangerous ſituation, that he wrote a letter for his immediate recal, preſſing him to return with all diſpatch. The former calamities again threatened the kingdom; and the barons, taking advantage of the king's weakneſs, oppreſſed the people with impunity. Robbers infeſted various parts of the nation; and the populace of London reſumed their accuſtomed licentiouſneſs. To add to the king's diſtreſſes, his brother Richard died, who had long aſſiſted him under all emergencies. At laſt, overcome by the cares of government, and the infirmities of age, he ordered himſelf to be removed, by eaſy journeys, from Bury St. Edmund's to Weſtminſter, where, ſending for the earl of Glouceſter, he obliged him to ſwear that he would preſerve the peace of the kingdom, and, to the utmoſt of his power, maintain the intereſts of his ſon. That ſame night he expired, November 16, 1272, in the ſixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-ſeventh of his reign, the longeſt to be met with in the Engliſh annals.

Henry III. ſurnamed of Wincheſter, was in his perſon of middle ſtature, of a robuſt conſtitution, but unpleaſing countenance; his left eye-brow hanging down, and almoſt covering his eye. This prince was certainly not poſſeſſed of great intellectual abilities, much leſs of true wiſdom, and the right art of governing; yet his underſtanding does not ſeem to have been remarkably defective, but had unhappily taken a turn towards low diſhoneſt cunning. As the ends which he had in view were often bad, and ſuch as could not be openly avowed, he endeavoured to attain them by the indirect ways of treachery and deceit. Some of Henry's repartees are preſerved in hiſtory, which do not beſpeak him to have been that ſimple fool he is often repreſented. When the archbiſhop of Canterbury, with the biſhops of Wincheſter, Saliſbury, and Carliſle, were ſent by parliament, in 1253, to preſent a very ſtrong remonſtrance againſt uncanonical and forced elections to vacant ſees: "It is true (replied he) I have been ſomewhat faulty in that particular: I obtruded you, my lord of Canterbury, upon your ſee: I was obliged to employ both entreaties and menaces, my lord of Wincheſter, to get you elected, when you ſhould have been rather ſent to ſchool: my proceedings were, indeed, very irregular and violent, my lords of Saliſbury and Carliſle, when I raiſed you from the loweſt ſtations to your preſent dignities. It will become you, therefore, my lords, to ſet an example of reformation, by reſigning your preſent benefices, and try to obtain preferment in a more regular manner." But this prince was much more defective in perſonal courage than in underſtanding; and, as appears from the whole courſe of his hiſtory, as well as from many anecdotes, was of a very cowardly and timorous nature. In the year 1258, when the royal authority was much eclipſed, and the earl of Leiceſter was in his glory, the king, in going to the Tower by water, was overtaken in a ſtorm of thunder and lightning, with which he was greatly terrified, and ordered his barge to be put a-ſhore at the firſt landing-place. But being met by the earl of Leiceſter at his landing, his terrors redoubled, and he exhibited all the marks of the greateſt conſternation in his countenance, which made the earl obſerve, that the ſtorm was now over, and he had no further reaſon to be afraid; to which the king replied, "I am indeed beyond meaſure afraid of thunder and lightning; but, by God's head, I fear thee more than all the thunder in the univerſe." Henry was ſtill more deſtitute of the noble virtues of ſincerity in making, and fidelity in obſerving, his engagements, than he was of courage. Whenever he was hard puſhed by the diſcontented barons, he ſubmitted to any terms they thought fit to preſcribe, and confirmed them by all the moſt awful oaths and ſolemnities they could deviſe; but the moment he thought he could do it with ſafety, he violated all his promiſes and oaths without heſitation, ſatisfying himſelf with the abſolution of his good friend the pope, which he eaſily obtained. This wicked prevarication was not more odious than it was pernicious to his affairs, and obliged the barons to proceed to much greater extremities than otherwiſe they would have done, plainly perceiving that nothing could make him keep his promiſes, but putting it out of his power to break them. But the moſt ſingular feature in this prince's character, was his incorrigible partiality and affection to foreigners, which attended him through his whole life, and occaſioned infinite vexations to himſelf and his ſubjects. No ſooner was one ſet of theſe foreign favourites driven from the royal preſence, by attacks which ſhook the throne itſelf, than others took their place, and were cheriſhed with equal fondneſs, and diſplaced with equal difficulties and dangers. It is highly probable, that theſe foreigners, having their fortunes to make, were much more ſupple and inſinuating, and more ready to comply with all his humours, than the Engliſh barons, who were conſcious of their own power and importance. The piety of this prince is much extolled by the monkiſh writers of thoſe times. He was no doubt a very uſeful and liberal ſon to his holy father the pope, whom he aſſiſted with all his might in fleecing his ſubjects. He was alſo a moſt devout worſhipper of ruſty nails and rotten bones, particularly thoſe of his favourite, Saint Edward the Confeſſor, which he placed in a ſhrine of gold, adorned with precious ſtones. One of the moſt commendable parts of this prince's character is hardly ever mentioned by our hiſtorians, his love of the arts; for the encouragement of which he expended great ſums of money. It muſt further be owned, that he was a very warm and generous, though not a very conſtant, friend, a faithful huſband, and an affectionate parent. He left two ſons; Edward his ſucceſſor, and Edmund ſurnamed Crouch-back, titular king of Sicily, and earl of Lancaſter, Leiceſter, and Derby, and high ſteward of England; and two daughters, Margaret, married to Alexander III. king of Scots, and Beatrix, married to John duke of Britanny.

Though Edward I. was at a diſtance from England when his father died, the ſplendour of his character ſecured his peaceable ſucceſſion, and perſons of all ranks readily ſwore fealty to him. In an aſſembly of the nobility, held on the day after the funeral of his father, the archbiſhop of York, the earls of Cornwall and Glouceſter, were choſen regents of the kingdom; and this choice was confirmed by parliament, in January 1273. Edward was in Sicily, on his return from the Holy Land, when he received the news of his father's death, and of his

EDWARD I.

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own undiſputed acceſſion. But he very narrowly eſcaped aſſaſſination while in Paleſtine. Richard Cœur de Lion having, in a former croiſade, dealt death and devaſtation among the affrighted Moſlems; and prince Edward endeavouring to tread heroically in his uncle's ſteps, a Mahomedan ruffian undertook to murder him. In order to gain admittance to Edward's preſence, he pretended to have letters to deliver from the governor of Joppa, now Jaffa. He found Edward ſitting alone, in a looſe garment; when looking round, to ſee that no help was near, he drew a dagger, and attempted to plunge it into the prince's boſom. Edward, perceiving the murderer's intention, with great preſence of mind received the blow upon his arm; and wreſting the weapon from the ruffian's hand, plunged it inſtantly in his heart. The wound the prince had received was the more dangerous, as having been inflicted with a poiſoned dagger; but the ſurgeon, by making deep inciſions, and cutting away the mortified parts, completed the cure in little more than a fortnight. The prince being aſſured of the perfect tranquillity of his dominions, made no haſte to take poſſeſſion of the crown. After ſpending ſome time at Rome, and other parts of Italy, he viſited the court of France, and performed his homage for the territories which he held of that crown. Having ſuppreſſed an inſurrection in Gaſcony, and ſettled ſome commercial diſputes with the earl of Flanders, he embarked for England, landed at Dover, Auguſt 2, 1274, and was crowned at Weſtminſter on the 19th of the ſame month, together with his queen Eleanora, the amiable and affectionate companion of his travels.

As England at this time enjoyed a profound peace, Edward very wiſely ſeized that favourable opportunity of enquiring into the ſtate of the lands and revenues of the crown; and into the conduct of the ſheriffs and other officers, who had both defrauded the king and oppreſſed the people in the late reign. He was at no leſs pains to reſtore the internal police of the kingdom, and the vigorous execution of the laws, which the late troubles and the feeble adminiſtration of Henry had rendered contemptible. The Jews were the only part of his ſubjects who were refuſed that equal juſtice which the king now made a boaſt of diſtributing. As Edward had been bred up in prejudices againſt them, he ſeemed to have no compaſſion upon their ſufferings. Many were the arbitrary taxes levied upon them; two hundred and eighty of them were hanged at once, upon a charge of adulterating the coin of the kingdom; the goods of the reſt were confiſcated, and all of that religion utterly baniſhed the kingdom. By the advice of his parliament, which met at Weſtminſter in May, 1275, many good and wholeſome laws were enacted, which have been ever ſince diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Statutes of Weſtminſter*. But it was not long before Edward was interrupted in theſe ſalutary works of peace, and involved in deſolating ſcenes of war.

The only vaſſal of the crown of England who had made any ſcruple of paying homage and fealty to Edward, was Lewellyn prince of Wales. This prince had been ſeveral times ſummoned to come to court, and perform his homage; but, without directly refuſing, he ſtill delayed to do this, under various pretences. At length Edward determined to bring this powerful and refractory vaſſal to obedience; and he therefore marched into Wales with a conſiderable army. Upon the approach of Edward, A. D. 1277, the Welſh prince took refuge among the inacceſſible mountains of Snowdon, and there reſolved to maintain his ground, without truſting to the chance of a battle. Theſe were the ſteep retreats that had for many ages defended his anceſtors againſt all the attempts of the Norman and Saxon conquerors. But Edward, equally vigorous and cautious, having explored every part of his way, pierced into the very centre of Lewellyn's territories, and approached the Welſh army in its laſt retreat. Lewellyn at firſt little regarded the progreſs of an enemy that he ſuppoſed would make only a tranſient invaſion; but his contempt was turned into conſternation, when he ſaw Edward draw up his forces at the foot of the mountains, and ſurround his army, in order to ſubdue it by famine. Deſtitute of every means of relief, the Welſh prince was obliged to ſubmit, and on ſuch terms as the victor was pleaſed to impoſe. Lewellyn conſented to pay fifty thouſand pounds, as a ſatisfaction for the expences of the war; to do homage to the crown of England for the territory of Wales; to permit all other barons, except four near Snowdon, to ſwear fealty in the ſame manner; and to relinquiſh the whole country between Cheſhire and the river Conway.

But this compulſive treaty was of ſhort duration; the oppreſſion of the conqueror, and the indignant pride of the conquered nation, could not long remain without producing new diſſenſions. The lords of the Marches committed all kinds of depredation on their Welſh neighbours; and, although Edward generouſly remitted the fine of fifty-thouſand pounds, yet he laid other reſtrictions upon Lewellyn, which that prince conſidered as more injurious. He particularly exacted a promiſe from him at Worceſter, that he would retain no perſon in his principality that ſhould be diſapproved by the Engliſh monarch. Theſe were indignities not to be endured, and therefore the Welſh again flew to arms. A body of their forces took the field under the command of David, brother of Lewellyn, who ravaged the plain country, took the caſtle of Harwardin, made ſir Roger Clifford priſoner, and ſoon after laid ſiege to the caſtle of Rhudlan. When the account of theſe hoſtilities reached Edward, he aſſembled a numerous army, and ſet out with a firm reſolution to exterminate Lewellyn and his whole family. At firſt, however, the king's endeavours were not attended with ſucceſs; having cauſed a bridge of boats to be laid over the river Menay, a body of forces, commanded by Latimer and De Thonis, paſſed over before it was completely finiſhed. The Welſh remained in their faſtneſſes till they ſaw the tide flowing in beyond the end of the bridge, at which inſtant they poured down from the mountains with incredible fury, and put the whole body that had got over to the ſword. This ſucceſs revived the drooping ſpirits of the Welſh, and they felt ſufficiently bold to hazard a deciſive battle againſt the Engliſh. With this view he marched into Radnorſhire; and, paſſing the river Wey, his troops were ſurpriſed and defeated by Edward Mortimer, while he himſelf was abſent, upon a conference with ſome of the barons of that county. Upon his return, ſeeing that all was loſt, he ran deſperately into the midſt of the enemy, and fought for that death which alone could put an end to his perplexity and diſgrace. One of the Engliſh captains, recognizing his countenance, ſevered his head from his body, and it was ſent to London, where it was expoſed on the walls of the Tower; and his quarters were ſent with the ſame intention to York, Briſtol, Northampton, and Winchester. In this cruel and relentleſs manner did Edward ſhed the blood of the laſt of the ancient Cimbric ſovereigns of Wales, none of whom had ever before been conquered. David, the brother of this unfortunate prince, ſoon after ſhared the ſame fate; being totally abandoned, he was obliged to hide himſelf in one of the obſcure caverns of the country; till his retreat being ſoon after diſcovered, he was taken, tried, and condemned, as a traitor. His ſentence was executed with the moſt rigorous ſeverity; he was hanged, drawn, and quartered, only for having bravely defended the expiring liberties of his native country. With him expired the government and independence of Wales. It was ſoon after united to the kingdom of England, and made a principality, by giving title to the eldeſt ſon of the crown. Foreign conqueſt might add to the glory, but this added to the felicity, of the kingdom. The Welſh were now blended with the conquerors; and, in the revolution of a few ages, all national animoſity was entirely forgotten.

At

At the time of the conqueſt, however, the Welſh ſubmitted with extreme reluctance; and few nations ever bowed to a foreign yoke with greater indignation. The bards of the country, whoſe employment conſiſted in rehearſing the glorious deeds of their anceſtors, were particularly obnoxious to Edward, who, conſidering that while they continued to keep the ancient flame alive, he muſt expect no peace in his new acquiſitions; he therefore, from motives of ſavage policy, ordered them all to be maſſacred. To ingratiate himſelf, however, with the Welſh barons, he left his queen to be delivered in the caſtle of Caernarvon, and afterwards preſented the child, whom he named Edward, to the Welſh nobles, as a native of their country, and as their future prince. The Welſh received him with acclamations of joy; and ever ſince the government of both nations has continued to flow in one uninterrupted channel.

This important conqueſt was quickly followed by another of much greater conſequence. Alexander III. king of Scotland, had been killed by a fall from his horſe, leaving only Margaret, his grand-daughter, heir to the crown, who died ſoon after him. The death of this princeſs occaſioned much doubt and difficulty in aſcertaining the lineal ſucceſſion to the Scottiſh throne, which was now claimed by no leſs than twelve anxious competitors. The nation was divided into as many factions as there were diſtinct claimants; but the guardians of the realm would not undertake to decide a diſpute of ſo much conſequence: they therefore agreed to refer the conteſt to the determination of the king of England. The claims of all the candidates were at laſt reduced to three, who were the deſcendants of the earl of Huntingdon by three daughters: John Haſtings, who claimed in right of his mother, as one of the co-heireſſes of the crown; John Baliol, who alleged his right, as being deſcended from the eldeſt daughter, who was his grandmother; and Robert Bruce, who was the actual ſon of the ſecond daughter. In this conteſt, which was referred to Edward, he affected the utmoſt degree of deliberation; and, although he had long formed his plan, yet he directed every enquiry to be made on the ſubject, that he might be maſter of all the arguments that could be advanced on every ſide of the queſtion. In this inveſtigation he diſcovered, that ſome paſſages in old chronicles might be produced to favour a claim of his own; and therefore, without heſitation, he advanced with a formidable army to the frontiers of Scotland.

The Scottiſh barons were petrified at this bold ſtep of England; and, though they felt extreme indignation, they had no alternative but to obey his ſummons to meet at the caſtle of Norham, on the ſouthern banks of the Tweed, where he convened the parliament of that country. He there produced the proofs of his ſuperior right to Scotland, which aroſe out of the partial conqueſts made in that country by his anceſtors; but, above all, he claimed the ſovereignty in conſequence of the homage and fealty performed by William ſurnamed the Lion, to Henry II. for the whole kingdom of Scotland. To a propoſition that appeared in itſelf ſo unreaſonable, no immediate anſwer could be given; for, where all is defective, it is not eaſy to ſubmit to the combating a part: the barons, therefore, continued ſilent; and Edward interpreting this for a conſent, addreſſed himſelf to the ſeveral claimants of the crown; and, previous to his appointing one of them as his vaſſal, he required their unequivocal acknowledgment of his ſuperior right. He naturally concluded that none of them would venture to reſiſt his power: nor was he deceived; he found them all equally obſequious to his will. Robert Bruce was the firſt who made the acknowledgment, and the reſt followed his example. Edward being thus made the ſovereign, he was next to conſider which of the candidates would be the fitteſt to be appointed under him. To give this deliberation the appearance of impartiality, an hundred commiſſioners were appointed, forty of them being choſen by the candidates who were in the intereſts of John Baliol; forty by thoſe in the intereſts of Robert Bruce; and twenty, who were choſen by Edward himſelf. Having thus fitted matters to his own mind, he left the commiſſioners to ſit at Berwick, and marched ſouthward with his army, to free their deliberations from all ſhadow of reſtraint. The ſubject of debate was, whether Baliol, who was deſcended from the elder ſiſter, but farther removed by one degree, was to be preferred before Bruce, who was actually the younger ſiſter's ſon? The commiſſioners unanimouſly concurred in affirming Baliol's ſuperior claim. Edward, therefore, pronounced their award in his favour; and that candidate, upon renewing his oath of fealty to Edward, was put in poſſeſſion of the Scottiſh kingdom, and all its fortreſſes, in truſt for the king of England.

Edward, inſtead of gradually accuſtoming the Scots to bear the Engliſh yoke, and of ſliding into his new power by ſlow and imperceptible degrees, he began at once to exerciſe the iron arm of arbitrary power. A merchant of Gaſcony had preſented a petition to him, importing that Alexander, late king of Scotland, was indebted to him in a large ſum, which was ſtill unpaid, notwithſtanding all his ſolicitations to Baliol, the preſent king, for payment. Edward eagerly embraced this opportunity of ſummoning the king of Scotland to appear at Weſtminſter, to anſwer in perſon the merchant's complaint. Upon ſubjects equally trivial he ſent ſix different ſummonſes in one year; ſo that Baliol ſoon perceived he was poſſeſſed of the name, but not the authority, of a ſovereign. Determined, therefore, to ſhake off the yoke of Edward, he revolted, and obtained the pope's abſolution from his oaths of homage. To ſtrengthen his hands, he entered into a treaty with Philip the Fair, king of France, which commenced an union between thoſe nations, which for two centuries diſturbed the peace and the intereſts of England. To confirm this alliance, the king of Scotland ſtipulated a marriage between his eldeſt ſon, and the daughter of Philip de Valois.

Edward, to whom theſe tranſactions were no ſecret, endeavoured to throw all blame upon Baliol, by making him the firſt aggreſſor; and accordingly ſummoned him to perform the duty of a vaſſal, and to ſend a ſupply of forces againſt an expected invaſion from France. He alſo ſummoned him to ſurrender his principal forts, and to appear at a parliament which was to be holden at Newcaſtle. None of theſe commands being complied with, Edward reſolved to enforce obedience by marching a body of thirty thouſand foot, and four thouſand horſe, into the heart of Scotland. In the mean time Baliol raiſed an army of forty thouſand men, and marched to the frontiers, which Edward was now preparing to attack. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable of the Scottiſh nobility, among whom were Robert Bruce and his ſon, endeavoured to ingratiate themſelves with Edward by an early ſubmiſſion, which ſerved not a little to intimidate thoſe who adhered to Baliol. The progreſs, therefore, of the Engliſh arms was extremely rapid; Berwick was taken by aſſault, ſir William Douglas made priſoner, and a garriſon of ſeven thouſand men put to the ſword. After this ſucceſs, Edward diſpatched earl Warenne, with ten thouſand men, to lay ſiege to Dunbar; and the Scots, ſenſible of the importance of that garriſon, advanced with their whole army, under the command of the earls of Mar, Buchan, and Lenox, to relieve it. Although the ſuperiority of numbers was greatly on their ſide, yet courage and diſcipline remained only with the Engliſh. The conflict was ſhort; the Scots were ſoon thrown into confuſion; and, turning their backs, twenty thouſand of their men were ſlain in running from the field of battle. The caſtle of Dunbar ſurrendered the day following; and Edward led on the main body of his army into the country to certain conqueſt. The caſtles of the greateſt ſtrength and importance opened their gates to him without reſiſtance; and the whole ſouthern part of the country

try acknowledged the conqueror. Baliol now found that a ready ſubmiſſion was more to be preferred than an obſtinate reſiſtance. He haſtened, therefore, to make his peace with the victor, and expreſſed the deepeſt concern for his diſloyalty. To ſatisfy Edward ſtill farther, he made a ſolemn reſignation of the crown into his hands; and the whole kingdom ſubmitted to his authority. But the unfortunate monarch was carried priſoner to London, and committed to the Tower. Two years afterwards he was baniſhed to France, where he died.

Theſe ſucceſſes determined Edward to turn his arms to the continent, where he hoped to recover a part of thoſe territories that had been wreſted from his crown during the imbecility of his predeceſſors. Nor was Edward remiſs in making treaties with ſeveral of the continental princes, whoſe aſſiſtance he purchaſed, though greatly to the diminution of his revenues. He even collected an army from the Engliſh jails, which had been filled with robbers in the former reign, and who were now made ſerviceable to the ſtate. This army, though at firſt ſucceſsful, under the command of John de Bretagne earl of Richmond, was eventually repulſed by the French, under the command of Charles, brother to the king of France. Yet it was not eaſy to diſcourage Edward. In about three years after, he again renewed his attempts upon Guienne, with an army of ſeven thouſand men, under the command of his brother, the earl of Lancaſter. That prince gained ſome advantages over the French at Bourdeaux: but being ſeized with a diſtemper, of which he died at Bayonne, his army was diſbanded.

The king, finding theſe attempts unſucceſsful, reſolved to attack France in a different quarter. He formed an alliance with John earl of Holland, by giving him his daughter Elizabeth in marriage; and alſo with Guy earl of Flanders, whoſe aſſiſtance he bought for ſeventy-five thouſand pounds. By theſe aſſiſtants he entertained hopes of recovering his French dominions; and he accordingly ſet about providing money for the arduous undertaking. Theſe negotiations however occaſioned ſo much delay, that when he took the field in Flanders, at the head of an army of fifty thouſand men, the ſeaſon of action was loſt; yet the king of France was glad to come to an accommodation; and Edward agreed to ſubmit their differences to the arbitration of the pope. By this mediation their friendſhip was cemented by a double marriage; that of Edward with Margaret, Philip's ſiſter; and that of the prince of Wales with Iſabella, the French monarch's daughter. Philip alſo reſtored Guienne to the Engliſh.

But though this expedition was thus amicably terminated, yet the expences of fitting it out were not only burthenſome to the king, but in the event even threatened to ſhake him on his throne. In order to conciliate the regard of his people, he raiſed his ſupplies through the organ of his parliament; and that auguſt body was now modelled by him into the form in which it continues at this day. He iſſued writs to the ſheriffs, enjoining them to ſend to parliament, two knights of each ſhire, (as in the former reign,) and two deputies from each principal town within the ſhire, empowered by their conſtituents to grant ſuch demands as they ſhould think reaſonable for the ſafety of the ſtate. The charges of theſe deputies were to be borne by the borough which ſent them; and ſo far were they from conſidering this privilege as an honour, that nothing could be more diſpleaſing to any borough than to be thus obliged to ſend a deputy, nor to any individual than to be thus choſen. Such was the conſtitution of that parliament, to which Edward applied for aſſiſtance againſt France. He obtained from the barons and knights, a grant of the twelfth of their moveables; from the boroughs, an eighth; and from the clergy he determined to exact a fifth; but he there found an unexpected reſiſtance. The pope had ſome time before iſſued a bull, prohibiting the clergy from paying taxes to any temporal prince, without permiſſion from the ſee of Rome; and thoſe of England now pleaded conſcience, in refuſing to comply with the king's demand. They alleged, that they owed obedience to two ſovereigns, a ſpiritual and a temporal: that their eternal happineſs bound them to obey one, while only their worldly affairs led them to acknowledge the other. Edward was highly diſpleaſed with their duplicity, and employed their own arguments with great force againſt them. He refuſed them his temporal protection, ordered his judges to hear no cauſe brought before them by the clergy, but to decide all cauſes in which they were defendants: and to do every man ſtrict juſtice againſt them. In this outlawed ſituation, they ſuffered numberleſs evils from the hand of every ruffian, while the king's officers remained unconcerned ſpectators of their oppreſſion. Whenever the clergy ventured from home, they were plundered or robbed of their clothes; the primate himſelf was attacked on the highway, and ſtripped of his equipage and furniture. Theſe ſeverities at length prevailed; and the clergy agreed to leave the ſums they were taxed in their churches to be taken away by the king's officers. Thus at once they obeyed the king, without incurring the cenſure of the pope. But though theſe ſums were very great, yet they were by no means adequate to the wants of the ſtate. New taxes were therefore impoſed. Edward laid a duty of forty ſhillings a ſack upon wool; he required the ſheriffs of each county to ſupply him with two thouſand quarters of wheat, and as many of oats, without conſidering how they were to be obtained. Theſe he levied by the way of loans, promiſing to pay an equivalent, whenever the affairs of the ſtate would allow him ſo to do. Such modes of oppreſſion were not to be endured by the people, without murmuring; and the powerful barons, jealous of their own privileges, as well as of the national liberty, gave countenance to the general diſcontent.

The firſt ſymptoms of this ſpirit of diſcontent appeared upon the king's ordering Humphrey Bohun, the conſtable, and Roger Bigod, the marcſchal, of England, to take the command of an army deſtined for Gaſcony, while he himſelf intended to make a diverſion on the ſide of Flanders. Theſe two powerful noblemen refuſed to obey his orders, alleging, that they were obliged by their offices to attend him only in the wars, and not to conduct his armies. A violent altercation enſued. The king, addreſſing himſelf to the conſtable, cried out, "Sir earl, by God, you ſhall either go or be hanged." To which the haughty baron replied, "Sir king, by God, I will neither go nor be hanged." This oppoſition defeated the campaign, and taught the king a uſeful leſſon: he found he had driven prerogative too far; and, with that preſence of mind which was ever at his command, he deſired to be reconciled to his barons, to the church, and to his people. He pleaded the urgent neceſſities of the ſtate, and promiſed to redreſs all grievances, to reſtore the due execution of the laws, and to make his ſubjects compenſation for the loſſes which they had ſuſtained. Theſe generous profeſſions at once allayed the diſcontents of the nation; and the king embarked for the continent in Auguſt 1297, where he negotiated a truce with Philip; but not till after he had paid his continental allies immenſe ſums, for which no ſervices whatever had been performed. During his abſence, the two noblemen Bigod and Bohun, attended by a great body of cavalry and infantry, took poſſeſſion of the city gates, and obliged the king's council to ſign the Magna Charta, and to add a clauſe, to ſecure the nation for ever againſt all impoſitions and taxes, without the previous conſent of parliament. This the council agreed to ſign; and the king himſelf, when it was ſent over to him in Flanders, did the ſame. Theſe conceſſions he confirmed upon his return; and thus, after the ſtruggles of an age, the Magna Charta was finally eſtabliſhed; nor was it the leaſt honourable circumſtance in its favour, that its confirmation was eſtabliſhed by one of the greateſt princes that ever ſwayed the Engliſh ſceptre.

But though the confirmation of the Great Charter was

obtained without violence, yet it is probable, that the diſturbance given by Scotland about the ſame time, might have haſtened its final execution. That fierce nation, which had been conquered ſome time before, ſtill diſcovered a ſpirit of independence which no ſeverity could reſtrain. Earl Warenne had been left juſticiary in that kingdom; and his prudence and moderation were equal to his valour. He governed the people with ſtrict juſtice; but being obliged by the bad ſtate of his health to return to England, he left the adminiſtration in the hands of two very improper perſons: the one, whoſe name was Ormeſby, was rigorous and cruel; the other, Creſſingham, was avaricious and mean. Under ſo different an adminiſtration little ſtability could be expected; and their injuſtice ſoon drove the Scots into open rebellion. They were headed by William Wallace, ſo celebrious in Scottiſh ſtory, the younger ſon of a gentleman who lived in the weſtern part of the kingdom. He was a man of gigantic ſtature, incredible ſtrength, and ſingular intrepidity; deſirous of independence, and poſſeſſed with the moſt diſintereſted patriotiſm. His firſt exploits were confined to petty ravages, and occaſional attacks upon the Engliſh. As his forces increaſed, his efforts became more formidable; every day brought accounts of his great actions. The Scots were now too powerful for the Engliſh that were appointed to govern them; many of their barons now joined Wallace; ſir William Douglas was among the foremoſt, while Robert Bruce ſecretly favoured and promoted the cauſe. To oppoſe this inſurrection, earl Warenne was diſpatched with an army of forty thouſand men to attack the Scots, who had croſſed the borders, and begun to ravage the country. He ſuddenly entered Annandale, and by forced marches came up with the inſurgents at Irvine, where he took them by ſurpriſe, obliged them to capitulate, and compelled them to give hoſtages for their future fidelity. Moſt of the nobility renewed their oaths; but only waited a more favourable occaſion for vindicating their freedom. Wallace alone diſdained ſubmiſſion; and with a few followers, marched northwards, full of indignation and diſappointment. In the mean time Warenne advanced in purſuit, and overtook him in the neighbourhood of Stirling, on the other ſide of the Forth. The earl, perceiving the favourable ground he had choſen, was for declining the engagement; but being preſſed by Creſſingham, whoſe private revenge operated over his judgment, the old earl was at length perſuaded to comply, and he paſſed over a part of his army to begin the attack. Wallace boldly advanced upon them before they had time to form, and put them entirely to the rout. Part were driven into the river which lay in the rear, and the reſt were cut to pieces. Among the ſlain was Creſſingham himſelf, whoſe memory was ſo odious to the Scots, that they flayed his dead body, and made ſaddles of his ſkin. Warenne retired with the remains of his army to Berwick, while the victors took ſuch caſtles as were but ill provided with a ſiege. Edward now haſtened back from Flanders, impatient to reſtore his authority, and ſecure his former conqueſts. Leſt the diſcontents of his people ſhould not have entirely ſubſided, he took every popular meaſure that he thought would give them ſatisfaction. He reſtored to the citizens of London the power of electing their own magiſtrates, of which they had been deprived in the latter part of his father's reign. He ordered ſtrict enquiries to be made concerning the quantity of corn which he had arbitrarily ſeized for the uſe of his armies, as if he intended to pay the value to the owners. Thus having ſatisfied all complaints, he levied the whole force of his dominions; and, at the head of a hundred thouſand men, he directed his march towards the north, to take vengeance upon the Scots for their defection.

It will eaſily be imagined that the Scots, even if united, were wholly incompetent to reſiſt ſuch an army; but their own mutual diſſenſions ſerved to render them ſtill more unequal to the conteſt, and to prepare Edward's way to an eaſy triumph. The Scots were headed by three commanders, who each claimed equal authority; theſe were the ſteward of Scotland, Comyn of Badenoch, and William Wallace, who offered to give up his command, but whoſe party refuſed to follow any other leader. The Scotch army was judiciouſly poſted at Falkirk, determined to await the aſſault of the Engliſh. They were drawn up in three diviſions, each forming a complete body of pikemen, and the intervals filled with archers. Their horſe were placed in the rear, and their front was ſecured with paliſadoes. Edward, though he ſaw the advantage of ground was againſt him, little regarded ſuch a ſuperiority, confident of his own ſkill and his numbers; wherefore, dividing his forces alſo into three bodies, he led them to the attack. Juſt as he advanced at the head of his troops, the Scots ſet up ſo horrid a ſhout, that the horſe upon which the king rode took fright, threw, and kicked him on the ribs; but the intrepid monarch quickly re-mounted, and ordered the Welſh brigade to begin the attack. Theſe made but a feeble reſiſtance againſt the impetuous Scots, who fought with determined valour. Edward, ſeeing them begin to give ground, advanced in perſon at the head of another battalion; and having pulled up the paliſadoes, charged the enemy with ſuch impetuoſity, that they were no longer able to reſiſt. In this bloody conteſt Wallace did all that lay in the power of man to ſuſtain and avert the ſhock; but the diviſion commanded by Comyn quitting the field, the diviſion of the lord ſteward, as well as that of Wallace, lay open to the Engliſh archers, who at that era began to excel thoſe of all other nations. Wallace long maintained an unequal conteſt with his pikemen; but, finding himſelf in danger of being ſurrounded, he was obliged to draw off the remnant of his troops behind the river Carron. Such was the famous battle of Falkirk, fought July 22, 1298, in which Edward gained a complete victory, leaving twelve thouſand of the Scots, or, as ſome more marvellouſly write, fifty thouſand, dead upon the field of battle, while the Engliſh had not an hundred ſlain! This blow, though dreadful, did not cruſh the ſpirits of the Scots; and after a ſhort interval, they began to prepare for further reſiſtance. Wallace, who had gained their regards by his valour, ſhowed that he merited them more by his declining the rewards of ambition. Perceiving how much he was envied by the nobility, and knowing how advantageous their unanimity would prove to the intereſts of his country, he reſigned the regency of the kingdom, and returned to a private ſtation. He propoſed John Comyn earl of Badenoch, as the moſt eligible perſon to ſupply his place; and that nobleman endeavoured to ſhow himſelf worthy of the appointment. He ſoon began to annoy the Engliſh; and not content with a defenſive war, he made incurſions into thoſe countries which Edward had fondly imagined were wholly ſubdued. In 1302, they attacked an Engliſh army lying at Roſlin, near Edinburgh, and gained a complete victory. The renown of the Scottiſh arms now began to ſpread diſmay among the Engliſh garriſons in that kingdom; and they evacuated all the fortreſſes of which they had for a long time had poſſeſſion. Thus the taſk of conqueſt was to be performed over again; and, in proportion to their loſſes, the Scots ſeemed to be endued with freſh obſtinacy.

But it was not poſſible for any circumſtances of ſucceſsful revolt to depreſs the enterpriſing ſpirit of the king. He aſſembled a great fleet and army; and, early in 1303, entered the frontiers of Scotland with a force, which the enemy could not think of reſiſting in the open field. The fleet furniſhed the land army with all neceſſary proviſions; while theſe traverſed the kingdom from one end to the other, ravaging the open country, taking all the caſtles, and receiving the ſubmiſſions of the nobles and people as they went forward. This conqueſt employed Edward for the ſpace of two years; but he ſeemed, by the ſeverity of his conduct, to make the natives pay dear for the trouble to which they had put him. He abrogated all the

Scottiſh laws and cuſtoms; he endeavoured to ſubſtitute thoſe of England in their place; he raiſed or deſtroyed all their monuments of antiquity, and endeavoured to blot out even the memory of their former independence and freedom. There ſeemed to remain only one obſtacle to the final deſtruction of the Scottiſh monarchy; and that was William Wallace, who ſtill continued refractory, and, wandering from one dreary mountain to another, ſtill preſerved his native independence and uſual good fortune. But even all their feeble hopes from this ſingular veteran were ſoon diſappointed; he was betrayed into the king's hands by ſir John Monteith, a falſe and treacherous friend, whom he had made acquainted with the place of his concealment; and was ſurpriſed and taken by him as he lay aſleep in the neighbourhood of Glaſgow. The inexorable king, determined to ſtrike the Scots with an awful example of ſeverity, ordered him to be conducted in chains to London, whither he was carried amidſt infinite crowds of ſpectators, who flocked to ſee a man that had filled the country with ſo much alarm. On the day after his arrival he was brought to trial as a traitor, at Weſtminſter-hall, where he was placed upon a high chair, and inviduouſly crowned with laurel in deriſion. Being accuſed of various imputed crimes, he pleaded not guilty, and refuſed to own the juriſdiction of the court, affirming that it was equally unjuſt and abſurd to charge him with treaſon againſt a prince whoſe title he had never acknowledged; and as he was born under the laws of another country, it was cruel to try him by thoſe to which he was a ſtranger. The judges diſregarded his defence; for conſidering Edward as the rightful ſovereign of Scotland, they found him guilty of high treaſon, and condemned him to be hanged, drawn, and quartered. This ſentence was executed with the moſt rigorous ſeverity; and his head and quarters were expoſed in the chief cities of England. Such was the wretched end of a brave man, who had, through a courſe of many years, with ſignal perſeverance and magnanimity, defended his native country againſt an unjuſt invader.

Robert Bruce was among thoſe on whom the cruel fate of Wallace had made the deepeſt impreſſion. This nobleman, who was a competitor for the crown, and whoſe claims, though ſet aſide by Edward, were ſtill ſecretly purſued, was now actually in the Engliſh army. He never was ſincerely attached to the Engliſh monarch, whom he was in ſome meaſure compelled to follow; and an interview with Wallace, ſome time before that champion was taken, confirmed him in his reſolution to ſet his country free. But as he was now grown old and infirm, he was obliged to give up the flattering ambition of being the deliverer of his people, and to leave it in charge to his ſon, whoſe name was Robert Bruce alſo, and who received his father's injunction with ardour. This young nobleman was brave, active, and prudent; and a favourable conjuncture of circumſtances ſeemed to conſpire with its views. John Baliol, whom Edward had dethroned, and baniſhed into France, had lately died in that country; his eldeſt ſon continued a captive in the ſame place; ſo that there was none to diſpute his pretenſions, except Comyn, who was regent of the kingdom; and he alſo was ſoon after brought over to ſecond his intereſts. He therefore ſolemnly reſolved upon freeing his country from the Engliſh yoke; and although he attended the court of Edward, yet he began to make ſecret preparations for his intended revolt. Edward, who had been informed not only of his intentions, but of his actual engagements, contented himſelf with ſetting ſpies upon his conduct, and ordered all his motions to be guarded, that he might not eſcape. Bruce was buſily employed in forwarding his plans, unconſcious of being ſuſpected, or even of having a watch ſet upon his conduct; but he was taught to underſtand his danger by a preſent ſent him by a young nobleman, of a pair of gilt ſpurs, and a purſe of gold. This he conſidered as a warning to make his eſcape, which he did, by ordering his horſes to be ſhod with their ſhoes turned backwards, to prevent his being tracked in the ſnow which had juſt fallen. He travelled from London to Lochmaben, which is near four hundred miles, in ſeven days. Comyn, who had in the beginning concurred in his ſchemes, was privately known to have communicated the whole to Edward; and Bruce was reſolved to take vengeance upon him for his perfidy. Hearing that he was at Dumfries, he went thither; and meeting him in the cloiſters of a monaſtery belonging to the Grey Friars, reproached him, in ſevere terms, with his treachery; and drawing his ſword, inſtantly plunged it in his breaſt. Bruce, by this action, not only rendered himſelf the object of Edward's reſentment, but involved all his party in the miſchief. They had now no reſource left, but to confirm, by deſperate valour, what they had begun in cruelty; and they ſoon expelled ſuch of the Engliſh forces as had remained to guard the kingdom. Bruce was ſolemnly crowned king of Scotland by the biſhop of St. Andrew's, in the abbey of Scone; and numbers flocked to his ſtandard, determined to ſhare in his fortunes. Thus, after twice conquering the kingdom, and as often pardoning the delinquents; after having ſpread his victories in every part of the country, and received the moſt humble ſubmiſſions, king Edward ſaw that his whole work was to begin afreſh, and that nothing but the final deſtruction of the inhabitants could give him aſſurance of tranquillity. But no difficulties could repreſs the ardour of this monarch; who, though verging towards his decline, was reſolved to ſtrike a deciſive blow, and make the Scots once more tremble at his appearance. He vowed ſignal revenge againſt the whole nation; and averred, that nothing but complete bondage ſhould ſatisfy his reſentment. He ſummoned the prelates, nobility, and all who held by knight's ſervice, to meet him at Carliſle, which was made the general place of rendezvous; and he detached a body of forces before him into Scotland, under the command of Aymer de Valence, who began the threatened vengeance by a complete victory over Bruce, near Methuen, in Perthſhire. That heroic prince fought with great vigour and obſtinacy; he was thrice diſmounted from his horſe, and as often recovered his place in the hotteſt of the action; at laſt he was overwhelmed, and obliged to take ſhelter, with a few followers, in the Weſtern Iſles. The earl of Athol, ſir Simon Fraſer, and ſir Chriſtopher Seton, who had been taken priſoners, were executed as traitors on the ſpot. Edward himſelf now entered Scotland with his army divided into two parts, when the ſevereſt puniſhments were expected to be inflicted on the poor defeated Scots people. But the temper of Edward was never cruel but from motives of political neceſſity. His anger was ſoon appeaſed by their humiliation; and he was aſhamed to extirpate thoſe who only oppoſed patience to his indignation. It was upon the confederated nobles of the country that his anger fell. The ſiſter of Bruce, and the counteſs of Buchan, were ſhut up in wooden cages, and hung over the battlements of a fortreſs; and his two brothers fell by the hands of the executioner. The obſtinacy of Robert Bruce himſelf operated ſtill to inflame the king's reſentment. He continued to excite freſh commotions in the Highlands; and, though often overcome, perſiſted in unſhaken oppoſition. Edward, irritated beyond meaſure, now reſolved, at the head of a great army, again to enter Scotland, to exterminate the whole race of inſurgents, and to give no quarter. But Edward's ſudden death put an end to theſe fearful denunciations. He ſickened at Carliſle, and died of a dyſentery in his tent about five miles from that city, on the 5th of July, 1307; after enjoining his ſon, with his laſt breath, to proſecute the enterpriſe, and never to deſiſt till he had finally ſubdued the Scottiſh kingdom. He expired in the ſixty ninth year of his age and the thirty-fifth of his reign, after having added more to the ſolid intereſts of the kingdom than any of his predeceſſors, who had ever filled the throne of England.

The character of Edward I. ſtands high on the records of

of hiſtory. He reſtored permanent authority to the government, which had been diſordered by the weakneſs of his father; he maintained the laws againſt all the efforts of his turbulent barons; he fully annexed to the crown the principality of Wales; he took the wiſeſt and moſt effectual meaſures for reducing Scotland to a like condition; and though the equity of this latter enterpriſe may reaſonably be queſtioned, the circumſtances of the two kingdoms promiſed ſuch ſucceſs, and the advantage was ſo viſible, of uniting the whole iſland under one head, that thoſe who give great indulgence to reaſons of ſtate in the meaſures of princes, will not be apt to regard this part of his conduct with much ſeverity. But Edward, however exceptionable his character may appear on the head of juſtice, is the model of a politic and warlike king. He poſſeſſed induſtry, penetration, courage, vigour, and enterpriſe. He was frugal in all expences that were not neceſſary; he knew how to open the public treaſures on proper occaſions; he puniſhed criminals with ſeverity; he was gracious and affable to his ſervants and courtiers; and was as well qualified to captivate the populace by his exterior demeanour, as to gain the approbation of men of ſenſe by his more ſolid virtues. He poſſeſſed a very dignified appearance, tall in ſtature; regular and comely in his features; with keen piercing eyes, and of an aſpect that commanded reſpect and eſteem. His conſtitution was robuſt; his ſtrength and dexterity perhaps unequalled in his kingdom; and his ſhape was perfect in all other reſpects except that of his legs, which are ſaid to have been too long in proportion to his body, whence he derived the epithet of *Longſhanks*. In mental endowments he has been juſtly celebrated. He was cool, ſagacious, and circumſpect. The remoteſt corners of the earth reſounded with the fame of his courage; and all over Europe he was conſidered as the flower of chivalry. Nor was he leſs conſummate in his legiſlative capacity, than eminent for his proweſs. He may be ſtiled the Engliſh Juſtinian: for, beſides the excellent ſtatutes that were enacted in his reign, he new-modelled the adminiſtration of juſtice, ſo as to render it more ſure and ſummary; he fixed proper bounds to the courts of juriſdiction; ſettled a new and eaſy method of collecting the revenue, and eſtabliſhed wiſe and effectual methods of preſerving peace and order among his ſubjects. Yet, with all theſe good qualities, he cheriſhed a dangerous ambition, to which he did not ſcruple to ſacrifice the good of his country, whenever it ſtood in the way of his private views. Though celebrated for his chaſtity and regular deportment, there is not, in the whole courſe of his reign, one inſtance on record of his public liberality and munificence.

King Edward was firſt married to the princeſs Eleanor of Caſtille, by whom he had four ſons and eleven daughters. The three eldeſt of theſe ſons, John, Henry, and Alphonſo, died unmarried, long before their father; the youngeſt, Edward, ſurvived, and ſucceeded him. Four of the daughters of this marriage, Eleanor, Joan of Acres, Margaret, and Elizabeth, were married to the earls of Bar and Glouceſter, the duke of Brabant, and earl of Holland; ſix of them died in their infancy; one of them, Mary, was a nun, and ſurvived her father. Edward's ſecond queen was Margaret of France, by whom he had two ſons, Thomas of Brotherton earl of Norfolk, and Edmund of Woodſtock earl of Kent, and one daughter, Eleanor, who died in her infancy.

Edward II. was in the twenty-third year of his age when he aſcended the throne of his father. He was of an agreeable figure, of a mild harmleſs diſpoſition, and apparently addicted to few vices. But he ſoon gave ſymptoms of his unfitneſs to ſucceed ſo great a monarch as Edward I. The young king appeared more fond of the enjoyment of his power, than of the art of ſecuring it; and, lulled by the flattery of his courtiers, he thought he had done enough for glory, when he had put on the crown. Inſtead, therefore, of proſecuting the war againſt Scotland, according to the injunctions laid upon him by his dying father, he took no ſteps to check the progreſs of Robert Bruce; his march into that country being rather a proceſſion of pageantry than a military expedition. Bruce, no longer dreading the great conqueror by whom he had been oppoſed, boldly iſſued from his retreat, and even obtained a conſiderable advantage over Aymer de Valence, who commanded the Engliſh forces. Young Edward looked tamely on, and, inſtead of chaſtiſing the enemy, endeavoured to come to an accommodation. The Engliſh barons, who had been kept in check during the preceding reign, now ſaw that the ſceptre was fallen into ſuch feeble hands, that they might reſume their former power and independence.

To confirm the inauſpicious conjectures already formed of this reign; Edward recalled one of his favourites, who had been baniſhed by his father for corrupting the prince's morals. The name of this diſſipated youth was Piers Gaveſtone, the ſon of a Gaſcon knight, who had been employed in the ſervice of the late king. This young man was of an inſinuating exterior; but was utterly deſtitute of thoſe amiable qualities of heart and underſtanding which are calculated to procure eſteem. Yet he was witty, brave, and active; but then he was vicious, effeminate, debauched, and trifling. Theſe were qualities entirely adapted to the taſte of the young monarch's mind. He therefore took Gaveſtone into his particular favour, and thought no rewards equal to his deſerts. He endowed him with the earldom of Cornwall, and married him to his own niece, giving him the ſum of thirty-two thouſand pounds, which the late king had ſuperſtitiouſly reſerved for the maintenance of one hundred and forty knights, who had undertaken to carry his heart to Jeruſalem. Theſe unbounded favours could not fail to excite the indignation of the barons; and Gaveſtone was no way ſolicitous to ſoften their reſentment. Intoxicated with power, he became haughty and extravagant. Whenever there was a diſplay of pomp and magnificence, Gaveſtone was ſure to eclipſe the Engliſh nobility, not only by his ſuperior ſplendour, but by his ſuperior inſolence.

This preſumptuous favourite was appointed regent of England, during a journey the king made to Paris, to eſpouſe the princeſs Iſabella, to whom he had been long betrothed. The barons, extremely provoked at this elevation of the favourite, concerted meaſures, previous to the arrival of the princeſs, who was imperious and intriguing, to make her of their party, by affecting to give her a timely caution againſt the intrigues of Gaveſtone. A conſpiracy was ſoon formed againſt him, at the head of which queen Iſabella, and the earl of Lancaſter, were aſſociated. They reciprocally bound themſelves to expel Gaveſtone; and began to throw off all reverence for the royal authority, which they ſaw wholly ingroſſed by this overgrown favourite. At length, the king found himſelf obliged to ſubmit to their united clamour; and he removed Gaveſtone, by appointing him lord-lieutenant of Ireland. But his abſence was of very ſhort duration; for the weak monarch, long habituated to his company, could not live without him; and having obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for his breach of faith, he once more recalled Gaveſtone, and even went down to Cheſter to meet him on his firſt landing. A parliament was aſſembled, wherein the king had influence ſufficient to have his late conduct approved; but this ſerved only to increaſe his ridiculous attachment, and to render Gaveſtone ſtill more odious. It was eaſy to perceive that a combination of the nobles, while the queen ſecretly aſſiſted their deſigns, would be too powerful for the efforts of a weak king and a vain courtier. They were bent upon the fall of Gaveſtone, even though that of Edward himſelf ſhould be involved in the ſame ruin. They ſoon, therefore, aſſembled, in a tumultuary parliament, contrary to the king's expreſs command, attended with a numerous retinue of armed followers; and began a barefaced uſurpation, by giving laws to the king. They compelled him, March 16, 1308, to ſign a commiſſion, by which the whole authority

of

EDWARD II.

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of the government was to be delegated to twelve perſons, to be choſen by themſelves. Theſe were to have the management of the kingdom, and the regulation of the king's houſehold. They were to enact ordinances for the good of the ſtate, and the honour of the king; their commiſſion was to continue for ſix months; and then they were to lay down their authority. Many of their ordinances were accordingly put in force; and ſome of them appeared for the advantage of the nation: ſuch as the requiring that the ſheriffs ſhould be men of property; the prohibiting the adulteration of the coin; the excluding foreigners from farming the revenues; and the revoking all the late exorbitant grants of the crown. All theſe the king, who ſaw himſelf entirely ſtripped of his power, could very patiently ſubmit to; but when he found that Gaveſtone was to be baniſhed for ever from his dominions, he was no longer maſter of his temper; but removing to York, where he was at a diſtance from the immediate terror of the confederated power, he inſtantly invited Gaveſtone back from Flanders, whither the barons had baniſhed him; and declaring his puniſhment and ſentence to be illegal, he openly reinſtated him, in 1312, in all his former authorities. This was ſufficient to ſpread an alarm over the whole kingdom; the barons flew to arms; the earl of Lancaſter put himſelf at the head of this irreſiſtible confederacy; Guy earl of Warwick entered into it with anxious zeal; the earl of Hereford, the earl of Pembroke, and earl Warenne, all embraced the ſame cauſe; whilſt the archbiſhop of Canterbury brought over the majority of the eccleſiaſtics, and conſequently of the people. The ſupine and miſerable Edward, inſtead of attempting reſiſtance, ſought only for ſafety: happy in the excluſive ſociety of his favourite, he embarked at Teignmouth, and ſailed with him to the caſtle of Scarborough, where he left Gaveſtone, as in a place of ſafety; and then went back to York, either to raiſe an army, or to allay the animoſity of his barons. In the mean time, Gaveſtone was beſieged in Scarborough by the earl of Pembroke; and being unable to make reſiſtance, he took the earlieſt opportunity to offer terms of capitulation. He ſtipulated, that he ſhould remain in Pembroke's hands, as a priſoner, for two months; and that endeavours ſhould be uſed, in the mean time, for a general accommodation. But Pembroke had no intention that he ſhould eſcape ſo eaſily: the other leading barons were conſulted; when, without heſitation or trial, the unfortunate favourite's head was ſevered from his body, to the diſgrace of humanity, and in violation of the eſtabliſhed laws.

The king, at firſt, ſeemed to feel all the reſentment which ſo ſenſible an injury ought to have produced; but, equally weak in his attachment and in his revenge, he was ſoon appeaſed, and granted the murderers a free pardon, upon their making a ſhow of ſubmiſſion and repentance. An apparent tranquillity was for a time eſtabliſhed among the contending parties; and that reſentment which they had exerciſed upon each other, was now turned againſt the Scots, who were conſidered as the common enemy. A war had been declared ſome time before with this nation, in order to recover that ſovereignty over them which had been eſtabliſhed in the former reign, and a truce was concluded; but the terms of it being ill obſerved on both ſides, the animoſities were kindled afreſh, and the whole military force of England was called out by the king, and ſeconded by the barons; together with very large reinforcements from the continent, and other parts of the Engliſh dominions. Edward's army amounted to a hundred thouſand men; while Bruce, king of Scotland, could bring only thirty thouſand to oppoſe him. Both armies met at Bannockburn, within two miles of Stirling; the one confident in numbers, the other relying wholly on their advantageous poſition. Bruce had a hill on his right flank, and a bog on his left; with a rivulet in front, on the banks of which he had cauſed ſeveral deep pits to be dug, with pointed ſtakes driven into them, and the whole carefully concealed from the view of the enemy. The attack was made by the Engliſh; and a furious engagement enſued between the cavalry on both ſides. The fortune and intrepidity of Bruce gave the firſt turn to the day. He engaged in ſingle combat with Henry de Bohun, of the houſe of Hereford; and at one ſtroke clove his ſkull with his battle-axe. So favourable a beginning was only interrupted by the night; for the battle renewing at the dawn of the enſuing day, the Engliſh cavalry once more attempted to attack the Scottiſh army, but unexpectedly found themſelves entangled among thoſe pits which Bruce had previouſly dug for them. The earl of Glouceſter, the king's nephew, was overthrown and ſlain, which ſerved to intimidate the Engliſh army; but they were much more alarmed by the appearance of a freſh army, as they ſuppoſed it to be, that was preparing, from a neighbouring height, to fall upon their rear. This was only compoſed of waggoners and attendants upon the Scottiſh camp, who had been ſupplied by the king with ſtandards, and ordered to make as formidable a ſhow as they poſſibly could. The ſtratagem ſucceeded; the Engliſh, intimidated by their loſſes, and diſtracted by their fears, began to fly on all ſides; and, throwing away their arms, were purſued with great ſlaughter as far as Berwick. Edward himſelf narrowly eſcaped by flight to Dunbar, where he was received by the earl of Marche, and thence conveyed by ſea to Berwick. This battle was deciſive in favour of Scotland. It ſecured the independence of the crown of that kingdom; and ſuch was the influence of this defeat upon the minds of the Engliſh, that for ſome time after no ſuperiority of numbers could induce them to keep the field againſt their formidable adverſaries.

Want of ſucceſs is uſually attended with want of authority. The king having ſuffered not only a defeat from the Scots, but alſo having been diſtracted by inſurrections among the Welſh and Iriſh, yet found his greateſt affliction in the turbulence and inſolence of his ſubjects at home. The barons, ever refractory, now took the advantage of his feeble ſituation to depreſs his power, and re-eſtabliſh their own. The earl of Lancaſter and thoſe of his party, A. D. 1314, no ſooner ſaw the unfortunate monarch return in diſgrace, than they renewed their demands, and were reinſtated in their former power of governing the kingdom. It was declared, that all offices ſhould be filled from time to time by the votes of parliament, which as they were influenced by the great barons, theſe effectually took all government into their own hands. Thus, from every new calamity, the ſtate ſuffered; the barons acquired new power; and their aims were not ſo much to repreſs the enemies of their country, as to foment new animoſities, by which they might ſtrengthen their own hands.

The king, finding himſelf thus counteracted and cut off from all reſources, had recourſe to another favourite, on whom he repoſed the utmoſt confidence, and from whoſe connections he hoped for aſſiſtance. This was Hugh De Spenſer, a young man of noble Engliſh family, and engaging accompliſhments. His father was a perſon of eſtimable character, venerable from his years, and reſpected for his wiſdom, valour, and integrity. But theſe excellent qualities were all vilified, from the moment he and his ſon began to ſhare the king's favour. The turbulent barons, with Lancaſter at their head, regarded them as rivals, and taught the people to deſpiſe thoſe accompliſhments that only ſerved to eclipſe their own. The king equally weak in his attachments, inſtead of profiting by the wiſdom of the father, endeavoured only to ſtrengthen himſelf by their power. For this purpoſe he married the young Spenſer to his niece; he ſettled upon him ſome large poſſeſſions in Wales; and even diſpoſſeſſed ſome lords unjuſtly of their eſtates, in order to accumulate them upon his favourite. This was a pretext the king's enemies wiſhed for: the earls of Lancaſter and Hereford flew to arms; and the lords Audley and Ammori, who had been diſpoſſeſſed, joined them with all

their forces. Their firſt meaſure was to require the king to diſmiſs his favourite, the young Spenſer; menacing him, in caſe of a refuſal, with a determination to obtain by force what ſhould be denied to their importunities. To ſhow themſelves in earneſt, they began by pillaging the lands of young Spenſer, and burning his houſes. The eſtates of the father ſoon ſhared the ſame fate; and the inſurgents having thus wreaked their vengeance, marched to London, to inflict a ſimilar puniſhment on their adverſaries. Finding a free entrance into the city, they ſo intimidated the parliament that was then ſitting, that a ſentence was procured of perpetual exile againſt the two Spenſers, and a forfeiture of their fortune and eſtates. But an act of this kind, extorted by violence, was not likely to bind the king any longer than neceſſity compelled him. Some time after, having aſſembled a ſmall army to puniſh one of the barons, who had offered an indignity to the queen, he thought it a convenient opportunity to take revenge on all his enemies at once, and to recall the two Spenſers, who had been ſo unjuſtly expelled their native country. In this manner the civil war was kindled afreſh, and the kingdom involved in all the horrors of ſlaughter and devaſtation.

Edward had now got the ſtart of his adverſaries, and haſtened, by forced marches, towards the borders of Wales, where the enemy's chief power lay. Lancaſter, however, was not ſlow in making head againſt him: he ſummoned together all his vaſſals and retainers, and was quickly joined by the earl of Hereford. Still farther to ſtrengthen his party, he formed an alliance with the king of Scotland, with whom he had long been privately connected. But his diligence proved ineffectual; the king, at the head of thirty thouſand men, preſſed him ſo cloſely, that he had not time to collect his forces together; and, flying from one place to another, he was at laſt attacked in his way to Scotland by ſir Andrew Harcla, who repulſed his forces in a ſkirmiſh, in which the earl of Hereford was ſlain, and Lancaſter himſelf taken priſoner. As he had formerly ſhewn ſo little mercy to Gaveſtone, the ſame meaſure of puniſhment was meted to him. He was condemned by the court-martial; and led, mounted on a lean horſe, to an eminence near Pomfret, in circumſtances of the greateſt indignity, where he was beheaded. The people, with whom he had juſt before been a favourite, ſeemed to have quite forſaken him in his diſgrace; they reviled him, as he was paſſed along to execution, with every kind of opprobrious language. About eighteen more of the principal inſurgents were afterwards condemned and executed in a more legal manner, while others conſulted their ſafety by eſcaping to the continent. This ſeverity only ſerved to increaſe the pride and rapacity of young Spenſer; moſt of the forfeitures were ſeized for his uſe; and, in his promptitude to puniſh the delinquents, he was guilty of many acts of rapine and injuſtice. Thus he laid the train for his own future misfortunes.

The king of France, A. D. 1324, taking advantage of Edward's imbecility, reſolved to confiſcate all his foreign dominions. After a fruitleſs embaſſy from Edward, the queen of England deſired to negotiate the buſineſs with her brother Charles the Fair, then king of France, in order to avert the ſtorm. The French king, though he gave his ſiſter the kindeſt reception, was reſolved to liſten to no accommodation, unleſs Edward in perſon ſhould appear, and do him feudal homage for the dominions he held under him. This was conſidered as a very dangerous ſtep; and what the king of England ſhould not think of complying with. In this exigence the queen ſtarted a new expedient, which ſeemed calculated to get rid of all difficulties. It was, that Edward ſhould reſign the dominion of Guienne to his ſon, then about thirteen years of age; and that the young prince ſhould go with the queen to Paris, to pay that homage which had been required of the father. With this propoſal all parties acquieſced; young Edward was ſent to Paris; and the queen, a haughty and imperious woman, having thus got her ſon in her power, was reſolved to detain him abroad till her own deſires were complied with. The principal of theſe was the expulſion of the Spenſers, againſt whom ſhe had conceived a moſt implacable hatred. In conſequence of this reſolution, ſhe protracted the negociation at her brother's court for ſome time; and, being at laſt required by the king to return, ſhe replied that ſhe would never again appear in England till Spenſer was removed from the royal preſence, and baniſhed the kingdom. By this reply ſhe gained two points: ſhe became popular in England where Spenſer was deſpiſed; and ſhe could indulge in the ſociety of a young nobleman, whoſe name was Mortimer, upon whom ſhe had caſt her affections. This youth had, in ſome former inſurrection, been condemned for high treaſon, but had the ſentence commuted into perpetual impriſonment in the Tower. From thence he had the good fortune to eſcape to France, and ſoon became diſtinguiſhed for his violent antipathy to Spenſer. The graces of his perſon, and his abhorrence of the favourite, rendered him very acceptable to the queen; ſo that, from being a partizan, he became a lover, and indulged in all the voluptuous pleaſures her criminal paſſion could confer. The queen's court in Guienne became a ſanctuary for all the malcontents who were baniſhed their country; a correſpondence was ſecretly carried on with the diſcontented at home; and a combination formed to deſtroy the favourites, and dethrone the king.

To ſecond the queen's efforts, many of the principal nobles prepared their vaſſals, and openly declared againſt the favourite. The king's brother, the earl of Kent, joined the party; the earl of Norfolk was prevailed upon to enter ſecretly into the conſpiracy; the brother and heir to the earl of Lancaſter was from principle attached to the cauſe; the archbiſhop of Canterbury expreſſed his approbation of the queen's meaſures; and the minds of the people were inflamed by all thoſe arts which the deſigning and vindictive practiſe upon the weak and ignorant. In this univerſal defection, the queen prepared for her return to England; and, accompanied by three thouſand men at arms, ſet out from Dort harbour, and landed, without oppoſition, on the coaſt of Suffolk, September 24, 1326. She no ſooner appeared, than a general revolt in her favour took place; three prelates, the biſhops of Ely, Lincoln, and Hereford, brought in all their vaſſals; and Robert de Watteville, who had been detached to oppoſe her progreſs, went over to her with all his forces. In this exigence the unfortunate Edward vainly attempted to collect his friends; he was obliged to quit the capital for ſafety; and the populace, immediately on his flight, broke out into thoſe violent exceſſes which are the ſure conſequence of unreſtrained liberty and licentiouſneſs. They ſeized the biſhop of Exeter, as he was paſſing through the city, beheaded him without any form of trial, and threw his body into the Thames. They ſeized upon the Tower, and ſhewed mercy to none who ventured to oppoſe them: all government was diſſolved, the courts of juſtice ſhut, and a mob called *the riflers*, plundered and murdered with impunity. The affrighted king found the ſpirit of revolt not confined to the capital alone, but diffuſed over the whole kingdom. He had placed ſome hopes upon the garriſon which was ſtationed in the caſtle of Briſtol, under the command of the elder Spenſer; but they mutinied againſt their governor, and that unfortunate nobleman was condemned by the tumultuous barons to the moſt ignominious death. He was hanged on a gibbet in his armour, his body was cut to pieces and thrown to the dogs, and his head was ſent to be expoſed at Wincheſter, where it was ſet on a pole. Thus fell the elder favourite, in his ninetieth year; yet his character, even the malevolence of party could not tarniſh. He had paſſed a youth of tranquillity and unſullied reputation; but his unfortunate connection with an ill-conducted government, involved his age in ruin. Young Spenſer, the ill-fated ſon, did not long ſurvive the father; he was taken in an ob-

ſcure convent in Wales; and the mercileſs victors reſolved to glut their revenge by adding inſult to cruelty. The queen, callous to every feeling of humanity, waited not the formality of a trial; but ordered the wretched victim to be led forth, that ſhe might feaſt her eyes, with ſavage pleaſure in beholding his diſtreſs. The gibbet erected for his execution was fifty feet high; his head was ſent to London, where the citizens carried it in brutal triumph, and fixed it on the bridge.

In the mean time, the perſecuted king, who hoped to find refuge in Wales, was cloſely purſued by his triumphant enemies. Finding no hopes of ſuccour in that part of the country, he took ſhipping for Ireland; but even there his misfortunes purſued him: he was driven back by contrary winds, and eventually delivered up to his adverſaries, who expreſſed their brutal rage by the groſſneſs of their treatment. He was conducted to the capital, amidſt the inſults and reproaches of the people, and confined in the Tower. A charge fulminated by the queen and Mortimer was exhibited againſt him; in which no other crimes but his incapacity to govern, his indolence, his love of pleaſure, and his being ſwayed by evil counſellors, were objected againſt him. He was depoſed January 20, 1327; a penſion was aſſigned him for his ſupport; his ſon Edward, then about fourteen, was declared his ſucceſſor, and the queen was appointed regent during the minority.

The depoſed monarch but a ſhort time ſurvived this degradation; he was ſent from priſon to priſon, a wretched outcaſt, and the ſport of fortune. He had been at firſt conſigned to the cuſtody of the earl of Lancaſter; but this nobleman, betraying ſome marks of reſpect and pity, he was taken out of his hands, and delivered over to the lords Berkeley, Montravers, and Gournay, who were entruſted with the charge of guarding him a month each in turn. Whatever his treatment from lord Berkeley might have been, the other two ſeemed reſolved that he ſhould enjoy none of the comforts of life while in their cuſtody. They practiſed every kind of indignity upon him, as if their deſign had been to accelerate his death by the bitterneſs of his ſufferings. Theſe cruelties began at length to operate upon the minds of the people, whoſe rage was ſoftened, and pity for their perſecuted ſovereign excited in proportion as the adulterous connection between the queen and Mortimer came into view. The queen, therefore, dreading a revolution in his favour, ſent orders to Gournay and Montravers to diſpatch him at once. Theſe monſters, in the ſhape of men, accordingly went to Berkeley caſtle, where Edward was confined; and, having concerted a method of putting him to death without any external ſigns of violence, they threw him on a bed, holding him down by a table, which they placed over him. They then ran a red-hot iron through a tube of horn up his fundament, and thus burnt his bowels, without diſfiguring his body. By this cruel artifice they expected their crime would be concealed; but his dreadful ſhrieks, which were heard at a diſtance from the caſtle, ſoon gave a ſuſpicion of the murder; and the whole was brought to light by the confeſſion of one of the accomplices. Thus miſerably periſhed the unthinking, dethroned, perſecuted, king of England, on the 21ſt of Sept. 1327.

Edward II. ſurnamed of Caernarvon, is ſaid to have borne a great reſemblance to his illuſtrious father in the ſtature, ſtrength, and beauty, of his perſon; but unhappily the reſemblance was not ſo great in the qualities of the mind. Though not remarkably deficient in perſonal courage, he had no talents for war; nor was he better qualified for the conduct of political intrigues, being paſſionate, incautious, and irreſolute. He was guilty of many follies, but of few vices; and ſpent his time rather in frivolity, than in criminal indulgences. But the moſt ſtriking feature in this prince's character, was his unbounded and inviolable attachment to his favourites, Gaveſtone and Spenſer. This was the only real cauſe of all the calamities of his reign, the miſeries of his life, and the violence of his death. Edward had, by his queen Iſabella of France, two ſons and two daughters, viz. Edward, his eldeſt ſon and ſucceſſor, born at Windſor, November 13, 1312; John, his youngeſt ſon, born at Eltham, Auguſt 1, 1316, and died at Perth, unmarried, in 1334; his eldeſt daughter Jane, born in the Tower of London, and married to David Bruce king of Scotland; and Eleanor, born at Woodſtock, and married to the duke of Guilders.

When Edward III. was raiſed to the throne of England, Jan. 13, 1327, twelve perſons were choſen as his privy-council, to direct the affairs of government. Mortimer, the queen's paramour, declined being of the number, under a pretended ſhow of diſintereſtedneſs; but at the ſame time he ſecretly influenced all the meaſures of the cabinet. He procured the greateſt part of the royal revenues to be ſettled on the queen-dowager, and diſdained to conſult the miniſters of government in any public meaſure. The young king was ſo ſurrounded by the favourite's creatures, that no acceſs could be had to him, and the whole ſovereign authority was engroſſed by Mortimer and the queen, with a view to give permanence to her criminal attachment. But the ſlighteſt ſhock was ſufficient to overturn a government formed on the ruins of virtue and honour. An irruption of the Scots gave the firſt blow to Mortimer's credit; and young Edward's own abilities contributed to his fall. The Scots, who had no connection with either party, were ſedulous to take advantage of the feeble ſtate of the nation; and therefore invaded the northern counties with an army of twenty thouſand men. Edward, even at this early age, diſcovered that martial diſpoſition, for which he was afterwards ſo famous. He reſolved to intercept them in their retreat; and began his march in the middle of July, 1327, at the head of an army of ſixty thouſand men; but, after ſuſtaining incredible fatigues in purſuing them through woods and moraſſes, he was unable either to come up with or even diſcover the route of the enemy, except from the ravages they had made, and the ſmoking ruins of villages, which travelled before them. The rapid motion of this detachment of the Scots army, aroſe from their being mounted on horſeback. At length the perſevering Edward came up with them, poſted in an advantageous ſituation, on the oppoſite banks of the Were.

It was on this occaſion that the reſentment of the young king was publicly manifeſted againſt Mortimer. Edward, eager and anxious to engage, reſolved that night, at all events, not to allow the ravagers to eſcape with impunity; but Mortimer oppoſed the will of the king, and prevented an engagement, fearing it might prove deſtructive to his intereſts, whether the battle were won or loſt. Shortly after, a choſen band of intrepid Scots, under the command of Douglas, ſtole into the Engliſh camp by night, and arrived at the tent in which the king was ſleeping. But the young monarch happened to be awakened by the noiſe, and made a valiant defence; his chamberlain and chaplain, were killed fighting by his ſide; and he thus had time given him to eſcape in the dark. The Scots, thus fruſtrated in their deſign upon the king, fled into their own country, leaving their tents ſtanding, without a perſon with them, except ſix Engliſh priſoners, whoſe legs had been broken, to prevent their carrying intelligence to their countrymen. The valour of the young king was every where applauded; and the people began anxiouſly to wiſh for a removal of that authority which ſtood between them and the monarch; and ſpared no pains to magnify the ſhameleſs conduct of the queen-dowager and her paramour, or to extol the riſing genius of their young ſovereign.

Mortimer now began to find himſelf in a very precarious ſituation; and reſolved to procure a peace with Scotland, in order to concentrate his power at home. A treaty was accordingly concluded between the two nations,

tions, in which the government, for the lucre of gain, renounced all further title to the ſovereignty over the ſiſter kingdom; and the Scots, in return, agreed to pay thirty thouſand marks as a compenſation. The next wretched ſtep that Mortimer thought neceſſary for his ſecurity, was to ſeize the inoffenſive earl of Kent, brother to the late king; who, under a perſuaſion that his brother was ſtill alive, and concealed in ſome ſecret priſon, entered into a deſign of reſtoring him to liberty, and of re-inſtating him in his former power. Him, therefore, Mortimer reſolved to deſtroy; and had him accuſed, condemned, and executed, even before the young king had time to interpoſe in his behalf. In proportion too as Mortimer got rid of his enemies, he was careful to enrich himſelf with their ſpoils. The eſtate of the unfortunate earl was ſeized upon for the uſe of the favourite's youngeſt ſon; and the immenſe fortunes of the Spenſers were in like manner converted to his own uſe.

In this ſtate of public affairs, Edward reſolved to ſhake off that authority which had long become derogatory to the nation, and a ſcandal to himſelf. But ſuch was the power of the favourite, that it required as much precaution to overturn the uſurper as to eſtabliſh the throne. The queen and Mortimer had for ſome time choſen the caſtle of Nottingham for the place of their voluptuous embraces: it was ſtrictly guarded, the gates locked every evening, and the keys laid under the queen's pillow. It was therefore agreed between the king, and ſome of his barons, who ſecretly entered into his deſigns, to ſeize upon them in this fortreſs; and, for that purpoſe, ſir William Eland, the governor, was induced to admit them by a ſubterraneous way, which had been formerly contrived for a ſecret outlet. By this paſſage the noblemen in the king's intereſts entered the caſtle in the night; and Mortimer, without having it in his power to make the ſmalleſt reſiſtance, was ſeized and ſecured. It was in vain that the queen endeavoured to protect him; in vain ſhe implored the king to ſpare her "gentle Mortimer." Deaf to her entreaties, the barons and the parliament proceeded to his condemnation. He was hanged on a gibbet at Elmes, near London, November 29, 1330, and his body was exhibited to the people for two days after. A ſimilar ſentence was meditated againſt Gournay and Montravers, the murderers of the late king; but they contrived to elude puniſhment, by eſcaping to the continent. The queen, who was by far the moſt culpable, was ſhielded by the dignity of her ſituation; ſhe was, however, deprived of all ſhare of power, and confined for life to the caſtle of Riſings, with a penſion of three thouſand pounds a-year. From this confinement ſhe was never ſet free; and, though the king annually paid her a viſit of filial ceremony, yet ſhe found herſelf abandoned to univerſal contempt and deteſtation; and continued, for above twenty-five years after, a miſerable monument of blaſted virtue.

Edward, thus freed from the controul of a baſe and unnatural confederacy, reſolved to make himſelf popular by an expedient, which ſeldom failed to ſecure the affections of the Engliſh. He knew that a conquering monarch was the fitteſt to pleaſe a warlike people. The weakneſs of the Scottiſh government, which was at that time under a minority, gave him a favourable opportunity of renewing hoſtilities; and the turbulent ſpirit of the nobles of that country contributed to promote his views. Edward Baliol, whoſe father John had been crowned king of Scotland, alſo now laid claim to the crown; and Edward reſolved to ſupport his pretenſions. He therefore gave him permiſſion to levy what forces he was able in England; and, with not above three thouſand adventurers thus fortuitouſly united, Baliol gained a conſiderable victory over his countrymen, in which twelve thouſand of them were ſlain. This victory, which was followed by ſome others, ſo intimidated the Scots, that Baliol found no difficulty in getting himſelf crowned king at Scone; and all this diſaffected and conquered diſtrict ſubmitted to his authority. But he did not long enjoy his ſuperiority; he was unexpectedly attacked and defeated by ſir Archibald Douglas, and obliged to take refuge in England. The bad ſucceſs of Baliol only ſerved to inflame the ardour of Edward; and he now claimed fealty and homage from Baliol, for the kingdom of Scotland. This the fugitive king complied with; and Edward forthwith prepared, with all his forces, to re-inſtate Baliol in the ſovereignty of that government, which he fondly hoped would ever after be ſubordinate to his own. He immediately laid ſiege to Berwick, which capitulated after a vigorous defence. In attempting to relieve this city, a general engagement enſued between the Scots and the Engliſh, at Halidown-hill, near Berwick, on the 19th July, 1333. The fortune of Edward prevailed. Douglas, the Scottiſh general was ſlain, and the whole army put to the rout. This victory was in a great meaſure obtained by the expertneſs of the Engliſh archers. Almoſt all the Scottiſh nobles in the intereſt of Bruce were either killed or taken; near thirty thouſand of their men fell in the action, while the loſs of the Engliſh is ſaid to have only amounted to *fifteen* men; an inequality incredible. This victory decided the fate of Scotland; Baliol was put in poſſeſſion of the country; and Edward retained many of the principal towns in Scotland, which were declared to be annexed to the Engliſh monarchy. Theſe victories, however, were more ſplendid than advantageous; for, the Scots having conceived an inſurmountable averſion to the Engliſh government, Edward's forces were no ſooner withdrawn, than they revolted againſt Baliol, and determined to expel him the kingdom. Edward's appearance a ſecond time brought them to ſubjection; but they quickly renewed their animoſities upon his retiring. It was in vain that he employed the arts of diſſimulation, and the terrors of war, to induce them to ſubmiſſion; this invincible people ſtill perſiſted in their obſtinacy, which was kept alive by promiſes of ſuccour from France.

That kingdom, which had for a long time diſcontinued its animoſities againſt England, began to be an object of Edward's ambition. A new ſcene began to be opened in France, pregnant with miſchief and misfortune; and the king ſhared in the general calamity. The three ſons of Philip the Fair accuſed their wives before the parliament of adultery; and, in conſequence of this accuſation being ſubſtantiated, they were condemned and impriſoned for life. Lewis Hutin, his ſucceſſor, alſo cauſed his wife to be ſtrangled, and her paramours to be flayed alive. After his death, as he left only a daughter, his next brother, Philip the Tall, aſſumed the crown in prejudice of the daughter; and vindicated his title by the Salic law, which enacted, that no female ſhould ſucceed to the crown. This law, however, was not univerſally acknowledged, nor ſufficiently confirmed by precedents, to decide the fact. Charles the Fair, therefore, jealous of his elder brother's aggrandiſement, oppoſed his pretenſions, and aſſerted the claim of the late king's daughter. The cauſe, thus warmly conteſted between the two brothers, was at laſt carried before the parliament of France; and they decided, upon the Salic law, in favour of Philip the elder. This monarch enjoyed the crown but a ſhort time; and dying, left only daughters to ſucceed him. Charles, therefore, without a male opponent, ſeized upon the crown, and enjoyed it for ſome time; but he alſo dying, left his wife pregnant. As there was now no apparent heir, the regency was conteſted by two illuſtrious perſons, who laid claim to the ſovereignty upon this occaſion. Edward the Third of England urged his pretenſions, as being by his mother Iſabella, who was daughter to Philip the Fair, and ſiſter to the three laſt kings of France, rightful heir to the crown. Philip Valois, on the other hand, put himſelf in actual poſſeſſion of the government, as being next of kin by the male ſucceſſion. He was, for this reaſon, conſtituted regent of France; and the queen-dowager being unfortunately, ſome time after,

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EDWARD III.

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after, brought to bed of a daughter, he was unanimouſly elected king. Being crowned amidſt the congratulations of his ſubjects, he received the appellation of Philip the Fortunate.

A brewer of Ghent in the mean while perſuaded Edward to aſſume the title of king of France. This citizen's name was James Arteveld, a man grown too rich and powerful for a ſubject; and one of thoſe whom, according to Machiavel, kings ought to flatter or deſtroy. With the aſſiſtance of this man, therefore, Edward reſolved to undertake the conqueſt of France. He firſt, however, conſulted his parliament on the propriety of the undertaking, obtained their approbation, received adequate ſupplies, and with a gallant army, July 16, 1338, he ſailed over to Flanders. Edward's firſt ſtep was to aſſert his claim to the French crown; to aſſume the title of king of the country, and brand Philip, his rival, with the title of uſurper. Philip, on the other hand, made vigorous preparations to oppoſe him; he even challenged the invader to try their fortune in ſingle combat, upon equal terms, in ſome appointed plain. Edward accepted the challenge; but various obſtacles prevented its taking place.

The firſt ſignal advantage gained by the Engliſh, was in a naval engagement on the coaſt of Flanders, in which the French loſt two hundred and thirty ſhips, and had thirty thouſand ſeamen, and two of their admirals, ſlain. None of Philip's courtiers, it is ſaid, dared to inform him of the event, till his jeſter gave him a hint, by which he diſcovered the loſs he had ſuſtained. This victory brought on a truce, which neither ſide ſeemed willing to break, till the ambition of Edward was once more excited by the invitation of the count de Montfort, who had poſſeſſed himſelf of the province of Bretagne, and applied to Edward to ſecond his claim. This entirely coincided with Edward's moſt ſanguine deſires, ſince it promiſed to open to him an entrance into the heart of France. Theſe flattering proſpects, however, were for a while clouded, by the impriſonment of Montfort, who was ſoon after beſieged in the city of Nantes, and taken. But Jane of Flanders, his wife, more than made up for the loſs of her huſband. This lady, the moſt extraordinary woman of her age, courageouſly undertook to ſupport the falling fortunes of her family. She aſſembled the inhabitants of Rennes; and, carrying her infant ſon in her arms, deplored her misfortunes, and called loudly upon the citizens to eſpouſe her cauſe. The inhabitants of Nantes, and of all the fortreſſes of Bretagne, embraced the ſame reſolution; and the king of England, appriſed of her efforts, anxiouſly forwarded ſuccours to the town of Hennebonne, in which place ſhe reſolved to ſuſtain the attacks of the enemy. Charles de Blois, Philip's general, eager to make himſelf maſter of ſo important a fortreſs, and ſtill more to take the counteſs priſoner, ſat down before the caſtle with a large army, and conducted the ſiege with indefatigable labour. The defence was no leſs reſolute: ſeveral ſallies were made by the garriſon, in which the counteſs herſelf was always moſt forward, and led on to the aſſault. Obſerving one day that the whole army of the enemy had quitted the camp to join in a general ſtorm, ſhe ſallied out by a poſtern-gate, at the head of three hundred horſe, ſet fire to their tents and baggage, put the ſutlers to the ſword, and occaſioned ſuch an alarm, that the French army deſiſted from the aſſault, in order to cut off her retreat to the town. Thus intercepted, ſhe retired to Auray, where ſhe continued for five or ſix days; then, returning at the head of five hundred horſe, ſhe fought her way through the French camp, and returned to her faithful citizens in triumph. But mere unſupported valour could not long withſtand the impreſſions of an active and vigorous enemy. The beſiegers had made ſeveral breaches in the walls; and a capitulation was ſet on foot, when the counteſs, who had mounted on a high tower, and was looking towards the ſea, deſcried ſome ſhips at a diſtance. She immediately exclaimed that ſuccours were at hand, and forbade any further capitulation. She was not diſappointed in her expectations; the fleet ſhe deſcried was from England, with ſix thouſand archers, whom Edward had ſent for the relief of Hennebonne, but who had long been detained by contrary winds. They entered the harbour, under the conduct of ſir Walter Manny, a moſt valiant commander, who kept up the drooping ſpirits of the Bretons, until the time appointed by the late truce with Edward was expired, when he would be at liberty to renew the war in perſon.

The king of England, therefore, ſailed from Sandwich on the 5th of October 1342, and landed at Morbian, near Vannes, with an army of twelve thouſand men; and being maſter of the field, where no enemy dared to appear againſt him, he endeavoured to give luſtre to his arms, by beſieging ſome of the moſt capital of the enemies' fortifications. The vigour of his operations led to another truce; and this was ſoon after followed by a freſh infraction. The truth is that neither ſide obſerved a truce longer than it coincided with their intereſts; and both had always ſufficient art to throw the blame of perfidy on the other. The earl of Derby was ſent by Edward to defend the province of Guienne, with inſtructions alſo to take every poſſible advantage that circumſtances might offer. At firſt his ſucceſſes were rapid and brilliant; but as ſoon as the French king appeared in force, he met with a very unexpected reſiſtance; ſo that the Engliſh general was compelled to act only on the defenſive. One fortreſs after another was ſurrendered to the French; and nothing was expected but a total extinction of the power of England upon the continent. In this ſituation of affairs, Edward reſolved to appear at the head of his foreign ſubjects and allies; and accordingly embarked at Southampton, and ſet ſail from St. Helen's with a fleet of near a thouſand ſhips on the 10th of July, 1346. He carried with him, beſides the chief nobility of England, his eldeſt ſon, the prince of Wales, ſurnamed the Black Prince, a youth only verging to his ſixteenth year; but whoſe ſtrength of body, and vigour of mind, greatly ſurpaſſed his age, and ſet him above all his competitors. The army of the king of England conſiſted of four thouſand men at arms, ten thouſand archers, ten thouſand Welch infantry, and ſix thouſand Iriſh, all which he landed ſafely at La Hogue in Normandy, which country he determined to make the ſeat of war.

The intelligence of Edward's landing with ſo formidable an army, ſpread conſternation and terror through the French court. The rich city of Caen was taken and plundered by the Engliſh; the villages and towns, even to the gates of Paris, ſhared the ſame fate; and the French had no other reſource but by breaking down their bridges, to ſtop the invader's career. In the mean time Philip exerted every effort in his power to repreſs the incurſions of the enemy. He had ſtationed one of his generals, Gondemar de Faye, with an army on the oppoſite ſide of the river Somme, over which Edward was to paſs; while he himſelf, at the head of a hundred thouſand men, advanced on the contrary ſide to give him battle. Edward thus, in the midſt of his victories, unexpectedly expoſed to the danger of being ſurrounded and ſtarved in an enemy's country, publiſhed a reward to any that ſhould bring him intelligence of a paſſage over the Somme. This was diſcovered by a peaſant of the country; and Edward had juſt time to get his army over the river, when Philip appeared in his rear.

Though Edward had thus far overcome all obſtacles, and eluded or defeated his enemies, he became ſenſible, that it would be extremely dangerous to purſue his march with an army ſo much ſuperior to his own, eſpecially in cavalry, hanging on his rear. He determined therefore to make a ſtand, and to give his purſuers a check. For this purpoſe, he choſe his ground with great judgment, on the gentle declivity of a hill, with a thick wood in his rear. He ordered deep entrenchments to be made on each flank, and waited with firmneſs the approach of his

enemies. The king of France, dreading nothing ſo much as the eſcape of the Engliſh, began the march of his great army from Abbeville early in the morning, Auguſt 26, and continued ſeveral hours with great eagerneſs, till he received intelligence that the Engliſh had halted at Crecy, and were waiting to give him battle. He was adviſed not to engage that day, when his troops were much fatigued with their march, and in great diſorder; and he was diſpoſed to have taken this advice: but the diſcipline of the army was ſo imperfect, that the orders given for halting were not obeyed; and one corps of this mighty hoſt impelling another forward, they continued advancing till they came into the preſence of their enemies in much confuſion.

Edward had employed the forenoon of this important day in drawing up his army in the moſt excellent order, in three lines. The firſt line, which conſiſted of 800 men at arms, 4000 Engliſh archers, and 600 Welſh foot, was commanded by his young, amiable, and heroic, ſon, the prince of Wales, aſſiſted by the earls of Warwick and Oxford, and ſeveral other noblemen; the ſecond line, compoſed of 800 men at arms, 4000 halbardiers, and 2400 archers, was led by the earls of Arundel and Northampton; the laſt line, or reſerve, in which were 700 men at arms, 5300 billmen, and 6000 archers, was ranged along the ſummit of the hill, and conducted by the king in perſon, attended by the lords Moubray, Mortimer, and others. When the army was completely formed, Edward rode along the lines, and by his words and geſtures inſpired his troops with the moſt ardent courage. He then commanded the cavalry to diſmount, and the whole army to ſit down upon the graſs, in their ranks, and refreſh themſelves with meat, drink, and reſt. As ſoon as the French came in view, they ſpring from the ground, full of ſtrength and vigour, and with cool and determined courage ſtood ready to receive them.

The king of France, aſſiſted by the kings of Bohemia and Majorca, the dukes of Lorraine and Savoy, and ſeveral other ſovereign princes, with the flower of the French nobility, laboured to reſtore ſome degree of order to his prodigious army, and drew it up alſo in three lines, but very indiſtinctly formed. The firſt line was commanded in chief by the veteran king of Bohemia, the ſecond by the earl of Alençon, the king of France's brother; and the third by Philip in perſon; and each of theſe lines contained a greater number of troops than the whole Engliſh army.

The battle of Crecy was begun about three o'clock in the afternoon, Auguſt 26, by a great body of Genoeſe croſs-bow men, in the French ſervice, who let fly their quarrels at too great a diſtance to do any execution, and were preſently routed by a ſhower of arrows from the Engliſh archers. The earl of Alençon, after trampling to death many of the flying Genoeſe, advanced to the charge, and made a furious attack on that corps commanded by the young prince of Wales. The earls of Arundel and Northampton advanced with the ſecond line to ſuſtain the prince, and Alençon was ſupported by more troops than could crowd to his aſſiſtance. Here the battle raged for ſome time with deſtructive fury; and the earl of Warwick, anxious for the fate of the day and the ſafety of the prince, ſent a meſſenger to the king, intreating him to advance with the third line. Edward, who had taken his ſtand on a windmill on the top of the hill, from whence he had a full view of the motions of both armies, aſked the meſſenger if his ſon was unhorſed, or wounded, or killed; and, being anſwered that the prince was unhurt, and performing prodigies of valour, "Go, then, (ſaid he) and tell my ſon, and his brave companions, that I will not deprive them of any part of the glory of their victory." This flattering meſſage being made known, inſpired the prince and his troops with redoubled courage, juſt at the moſt important criſis of the battle. The king of Bohemia, a ſoldier of great reputation and experience, but almoſt blind through age, and the loſs of one of his eyes in the Italian wars, ſeeing his diviſion almoſt beaten or deſtroyed, with unparalleled fortitude called about him the chief commanders of his forces, and thus addreſſed them: "You have been my companions in many a bloody field, and have ever obeyed my commands with readineſs; receive, therefore, with the ſame reſpect my laſt injunction; bring me forward that I may deal among theſe Engliſhmen one good ſtroke of my ſword, and I ſhall die with ſatisfaction." Without heſitating they agreed to obey him, though death ſhould be the reſult of their obedience; and, that they might not by any extremity be ſeparated from each other, they faſtened their horſes' bridles together, and thus advancing to the hotteſt of the battle, they courageouſly charged the Engliſh prince; but, unable to withſtand the power of that young hero and his valiant aſſailants, they were all ſlain, and the next day found dead about the body of their king, with their horſes' bridles tied together. Thus fell the moſt noble and warlike king of Bohemia, leaving the honour of his death to adorn the blooming laurels of the young prince of Wales. His arms were three oſtrich feathers, with this motto, ICH DIEN, ſignifying, in the German language, I SERVE; and, his ſtandard being taken by the young prince, he afterwards uſed the ſame device, which has ever ſince been borne by the princes of Wales his ſucceſſors.

After this total defeat of the two firſt diviſions of the French army, Philip, undiſmayed at the ſlaughter of his troops, and the fall of ſo many brave princes, advanced to the charge with the line under his immediate command. But this body ſoon ſhared the ſame fate with the other two; and Philip, after having been unhorſed, and wounded in the neck and thigh, was carried off the field by John of Hainault, and fled with no more than five knights and about ſixty ſoldiers in his company, out of all his mighty hoſt, which, at the beginning of the battle, conſiſted of more than 120,000 men. Such was the famous victory of Crecy, the greateſt ever gained by any king of England. From the era of this memorable battle, the French began to diſtinguiſh young Edward by the epithet *Le Noir*, or Black Prince, as well from the terror of his arms, as from the darkneſs of his coat armour.

After the battle, the king flew into the arms of the prince, and, graſping him to his boſom, cried, in an ecſtacy of joy, "My dear ſon, you have this day ſhewed yourſelf worthy of the knighthood which you lately received, and of the crown for which you have ſo bravely fought; perſevere in your honourable courſe." The prince, as modeſt as he was brave, ſunk down on his knees, his face covered with bluſhes, and begged his father's bleſſing. Edward continued with his army at Crecy three days, employed in numbering and burying the dead. The French had left on this bloody ſcene the king of Bohemia, eleven other princes, eighty bannerets, 1200 knights, 1500 gentlemen, 4000 men at arms, and 30,000 other ſoldiers.

Never did a more glorious year than that of 1346, paſs over the head of any Engliſh monarch, the arms of Edward being every where crowned with the moſt ſignal ſucceſs. In Guienne, the duke of Normandy had been obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Aiguillon with precipitation, on Auguſt 20, after having loſt a great part of his army before its walls, in many vain aſſaults; and the earl of Derby made himſelf maſter of that whole province, with all its ſtrong places. David Bruce king of Scotland, having, at the inſtigation of France, invaded England with an army of 50,000 men, was, on October 12, at Nevil's croſs near Durham, defeated in a great battle, taken priſoner, and carried to the tower of London. The parliament of England, dazzled with the luſtre of ſo many victories, granted the king a very large ſupply, to enable him to proſecute the war with vigour.

Edward marched his victorious army from Crecy, September 1, through the Boulonnois, towards Calais, which he

he inveſted on the eighth of that month; and, being well acquainted with its importance, he reſolved to make himſelf maſter of it at all events; but ſoon found that it could not be taken by force, without the deſtruction of great multitudes of his men. He therefore turned the ſiege into a blockade; and, having made ſtrong entrenchments to ſecure his army from the enemy, huts to protect them from the inclemency of the weather, and ſtationed a fleet before the harbour to prevent the introduction of proviſions, he reſolved to wait with patience till the place fell into his hands by famine. The beſieged, diſcovering his intention, turned ſeventeen hundred women, children, and old people, out of the town to ſave their proviſions; and Edward had the conſummate humanity, after entertaining them with a dinner, and giving them two-pence a-piece, to ſuffer them to paſs his lines. While Edward lay before Calais, his troops in Brittany, commanded by ſir Thomas Dagworth, defeated Charles de Blois, June 20, and took him, with two of his ſons, and many other noblemen, priſoners.

Philip beheld the progreſs of the ſiege of Calais with unſpeakable anxiety, and, determining to make one great effort to ſave it, he ſummoned all his allies and vaſſals to rendezvous at Amiens, in Whitſun-week. By this means he raiſed an army of 150,000 men, with which he approached the Engliſh entrenchments, July 27. But, finding theſe impregnable, and every avenue to the town effectually guarded, after ſending Edward ſome abſurd challenges to come out and fight him, he decamped, Auguſt 2, marched back to Amiens, and diſbanded his army.

The garriſon and inhabitants of Calais had by this time conſumed all their proviſions, and eaten all the horſes, dogs, cats, and vermin, in the place, and were enduring the moſt cruel extremities of famine, in hopes of relief. But, when they beheld the retreat of the French army, theſe hopes entirely vaniſhed; and the next day the governor, John de Vienne, appeared upon the walls, and offered to capitulate. Edward, greatly incenſed at their obſtinate reſiſtance, which had detained him eleven months under their walls, at an immenſe expence both of men and money, ſent ſir Walter Manny to acquaint the governor, that he would grant them no terms; but that they muſt ſurrender at diſcretion. At length, however, on the ſpirited remonſtrances of the governor, and the perſuaſions of ſir Walter Manny, Edward conſented to grant their lives to all the garriſon and inhabitants, except ſix of the principal burgeſſes, who ſhould deliver to him the keys of the city, with ropes about their necks. When theſe terms were made known to the people of Calais, they were plunged into the deepeſt diſtreſs; and, after all the miſeries they had ſuffered, they could not think without horror of giving up ſix of their fellow-citizens to certain death. In this extremity, when the whole people were drowned in tears, and at a loſs what to do, Euſtace de Pierre, one of the richeſt merchants in the place, ſtepped forth, and voluntarily offered himſelf to be one of theſe ſix devoted victims. His noble example was ſoon imitated by the other five of the moſt wealthy citizens. Theſe true patriots, barefooted and bareheaded, with ropes about their necks, were attended to the gates by the whole inhabitants, with tears, bleſſings, and prayers, for their ſafety. When they came into Edward's preſence, they laid the keys of the city at his feet, and, falling on their knees, implored his mercy in ſuch moving ſtrains, that all the noble ſpectators melted into tears. The king's reſentment was ſo ſtrong for the many toils and loſſes he had ſuffered in this tedious ſiege, that he was in ſome danger of forgetting his wonted humanity; when the queen, falling upon her knees before him, earneſtly begged, and obtained, their lives. This great and good princeſs conducted the virtuous citizens, whoſe lives ſhe had ſaved, to her own apartment, entertained them honourably, and diſmiſſed them with preſents.

Edward took poſſeſſion of Calais Auguſt 4, 1347; and, in order to ſecure a conqueſt of ſo great importance, and which had coſt him ſo dear, he found it neceſſary to turn out all the ancient inhabitants, who had diſcovered ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native prince, and to people it with Engliſh. He alſo made it the ſtaple for wool, leather, tin, and lead, which were the principal Engliſh commodities for which there was any conſiderable demand upon the continent. All the Engliſh were obliged to bring their goods thither; and foreign merchants came to the ſame place to purchaſe them. By theſe means Calais ſoon became populous, rich, and flouriſhing; and, although it had nearly been taken ſome time after by treachery, it continued for above two centuries in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and braved all the military power of France.

The treachery, which had like to have reſtored it to the French, aroſe from the perfidy of Aymer de Pavia, an Italian, who had been appointed governor of the place. He agreed to deliver it up to the enemy; but his perfidy was diſcovered by Edward, who obliged him to carry on the treaty, and to perſuade the enemy that he was ſtill in their intereſts. Accordingly a day was appointed for the admiſſion of the French troops, while the king, with a ſtrong body of forces, were prepared for their reception. All thoſe who entered the city were immediately cut to pieces; and the garriſon, with Edward and ſir Walter Manny at their head, ruſhing out in purſuit of the reſt, a fierce and bloody conflict enſued, in which king Edward overthrew and took Euſtace de Ribaumont, a knight of remarkable ſtrength and valour.

In this manner the war between the Engliſh and French was carried on with mutual acrimony, until a truce was brought about through the mediation of the pope. But this was in a ſhort time diſſolved by the death of Philip, who was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon John, A. D. 1350, when his dominions were rent with domeſtic feuds and violent animoſities. Edward, well pleaſed with the factions that thus prevailed in France, was reſolved to ſeize the favourable opportunity of increaſing its diſtreſſes. Accordingly the Black Prince was ſent into France with his army, on-board a fleet of a hundred ſail; and, landing in Gaſcony, carried his victorious troops into the heart of the country. On the other hand, Edward himſelf made an irruption on the ſide of Calais, and ravaged all the open country. In the mean time John, who was as yet unprepared to oppoſe the progreſs of the Engliſh, continued a quiet ſpectator of their victories; nor was it till the ſucceeding ſummer's campaign, A. D. 1355, that he reſolved to attack the Black Prince, whoſe army then conſiſted of about twelve thouſand men. With ſuch a trifling force had this young warrior ventured to penetrate into the very heart of France, with a deſign of joining his troops to thoſe of the duke of Lancaſter. But he ſoon found that his ſcheme was impracticable; the country before him was too well guarded to ſuffer him to advance farther; and all the bridges in his rear were broken down, which effectually cut off his retreat. In this embarraſſing ſituation his perplexity was increaſed, by being informed that the king of France was actually marching at the head of ſixty thouſand men to intercept him. He at firſt thought of retreating; but ſeeing it impoſſible, he determined calmly to wait the approach of the enemy; and, notwithſtanding the diſparity of numbers, to commit all to the hazard of a battle. Both armies came in ſight of each other at a place called Maupertuis, near Poictiers. The French king might here have eaſily ſtarved the Engliſh into any terms; but ſuch was the impatience of the French nobility, and ſuch their confidence of victory, that it might have produced civil diſcord had they not been ſuffered to engage. In the mean time, while both armies were drawn out, and expecting the ſignal to begin, they were ſtopped by the appearance of the cardinal de Talarande, of Perigord, who attempted to be a mediator between them. However John, the French king, would liſten to no other terms than the reſtitution of Calais; with which the Black Prince refuſing to comply, the on-

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ſet was deferred till the next morning, for which both ſides waited in anxious ſuſpence.

It was during this interval that the prince of Wales ſhewed himſelf worthy of conqueſt. Being now to fight for honour, liberty, and life, againſt an army eight times the number of his own, he drew up his troops with that conſummate judgment which neither age nor experience could have ſurpaſſed. His ground was choſen in a ſmall inclining plain, ſurrounded with woods, vineyards, hedges, and hollow ways, and acceſſible only by one narrow defile in his front. Behind the vineyard he placed ſix hundred men in ambuſh, with directions to make a circuit, and fall on the enemy's rear as ſoon as the battle began. He lined the hedges on both ſides of the defile with his beſt archers, and placed a ſtrong body of the ſame troops at the head of it, in the front of his army. The reſt of his forces were formed into three lines; the van commanded by the earl of Warwick, the main body by the prince himſelf, and the rear by the earls of Saliſbury and Suffolk. As ſoon as theſe diſpoſitions were made, the prince mounted his horſe, and, riding gently along the lines, with a countenance in which modeſty, goodneſs, and fortitude, were ſtrongly depicted, he addreſſed himſelf to every corps, exhorting them to fight valiantly for their king and country, aſſuring them that victory did not depend on numbers, but on the will of Heaven; that, for his own part, he was determined to conquer or die; and that England never ſhould have his ranſom to pay.

The French army, drawn up alſo in three lines, the firſt commanded by the duke of Orleans, the king's brother; the ſecond by the dauphin, with his two brothers Louis and John; the third by the king, attended by his youngeſt ſon Philip, advanced to the charge. The battle was begun by three hundred choſen men in complete armour, and nobly mounted, who were ordered to paſs the defile, to diſſipate the body of archers at the head of it, and make way for the reſt of the army. They obeyed theſe orders with great reſolution; but one half of them fell in the paſſage, and the other was cut in pieces at the outlet. A great body of men at arms, on foot, then entered the defile, commanded by the marſhals Clermont and Andrechan; but the former of theſe generals being killed, and the latter taken priſoner, and many of their men ſlain by the archers who lined the hedges, and by the firſt line of the Engliſh army, the reſt fell back with great terror and precipitation, and threw the whole firſt line of the French army into confuſion. The ſecond line, commanded by the dauphin, then advanced to the charge; but at that inſtant the Engliſh archers and men at arms iſſuing from the ambuſcade, made a moſt furious attack upon their flank ſo unexpectedly, that they were ſeized with a panic, and began to fly. The noblemen who had the charge of the dauphin and his two brothers, anxious for their ſafety, carried them off the field; upon which that whole line diſbanded, and fled on all ſides. The prince of Wales and the other Engliſh generals obſerving the confuſion and flight of their numerous enemies, and determining not to give them time to recover from their conſternation, mounted on horſeback with their followers, and ruſhing out into the plain, completed the diſorder. They firſt encountered and killed the duke of Athenes, conſtable of France, and diſſipated his brigade; and then, falling upon a great body of German horſe, they put them to flight, after killing the counts Sarbruck and Nydo, two of their leaders, and taking the count of Naſſau, their other general, priſoner. The king of France himſelf made the utmoſt efforts to retrieve by his perſonal valour what his raſhneſs had forfeited; but his ſingle courage was unable to ſtop that conſternation which became general through his army; and his cavalry ſoon flying, he found himſelf totally expoſed to the enemy's fury. He ſaw his nobles falling round him, valiantly fighting in his defence, and his youngeſt ſon wounded by his ſide. At length, ſpent with fatigue, and deſpairing of ſucceſs, he thought of yielding himſelf a priſoner; and frequently cried out that he was ready to deliver himſelf to his couſin the prince of Wales. The honour of taking him, however, was reſerved for a much more ignoble hand; he was ſeized by Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Artois, who had been obliged to fly his country for murder.

The ſucceſs of this memorable day was chiefly owing to the valour and conduct of the Black Prince; but his moderation in victory was a nobler triumph than had ever graced any former conqueror. He came forth to meet the royal captive with an air of complacent modeſty; he adminiſtered every conſolation to him under his misfortunes, and ſoftened the anguiſh of his feelings, by reminding him that he had done every thing in the power of magnanimity and heroiſm, to enſure a victory: and at table the prince actually refuſed to ſit down, but ſtood behind the king's chair, declaring that it beſt became him to have the honour of waiting upon ſo illuſtrious a monarch. In April following, A. D. 1357, the prince conducted his royal priſoner through London, attended by an infinite concourſe of people of all ranks and ſtations. His modeſty upon this occaſion was not leſs than before; the king of France was clad in royal apparel, and mounted on a white ſteed, diſtinguiſhed by its ſize and beauty; while the prince himſelf rode by his ſide upon a meaner horſe, and in plain attire.

Two kings, priſoners in the ſame court, and at the ſame time, were conſidered as glorious achievements, unparalleled in the European world; but all that England gained by them was glory. Whatever was won in France, with all the dangers of war, and the expence of preparation, was ſucceſſively, and in a manner ſilently, loſt, without the mortification of a defeat. It may be eaſily ſuppoſed, that the treaties which were made with the captive kings were highly advantageous to the conquerors; but theſe treaties were no longer obſerved than while the Engliſh had it in their power to enforce obedience on the ſpot. It is true that John held to his engagements as far as he was able; but, by being a priſoner, he loſt his authority, and his misfortunes had rendered him contemptible at home. The dauphin, and the ſtates of France, rejected the treaties he had been induced to ſign; and prepared, in good earneſt, to repel the meditated invaſions of the conqueror; who, in 1358, paſſed over to the continent with a numerous army, to enforce the treaty ſigned by the captive king. But all the conſiderable towns were put in a poſture of defence; and every thing valuable was ſecured in fortified places. It was in vain, therefore, that Edward tried to allure the dauphin to hazard a battle, by ſending him a defiance; it was impoſſible to make that cautious prince change the plan of his operations; it was in vain that Edward alleged the obligation of the treaties which had been ſigned at London; and to no purpoſe that he plundered the country round to provoke an engagement. Thus tired out, he at length thought fit to liſten to equitable terms of peace, which was concluded upon condition that king John ſhould be reſtored to liberty, on paying a ranſom of about a million and a half of our money. It was ſtipulated that Edward ſhould for ever renounce all claim to the kingdom of France; and ſhould only remain poſſeſſed of the territories of Poictou, Saintonge, l'Agenois, Perigord, the Limouſin, Quercy, Rouergue, l'Angoumois, and other diſtricts in that quarter; together with Calais, Guiſnes, Montreuil, and the county of Ponthieu, on the other ſide of France: ſome other ſtipulations were made in favour of the allies of England, and forty hoſtages were ſent to the court of London, as a ſecurity for the execution of theſe conditions.

Upon John's return to France, he found himſelf very ill able to comply with thoſe terms of peace that had been juſt concluded. He was without finances, at the head of an exhauſted ſtate; his ſoldiers without diſcipline, and his people without ſubordination. Such was the ſtate of that wretched kingdom, upon the return of

its captive monarch; and yet, such was his absurdity, that he prepared for a croisade to the Holy Land. Had his exhausted subjects been able to equip him for this project of knight-errantry, it is probable he would have gone through with it; but their miseries were such that they were even too poor to pay his ransom. This was a breach of treaty that John would not submit to; and he was heard to express himself in a very noble manner upon the occasion: "Though (says he) good faith should be banished from the rest of the earth, yet she ought still to retain her habitation in the breast of kings." In consequence of this declaration he actually returned to England, and yielded himself up a prisoner, since he could not be set honourably free. It has been said, that his passion for the countess of Salisbury was the real cause of this journey; but we have no foundation for such report. He was lodged in the Savoy, the palace where he had before resided; and where he soon after closed a long and unfortunate reign, by his death, which happened on the 8th of April, 1364.

Charles, surnamed the Wise, succeeded his father on the throne of France; and this monarch, merely by the force of a finely conducted policy, restored his country once more to tranquillity and power. He quelled and dissipated a set of banditti, who had associated themselves under the name of Companions, *Les Compagnées*, and who had long been a terror to the peaceable inhabitants. He had them inrolled into a body, and led them into the kingdom of Castile against Peter surnamed the Cruel, whom his subjects had dethroned, and who, by means of an alliance with the English, endeavoured to get himself reinstated upon the throne. In consequence of these alliances, the English, who supported the interest of Peter, and the French, who maintained that of Henry, again came to an engagement; their armies on the one side commanded by the Black Prince; on the other, by Henry of Transtamare, and Bertrand du Guesclin, one of the most consummate generals in the French service. In this battle, which was fought April 3, 1367, the usual good fortune of the prince of Wales prevailed; the French lost above twenty thousand men, while only four knights and forty private men on the side of the English were slain. Nevertheless, these victories were attended with but few good effects. The English, by their unlimited supplies, had been quite exhausted, and were unable to continue an army in the field. Charles, on the other hand, cautiously forbore coming to an engagement, but was contented to let his enemies waste their strength in attempts to plunder a fortified country. As often as they retired, he was sure to sally forth, and possess himself of such places as they were not strong enough to defend. He first fell upon Ponthieu; the citizens of Abbeville opened their gates to him; those of St. Valois, Rue, and Crotoy, followed the example; and the whole country was, in a little time, thus reduced to total submission. The southern provinces were, in the same manner, reduced with equal success; while the Black Prince, destitute of supplies from England, and wasted by a consumptive disorder, was obliged to return to his native country, leaving the affairs of France in a tottering condition.

These untoward circumstances excited the resentment of the king of England to the utmost pitch; and he resolved to take signal vengeance on his enemies on the continent. But the favourable opportunity had passed by; and all his great designs were uniformly abortive. The earl of Pembroke, with his whole army, were intercepted at sea, and taken prisoners by Henry king of Castile. This nobleman in person attempted to embark with an army for Bourdeaux; but was detained by contrary winds, and obliged to lay aside the expedition. Sir Robert Knolles, one of his generals on the continent, at the head of thirty thousand men, was defeated by Bertrand du Guesclin; while the duke of Lancaster, at the head of twenty-five thousand men, had the mortification of seeing his troops diminished by desertion, without ever coming to battle. Such were the fading laurels of Edward III. in the wane of life; when, too, he had the mortification to see his authority despised at home. In vain he sought solace, in his old age, in the arms of Alice Pierce, a favourite courtezan; this only served to exasperate his people against him, and to turn their pity into contempt. But what, of all other things, served to cast a gloom upon the latter part of this splendid reign, was the approaching death of his most magnanimous son, Edward the Black Prince, whose constitution bowed to the symptoms of a speedy dissolution. This valiant and accomplished hero died on June 8, 1376, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving behind him one son, and a character without spot or blemish. His affability, clemency, courage, and liberal disposition, have been celebrated by innumerable historians. Though born in the iron age in which military virtues alone were held in esteem, he cultivated the arts of peace; and seemed ever most happy in harmonizing the discordance of parties, and in promoting the blessings of domestic life. The parliament testified their veneration for his memory, by attending his remains to the cathedral of Caterbury, where he was interred.

The king was most sensibly afflicted at the death of his son; and tried every art to remove his sorrow. He had banished Alice from his presence some time before; but took her again, in hopes of finding consolation in her company. He removed himself entirely from the duties of the state, and from active life; and left his kingdom to be plundered by a set of rapacious ministers. He did not long survive the consequences of his degenerate conduct; but died about a year after the prince, at Shene, in Surry, deserted by all his courtiers, and plundered by his faithless courtezan. He expired in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-first of his reign, on the first of June, 1377.

Edward III. was in his person well shaped, tall, strong, and active; his countenance was comely, his air majestic, and his address engaging. He much excelled, and greatly delighted, in the manly exercises of those times, particularly tournaments, which were often celebrated at his court with great magnificence. His genius, both for learning, politics, and war, was far above the common rate. He understood several languages, and was well versed in the learning of his time, as well as a munificent patron of learning and learned men. England enjoyed, by the prudence and vigour of Edward's administration, a longer interval of domestic peace and tranquillity, than she had been blest with in any former period, or than she experienced for many years after. He gained the affections of the great, and curbed their licentiousness: he made them feel his power, without their daring, or even being inclined, to murmur; his affable and obliging behaviour, his munificence and generosity, made them submit with pleasure to his dominion; his valour and conduct made them successful in most of their enterprises; and their unquiet spirits, directed against a public enemy, had no leisure to breed disturbances, to which they were naturally so much inclined, and which the spirit of the government seemed so much to authorise. This was the chief benefit which resulted from Edward's victories and conquests. His foreign wars were, in other respects, neither founded in justice, nor directed to any very salutary purpose. His attempt against the king of Scotland, a minor, and a brother-in-law, and the revival of his grandfather's claim of superiority over that kingdom, were both unreasonable and ungenerous: and he allowed himself to be too soon seduced by the glaring prospects of French conquest, from the acquisition of a point which was practicable, and which might really, if attained, have been of lasting utility to his country and to his successors. The love of glory was certainly the predominant passion of Edward, to the gratification of which he did not scruple to sacrifice the feelings of humanity, the lives

of his ſubjects, and the intereſts of his country. And nothing could have induced or enabled his people to bear the load of taxes with which they were encumbered in his reign, but the love and admiration of his perſon, the fame of his victories, and the excellent laws and regulations which the parliament enacted with his advice and concurrence.

It was in this reign, A. D. 1349, that the order of the Garter was inſtituted; the number received into which was to conſiſt of twenty-four perſons, beſide the king. The counteſs of Saliſbury, at a ball, happening to drop her garter, the king took it up, and preſented it to her with theſe words: "Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe;" *Evil to him that evil thinks*—which accident, it is ſaid, gave riſe both to the order and the motto.

Edward had a numerous poſterity by his queen, Philippa of Hainault. His eldeſt ſon, the heroic Edward prince of Wales, eſpouſed his couſin Joan, commonly called the Fair Maid of Kent, daughter and heir of his uncle the earl of Kent, who was beheaded in the beginning of this reign. By her the prince had a ſon named Richard, who ſucceeded to the crown of his grandfather. The ſecond ſon of king Edward was Lionel duke of Clarence, who, dying while young, left only one daughter, married to Edmund Mortimer earl of Marche. Of all the family, he reſembled moſt his father and elder brother in his noble qualities. Edward's third ſon was John of Gaunt, ſo called from the place of his birth: he was created duke of Lancaſter; and from him ſprang that branch which afterwards poſſeſſed the crown. The fourth ſon of this royal houſe was Edmund, created duke of York; and the fifth was Thomas, who received the title of duke of Glouceſter. By his queen, Edward had alſo four daughters, who arrived at maturity, and who all married.

Richard II. the only ſurviving ſon of Edward the Black Prince, came to the throne of his grandfather when but eleven years old. As the king was a minor, the government was veſted in the hands of his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaſter, York, and Glouceſter; the difference of whoſe diſpoſitions, it was imagined, would ſerve to check the defects of each other. Lancaſter, though experienced in the affairs of government, was neither popular nor enterpriſing; York was indolent and weak; Glouceſter turbulent, popular, and ambitious. Under the ſecret influence of theſe, without any ſettled regency, the whole ſyſtem of government was kept together for ſome years, though not without many dangerous commotions. As Edward had left the kingdom involved in ſeveral expenſive wars, and as theſe demanded large and conſtant ſupplies to carry on, the murmurs of the people increaſed in proportion as the operations were languid and unſucceſsful. The duke of Lancaſter laid claim to the crown of Caſtile, and made a fruitleſs expedition for its recovery; the war with France produced no enterpriſe of luſtre; and that with Scotland was far from ſucceſsful. The expences, however, of the armaments to face the enemy on every ſide, and a want of economy in the adminiſtration, entirely exhauſted the treaſury; ſo that a new tax of three groats, on every perſon above fifteen, was granted by parliament as a ſupply. The indignation of the people had been for ſome time increaſing; but a tax ſo unequal, in which the rich paid no more than the poor, kindled their reſentment into flame.

The minds of the peaſants being thus ripened for inſurrection, the manner of collecting this poll-tax ſoon furniſhed them with a pretext for beginning the revolt. It began in Eſſex, where a blackſmith, well known by the name of Wat Tyler, was the firſt that excited them to arms. The tax-gatherers coming to this man's houſe while he was at work, demanded payment for his daughter; which he refuſed, alleging that ſhe was under the age mentioned in the act. One of the brutal collectors inſiſted on her being of the age of puberty, and immediately ſeizing the girl, attempted to give a very indecent proof of his aſſertion. The enraged father inſtantly ſtruck him dead with a blow of his hammer; and the ſtanders-by applauded his ſpirit; one and all reſolving to defend his conduct. He was conſidered as a champion in the cauſe, and appointed the leader and ſpokeſman of the people. It is eaſy to imagine the diſorders committed by this tumultuous rabble: the whole neighbourhood roſe in arms; they burnt and plundered the houſes of thoſe who had ſupported the tax. As the diſcontent was general, the inſurgents increaſed in proportion as they approached the capital. The flame ſoon propagated itſelf into Kent, Hertfordſhire, Surrey, Suſſex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Lincoln. They were found to amount to above a hundred thouſand men by the time they were arrived at Blackheath; from whence they ſent a meſſage to the king, who had taken ſhelter in the Tower, deſiring a conference with him. With this meſſage Richard was deſirous of complying, but was intimidated by their fierce demeanor. In the mean time they entered the city, broke into the Savoy palace, belonging to the duke of Lancaſter, and put ſeveral of his houſehold to death. Their animoſity was particularly levelled againſt the lawyers, to whom they ſhewed no mercy. Such was the vehemence of their fury, that the king began to tremble for his own ſafety; and, knowing that the Tower was not proof againſt their aſſault, he went out among them, and deſired to know their demands. To this they made a very humble remonſtrance, requiring a general pardon, the abolition of ſlavery, freedom of commerce in market-towns, and a fixed rent inſtead of thoſe ſervices required by the tenure of villanage. As theſe requeſts were reaſonable, the king ſoon complied; and charters were accordingly made out, ratifying the grant. In the mean time, another body of theſe inſurgents broke into the Tower, and murdered the chancellor, the primate, and the treaſurer, with ſome other officers of diſtinction. They then divided themſelves into parties, and took up their quarters in different diſtricts of the city: at the head of one of theſe was Wat Tyler, who led his men into Smithfield, where he was met by the king, who invited him to a conference for the purpoſe of hearing and redreſſing his grievances. Tyler, ordering his companions to retire till he ſhould give them a ſignal, boldly ventured to meet the king in the midſt of his retinue; and accordingly began the conference. He required that all ſlaves ſhould be ſet free; that all commonages ſhould be open to the poor as well as to the rich, and that a general pardon ſhould be paſſed for the late outrages. Whilſt he made theſe demands, he now and then lifted up his ſword in a menacing manner; which ſo raiſed the indignation of William Walworth, then mayor of London, attending on the king, that, without conſidering the danger, he ſtunned Tyler with a blow of his mace; while one of the king's knights, riding up, diſpatched him with his ſword. The mutineers, ſeeing their leader fall, prepared to take inſtant revenge; and their bows were bent for immediate execution, when Richard, though not yet quite ſixteen years of age, rode up to the rebels, and, with admirable preſence of mind, cried out, "What, my people, will you then kill your king? Be not concerned for the loſs of your leader: I myſelf will now be your leader; follow me into the field, and you ſhall have whatever you deſire." The awed multitude immediately deſiſted; they followed the king into the fields, and there he granted them the ſame charter that he had before given to their former companions.

Theſe grants, for a ſhort time, gained the king great popularity; and it is probable it was his own deſire to have them continued: but the nobles had long taſted the ſweets of power, and were unwilling to admit any other to a participation. The parliament ſoon revoked theſe charters of enfranchiſement and pardon; and the cruelty which was exerciſed againſt the popular leaders upon this occaſion, created no ſmall enmity againſt the king. He had firſt granted them a charter, which implied the juſ-

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tice of their demands; and he was ſeen, ſoon after, weak enough to revoke what he had before allowed to be juſtice. It is probable, alſo, that his uncles were not backward in increaſing the general murmurs againſt him; as by that means they were the more likely to continue in authority. His own capricious conduct, indeed, might very well countenance them in the reſtrictions they placed upon him; as he very ſoon teſtified an eager deſire to govern, without any of the requiſites to fit him for ſuch a difficult taſk. He ſoon diſcovered an attachment to favourites, without any merit on their ſide to entitle them to ſuch flattering diſtinctions. Robert Vere earl of Oxford, a young man whoſe perſon was faultleſs, but whoſe morals were debauched, had acquired an entire aſcendant over him. This nobleman was firſt created marquis of Dublin, and then duke of Ireland, with the ſovereignty, during life, of that iſland. He gave him his own couſin in marriage; and ſoon after permitted him to repudiate her for another woman, of whom he was enamoured. Thus the favourite ſoon became the channel through which all royal favour paſſed to the people; and he poſſeſſed the power, while the king himſelf had only the ſhadow, of royalty. Partiality in princes fails not to produce animoſity among their ſubjects. Thoſe noblemen, who were either treated with diſreſpect by the favourite, or who thought themſelves better entitled to favour, took the alarm, and combined againſt him. At the head of this aſſociation were, Mowbray earl of Nottingham, Fitz-Alan earl of Arundel, Percy earl of Northumberland, Montacute earl of Saliſbury, and Beauchamp earl of Warwick. Theſe, uniting, reſolved on the deſtruction of the favourite; and they began by marking out Michael de la Pole earl of Suffolk, who was then chancellor, and the earl of Oxford's chief friend, as the firſt object of their vengeance. He was accordingly impeached in parliament; and, although nothing material was alleged againſt him, ſuch was the intereſt of the conſpiring barons, that he was condemned, and deprived of his office.

The French, encouraged by theſe diſſenſions, and by the abſence of the duke of Lancaſter, with the flower of the Engliſh military force, in proſecution of his idle claim on Caſtille, attempted the invaſion of England. The vauntingly irrational character of the French in their invaſions and wars, has been uniformly the ſame. Even in this projected invaſion againſt Richard II. in 1385, their warriors on their march to the port of embarkation were far more terrible to their own peaceable countrymen, than to the Engliſh, who waited for them in arms. "The whole country (ſays Froiſſart) was devoured. They took all, and paid for nothing. If the farmer complained of loſing his grain, he was beaten, if not murdered. The fiſh-ponds were robbed, and the houſes on the road demoliſhed to be converted into fuel. The Engliſh (had they landed in France) could not have done more miſchief than theſe French ſoldiers. The poor oppreſſed farmers muttered curſes againſt theſe ruffians. 'Go! (they whiſpered) go to England! and may Heaven grant that none of you may ever return!" 'Each French gentleman (ſays Dulaure) had a domeſtic with him ſtiled *un pillard*, a plunderer; and Pierre de Lautrec in particular had in his ſuite nine men at arms, each of whom was attended by a *pillard* and a page.' How completely has this national character of rapine and plunder been verified by the French under Bonaparte, even as high as the completion of the eighteenth and commencement of the nineteenth centuries! The preparations of the French, in that early time, were immenſe; twenty thouſand horſe, twenty thouſand croſs-bow men, and twenty thouſand infantry, were but a part of the force; 1287 ſail (of which ſixty were large ſhips of war) were to waft over the troops. But the moſt aſtoniſhing article of the equipment was a complete wooden fortreſs, formed circularly with towers and baſtions, one thouſand paces in diameter. This vaſt edifice was ranged on flat-bottomed boats faſtened together; and might be taken to pieces, landed, and erected, within twenty-four hours. But human projects are vain. The duke of Berri was ſomewhat later than he promiſed in joining the expedition. The wind aroſe; the waves beat upon the fleet and diſjointed the boats; and fragments of the ill-fated city of timber became the laughing-ſtock, ſays Mercier, of thoſe who dwelt on the banks of the Thames! Such, perhaps, will ever be the fate of French invaſions.

In the mean time, Glouceſter and his aſſociates fabricated their machinations againſt the king's perſon and dignity. Under a pretence that he was too young to govern, although he was at that time twenty-one, they appointed a commiſſion of fourteen perſons, A. D. 1386, upon whom the ſovereign power was to be transferred for a year. This, in fact, was depriving the king of his prerogative, and oppreſſing the kingdom with a confirmed ariſtocracy. The meaſure being driven forward by the duke of Glouceſter, none but thoſe of his own faction were admitted as members of the committee. It was not without a ſtruggle that the king ſaw himſelf thus deprived of his authority; and he endeavoured to gain over the parliament to his intereſts, by influencing the ſheriffs of each county, who were then the only returning officers. This meaſure failing, he applied to the judges; who declared, that the commiſſion which had deprived him of his authority was unlawful, and that thoſe who procured or adviſed it were puniſhable with death. This opinion of the judges was quickly oppoſed by declarations from the lords: the duke of Glouceſter ſaw his danger, if the king ſhould prevail; and, ſecretly aſſembling his party, appeared in arms at Haringay park near Highgate, at the head of a body of men, more than ſufficient to intimidate the king and all his adherents. Theſe inſurgents, ſenſible of their own power, demanded of the king the names of all thoſe who had adviſed him to his late meaſures againſt the eſtabliſhed government; they appeared armed in his preſence, and accuſed, by name, the archbiſhop of York, the duke of Ireland, the earl of Suffolk, ſir Robert Treſilian, and ſir Nicholas Bember, as dangerous enemies to the ſtate. It was now too late for the oppoſite party to attempt any other vindication of their conduct than by arms. The duke of Ireland fled into Cheſhire, where he attempted to raiſe a body of forces; but was eventually obliged to retire into Flanders, on the arrival of the duke of Glouceſter with a ſuperior army. The king was ſoon after compelled to ſummon a parliament, when an accuſation was drawn up againſt five of his counſellors; and ſir Nicholas Bember was found guilty, condemned, and executed, together with ſir Robert Treſilian, one of the judges. But the blood of one or two of the loyal and diſintereſted barons was not ſufficient to ſatiate the vengeance of the duke of Glouceſter; lord Beauchamp of Holt was ſhortly after condemned and executed; and ſir Simon Burleigh, who had been appointed the king's governor, ſhared the ſame fate, although the queen is ſaid to have continued for three hours on her knees imploring his pardon of the inexorable Glouceſter. It might be ſuppoſed that, after ſuch a total ſubverſion of the royal authority, there would be no more ſtruggles during this reign, between the prince and his nominal ſubjects; but, whether from the fluctuation of opinions among the people, or from the influence of a military force which was levying againſt France, we find Richard once more reſolved to ſhake off that power which had ſo long controuled him, and actually bringing the parliament to ſecond his endeavours.

In a council of the nobility, aſſembled at Eaſter, 1339, he, to the aſtoniſhment of all preſent, deſired to know his age; and being told that he was turned of two-and-twenty, he alleged, that it was high time for him to govern without help, and that he knew of no reaſon why he ſhould be deprived of thoſe rights which the meaneſt of his ſubjects enjoyed. The lords anſwering, in ſome confuſion, that he had certainly an indiſputable right to take upon himſelf

himſelf the government of the kingdom. "Yes, (replied he,) I have long been under the government of tutors; and I will now firſt ſhew my right to power by their removal." He then ordered Thomas Arundel, whom the commiſſioners had appointed chancellor, to give up the ſeals, which he next day delivered to William of Wykeham, biſhop of Wincheſter. He next removed the duke of Glouceſter, the earl of Warwick, and other lords of the oppoſition, from the council. The biſhop of Hereford loſt his office of treaſurer; the earl of Arundel was deprived of the poſt of high-admiral; all the great officers of the houſehold, as well as the judges, were changed; and all the offices felt the influence of this unexpected revolution.

The king, thus for the firſt time at liberty to conduct his own affairs, began by extending his moderation towards thoſe who had endeavoured to depreſs his power: he appeared to be entirely reconciled to his uncles; and he remitted ſome taxes, which gained for a time the affections of the people. But he was unfortunately deficient in that conduct and demeanour which commands reſpect: he was fond of idle pleaſure and vain oſtentation; he admitted the meaneſt ranks to his familiarity; and his converſation betrayed alike the want of morals and abilities. His military talents, on which mankind ever place a high value, were ſeldom exerted, and never with ſucceſs. The French war was ſcarcely heard of; and ſome ſucceſsful inroads of the Scots, particularly that which brought on the diſputed victory at Otterbourne, were only oppoſed by thoſe barons whoſe poſſeſſions lay along the frontier. Richard gained indeed ſome reputation for arms in Ireland; but his ſucceſſes there were too indefinite to give him a deciſive character. From this natural deficiency of vigour and action, the ſmall regard which the public bore his perſon, diſpoſed them to murmur againſt his adminiſtration, and to receive with avidity every complaint ſuggeſted to his prejudice.

Whether the duke of Glouceſter was hurt at this obvious imbecility in his royal nephew, or aſpired to the throne by fomenting jealouſies againſt him, muſt for ever remain undecided; but certain it is, that he uſed every artifice to increaſe the averſion of the nation againſt him, and to eſtabliſh his own popularity. He repreſented the peace which had been concluded with France, A. D. 1396, as the reſult of the king's cowardice; and plauſibly appeared to lament that Richard ſhould have degenerated ſo far from the heroic virtues of his father. He frequently ſpoke with contempt of the king's perſon and government, and deliberated concerning the lawfulneſs of throwing off all allegiance to ſuch a ſovereign. Theſe were inſults that betrayed a diſpoſition to rebel; and therefore the king's friends adviſed the ridding himſelf entirely both of him and his faction. He accordingly ordered his uncle of Glouceſter to be arreſted and ſent to Calais, at which place there was no danger of a reſcue from his numerous adherents. The earls of Arundel and Warwick were ſeized at the ſame time; and a parliament was ſummoned at Weſtminſter, which the king knew would be obedient to his will. This parliament annulled for ever the commiſſion of fourteen, which had uſurped his authority; they repealed all thoſe acts which had condemned the king's miniſters; and revoked the general pardon which the king had granted, upon his aſſuming the reins of government. In conſequence of this revolution in ſtate affairs, ſeveral of the party of Glouceſter were impeached, condemned, and executed. Fitz-Alan, archbiſhop of Canterbury, was baniſhed the realm, and his temporalities ſequeſtered. The earl of Arundel in vain pleaded the king's general pardon, to ſtop his execution; the earl of Warwick, ſhewing ſigns of contrition, had his life ſpared, but was baniſhed to the iſle of Man. A warrant was next iſſued to the governor of Calais, to bring over the duke of Glouceſter, and to take his trial, as other leaders of the confederacy had already done; but he had been previouſly diſpatched in priſon by his keepers, as the ſureſt expedient to ſuppreſs his party.

The private aſſaſſination of a nobleman ſo popular as the duke of Glouceſter, failed not to increaſe thoſe animoſities which had taken deep root in the kingdom. The aggrandiſement of ſome new favourites contributed to make the king odious; but it was his weak and arbitrary government which finally ſet his ſubjects againſt him. After the deſtruction of the duke of Glouceſter, and the leaders of his party, a miſunderſtanding broke out among thoſe noblemen who inſtituted the proſecution. The earl of Hereford appeared in parliament, and accuſed the duke of Norfolk of having ſpoken treaſon againſt the king. Norfolk denied the charge; and offered to prove his innocence by ſingle combat. As proofs were wanting for legal trial, the lords readily acquieſced in that mode of determination; the time and place were appointed; and the whole nation waited with anxious ſuſpenſe for the event. At length the day arrived on which this duel was to be fought; and as combats of this kind are ſtill in force by our law, (ſee the article BATTEL, vol. ii. p. 809,) it may not be amiſs to deſcribe the ceremonies on this ſolemn occaſion. Hereford, the challenger, firſt appeared on a white charger, gaily capariſoned, armed at all points, and holding his drawn ſword. When he approached the liſts, the mareſchal demanded his name and buſineſs; to which he replied, "I am Henry of Lancaſter earl of Hereford, come hither according to my duty, againſt Thomas Mowbray duke of Norfolk, a falſe traitor to God and the king, the realm and me." Then taking the oath that his quarrel was juſt and true, he deſired to enter the liſts, which being granted, he ſheathed his ſword, pulled down his beaver, croſſed himſelf on the forehead, ſeized his lance, paſſed the barrier, alighted, and ſat down in a chair of green velvet, placed at one end of the liſts. He had ſcarcely taken his ſeat, when the king came into the field with great pomp, attended by the lords, the count de St. Pol, who came from France on purpoſe to ſee this famous trial, and ten thouſand men at arms, to prevent tumults and diſturbances. Richard being ſeated in his chair of ſtate, the king at arms proclaimed that none but ſuch as were appointed to marſhal the field, ſhould preſume to touch the liſts upon pain of death. Then another herald proclaimed aloud, "Behold here Henry of Lancaſter earl of Hereford, who has entered the liſts to perform his devoir againſt Thomas Mowbray duke of Norfolk, on pain of being counted falſe and recreant." Juſt then the duke of Norfolk appeared in arms, mounted upon a barbed horſe, with a coat of arms of crimſon velvet, embroidered with lions of ſilver and mulberry-trees; and, having taken his oath before the conſtable and mareſchal, entered the field, exclaiming aloud, "God defend the right." Then, alighting from his horſe, he placed himſelf in a chair of crimſon velvet oppoſite to his antagoniſt, at the other end of the liſts. After which the mareſchal having meaſured their lances, delivered one to the challenger, and ſent a knight with the other to the duke of Norfolk; and proclamation was made that they ſhould prepare for the combat. Accordingly, mounting their horſes, and cloſing their beavers, the trumpets ſounded to the charge. The earl of Hereford began his career with great violence; but, before he could join his antagoniſt, the king threw down his warder, and the heralds interpoſed. By the advice and authority of his parliamentary commiſſioners he ſtopped the combat, and ordered both the champions to leave the kingdom. The duke of Norfolk he baniſhed for life, but the earl of Hereford only for ten years. Thus the one was condemned to exile without being charged with any offence, and the other without being convicted of any crime. The duke of Norfolk was overwhelmed with grief at the judgment awarded againſt him; he retired to Venice, where he died of a broken heart. Hereford's behaviour on this occaſion was reſigned and ſubmiſſive,

which

which ſo pleaſed the king, that he conſented to ſhorten his baniſhment to four years; and he alſo granted him letters patent, inſuring him the enjoyment of any inheritance which ſhould fall to him during his abſence. But nothing could be more fluctuating than Richard's regard to friendſhip. The earl of Hereford retiring into Flanders, and from thence to Paris, found there a very favourable reception from the French king. He even opened a treaty of marriage with the daughter of the duke of Berry, uncle to the king of France; but was prevented from completing the alliance by the intereſt of Richard, who, dreading the increaſing power of the baniſhed earl, ſent over the earl of Saliſbury to Paris, with orders to ſet aſide the match. Such an injury could not fail to aggravate the reſentment of Hereford; but he had ſtill other reaſons for anger, upon the death of his father the duke of Lancaſter, which happened ſhortly after. Richard, as before obſerved, had given him letters patent, empowering him to poſſeſs any ſucceſſions that ſhould fall to him while abroad; but, being now afraid of ſtrengthening the hands of a man whom he had injured, he revoked the patent, and appropriated the eſtate of the houſe of Lancaſter to himſelf.

Hereford, no longer able to bear ſuch flagrant acts of injuſtice, conceived the revengeful project of dethroning the king. Few men were better qualified for an enterprife of this nature than the earl of Hereford; who was cool, cautious, diſcerning, and reſolute. The earl of Marche, preſumptive heir to the crown, had juſt been ſlain in a ſkirmiſh in Ireland, which ſo incenſed Richard, that, unmindful of his precarious ſituation at home, he reſolved, with a numerous army, to go in perſon, and revenge his death. The duke of Lancaſter, which title Hereford aſſumed upon the death of his father, being informed of Richard's departure for Ireland, inſtantly embarked at Nants, with a retinue of ſixty perſons, in three ſmall veſſels, and landed at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire. The earl of Northumberland, and Henry Percy his ſon, who, from his ardent valour was ſurnamed Hotſpur, immediately joined him with their forces. After which, the concourſe of people coming to liſt under his banner was ſo great, that, in a few days, his army amounted to ſixty thouſand men. The duke of York, who had been left guardian of the realm during Richard's abſence, aſſembled a body of forty thouſand men at St. Alban's; but found them either quite diſpirited, or more attached to the cauſe of the rebels than of the crown. It had been Hereford's policy to hide the real motives of his expedition, and to give out that he only aimed at the recovery of his patrimonial dukedom. Upon the preſent occaſion, therefore, he entreated the duke of York not to oppoſe a loyal and humble ſuppliant in the recovery of his juſt rights; but to concur in a meaſure that was more likely to promote the king's honour, than injure his intereſts. The duke of York, deceived by theſe ſpecious profeſſions, declared that he would not only approve, but aſſiſt in forwarding his pretenſions; and both armies meeting, embraced with acclamations of friendſhip and joy.

Whilſt theſe things were tranſacting in England, Richard continued in Ireland in perfect ſecurity. Contrary winds, which continued to blow for three weeks together, prevented his receiving any intelligence of the rebellion in his native dominions. Upon the firſt information, however, he impriſoned the earl of Hereford's brothers, whom he had taken over with him, and then reſolved to return inſtantly to England, to fight the enemy in perſon. But ever wavering in his reſolutions, he was perſuaded to ſtay till he could prepare ſhips to tranſport all his forces together. This delay completed his ruin; ſo that when he landed at Milford-haven with an army of twenty thouſand men, he had the mortification to find that the duke of York had eſpouſed the cauſe of his rival, and that his force was greatly inferior to that of the enemy. He now perceived himſelf in a dreadful ſituation, in the midſt of a diſaffected people, without any friend on whom to rely, and forſaken by thoſe, who, in the meridian of his power, had only contributed to increaſe his follies. His little army began gradually to deſert, until at laſt he had not above ſix thouſand men, who followed his ſtandard. Thus, not knowing where to turn, he ſaw no other alternative but to throw himſelf upon the generoſity of his enemy; and he therefore ſent a meſſenger to Hereford, earneſtly deſiring a conference. The earl appointed to meet at a caſtle within about ten miles of Cheſter, A. D. 1399, where he came the next day with his whole army. Richard, who had been brought thither by the earl of Northumberland, deſerying his rival's approach from the walls, went down to receive him; while Hereford, after ſome ceremony, entered the caſtle in complete armour, with his head bare, in compliment to the fallen king. Richard received him with that complacency for which he had been ever praiſeworthy, and kindly bade him welcome. "My lord the king (returned Hereford, with a cool reſpectful bow) I am come ſooner than you appointed, becauſe your people ſay, that for one-and-twenty years you have governed with rigour and indiſcretion. They are very ill ſatisfied with your conduct; but, if it pleaſe God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come." To this declaration the king made no other anſwer, but, "Fair couſin, ſince it pleaſes you, it pleaſes us likewiſe."

But Hereford's auſtere anſwer was not the only mortification the unfortunate Richard was to endure. After a ſhort converſation with ſome of the king's attendants, Hereford ordered the king's horſes to be brought out of the ſtable; and two wretched worn-down animals being produced, Richard was placed upon one, and his favourite, the earl of Saliſbury, upon the other. In this mean condition they rode to Cheſter, and were conveyed to the caſtle with a great noiſe of trumpets, and through a vaſt concourſe of people. In this manner he was conducted from town to town, amidſt multitudes who ſcoffed at him, and extolled his rival. "Long live the good duke of Lancaſter, our deliverer!" was the general cry; but as for the king, to uſe the pathetic words of the poet, "none cried, God bleſs him!" Thus, after a long journey, marked with repeated indignities, he was confined a cloſe priſoner in the Tower; there, if poſſible, to undergo a ſtill greater variety of ſtudied inſolence, and fragrant contempt. The wretched monarch, thus humbled, felt no difficulty in ſigning a deed, by which he renounced his crown, and acknowledged himſelf unqualified for governing the kingdom. Upon this reſignation the duke of Lancaſter founded his claim: but, willing to act with every appearance of juſtice, he called a parliament, which was eaſily brought to approve and confirm his pretenſions. A frivolous charge of thirty-three articles was drawn up, and found valid againſt the king; upon which he was ſolemnly depoſed, and the duke of Lancaſter elected king, by the title of Henry IV. Thus began the conteſt between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, which, for many years, deluged the country with blood; and yet, in the end, contributed to ſettle and confirm the preſent happy conſtitution.

When Richard was depoſed, the earl of Northumberland made a motion in the houſe of peers, demanding the advice of parliament, with regard to the future treatment of the depoſed king. To this they replied, that he ſhould be impriſoned in ſome ſecure place, where his partizans ſhould not be able to have acceſs to him. This was accordingly put in practice; but, while he ſtill continued alive, the uſurper could not conceive himſelf in ſafety. Some conſpiracies alſo, which followed ſoon after, induced Henry to wiſh for Richard's death; in conſequence of which, a hired aſſaſſin went down to the place of this unfortunate monarch's confinement in Pomfret caſtle, and, with eight of his followers, ruſhed into his apartment. The king, perceiving their deſign was to take away his life, reſolved not to fall unrevenged; wherefore wreſting a pole-axe from one of the murderers, he ſoon

laid four of their number dead at his feet. But he was at length overpowered, and ſtruck dead by the blow of a pole-axe; although ſome writers aſſert, that he was ſtarved in priſon.

Richard II. ſurnamed of Bourdeaux, the place of his birth, was remarkably handſome in his perſon, and does not ſeem to have been naturally defective either in courage or underſtanding: for on ſome occaſions, particularly in the dangerous inſurrection of Wat Tyler, he acted with a degree of ſpirit and prudence greatly ſuperior to his years. But his education was miſerably neglected, or rather he was intentionally corrupted and debauched by his three ambitious uncles, who, being deſirous of retaining the management of ſtate affairs, encouraged him to ſpend his time in the company of diſſolute young people of both ſexes, and in a continued round of feaſting and diſſipation. By this means he contracted a taſte for oſtentatious pleaſure, and a diſlike to the cares of government. The greateſt foible in the character of this unhappy prince, was an exceſſive fondneſs for, and unbounded liberality towards, his favourites, which enraged his uncles, particularly the duke of Glouceſter, and diſguſted ſuch of the nobility as did not partake of his bounty. Yet he was an affectionate huſband, a generous maſter, and a faithful friend; and, if he had received a proper education, might have proved a great and a good king. Richard was dethroned in the twenty-third year of his reign, and the thirty-fourth of his age, and never had any children. If a juſt regard had been paid to the conſtitution or the rights of blood, he would have been ſucceeded by Edmund Mortimer earl of March, deſcended from Lionel duke of Clarence, third ſon of Edward III. and elder brother to John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter. But in the tumult of faction which attended this revolution, that young nobleman's name and rights were hardly ever mentioned, though his father, Roger Mortimer earl of March, had been declared preſumptive heir of the crown, by act of parliament, in 1385.

Though we find no ſplendid acts of munificence in the encouragement of the arts, recorded in Richard the Second's reign, yet his biographers agree, that he excelled all his predeceſſors in hoſpitality, and fed a thouſand poor every day with the ſuperabundance of his kitchen.

From the ACCESSION of the HOUSE of LANCASTER, to the DEPOSITION of HENRY VI.

The duke of Lancaſter, knowing the weakneſs of his title, was at leaſt determined to give his coronation all poſſible ſolemnity, and to make religion a cloak to cover his uſurpation. Theſe meaſures were perhaps taken to quiet his own fears; for the heir of the houſe of Mortimer, who had been declared the true heir to the crown, was alive, though only ſeven years of age. Him Henry cautiouſly detained, together with his younger brother, in the caſtle of Windſor. But, notwithſtanding theſe precautions for his ſecurity, Henry ſoon found that the throne of an uſurper is a bed of thorns. Such violent animoſities broke out among the barons, in the firſt meeting of his parliament, that, to its eternal diſgrace, forty challenges were given and received. But though theſe commotions were apparently ſuppreſſed, yet they ſoon broke out into open rebellion; and a conſpiracy was ſet on foot for ſeizing Henry at Windſor, and replacing Richard on the throne, who was ſuppoſed to be ſtill alive. This plot was ſet on foot by the earls of Rutland, Kent, Huntingdon, and lord Spenſer, whom Henry had degraded from ſuperior titles conferred upon them by the late king. The particulars of their intended operations were committed to writing, and each of the conſpirators had a copy ſigned by all the reſt. Among the number of theſe, the earl of Rutland was one, furniſhed with a paper, which he accidentally let fall from his boſom as he was ſitting at dinner with his father the duke of York. The duke perceiving ſomething fall, privately took it up, and, to his great aſtoniſhment, read the contents, which he reſolved to make known to the king; and accordingly rode off to Windſor, where the court reſided. The ſon, finding the miſchance that had happened, and ſuſpecting the cauſe of his father's haſty departure, made a virtue of neceſſity, and, travelling by a ſhorter way, diſcloſed the whole to the king, and obtained the royal pardon, before his father reached Windſor.

In the mean time, while Henry employed the moſt vigorous efforts to diſpel the riſing ſtorm, the conſpirators, finding their firſt intentions fruſtrated, dreſſed up one of the late king's ſervants, named Maudlin, in royal robes, giving out that he was the depoſed monarch, whom they had taken from his priſon, and were determined to replace on the throne. Humanity and commiſeration ſeem ever to have formed the aggregate of the Engliſh character; and from feelings of this generous nature the people were induced to flock round the ſtandard of the conſpirators. Their army ſoon became conſiderable, and encamped near Cirenceſter, while the leaders took up their head-quarters within the city; yet ſo careleſs or confident were they, that they neglected to place guards at the gates and avenues of the town. This being perceived by the mayor, who was in the intereſt of the king, he aſſembled four hundred men in the night, ſecured the gates ſo as to exclude the army from without, and then fell upon the chiefs within. The earls of Kent and Saliſbury were taken, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, and beheaded on the ſpot by the mayor's order. The earl of Huntingdon and lord Spenſer eſcaped over the tops of the houſes into the camp, in hopes of ſtorming the town at the head of their forces; but they had the mortification to find the tents and baggage abandoned by the ſoldiers; who, upon hearing the tumult in the town, concluded that a party of the king's army had entered privately to co-operate with the townſmen; and, under this impreſſion, they fled in all directions. The two noble lords, perceiving that all was loſt, endeavoured to conceal themſelves; but they were ſoon after taken, and beheaded by the king's order. Their deaths were followed by thoſe of ſir Thomas Blount and ſir Benedict Sely; and, when the bleeding quarters of theſe unhappy men were brought to London, no leſs than eighteen biſhops, and thirty-four mitred abbots, joined the cavalcade, expreſſing the moſt ſavage exultation. In this ſhocking proceſſion was ſeen the earl of Rutland carrying the head of lord Spenſer, his brother-in-law, on a pole, after having betrayed him. This miſcreant had been long inured to blood and treachery: he was inſtrumental in the murder of his uncle the duke of Glouceſter, to pleaſe the ill-fated king Richard; he ſoon after deſerted the fallen fortunes of that monarch, and joined Henry; he then entered into a conſpiracy againſt this monarch, after having ſworn allegiance to him; and at laſt betrayed thoſe very aſſociates whom he had drawn into the conſpiracy, carrying in triumph the marks of his execrable villanies.

But the ſuppreſſion of a ſingle rebellion was inadequate to give repoſe to a kingdom threatened with foreign invaſions, and torn by inteſtine broils. The king of France had actually raiſed a vaſt armament to invade England; but a truce was ſoon after concluded for eight-and-twenty years; and it was agreed, that queen Iſabella, who had been married to Richard, but whoſe marriage had never been conſummated, ſhould return to France, her native country. The Scots, ſhortly after, began to renew their ancient diſturbances; and, while the Engliſh army marched northward to oppoſe their incurſions, the Welſh, under the conduct of Owen Glendour, attacked the kingdom in the contrary quarter. Many were the petty victories gained, and the ravages committed, in theſe unavailing conteſts. The name of Owen Glendour is reſpected among the Welſh to this very day; but, as all his conqueſts procured no laſting advantage, and as all his victories only terminated in fame, they are ſcarcely worthy notice in the page of hiſtory. It will be ſufficient to obſerve, that whatever honour the Engliſh loſt on the

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ſide of Wales, they gained on that of Scotland; the Welſh maintained their ground, although their chieftain, Glendour, was taken priſoner, while the Scots uniformly retreated before the Engliſh, and would neither ſubmit, nor give them battle.

It was in a ſkirmiſh between the Scots and the Engliſh, A. D. 1402, that Archibald earl of Douglas, with many of the Scottiſh nobility, were taken priſoners by the earl of Northumberland, and carried to Alnwick caſtle. This ſucceſs was conſidered as of ſignal advantage; but it was ſoon attended with conſequences fatal to the victors. When Henry received intelligence of this victory, he ſent the earl orders not to ranſom his priſoners, as he intended to detain them, in order to increaſe his demands in making peace with Scotland. This meſſage was highly reſented by the earl of Northumberland, who, by the laws of war in that age, had a right to the ranſom of whomſoever he had taken in battle. The command was ſtill more irkſome, as he conſidered the king as his debtor, both for his ſecurity and his crown. Accordingly, ſtung with this ſuppoſed injury, he reſolved to overturn a throne, which he had had the chief hand in eſtabliſhing. A ſcheme was laid, in which the Scots and Welſh were to unite their forces, and to aſſiſt the earl of Northumberland in elevating Mortimer as the true heir to the crown of England. When all the things were prepared, the earl had the mortification to find himſelf unable to head the troops, being ſeized with a ſudden illneſs at Berwick. But the want of his preſence was well ſupplied by his ſon Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, who took the command of the troops, and marched them towards Shrewſbury, in order to join his forces with thoſe of Glendour, who, ſome time before, had been exchanged from priſon, and had now advanced with his forces into Shropſhire. Upon the junction of theſe two armies, they publiſhed a manifeſto, which aggravated their real grievances, and invented more. In the mean time, Henry, who had no intelligence of their deſigns, was greatly ſurpriſed at the news of this rebellion. But fortune ſeemed ſtill to befriend him: he had a ſmall army in readineſs, which he had intended againſt Scotland; and, knowing the importance of diſpatch, he inſtantly marched to Shrewſbury to give the rebels battle.

Upon the approach of the two armies, both ſides ſeemed willing to give a colour to their cauſe, by ſhewing a deſire of reconciliation; but, when they came to open their mutual demands, the treaty was turned into abuſe and recrimination: on one ſide was objected rebellion and ingratitude; on the other, tyranny and uſurpation. The two armies were nearly equal, each conſiſting of about fourteen thouſand men; the animoſity was inflamed to the higheſt pitch; and a very bloody engagement enſued, in which the generals on both ſides exerted the greateſt bravery. Henry was ſeen every where in the thickeſt of the fight; while his valiant ſon, afterwards deſtined to be the renowned conqueror of France, fought by his father's ſide, and, though wounded in the face by an arrow, ſtill kept the field, and performed prodigies of valour. On the other ſide, the impetuous Hotſpur ſupported that renown which he had acquired in ſo many arduous engagements, and every where fought out the king as the nobleſt object of his indignation. At laſt, however, his death, from an unknown hand, decided the victory; and the fortune of Henry prevailed. On that bloody day, it is ſaid that no leſs than 2300 gentlemen were ſlain, and about 6000 private men, of whom two-thirds were of Hotſpur's army. Such was the battle of Shrewſbury, fought July 21, 1403. The earl of Northumberland, who had recovered from his indiſpoſition, was at this critical juncture advancing with an army to reinforce the malcontents, and take upon himſelf the command; but hearing by the way of his ſon's and his brother's defeat, he diſmiſſed his troops, and threw himſelf upon the mercy of the king. Appearing before Henry, at York, he pretended that his ſole intention in arming, was to become a mediator between the two parties; and this, though a weak apology, ſeemed to ſatisfy the king. Northumberland therefore received a pardon; Henry probably thinking that he was ſufficiently puniſhed by the loſs of his army, and the death of his favourite ſon.

The ſuppreſſion of one rebellion, however, only ſeemed to give riſe to another. The archbiſhop of York, who had been promoted during the late reign, entered into a confederacy with the earl of Nottingham; and the earl of Northumberland, who had been ſo lately pardoned, united with them to dethrone the king, and ſet up Mortimer. The inſurgents took the field, and publiſhed a manifeſto, in which they reproached Henry with uſurpation, tyranny, and murder; they required that the rightful heir ſhould be reſtored to the crown, and all grievances redreſſed. The earl of Weſtmoreland, who had been ſent againſt them with a very inferior force, demanded a conference, to which they readily conſented. The chiefs on each ſide met at Skipton, near York, and, in the preſence of both armies, entered upon the ſubject of their grievances. The archbiſhop deplored the nation's injuries and his own; the earl of Weſtmoreland not only allowed the juſtneſs of his remonſtrances, but begged of him to propoſe the remedies. The archbiſhop entered upon many ſtipulations, and the earl granted them all. He now therefore entreated, that ſince they had nothing more to aſk or to fear, they would diſmiſs their forces, and truſt to his honour for the performance. His ſpecious promiſes, and plauſible manners, led them to their ruin. The inſurgents, A. D. 1405, diſbanded their troops, while he gave private orders that his own army ſhould not diſperſe till farther notice; and thus having diſqualified them for defence, he inſtantly ſeized the archbiſhop and the earl of Northampton, and carried them to the king. The ceremony of a trial was quite unneceſſary to men whoſe fate was pre-determined; Scrope archbiſhop of York was the firſt prelate who was capitally puniſhed in England; the earl of Nottingham ſhared the ſame fate; and the earl of Northumberland for ſafety retired into Scotland; but he was afterwards ſlain by ſir Thomas Rokeſby, ſheriff of Yorkſhire.

Theſe advantages ſeemed to promiſe the country ſome repoſe from civil war and diſcord; but a new calamity now began to appear, which, though ſmall at firſt, became, in the courſe of ages, of the moſt deſtructive conſequences. Since Wickliffe had publiſhed his opinions in the former reign, his doctrines met with ſo many partiſans, that the clergy began to tremble for their influence over the minds of the people. They therefore uſed all their intereſt to bring the king over to their party; who had more than once, in former times, declared himſelf in favour of the new doctrine. But at preſent, as he was conſcious of the weakneſs of his title to the crown, he was reſolved to make uſe of every expedient to prop his pretenſions; and, among others, that offered him by the clergy was by no means to be neglected. He ſeemed to liſten with earneſtneſs to their complaints; and directed his parliament to attend to the conſervation of the church, which he aſſerted was then in danger. How reluctant ſoever the houſe of commons might have been to proſecute a ſect, whoſe crime at worſt was but error of opinion, the credit of the court, and the cabals of the clergy, obtained an act for burning obſtinate heretics. This ſtatute was no ſooner paſſed, than the clergy reſolved to ſhew that it was not hung out as an empty terror. William Sawtre, a follower of Wickliffe, and rector of St. Oſithe's, London, had been condemned by the convocation of Canterbury, and was ſoon after burnt alive, by virtue of the king's writ, delivered to the lord-mayor of London. This was the firſt martyr that ſuffered death in England for the ſake of religion; but the fires once kindled were not likely to be extinguiſhed, while the clergy had the power of kindling the flame. They cunningly perceived that a

power

power of burning their enemies would revive that ſhare of temporal authority which they had poſſeſſed ſome centuries before; and in this they were not miſtaken.

Henry, by theſe wily meaſures, ſeemed to ſurmount all his troubles; and the temporary calm which was thus produced, was employed by him to recover that popularity, which he had loſt by the ſeverities of the preceding part of his reign. With that view, he permitted the houſe of commons to aſſume powers which had not been uſually exerciſed by their predeceſſors. In the ſixth year of his reign, A. D. 1407, when they voted him the ſupplies, they appointed treaſurers of their own, to ſee the money diſburſed for the purpoſes intended; and required them to deliver in their accounts to the houſe. They propoſed thirty very important articles for the government of the king's houſehold; and, on the whole, preſerved their privileges and freedom more entire, during his reign, than that of any of his predeceſſors. But while the king thus laboured to retrieve the reputation he had loſt, his ſon Henry, prince of Wales, ſeemed equally bent on incurring the public averſion. He became notorious for all kinds of debauchery; and ever choſe to be ſurrounded by a ſet of thieves, who took pride in committing the moſt illegal acts, with the prince at their head. The king was not a little mortified at this degeneracy in his eldeſt ſon, who ſeemed entirely forgetful of his ſtation, although he had exhibited the higheſt proofs of his valour and generoſity. Such were the exceſſes into which he ran, that one of his diſſolute companions being brought to trial before ſir William Gaſcoigne, chief-juſtice of the king's bench, the prince was ſo exaſperated at the condition, that he ſtruck the judge in open court. The venerable magiſtrate, behaved with that dignity which became his office, and immediately committed his royal highneſs to priſon. When this tranſaction was reported to the king, he could not help exclaiming, "Happy is the king that has a magiſtrate endowed with courage to execute the laws upon ſuch an offender; ſtill more happy, in having a ſon willing to ſubmit to ſuch a chaſtiſement." This, in truth, is one of the firſt noble inſtances in the Engliſh hiſtory of a magiſtrate doing juſtice in oppoſition to power; ſince, upon many former occaſions, we find the judges only the agents of royal caprice.

Henry, whoſe health had for ſome time been declining, did not long out-live this tranſaction. He was ſubject to fits, which bereaved him of his ſenſes; and which, at laſt, brought on the near approach of death, at Weſtminſter. As his conſtitution decayed, his fears of loſing the crown alarmed him even to a childiſh anxiety. He could not ſleep, unleſs the royal diadem was laid upon his pillow. He reſolved to take the croſs, and fight the cauſe of the pilgrims at Jeruſalem; and even imparted his deſigns to a great council; but his diſorder increaſing to a violent degree, he was obliged to lay aſide that viſionary ſcheme, and prepare for a journey of much greater importance. As the king lay in a violent paroxiſm, the prince of Wales took up the crown, and carried it into another apartment; but the king ſoon after recovering, and miſſing the crown, haſtily demanded what was become of it? Being informed that the prince of Wales had carried it off: "What! (ſaid the king,) would he rob me of my right before my death?" But the prince, juſt then entering the room, aſſured his father that he had no ſuch motives; went and replaced the crown where he had found it; and, having receiving his father's bleſſing, dutifully retired. The king was taken with his laſt fit while at his devotions before the ſhrine of St. Edward the Confeſſor, in Weſtminſter Abbey, and from thence he was carried to the Jeruſalem Chamber. When he had recovered from his ſwoon, perceiving himſelf in a ſtrange place, he deſired to know where he was, and if the apartment had any particular name: being informed that it was called the Jeruſalem Chamber, he ſaid, that he then perceived a prophecy was fulfilled, which declared that he ſhould die in Jeruſalem. Thus ſaying he expired, in the forty-ſixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

Henry IV. was, in ſtature, a little below the middle ſize, but robuſt and well made. He excelled in all the martial and manly exerciſes of his times; and his courage was at once calm and undaunted. His head was better than his heart; his ſchemes being formed with prudence, and generally ſucceſsful, but not always innocent, and ſeldom generous. As jealous as he was fond of power, he ſtuck at nothing to obtain and keep it; and was not very prone to pardon thoſe who attempted to deprive him of it. From policy more than principle, he protected the church and perſecuted heretics. Ambition was his ruling paſſion; and that, impelled by a violent gale of popular favour, hurried him into a throne, which involved him in many crimes and cares, and his country in many calamities. He would have been both a better and happier man, if he had never been a king. Henry, by his firſt wife, Mary de Bohun, one of the co-heireſſes of Humphry de Bohun earl of Hereford, had four ſons and two daughters, viz. Henry, who ſucceeded him in the throne, Thomas duke of Clarence, John duke of Bedford, Humphry duke of Glouceſter, Blanche ducheſs of Bavaria, and Philippa queen of Denmark. By his ſecond wife, Jane ducheſs of Britanny, he had no iſſue.

Henry V. furnamed Henry of Monmouth, was proclaimed at London, March 21, and crowned at Weſtminſter, April 9, 1413; and, whatever objections might have been made to his title, no prince ever aſcended a throne more peaceably, and few with greater applauſe. His father, Henry IV. had loſt all his popularity long before his death, which made the news of that event, and of his ſon's ſucceſſion, to be received with joy. The firſt ſteps taken by the young king confirmed all the public hopes entertained in his favour. He called together his former companions, acquainted them with his intended reformation; exhorted them to follow his example; and thus diſmiſſed them from his preſence, allowing them a competency to ſubſiſt upon, till he ſaw them worthy of higher promotion. The more rigid and virtuous miniſters of his father began to tremble for their ſafety; but he ſoon eaſed them of their fears, by taking them into his friendſhip and confidence. Sir William Gaſcoigne, who had committed the prince, met with praiſes inſtead of reproaches, and was exhorted to perſevere in the ſame rigorous and impartial execution of juſtice. Henry ſeemed to deplore not only his own private errors, but thoſe of the former reign. He expreſſed the deepeſt ſorrow for the fate of the unhappy Richard, and ordered his funeral obſequies to be performed with great ſolemnity. He ſeemed anxious to bury all party diſtinctions in oblivion; the good men of either party were alone dear to him; and the bad vainly alleged their loyalty in extenuation of their vices. The exhortations, as well as the example of the prince, gave encouragement to virtue; all parties were equally attached to ſo juſt a prince, and the defects of his title were forgot, amidſt the luſtre of his amiable qualities.

Thus the people ſeemed happy in their new king; but it is not in the power of any human being to raiſe himſelf entirely above the prejudices of the age in which he lives, or to correct thoſe abuſes which often employ the ſagacity of ages to overcome. The vices of the clergy had drawn upon them the contempt and deteſtation of the people; but they were reſolved to continue their eccleſiaſtical power, not by reforming themſelves, but by perſecuting thoſe who oppoſed them. The hereſy of Wickliffe, or Lollardiſm, as it was called, began to ſpread every day more and more, while it received a new luſtre from the protection and preaching of ſir John Oldcaſtle, baron of Cobham, who had been one of the king's domeſtics, and ſtood high in his favour. His character, both for civil and military excellence, pointed him out

to

HENRY V.

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to Arundel archbiſhop of Canterbury, as the proper victim of clerical vengeance; and he applied to the king for permiſſion to indict lord Cobham as a dangerous heretic. But the generous nature of the prince was wholly averſe to ſuch ſanguinary methods of converſion; and he reſolved firſt to try what effects the arts of reaſon and perſuaſion would produce upon this bold leader of his ſect. He accordingly deſired a private conference with lord Cobham; but he found that nobleman obſtinate in his opinions, and determined rather to part with his life than his religion. The king, finding him immoveable, gave him up to the fury of his enemies. Perſecution ever propagates thoſe errors which it aims at aboliſhing. The primate indicted lord Cobham; and, with the aſſiſtance of his ſuffragans, condemned him, as an heretic, to be burnt alive. Cobham, however, eſcaping from the Tower, only the day before his intended execution, privately went among his party; and, ſtimulating their zeal, led them up to London, to take a ſignal revenge of his enemies. But the king, appriſed of his intentions, ordered that the city gates ſhould be ſhut; and, coming out by night with his guards into St. Giles's Fields, ſeized ſuch of the conſpirators as appeared, and afterwards laid hold of ſeveral parties that were haſtening to the appointed place. Some of them were executed; but the greater number was pardoned. Lord Cobham found means of eſcaping for that time; but he was taken about four years after; and never did the cruelty of man invent, or crimes draw down, ſuch torments as he was deſtined to endure. He was hung up with a chain by the middle; and at a ſlow fire burnt, or rather roaſted, alive.

Such cruelties as theſe would naturally excite the diſguſt of the people, not only againſt the clergy, but the government alſo. Henry, to wean his people from ſuch hideous ſcenes, reſolved to take advantage of the inquietudes in France, to recover his patrimonial dominions. Charles the Fifth, who then filled the Gallic throne, was ſubject to frequent fits of lunacy, which diſqualified him from reigning. The ambition of his vaſſals and courtiers had thus room for exertion; and they grew powerful from their ſovereign's infirmity. The adminiſtration of affairs was diſputed between his brother, the duke of Orleans, and his couſin-germain, John duke of Burgundy. Iſabella, his queen, alſo had her party; and the king vainly attempted to ſecure a ſuperior one of his own. Each of theſe, as they happened to prevail, branded their competitors with the name of traitors; and the gibbets were at once filled with the bodies of the accuſed and the accuſers. This, therefore, was thought by Henry a favourable opportunity to recover his rights from France. But, previous to his intended expedition, he ſent ambaſſadors to Paris, offering perpetual peace and alliance, on condition of being put in poſſeſſion of all thoſe provinces which had been wreſted from his anceſtors during the former reign, and of eſpouſing Catharine, the French king's daughter, with a ſuitable dowry. Though the French court was extremely averſe to war, yet the magnitude of theſe demands could not be complied with; which Henry moſt probably foreſaw. He therefore aſſembled a great fleet and army at Southampton; and, having ſolicited all the military men of the kingdom to attend him, he put to ſea, and landed near Harfleur, at the head of an army of ſix thouſand men at arms, and twenty-four thouſand foot, moſtly archers.

His firſt operations were directed againſt Harfleur, which, being preſſed hard, promiſed at a certain day to ſurrender, unleſs relieved before that time. The day arriving, and the garriſon ſtill reſolving to defend the place, Henry took the town by ſtorm, and put all the garriſon to the ſword. From thence the Engliſh advanced into the interior, and laid the country waſte. But, although the enemy made a feeble reſiſtance, the climate ſeemed to fight againſt the Engliſh, a contagious dyſentery carrying off three parts of Henry's army. In that ſituation, he challenged the dauphin, who commanded the French army, to ſingle combat, offering to ſtake all his claims upon the iſſue of the event. This challenge was declined; and the French, ſeeing the common danger, waved their domeſtic feuds. An army of fourteen thouſand men at arms, and forty thouſand foot, was aſſembled, under the command of count Albert, and directed to intercept Henry's weakened forces on their return. The Engliſh monarch took every precaution to inſpire his troops with patience and perſeverance; and manifeſted in his own perſon the nobleſt example of fortitude and reſignation. He was continually haraſſed in his march by flying parties of the enemy; and, whenever he attempted to paſs the Somme, over which his route lay, he ſaw troops poſted on the other ſide, ready to diſpute his paſſage. However, he ſeized by ſurpriſe a paſſage near St. Quintin, which had not been ſufficiently guarded: and there he ſafely carried over his army.

The enemy, however, was ſtill reſolved to cut off his retreat; and, after he had paſſed the ſmall river of Tertois at Blangi, he beheld, from the heights, the whole French army drawn up in the plains of Agincourt; ſo that it was impoſſible for him to proceed, without coming to an engagement. No ſituation could be more unfavourable than that in which he then found himſelf. His army was waſted with diſeaſe, his ſoldiers worn down with fatigue, deſtitute of proviſions, and diſcouraged by a retreat. Their whole number amounted but to ten thouſand men, who were to ſuſtain the ſhock of an enemy more than ten times as many, headed by expert generals, and plentifully ſupplied with proviſions. This diſparity, as it depreſſed the Engliſh, naturally raiſed the courage of the French; and ſo confident were they of victory, that they began to treat for the ranſom of their priſoners. Henry, on the other hand, though ſenſible of his extreme danger, did not omit any circumſtance that could ſtrengthen his ſituation. As the enemy were ſo much ſuperior, he drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, which covered each flank; and he patiently waited, in that poſition, the attack of the enemy. The conſtable of France was at the head of one army; and Henry himſelf, with Edward duke of York, commanded the other. For a time both armies ſilently gazed at each other, unwilling to break their ranks, as if fearful of the event of the day; which Henry perceiving, he, with a cheerful countenance, cried out, "Come, my friends, ſince they will not begin, it is with us to ſet them the example: come on! and the bleſſed Trinity be our protection." Upon this the whole army moved forward with a ſhout, while the French ſtill kept their poſition. The Engliſh archers, long famous for their ſkill, firſt let fly a ſhower of arrows, three feet long, which did prodigious execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel the archers, two hundred bow-men, who lay in ambuſh, riſing on a ſudden, produced ſuch a conſternation, that the archers, throwing away their arrows, fell upon them ſword in hand; ſo that the French were obliged to give way, and were totally defeated. But for the particulars of this ever memorable battle, ſee the article AGINCOURT, vol. i. p. 199.

The battle of Agincourt was fought October 25, 1415; and was very fatal to France, from the number of princes and prime nobility killed or taken priſoners. Henry carried his illuſtrious priſoners to Calais, and from thence to England, where the parliament, dazzled with the ſplendour of his victories, granted him new levies, though unequal to the expences of a campaign. With theſe ſupplies he once more landed an army of twenty-five thouſand men in Normandy, A. D. 1417, and prepared to ſtrike a deciſive blow for the crown of France, to which the Engliſh monarchs had long made their claim. That devoted country was then in a moſt deplorable ſituation. The whole kingdom appeared as one vaſt theatre of felony, murder, injuſtice, and devaſtation. The duke of

Orleans was aſſaſſinated by the duke of Burgundy; and the duke of Burgundy, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin. At the ſame time, the duke's ſon, deſirous of revenging his father's death, entered into a treaty with the Engliſh; and a league was concluded at Arras, between Henry and the young duke of Burgundy. Henry, therefore, proceeded in his conqueſts without much oppoſition. Many towns and provinces ſurrendered on his approach; the city of Rouen was beſieged and taken; Pontoiſe and Giſors ſubmitted to his arms; and he even threatened Paris, which obliged the court to remove to Troye. It was at this city that the duke of Burgundy, who had taken upon him the protection of the French king, met Henry, in order to ratify that treaty which was formerly begun, and by which the crown of France was to be transferred to the king of England. The imbecillity into which Charles VI. had fallen, made him paſſive in this remarkable treaty: and Henry dictated the terms throughout the whole negociation. The principal articles were, that Henry ſhould eſpouſe the princeſs Catharine; that Charles ſhould enjoy the title and dignity of king of France for life, but that Henry ſhould be declared heir to the crown, and ſhould be entruſted with the then adminiſtration of the government; that France and England ſhould for ever be united under one king, but ſhould ſtill retain their reſpective laws and privileges; that Henry ſhould unite his arms with thoſe of king Charles and the duke of Burgundy, to ſubdue the dauphin and his partizans. Such was the outline of a treaty, too repugnant to the real intereſts of both kingdoms to be of long duration; but the contracting parties were too much blinded by ſelf-intereſt and ambition, to be aware that it is not in the power of princes to barter away their kingdoms, contrary to the real intereſts and conſent of the people.

It was not long after this memorable treaty, that Henry eſpouſed the princeſs Catharine; after which he carried his father-in-law to Paris, and took formal poſſeſſion of that capital. There he obtained, from the eſtates of the kingdom, a ratification of the compact; and then turned his arms, with ſucceſs, againſt the adherents of the dauphin. But Henry's ſupplies were not furniſhed in ſuch plenty, as to enable him to carry on the war without returning in perſon, to prevail upon his parliament for freſh ſuccours; and, upon his arrival in England, though he found his ſubjects highly gratified with the ſplendour of his conqueſts, yet they ſeemed doubtful as to the advantage of them. A treaty, which in its conſequences was likely to transfer the ſeat of empire from England to France, was not much reliſhed by the parliament. They, therefore, under various pretences, refuſed him a ſupply equal to his exigencies; yet he was reſolved on purſuing his conqueſts; and, joining to the ſupplies granted at home the contributions levied on the conquered provinces, he was able once more to aſſemble an army of twenty-eight thouſand men, with which he landed with great renown at Calais.

In the mean time, the dauphin, who poſſeſſed great prudence and activity, had omitted no opportunity of taking advantage of Henry's abſence from France. He prevailed upon the regent of Scotland to ſend him a body of eight thouſand men from that kingdom; and with theſe, and ſome forces of his own, he had attacked the duke of Clarence, who commanded in Henry's abſence, and obtained a complete victory. This was the firſt action which turned the tide in favour of the French. But it was of ſhort duration, for Henry ſoon after appearing with a conſiderable army, the dauphin fled at his approach; while many of the places which held out for the dauphin, in the neighbourhood of Paris, ſurrendered to the conqueror. In this manner, while Henry was every where victorious, he fixed his reſidence at Paris; and, while Charles had but a ſmall court, Henry was attended with a very magnificent one. On Whitſunday, A.D. 1421, the two kings and their two queens, with crowns on their heads, dined together in public; Charles receiving apparent homage, but Henry commanding with abſolute authority.

At this critical juncture, when the glory of the Engliſh monarch had nearly reached its ſummit, and both crowns were devolving upon him, Henry was ſeized with a fiſtula; a diſorder which, from the unſkilfulneſs of the times, ſoon became mortal. Perceiving that his end was approaching, he ſent for his brother the duke of Bedford, the earl of Warwick, and ſome other noblemen whom he had honoured with his confidence; and to them he delivered his laſt will, with regard to the government of his kingdom and family. He expreſſed great indifference at the approach of death; devoutly waited its arrival, and expired with the ſame intrepidity with which he had lived, on the 31ſt of Auguſt, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth year of his reign; leaving iſſue only one child, a ſon, by his queen, Catharine of France.

Thus died, in the prime of life, and in the full career of glory, Henry V. one of the beſt, braveſt, and moſt fortunate, princes that ever wore the diadem of England. His perſon is thus deſcribed by one who had often ſeen him: "In ſtature he was a little above the middle ſize; his countenance was beautiful, his neck long, his body ſlender, and his limbs moſt elegantly formed. He was very ſtrong, and ſo ſwift, that, with two companions, without either dogs or miſſive weapons, he catched a doe, one of the fleeteſt animals. He was a lover of muſic, and excelled in all martial and manly exerciſes." Some of our contemporary hiſtorians have heaped upon this prince, with a liberal but injudicious hand, all the praiſes they could collect, expreſſed in the moſt extravagant and bombaſtic language. It may, however, be affirmed, without the leaſt exaggeration, that he poſſeſſed an excellent underſtanding, which enabled him to form his deſigns with judgment, and to chooſe the moſt effectual means, and favourable ſeaſons, for carrying them into execution. His heart was as warm as his head was cool, and his courage equal to his wiſdom, which emboldened him to encounter the greateſt dangers, and ſurmount the greateſt difficulties. His virtues were not inferior to his abilities, being a dutiful ſon, a fond huſband, an affectionate brother, a ſteady and generous friend, and an indulgent maſter. His youthful exceſſes proceeded rather from redundancy of ſpirit than depravity of heart. His intolerance and ſeverity to thoſe who diſſented from the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem of religion, was the vice of the age rather than of the man. The injuſtice of his attempt to obtain the crown of France cannot be denied; but the probability of its ſucceſs, from the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom, was too flattering a temptation to be reſiſted by a young, warlike, and ambitious, prince. In a word, Henry V. though not without his failings, merits the character of an amiable and accompliſhed man, a great and benevolent king.

Henry VI. being only nine months old at the time of his father's deceaſe, the parliament appointed the duke of Bedford protector or guardian of the kingdom, inveſting the duke of Glouceſter with the ſame dignity, during the abſence of his elder brother, who was then conducting the war in France; and, in order to limit the power of both theſe princes, they appointed a council, without whoſe advice and approbation no meaſure of importance could be determined. The perſon and education of the infant prince was committed to Henry Beaufort, biſhop of Wincheſter, his great uncle, who, as his family could never have any pretenſions to the crown, might ſafely, they thought, be intruſted with that important charge.

The entire conqueſt of France was the firſt object of the new government; and, on a ſuperficial view of the relative ſituation of both countries, every advantage ſeemed to be on the ſide of the Engliſh, who were already maſters of Paris, and of almoſt all that kingdom; and though Henry VI. was but an infant he was, A.D. 1423, ſolemnly

HENRY VI.

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ſolemnly acknowledged by the pope's legate, and by the people of France, as their king. The duke of Bedford, who was at the head of the Engliſh affairs, was alſo the moſt accompliſhed prince of his age, and the whole power of England was at his command. He commanded armies accuſtomed to victory; he was ſeconded by the moſt renowned generals of his time; and he was maſter not only of Paris, but of almoſt all the northern provinces.

Charles VI. died ſoon after his ſon-in-law, the king of England; and though our Henry VI. had been proclaimed at Paris, yet the advocates of the dauphin proclaimed him alſo as the rightful heir; and Charles VII. notwithſtanding his apparent inferiority, was ſoon found to poſſeſs advantages, which ſerved to turn the ſcale. He was the true and undoubted repreſentative of the monarchy; and all Frenchmen who knew the intereſt, or deſired the independence, of their country, turned their eyes towards him as their ſole reſource. Though only in his twentieth year, he was of the moſt friendly and benign diſpoſition, of eaſy and familiar manners, and of a juſt, though not of a very vigorous, underſtanding. The love of pleaſure often ſeduced him into indolence; but amidſt all his irregularities, the goodneſs of his heart ſtill ſhone forth; and by exerting at intervals his courage and activity, he proved that his remiſſneſs proceeded not from habitual errors or defects. Yet the reſentment of the duke of Burgundy againſt Charles ſtill continued; and the duke of Bedford, that he might corroborate national connections by private ties, concluded his own marriage with the princeſs of Burgundy, which had been ſtipulated at the treaty of Arras.

While the vigilance of the duke of Bedford was employed in gaining or confirming French alliances, he did not overlook the ſtate of more remote countries. The duke of Albany, regent of Scotland, had expired; and his power had devolved on Murdac, his ſon, a prince of a weak underſtanding and indolent diſpoſition. The ardour of the Scots to ſerve in France, where Charles treated them with great diſtinction, and where the regent's brother enjoyed the dignity of a conſtable, broke out afreſh; and new ſuccours daily expatriated, and filled the armies of the French king. The duke of Bedford, therefore, perſuaded the Engliſh council to form an alliance with James of Scotland, their priſoner; to free him from captivity, and to marry him to a daughter of the earl of Somerſet, and couſin of the young king. Murdac, tired of his ſtation, entered ſincerely into the treaty; and for a ranſom of forty thouſand pounds, the king of Scotland was reſtored to the throne of his anceſtors. To theſe negotiations ſucceeded the operations of war. Charles, ſtill deſirous of employing his enemies in the provinces north of the Loire, conteſted every caſtle with heroic obſtinacy. He had been lately reinforced by numbers of the Scots; and John Stuart, conſtable of Scotland, with the Lord of Eſſiſſac, had formed the ſiege of Crevant in Burgundy. The earls of Saliſbury and Suffolk marching to its relief, the beſiegers were routed, with the loſs of above a thouſand men; and the conſtable of Scotland, with the count of Ventadour, were taken priſoners.

Meanwhile, the duke of Bedford was engaged in the ſiege of Yvri in Normandy; and the governor, finding his reſources exhauſted, had agreed to ſurrender the town, unleſs relieved by a certain day. The king of France, hoping by a ſucceſsful enterpriſe, to reſtore the luſtre of his arms, and to preſerve Yvri, collected with diligence an army of fourteen thouſand men, of whom one half were Scots; and entruſted it to the valour and experience of the earl of Buchan, conſtable of France, who had already diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the defeat of the duke of Clarence. That general, however, arrived too late to ſuccour Yvri, which had opened her gates; but he immediately inveſted Verneuil, and carried it without difficulty. But he had no time to ſecure this conqueſt, before he was informed of the approach of the duke of Bedford. A council of war was immediately aſſembled to determine what conduct they ſhould purſue. In vain did the moſt experienced French officers remonſtrate on the imprudence of hazarding an army, the laſt reſource of their king: the Scots rejected with contempt the indignity of retiring before the Engliſh; their opinions were eſpouſed by the raſh and preſumptuous; and it was finally reſolved to wait the arrival of the duke of Bedford. The armies came in ſight of each other near Verneuil, and were equally balanced in point of numbers. The earl of Buchan reſolved to wait with patient firmneſs the charge of the enemy; but his meaſures were diſconcerted by the impatience of the viſcount Narbonne. After a bloody conflict, the French being preſſed on all ſides, began to retreat; and that retreat was ſoon changed into a tumultuous flight. Four thouſand of their braveſt ſoldiers, with the earls of Buchan and Douglas, the counts of Aumale, Ventadour, and Narbonne, periſhed in the field. The victors, however, purchaſed their triumph at the expence of ſixteen hundred men; a loſs ſo unuſual, that the duke of Bedford forbad all rejoicings for his ſucceſs.

The deſtruction of Charles now appeared inevitable; and from the danger which threatened to overwhelm him, he could only be ſaved by the diſſenſions of his enemies, which, fortunately for him, roſe to a height that forbad him to deſpair. Jaqueline, heireſs of Hainault and Holland, had eſpouſed John duke of Brabant, couſin-german to the duke of Burgundy. The marriage had been dictated by policy; but the maſculine ſpirit and brilliant capacity of the princeſs deſpiſed her ill-matched conſort, who was equally feeble in body and mind. Contempt was ſoon the parent of antipathy; and, impatient of the dilatory meaſures and doubtful determination of the court of Rome, ſhe eſcaped into England, and ſolicited the protection of the duke of Glouceſter. The impetuous paſſions of that prince blinded him to the true intereſts of his country; the charms and the inheritance of the counteſs, preſented themſelves to his view; and without any further ceremony, he entered into a marriage contract with Jaqueline, and immediately attempted to render himſelf maſter of her dominions.

The duke of Burgundy reſented the injury offered to his kinſman the duke of Brabant; and, at length, openly declared in his favour, and marched troops to his ſupport. The quarrel, which at firſt was political, ſoon became perſonal; and the duke of Glouceſter ſtill perſiſting in preſſing the war in the Low Countries, the duke of Bedford, inſtead of improving the victory of Verneuil, was obliged to croſs the ſeas to England, that he might try, by his counſels and authority, to check the mad career of his brother. He found the Engliſh miniſtry diſtracted by jealouſies; the biſhop of Wincheſter, to whom the care of the young king's education was entruſted, had continual diſputes with his nephew the protector; and the duke of Bedford was obliged to employ the authority of parliament to reconcile them. The rivals now ſwore to bury all quarrels in oblivion; and time alſo ſeemed to open expedients for compoſing the difference with the duke of Burgundy. The pope having declared the contract void, between Humphrey of Glouceſter and Jaqueline, the duke, deſpairing of ſucceſs, married another woman, who had lived ſome time with him as his miſtreſs. The duke of Brabant died ſoon after; and his widow, before ſhe could recover poſſeſſion of her dominions, was obliged to declare the duke of Burgundy her heir, in caſe ſhe ſhould die without iſſue, and to promiſe never to marry without his conſent. But the advantage which the latter prince reaped from the accommodation of theſe differences, did not prevent him in future from regarding the Engliſh with jealouſy; and the ſatisfaction which the regent enjoyed from reconciling one ally, was ſoon alloyed by the unexpected deſertion of the duke of Brittany and the earl of Richemont, who now joined the ſtandard of their legitimate ſovereign, Charles VII.

During

During theſe political ſtruggles, an Engliſh army of three thouſand men, under the command of the earl of Warwick, A. D. 1426, had formed the ſiege of Montarges, and that place was reduced to the laſt extremity. Charles collected a body of ſixteen hundred men, and entruſted them to a natural ſon of that duke of Orleans who had been aſſaſſinated by the duke of Burgundy. This general, who was afterwards ſo famous under the titles of Baſtard of Orleans, and count of Dunois, attacked the enemy's entrenchments, and compelled the Engliſh to abandon the ſiege with diſgrace. The duke of Bedford, in the mean time, indignant at the defection of the duke of Brittany, on his arrival in France had ſecretly aſſembled a conſiderable army to chaſtiſe that prince; and ſuddenly invading the province, unprepared for reſiſtance, he compelled its ſovereign to renounce his alliance with France, and to yield homage to Henry for his duchy. Succeſsful in this enterpriſe, he entered on another equally important, and determined to inveſt the city of Orleans. The army deſtined for this ſiege, conſiſting of ten thouſand men, he entruſted to the veteran abilities of the earl of Saliſbury; while, on the other hand, Charles reinforcing the garriſon, and repleniſhing the magazines, appointed as governor the lord of Gaucour, a brave and experienced officer.

Soon after the ſiege commenced, A. D. 1428, the earl of Saliſbury was killed by a cannon ball, in a ſpirited and ſucceſsful attempt on the fortifications. The command, on his death, devolved on the earl of Suffolk. The army was reinforced by large bodies of the French and Burgundians; and Orleans, under his directions, was completely inveſted. The inclemency of the ſeaſon, and the rigour of the winter, could not overcome the perſeverance of the beſiegers; a chain of forts was arduouſly conſtructed; yet the vacant ſpaces ſtill allowed ſuccours to be introduced; and the garriſon, before the return of ſpring, was ſwelled by frequent ſupplies from twelve hundred to three thouſand men; while their hopes were raiſed, and their efforts encouraged by the preſence and example of the baſtard of Orleans. In order to diſtreſs the beſiegers, the French had ravaged and exhauſted the adjacent country; and the Engliſh were compelled to draw their ſubſiſtence from a conſiderable diſtance. A convoy of proviſions was entruſted to the conduct of ſir John Falſtoffe, with a detachment of two thouſand five hundred men. The king of France, determined to ſtrain every nerve for the preſervation of the city, collecting a body of troops, in number about four thouſand, appointed the count of Clermont to command them. On the approach of the French, Falſtoffe moſt judiciouſly drew up his men behind the waggons, and calmly received the fury of their charge. The French were broken by their own impetuoſity; and five hundred periſhed on the field. Fruſtrated in this attempt to relieve Orleans, the king of France endeavoured to preſerve it by policy. The duke of Orleans, ſtill a priſoner in England, had obtained from the duke of Glouceſter, and his council, the promiſe of a neutrality in his demeſnes; and that they ſhould be ſequeſtered during the war into the hands of the duke of Burgundy: but this expedient was firmly rejected by the duke of Bedford: and to the importunities of the duke of Burgundy he coolly replied, "he was not in a humour to beat the buſhes, whilſt others ran away with the game." Diſguſted at this refuſal, Burgundy ſeparated his forces from thoſe of the Engliſh; but the latter ſtill preſſed the ſiege with increaſe of ardour; when Orleans was preſerved by an occurrence ſo ſingular as almoſt to ſtagger belief, were it not confirmed by the united teſtimony of contemporary hiſtorians.

Charles, reduced to deſpair, had already begun to meditate a retreat into Dauphiné. From this intention, however, he was diverted by the intreaties of his queen, Mary of Anjou, a princeſs of prudence and ſpirit; and by the more perſuaſive remonſtrances of his beautiful miſtreſs, the celebrated Agnes de Sorele. Undetermined how to act, and in hourly expectation of receiving intelligence that Orleans had ſurrendered, his attention was arreſted by the appearance of a village girl, deſtined to prop his falling fortunes, and reſtore him to the dominions of his anceſtors. This was no other than Joan d'Arc, the Maid of Orleans; for whoſe hiſtory, proweſs, and unfortunate end, ſee vol. i. p. 43.

The Engliſh heard with contempt the preparations of Charles, under the guidance of this woman, and derided, in ludicrous terms, the heavenly commiſſion of Joan; but the minds of the common ſoldiers were inſenſibly impreſſed with dread, and they awaited the event with ſuperſtitious fear. The earl of Suffolk, appriſed of the diſpoſition of his troops, vainly flattered himſelf that time would diſpel their apprehenſions, and baniſh the illuſion. He determined to remain quietly within his intrenchments, while a convoy entered the city with Joan, and the French army returned to Blois without interruption. A ſecond convoy ſoon followed on the ſide of Beauſſe, and was alſo ſuffered to paſs without reſiſtance. Hence the French aſſumed new ſpirits; while the Engliſh, formerly elated with victory, and impatient for action, beheld the enterpriſes of their enemies with ſilent aſtoniſhment and religious awe. The enthuſiaſm of Joan, however, could not be reſtrained within the walls of Orleans: ſhe exhorted the garriſon to liſten to her voice, and imitate her example. The count of Dunois conſented to ſeize the moment of returning fortune; the garriſon ſallied out with Joan at their head; the Engliſh were ſucceſſively chaſed from their poſts, with the loſs of above ſix thouſand men; and the French, animated by this firſt eſſay of the holy maid, prepared to improve their advantage, and avail themſelves of the ſuperſtitious terrors of their adverſaries. With ſix thouſand ſelect troops, the earl of Suffolk had retreated to Jergeau: he was attacked there by the French, commanded by Joan; the place was obſtinately defended; but the Engliſh were at length overpowered, and Suffolk was obliged to yield himſelf priſoner. The remainder of the Engliſh army under the conduct of Falſtoffe, Scales, and Talbot, were preſſed by the conſtable Richemont; they were overtaken at the village of Patay; and, oppreſſed by their fears, they never ſtood the charge of the enemy. Falſtoffe himſelf, who had ſo lately triumphed, was the firſt to fly: two thouſand of the Engliſh were ſlaughtered; and both Scales and Talbot were made priſoners.

The maid of Orleans, who had fulfilled part of her promiſe, was now determined to conduct the king to receive the crown at Rheims. The city itſelf lay diſtant from any place poſſeſſed by Charles; it was in the hands of the Engliſh; and the whole road which led to it was occupied by their garriſons. Yet Joan inſiſted on the execution of her miſſion; the king himſelf ſhook off his general indolence, and reſolved to follow the exhortations of his warlike propheteſs; the nobility of France crowded to the ſtandard of their youthful ſovereign, who began his march at the head of twelve thouſand men; and paſſing without interruption through an enemy's country, received in his progreſs the ſubmiſſion of Troyes; was inſtantly admitted into Rheims; and in that city was ſolemnly inaugurated, A. D. 1429. The claim of Charles, from his coronation at Rheims, received new luſtre; and many towns in the neighbourhood diſputed the honour of firſt acknowledging the authority of their lawful ſovereign.

The character of the duke of Bedford was never diſplayed to more advantage than amidſt theſe ſtorms of adverſity. He reinforced the garriſons of the different towns, repleniſhed their magazines, and overawed the inclinations of the inhabitants, ripe for revolt. The Pariſians were retained in obedience by alternate careſſes and menaces; and his arts ſoothed the angry paſſions of the duke of Burgundy, and deferred the fatal hour of his final defection. Haraſſed by the vigilance of the regent, the army of France, which had been compoſed chiefly of

volunteers, at length diſbanded; Charles, after having poſſeſſed himſelf of Lava, Lagni, and St. Denys, retired to Bourges; while Bedford carried over the young Henry VI. to Paris, and celebrating the ceremony of his coronation in that capital, exacted an oath of allegiance from ſuch as ſtill acknowledged the authority of the Engliſh. But whatever luſtre the coronation of the infant king might reflect on his cauſe, the regent expected to derive more ſolid advantage from an accident which ſoon after took place. Joan d'Arc had declared, that with the inauguration of Charles at Rheims, her miſſion expired; and that it was her wiſh, after having fulfilled her promiſes, to retire to her former condition. The count of Dunois had exhorted her to perſevere till the Engliſh were finally expelled. Overcome by his importunities, ſhe had thrown herſelf into Compeigne, which at that time was beſieged by the duke of Burgundy, aſſiſted by the earls of Arundel and Suffolk. In a ſally, ſhe was deſerted by her friends, probably out of envy, and being ſurrounded by her enemies, after a gallant reſiſtance, was taken priſoner.

The duke of Bedford purchaſed from John of Luxemburg, into whoſe hands ſhe had fallen, this important captive, and commenced a proſecution againſt her, which, whether undertaken from policy or revenge, ſtains for ever his accompliſhed character. She was accuſed of ſorcery, impiety, idolatry, and magic, and burnt in the market-place of Rouen. But the inhumanity of the Engliſh contributed not to advance their intereſts: the illuſion which had ſo long oppreſſed them with terror was indeed diſpelled, but the tide of fortune ſtill continued to flow rapidly againſt them; the French triumphed in repeated encounters; and their ſucceſs was enſured by a rupture between the dukes of Burgundy and Bedford. The bands of friendſhip had been looſened by the death of the ducheſs of the latter; and the former complained, that the memory of his ſiſter was inſulted by the haſty marriage of the regent with Jaqueline of Luxemburg. All advances toward a reconciliation were diſdained by two princes equally tenacious of their dignity; and Charles availed himſelf of the diſcontent of the duke of Burgundy to negociate the celebrated treaty, ſince known by the name of the treaty of Arras, concluded in Sept. 1435.

Very ſoon after this tranſaction the duke of Bedford expired, a prince of many virtues, and of the moſt brilliant military character. After his death, the court of Henry was diſtracted by the rival parties of the duke of Glouceſter and the cardinal of Wincheſter; and it was ſeven months before Richard duke of York, ſon to the earl of Cambridge who had been executed in the laſt reign, was appointed to the command in France. On his arrival, the new governor found the capital already loſt; the Pariſians, attached to the houſe of Burgundy, imitated the example of that duke; they opened their gates to the count of Richemont, and proclaimed the French king, Charles VII. Lord Willoughby, with an Engliſh garriſon of 1500 men, maintained himſelf for ſome time in the Baſtille; but his valour and ſkill only ſerved to procure a capitulation, by which he was allowed with his troops a free paſſage to Rouen.

For five years the duke of York ſtruggled againſt the difficulties of his ſituation; and, being aſſiſted by the valour of lord Talbot, afterwards earl of Shrewſbury, he performed many brilliant, but indeciſive actions. At laſt both parties, weary of hoſtilities, ſeemed deſirous of peace, and they ſet on foot negociations for that purpoſe. But the propoſals of France, and the demands of England, were ſtill ſo wide of each other, that all hope of accommodation vaniſhed. The Engliſh ambaſſadors demanded full and entire reſtitution of all the provinces which had formerly been annexed to England, together with the final ceſſion of Calais and its diſtrict: the French offered only a part of Guienne, part of Normandy, and Calais, loaded with the uſual burthen of homage. It appeared in vain to continue the negociation, while there was ſo little proſpect of agreement. The Engliſh were ſtill too haughty to ſtoop from the vaſt hopes which they had formed of complete conqueſt; and the French had gained too much, not to expect the acquiſition of more. The captivity of five princes of the blood, taken priſoners in the battle of Agincourt, was a conſiderable advantage which England long enjoyed over its enemy; but this ſuperiority was now loſt. Some of theſe princes had died; ſome had been ranſomed; and the duke of Orleans, the moſt powerful among them, was the laſt that remained in the hands of the Engliſh. He offered the ſum of fifty-four thouſand nobles for his liberty; and, when this propoſal was laid before the council of England, the party of the duke of Glouceſter oppoſed it, and that of the cardinal of Wincheſter ſupported it with zeal. The party of the latter, as uſual, prevailed; and the duke of Orleans was releaſed; after a melancholy captivity of twenty-five years.

The ſentiments of cardinal Beaufort ſoon after prevailed in another more eſſential point. That prelate had always encouraged every propoſal of accommodation with France, and had repreſented the utter impoſſibility of puſhing farther the conqueſts in that kingdom; but the duke of Glouceſter, high-ſpirited and haughty, and educated in the lofty pretenſions which the firſt ſucceſſes of his two brothers had rendered familiar to him, could not endure theſe humble counſels. The influence of his rival, however, turned the ſcale, and the earl of Suffolk, who adhered to the cardinal's party, was diſpatched to Tours, A. D. 1440, to negociate with the French miniſters. As it was found impoſſible to adjuſt the terms of a laſting peace, he concluded a truce for twenty-two months; and proceeded to the execution of another buſineſs, which ſeems to have been rather implied than expreſſed in his commiſſion.

As Henry advanced in years, his character developed itſelf. He was found to be of the moſt unaffected manners, but of the moſt ſlender capacity. Hence it was eaſy to foreſee that his reign would prove a perpetual minority. As he had now reached the twenty-third year of his age, it was natural, however, to think of chooſing him a queen. The duke of Glouceſter propoſed a daughter of the count of Armagnac; but the cardinal and his friends caſt their eyes on Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular king of Sicily, Naples, and Jeruſalem; a princeſs accompliſhed both in perſon and mind; of a maſculine ſpirit and enterpriſing temper, and which had even become conſpicuous in the privacy of her father's family. The earl of Suffolk, in concert with his aſſociates of the Engliſh council, made propoſals of marriage to Margaret, which were accepted. But this nobleman, beſides pre-occupying the princeſs's favour, by being the chief means of her advancement, endeavoured farther to ingratiate himſelf with her and her family, by very extraordinary conceſſions. Though Margaret brought no dowry with her, he ventured, of himſelf, without any direct authority from the council, but probably with the approbation of the cardinal and the ruling members, to engage, by a ſecret article, that the province of Maine, which was at that time in the hands of the Engliſh, ſhould be ceded to Charles of Anjou, her uncle, who was prime miniſter, and favourite of the French king, and who had already received from his maſter the grant of that province as his appanage. The treaty of marriage was ratified in England, in 1443. Suffolk obtained, firſt the title of marquis, then that of duke; and even received the thanks of parliament for his ſervices in concluding it. The princeſs fell immediately into cloſe connection with the cardinal and his party, who, fortified by her powerful patronage, reſolved on the final ruin of the duke of Glouceſter.

This generous prince, ill ſuited for court intrigues, but poſſeſſing, in a high degree, the favour of the public, had already received from his rivals a cruel mortification, which it was impoſſible a perſon of his ſpirit and huma-

nity could ever forgive. His duchefs, the daughter of Reginald lord Cobham, had been accufed of the crime of witchcraft, under the pretence, that there was found in her poffeffion a waxen figure of the king, which fhe and her affociates, fir Roger Bolingbroke, a prieft, and one Margery Jordan, of Eye, melted in a magical manner before a flow fire, with an intention of making Henry's force and vigour wafte away, by like infenfible degrees. The accufation was well calculated to affect the weak and credulous mind of the king, and to gain belief in a fuperftitious age; and the duchefs was brought to trial with her confederates. A charge of this ridiculous nature feemed always to exempt the accufers from obferving the rules of common fenfe in their evidence: the prifoners were pronounced guilty; the duchefs was condemned to do public penance, and to fuffer perpetual imprifonment; while her reputed affociates in the ideal crime, were put to death.

Having proceeded to fuch unpardonable lengths, the cardinal and his party were fenfible it was neceffary to deftroy a man whom they had already fo deeply injured. In order to effect this purpofe, a parliament was fummoned at St. Edmundfbury. As foon as the duke of Glouceffer appeared, he was accufed of treafon, and thrown into prifon: he was foon after found dead in his bed; and, though it was pretended that his death was natural, and his body bore no marks of outward violence, no one doubted but that he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. The cardinal of Winchefter died fix weeks after his nephew, whofe murder was univerfally afcribed to him as well as to the duke of Suffolk, and which, it is faid, gave him more remorfe in his laft moments, than could naturally be expected from a man hardened, during the courfe of a long life, in falfehood and in politics. What fhare the queen had in this guilt, is uncertain; her ufual activity and fpirit made the public conclude, with fome reafon, that the duke's enemies durft not have ventured on fuch a deed without her privity. But there happened, foon after, an event, of which fhe and her favourite, the duke of Suffolk, bore inconteftibly the whole odium.

The article of the marriage treaty, by which Maine was to be ceded to Charles of Anjou, had hitherto been kept fecret; but, as the court of France infifted on the performance of it, orders were difpatched to Surienne, governor of Mans, to furrender that place. The governor, queftioning probably the legality of the order, refufed to comply, until he had fuftained a fiege from the count of Dunois. When reduced to capitulate, he retired with his garrifon towards Normandy; but the duke of Somerfet, to whom the provinces of France, ftill occupied by the Englifh, were entrufted, refufed to admit him. This military adventurer immediately directing his march towards Brittany, exacted contributions from that province: the duke of Brittany complained of this violence to the king of France, his liege lord; and Charles remonftrated with the duke of Somerfet, who replied, that the injury was done without his privity, and that he had no authority over Surienne and his companions. Though this anfwer was plaufible, Charles never would admit of the apology. He ftill infifted that thefe plunderers fhould be recalled, and that reparation fhould be made to the duke of Brittany for all the damages which he had fuftained; and, in order to render an accommodation abfolutely impracticable, he eftimated the lofs at no lefs a fum than 1,600,000 crowns.

Senfible of the fuperiority which the prefent ftate of his affairs gave him over England, he was determined to take advantage of it; and, accordingly, A. D. 1448, four formidable armies entered Normandy at once; the firft, commanded by the king of France himfelf; the fecond, by the duke of Brittany; the third, by the duke of Alençon; and the fourth, by the count of Dunois. The inhabitants of Normandy opened their gates as foon as the French appeared before them. The duke of Somerfet, fo far from having an army which could take the field and relieve thefe places, was not able to fupply them with the neceffary garrifons and provifions. He retired, therefore, with the few troops of which he was maffer, into Rouen; and thought it fufficient, for the prefent, if he could fave that capital from the general fate of the province. The king of France, at the head of a formidable army, fifty thoufand ftrong, prefented himfelf before the gates: the dangerous example of revolt had affected the inhabitants; and they called aloud for a capitulation. Somerfet, unable to refift, at once, both the enemies within and from without, purchafed a retreat to Harfleur by the payment of fifty-fix thoufand crowns, by engaging to furrender Arques, Tancarville, Caudebec, Honfleur, and other places in the higher Normandy, and by delivering hoftages for the performance of articles. The governor of Honfleur refufed to obey his orders; upon which the earl of Shrewfbury, who was one of the hoftages, was detained prifoner; and the Englifh were thus deprived of the only general capable of recovering them from their prefent diftreffed fituation. Harfleur made a refolute defence under fir Thomas Curfon the governor; but was finally obliged to open its gates to Dunois.

A fuccour of four thoufand men at laft arrived from England, and landed at Cherbourg; but thefe were foon after routed at Fourmigni, by the count of Clermont. This battle, or rather fkirmifh, was the only action fought by the Englifh for the defence of their dominions in France, which they had purchafed at fuch an expence of blood and treafure. Somerfet, fhut up in Caen, without any profpect of relief, found it neceffary to capitulate; Falaife opened its gates, on condition that the earl of Shrewfbury fhould be reftored to liberty: and Cherbourg, the laft place in Normandy which remained in the hands of the Englifh, being delivered up, the conqueft of that important province was fpeedily finifhed by the vigilant Charles. A like rapid fuccefs attended the French arms in Guienne; no refiftance was made in the field; and the Englifh were expelled, in a few months, from a province which they had held for near three centuries. One feeble effort alone was made to recover it; and, though no peace was concluded, the war feemed to be at an end; and from the continent the attention of the Englifh was wholly recalled to their own domeftic concerns.

The palpable weaknefs of Henry VI. had encouraged a pretender to the crown, A. D. 1450, and the Englifh were doomed to pay, though late, the penalty of their turbulence under Richard II. and of their levity in violating, without any neceffity, the lineal fucceffion of their monarchs. The male line of the houfe of Mortimer was extinct; but Anne, the fifter of the laft earl of Marche, having efpoufed the earl of Cambridge, beheaded in the reign of Henry V. had tranfmitted her latent, but not yet forgotten, claim to her fon Richard duke of York. This prince, defcended by his mother from Philippa, only daughter of the duke of Clarence, fecond fon of Edward III. evidently ftood in the order of fucceffion before the king, who derived his defcent from the duke of Lancafter, third fon of that monarch; and that claim could not, in many refpects, have fallen into more dangerous hands than thofe of the duke of York. Richard was a man of valour and abilities, of prudence and mildnefs: he had enjoyed an opportunity of difplaying thefe virtues in his government of France; and, though recalled from that command by the intrigues and fuperior intereft of the duke of Somerfet, he had been very fuccefsful in Ireland; and had even been able to attach to his perfon and family the whole nation, whom he was fent to fubdue. In the right of his father, he bore the rank of firft prince of the blood; and by this ftation he gave a luftre to his title derived from the family of Mortimer, which, however, had been eclipfed by the royal defcent of the houfe of Lancafter. He poffeffed an immenfe fortune from the union of fo many fucceffions; thofe of Cambridge and

York on the one hand, with thoſe of Mortimer on the other: which laſt inheritance had before been augmented by an union of the eſtates of Clarence and Ulſter with the patrimonial poſſeſſions of the family of Marche. The alliances too of Richard, by his marrying the daughter of Ralph Nevil earl of Weſtmoreland, had widely extended his intereſt among the nobility, and had procured him many connections in that formidable order.

Among the reſt, he was nearly allied to the earl of Warwick, commonly known, from the ſubſequent events, by the appellation of the King-maker. This nobleman had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his gallantry in the field, the hoſpitality of his table, by the magnificence, and ſtill more by the generoſity of his expences, and by the ſpirited and engaging manners which attended him in all his actions. The frankneſs and openneſs of his character rendered his conqueſt over men's affections the more certain. No leſs than thirty thouſand perſons are ſaid to have lived daily at his expence; and his munificence and hoſpitality, with the multitude of his retainers, diſtinguiſh him as the laſt of thoſe mighty barons who formerly overawed the crown. But though the duke of York had numerous and powerful partizans, his chief dependence was on the diſcontents which univerſally prevailed. The people repined at the loſs of the provinces in France; and this made them conſider queen Margaret as a Frenchwoman, and a latent enemy to the kingdom. But the moſt fatal blow given to the popularity of the houſe of Lancaſter, was the aſſaſſination of the virtuous duke of Glouceſter: by this crime the reigning family ſuffered a double prejudice; it was deprived of its firmeſt ſupport, and it was loaded with the infamy of premeditated murder.

The duke of Suffolk was known to have had an active hand in the crime; and the murmurs which aroſe againſt him as a miniſter, and favourite of the queen, were thereby raiſed to a dangerous height. The neceſſities of the crown had impelled him to many arbitrary meaſures; and the commons, provoked by his imprudence, and challenging an enquiry into his conduct, ſent up an impeachment againſt him to the houſe of peers. As Suffolk ſeems to have been a bad man as well as a bad miniſter, it is probable many of the alleged charges would be proved againſt him, though he made a reſolute defence. The court, alarmed at the proſecution, fell on an expedient to ſave him from preſent ruin. The king ſummoned all the lords, ſpiritual and temporal, to his apartment: the priſoner was produced before them, and aſked what he could ſay in his own defence? He denied the charge, but ſubmitted to the king's mercy: Henry expreſſed himſelf not ſatisfied with regard to the firſt impeachment for treaſon; but, in conſideration of the ſecond, for miſdemeanors, he declared, that, by virtue of Suffolk's own ſubmiſſion, not by any judicial authority, he baniſhed him the kingdom during five years. The lords remained ſilent; but, as ſoon as they returned to the houſe, they entered a proteſt, that his ſentence ſhould nowiſe infringe their privileges; and that, if Suffolk had inſiſted upon his right, and had not volutarily ſubmitted to the king's commands, he was entitled to a trial by his peers. It required little penetration to gueſs, that theſe irregular proceedings were meant to favour Suffolk, and that, as he ſtill poſſeſſed the queen's confidence, he would, on the firſt favourable opportunity, be reſtored to his country, and be reinſtated in his former power and credit. A captain of a veſſel was therefore employed by his enemies to intercept him in his paſſage to France: he was ſeized near Dover; his head ſtruck off on the ſide of a long-boat, and his body thrown into the ſea. Such was the imbecility of the government, that no enquiry was made after the actors and accomplices in this atrocious act of violence.

The duke of Somerſet now roſe as a miniſter and favourite; and, as he was the perſon under whom the French provinces had been loſt, the public, who always judge by the event, ſoon made him equally the object of their animoſity and hatred with his predeceſſor. The duke of York was abſent in Ireland during all theſe tranſactions; and, however much he might be ſuſpected of influencing late events, the jealouſy of the court was not yet awakened againſt this popular prince. The humours of the people, however, once ſet a-float by the parliamentary impeachment, and by the fall of ſo great a favourite as Suffolk, broke out in various commotions, which were not eaſily ſuppreſſed; but an inſurrection in Kent was attended with conſequences that deſerve to be regarded. John Cade, a native of Ireland, of low condition, who had been obliged to fly into France for his crimes, on his return to England, obſerving the diſcontents of the people, availed himſelf of them, to execute a plan at once original and daring. He took the name of John Mortimer, intending, as is ſuppoſed, to paſs himſelf for a ſon of ſir John Mortimer, who had been ſentenced to death by parliament, and executed, in the beginning of this reign, without any trial or evidence, merely upon an indictment of high treaſon preferred againſt him.

On the firſt mention of that popular name, the common people of Kent, to the number of twenty thouſand, flocked to Cade's ſtandard, and he inflamed their zeal by publiſhing complaints againſt the numerous abuſes in government, and demanding a redreſs of grievances. The court, not yet aware of the danger, ſent a ſmall force againſt the inſurgents, under the command of ſir Humphrey Stafford, who was defeated and ſlain near Seven Oaks; and Cade, advancing with his followers towards London, encamped on Blackheath. Though elated by his victory, he ſtill maintained the appearance of moderation; and, tranſmitting to the court a plauſible liſt of grievances, promiſed, that when theſe ſhould be redreſſed, and lord Say the treaſurer, and Cromer ſheriff of Kent, ſhould be puniſhed for their malverſations, he would immediately lay down his arms. The council, perceiving the public reluctance to fight againſt men ſo reaſonable in their pretenſions, carried the king, for preſent ſafety, to Kenilworth; and the city of London immediately opened its gates to Cade, who maintained, during ſome time, great order and diſcipline among his followers. But being obliged, in order to gratify their malevolence againſt Say and Cromer, to put theſe men to death without a legal trial, he found that, after the commiſſion of this crime, he was no longer able to controul their riotous diſpoſition, and that his authority was deſpiſed. Proceeding to acts of plunder and violence, the citizens, who had hitherto been paſſive, now took the alarm; and, being ſeconded by a detachment of ſoldiers, ſent them by lord Scales governor of the Tower, they repulſed the rebels with great ſlaughter. The Kentiſhmen were ſo diſcouraged by the blow, that, upon receiving a general pardon from the primate, then chancellor, they retreated towards Rocheſter, and there diſperſed. The pardon, however, was ſoon after annulled, as extorted by violence: a price was ſet on Cade's head, who was killed by one Iden, a gentleman of Suſſex; and many of his followers were brought to condign puniſhment.

A ſtrong ſuſpicion exiſted among the royal party, that the duke of York had ſecretly inſtigated Cade to this attempt, to ſound the diſpoſitions of the people towards his title and family; and, fearing he meant to return from Ireland with an armed force, they iſſued orders forbidding his return to England. The duke refuted his enemies by landing with only his ordinary retinue; but their precautions ſoon convinced him of his danger. He now began to ſee the impoſſibility of remaining a quiet ſubject, and the neceſſity of proceeding forward in ſupport of his claim. His partizans therefore were inſtructed to inſiſt upon his right by ſucceſſion, and by the eſtabliſhed conſtitution of the kingdom; and the arguments adduced by his adherents and thoſe of the reigning family, ſoon divided and diſtracted the people. The earl

of

of Courtney and the duke of Norfolk eſpouſed the cauſe of the duke of York; but the earl of Northumberland adhered to the eſtabliſhed government; and even the earl of Weſtmoreland, though the head of the Nevil family, was prevailed on to ſupport the cauſe of Henry. The hoſtile ſpirit, however, which appeared in parliament, increaſed the expectations of the Yorkiſts. The commons ventured to preſent a petition againſt the duke of Somerſet, lord Dudley, and ſeveral others of inferior rank, praying the king to remove them for ever from his perſon and councils. This was a violent attack, and ſupported but by few precedents; yet the king durſt not openly oppoſe it, and ſatisfied himſelf with a temporizing reply, which only the more expoſed his weakneſs.

The duke of York, truſting to theſe ſymptoms of diſaffection, raiſed an army of ten thouſand men, with which he marched towards London, demanding a reformation of the government, and the removal of the duke of Somerſet from all power and authority. He unexpectedly found the gates of the city ſhut againſt him; and, on his retreating into Kent, he was followed by the king, at the head of a ſuperior army. A parley enſued: the removal of Somerſet, and of his ſubmitting to a trial in parliament, were ſtill inſiſted on; and, the court pretending to comply with the demand, that nobleman was put in arreſt. The duke of York was then perſuaded to pay his reſpects to the king in his tent; and, on repeating his charge againſt the duke of Somerſet, he was ſurpriſed to ſee that miniſter ſtep from behind the curtain, and offer to maintain his innocence. Richard now found that he had been betrayed; and that it was become neceſſary, for his own ſafety, to lower his pretenſions. No violence, however, was attempted againſt him: the nation was not in a diſpoſition to bear the deſtruction of ſo popular a prince; and his ſon, who was not in the power of the court, might ſtill be able to revenge a father's death on all his enemies. He was therefore diſmiſſed; and retired to his ſeat of Wigmore, on the borders of Wales. While the duke of York lived in this retreat, an incident occurred, which, by increaſing the public diſcontents, proved favourable to his pretenſions, had he been ardent in urging them. Several Gaſcon lords, attached to the Engliſh government, and diſguſted at the new dominion of the French, came to London, and offered to return to their allegiance under Henry. The earl of Shrewſbury, with a body of eight thouſand men, was ſent over to ſupport them. Bourdeaux opened its gates to him: he made himſelf maſter of Fronſac, Caſtillon, and ſome other places; but, as Charles haſtened to reſiſt this new invaſion, the fortunes of the Engliſh were ſoon reverſed. Shrewſbury, a venerable warrior, above fourſcore years of age, fell in battle: his conqueſts were loſt; and all hopes of recovering the province of Gaſcony were for ever extinguiſhed.

On this occaſion the people expreſſed great diſcontent, and threw all the blame on the miniſtry. While they were in this diſpoſition, the queen's delivery of a ſon, who received the name of Edward, increaſed their diſſatisfaction, as it removed all hopes of the peaceable ſucceſſion of the duke of York, who was, otherwiſe, both in the right of his father, and by the laws enacted ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Lancaſter, next heir to the crown. The duke himſelf, however, was incapable of violent counſels; and even when no viſible obſtacle lay between him and the throne, he was prevented by his own ſcruples from ſeizing it. Henry, at all times unfit to exerciſe the government, fell into a diſtemper which ſo far increaſed his natural imbecility, as to render him incapable of ſupporting even the appearance of royalty. The queen and the council, deſtitute of this ſupport, and finding themſelves unable to reſiſt the York party, were obliged to yield to the torrent. They ſent Somerſet to the Tower; and appointed Richard duke of York lieutenant of the kingdom, with powers to open and hold a ſeſſion of parliament. That aſſembly alſo, taking into conſideration the ſtate of the kingdom, created him protector during pleaſure. Yet the duke, inſtead of puſhing them to make farther conceſſions, appeared timid and irreſolute even in receiving the power with which they had inveſted him. He deſired that it might be recorded in parliament, that this authority was conferred on him from their own free motion, without any application on his own part; and expreſſed his hopes that they would aſſiſt him in the exerciſe of it. This moderation of Richard was certainly very unuſual, though very amiable; yet it was attended with bad conſequences in the preſent juncture, and, by giving time to the animoſities of faction to riſe and ferment, proved the ſource of all thoſe furious wars and commotions which enſued.

The enemies of the duke of York ſoon found it in their power to take advantage of his exceſſive caution. Henry being ſo far recovered from his diſtemper as to be able in appearance to exerciſe the royal functions, was moved to reſume his authority, to annul the protectorſhip of the duke of York, to releaſe Somerſet from the Tower, and to commit the adminiſtration into the hands of that nobleman. Richard, ſenſible of the dangers to which he was expoſed, levied an army; but ſtill without advancing any pretenſions to the crown. He complained only of the king's miniſters, and demanded a reformation of the government. A battle, however, was fought at St. Alban's, in which the Yorkiſts, without ſuffering any material loſs, ſlew about five thouſand of their enemies; among whom were the duke of Somerſet, the earl of Northumberland, the earl of Stafford, eldeſt ſon of the duke of Buckingham, lord Clifford, and many other perſons of diſtinction. The king himſelf fell into the hands of the duke of York, who treated him with great reſpect and tenderneſs; and he was only obliged, which he regarded indeed as no hardſhip, to commit the whole authority of the crown into the hands of his rival. This was the firſt blood ſpilt in that fatal quarrel between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, which laſted during thirty years, and which is computed to have coſt the lives of eighty princes of the blood, and almoſt entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England.

After all, it was not difficult to wreſt power from hands ſo little tenacious as thoſe of the duke of York. Margaret, availing herſelf of that prince's abſence, and of rather a better ſtate of health in Henry, produced the latter before the houſe of lords, where he declared his intention of reſuming the government. To this meaſure the houſe of lords aſſented, though they had recently acknowledged Richard as protector; and the king was reinſtated in his authority without any open oppoſition. An outward reconciliation was procured by means of the archbiſhop of Canterbury, between the rival factions; but it was impoſſible to reſtore truſt and confidence. One of the king's retinue, having inſulted a retainer of the earl of Warwick's, their companions on both ſides took part in the quarrel: a fierce combat enſued; and the earl, apprehending his life to be aimed at, fled to Calais; the government of which gave him the command of the only regular military force maintained by England; and both parties, in every county, made preparations for deciding the conteſt by force of arms.

The earl of Saliſbury, marching to join the duke of York, was overtaken at Blore-heath, on the borders of Staffordſhire, by lord Audley, who commanded much ſuperior forces. A ſmall rivulet with ſteep banks ran between the armies. Saliſbury here ſupplied his defect in numbers by ſtratagem. He feigned a retreat, and allured Audley to follow him with precipitation; but when the van of the royal army had paſſed the brook, Saliſbury ſuddenly turned upon them; and partly by ſurpriſe, partly by the diviſion of the enemies' forces, put them to the rout; and reached the general rendezvous of the Yorkiſts at Ludlow. To the ſame place the earl of Warwick brought over a choice body of veterans from Calais, on whom it was thought the fortune of the war would much depend;

depend; but this reinforcement occaſioned, in the iſſue, the immediate ruin of the duke of York's party. When the royal army approached, and a general action was every hour expected, ſir Andrew Trollop, who commanded the veterans, deſerted to the king in the night-time; and the Yorkiſts were ſo diſmayed at this inſtance of treachery, which made every man ſuſpicious of his fellow, that they ſeparated next day, without ſtriking a ſtroke. The duke fled to Ireland; and the earl of Warwick, attended by many of the other leaders, eſcaped to Calais, where his great popularity among all orders of men ſoon drew to him partiſans; while the friends of the houſe of York, in England, kept themſelves in ſecret readineſs, to riſe on the firſt ſummons.

Warwick having met with ſome ſucceſſes at ſea, landed in Kent, with the earl of Saliſbury, and the earl of Marche, eldeſt ſon of the duke of York; and being met by the primate and other perſons of diſtinction, he marched, amidſt the acclamations of the people, to London. The city immediately opened its gates to him; and his troops increaſing on every day's march, he ſoon found himſelf in a condition to face the royal army, which haſtened from Coventry to attack him. A battle was fought at Northampton; and was ſoon decided againſt the royaliſts by the infidelity of lord Grey of Ruthin, who, commanding Henry's van, deſerted to the enemy during the heat of action, and ſpread a conſternation through the troops. The duke of Buckingham, the earl of Shrewſbury, the lords Beaumont and Egremont, and ſir William Lucie, with many other perſons of quality, were killed in the action; the common people were ſpared by order of the earls of Warwick and Marche. Henry himſelf was again taken priſoner; and as the innocence and ſimplicity of his manners, together with his misfortunes, rendered him an intereſting object, he was treated with abundant reſpect.

A parliament being ſummoned in the king's name at Weſtminſter, the duke ſoon after appeared there from Ireland; and ſtating to the houſe of peers his own claim, exhorted them to do juſtice to the lineal ſucceſſion. The lords remained for ſome time in ſuſpenſe; but at length declared in favour of the claim of the duke of York. It was decreed, however, that Henry ſhould continue to poſſeſs the crown during the remainder of his life; that the adminiſtration of the country ſhould in the mean while remain with Richard; and that he ſhould be acknowledged the true and lawful heir of the monarchy. In this deciſion the duke acquieſced; and Henry, had he even been at liberty, would not probably have objected to it.

The high-ſpirited Margaret, however, ſpurned at the compact, and reſolved to aſſert in arms the rights of her family. After the battle of Northampton, ſhe fled to the north, where her affability, inſinuation, and addreſs, among the northern barons, raiſed her an army at leaſt twenty thouſand ſtrong, with a celerity which was neither expected by her friends, nor apprehended by her enemies. The duke of York, informed of her intentions, haſtened with a body of five thouſand men, to check her progreſs; but on his arrival at Wakefield, finding himſelf ſo much outnumbered by the enemy, he threw himſelf into Sandal caſtle; and was adviſed by the earl of Saliſbury, and other prudent counſellors, to remain in that fortreſs, till his ſon, the earl of Marche, who was levying forces on the borders of Wales, could advance to his aſſiſtance. The duke, however, who poſſeſſed perſonal bravery in an eminent degree, thought that he ſhould be for ever diſgraced, if by taking ſhelter behind walls, he ſhould for a moment reſign the victory to a woman. He therefore deſcended into the plain, and offered battle to the enemy, which was inſtantly accepted. The great inequality of numbers was ſufficient alone to decide the victory; but the queen, by ſending a detachment, who fell on the rear of the duke's army, rendered her advantage ſtill more certain and undiſputed. The duke himſelf was killed in the action; and his head was, by Margaret's orders, fixed on the gates of York, with a paper crown, in deriſion of his claim. His ſon, the earl of Rutland, a very promiſing youth of ſeventeen, was murdered in cool blood, by lord Clifford, in revenge for the loſs of his father, at the battle of St. Albans. The earl of Saliſbury was wounded and taken priſoner, and immediately beheaded, with ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction, by martial law, at Pomfret. There fell near three thouſand Yorkiſts in this battle: the duke himſelf was greatly and juſtly lamented by his own party. He periſhed in the fiftieth year of his age, and left three ſons, Edward, George, and Richard, with three daughters, Anne, Elizabeth, and Margaret.

The queen, elated with this victory, divided her army. She ſent the ſmaller diviſion, under Jaſper Tudor earl of Pembroke, half brother to the king, againſt Edward, the new duke of York; and herſelf marched with the larger towards London, where the earl of Warwick had been left with the command of the Yorkiſts. Pembroke was defeated by Edward, at Mortimer's croſs in Herefordſhire, with the loſs of near four thouſand men. He himſelf eſcaped by flight; but his father, ſir Owen Tudor, was taken priſoner, and immediately beheaded by Edward's orders. Margaret, however, compenſated this defeat by a victory which ſhe obtained over the earl of Warwick, at St. Albans. About two thouſand three hundred of the vanquiſhed, periſhed in the battle; and the perſon of the king fell again into the hands of his own party. But the queen reaped no great advantage from her victory. Edward duke of York advanced upon her from the other ſide; and collecting the remains of Warwick's army, was ſoon in a condition to give her battle with ſuperior forces. Senſible of her danger, ſhe found it neceſſary to retreat towards the north; and Edward entered London amidſt the acclamations of the citizens. Inſtead of evincing the timid caution of his father, he determined to avail himſelf of his popularity, and to aſſume at once the name and dignity of king. His army was ordered to aſſemble in St. John's Fields; great numbers of people ſurrounded them; a ſuitable harangue was pronounced to this mixed multitude; and when it was demanded, whether they would accept of Edward, eldeſt ſon of the late duke of York, for their king? they expreſſed their aſſent by loud and joyful acclamations. A great number of biſhops, lords, and magiſtrates, and other perſons of diſtinction, were next aſſembled at Baynard's caſtle, who ratified the popular election; and the new king was proclaimed in London, A. D. 1461. Thus terminated the inglorious reign of Henry VI. a monarch, who while in his cradle, had been proclaimed king both of France and England; but who loſt all the conqueſts of his illuſtrious father, and the hereditary dominions of his family in France, and at laſt the crown of England. His perſonal appearance was mean, and his countenance melancholy. But the weakneſs of his underſtanding, and the facility of his temper, were his moſt fatal defects; the one rendering him quite unfit for holding the reins of government, the other making him a paſſive inſtrument in the hands of thoſe by whom he was ſurrounded. In private life, he was harmleſs and inoffenſive, devout, chaſte, temperate, humble in proſperity, and patient in adverſity: but the weakneſs of his underſtanding degraded all his virtues. In a word, Henry VI. was much fitter for a monk than for a monarch, and would have made a better figure in a cloiſter than in a court. But that inſignificancy which loſt him his crown, ſaved his life; for when he fell into the hands of his ſucceſſor, he permitted him to live, not thinking his death neceſſary to his own ſecurity. Yet this prince could not in truth be conſidered as an uſurper; and the defence which he made for himſelf, when he was accuſed of that crime in the tower, ſeems to be ſatisfactory: "My father (ſaid he) and grandfather were kings of England; I was enthroned when I was an infant, crowned when I was a child, received the voluntary homage of all my ſubjects, and enjoyed the royal authority, unchallenged, almoſt forty years." He reigned thirty-eight years and ſix months. His only child, Edward prince of Wales,

was in the ſeventh year of his age at the time his father was deprived of his crown.

The moſt remarkable law which paſſed in this reign, was for regulating the election of knights of the ſhire. After the fall of the feudal ſyſtem, every freeholder was, by degrees, admitted to give his vote; but in the eighth and tenth of Henry VI. laws were enacted which limited the electors to ſuch as poſſeſſed not leſs than forty ſhillings a year in land, free from all burdens; a ſum equivalent to near twenty pounds of our preſent money. It ſhould alſo be obſerved, that the firſt inſtance of debt being contracted on parliamentary ſecurity, occurs in this reign.

From the ACCESSION of the HOUSE of YORK, to the final EXTINCTION of the PLANTAGENETS.

Edward IV. was in the bloom of youth, being hardly nineteen years of age, when he aſcended the throne of England; beautiful in his perſon, engaging in his deportment, excelling in all manly exerciſes, brave, active, and even prudent beyond his years. Inſtead of ſpending his time in vain amuſements, he applied to buſineſs with ſo much ardour, that the firſt diviſion of his army, conducted by the earl of Warwick, left London, March 7; and, five days after, he followed with the reſt of his forces. On that ſame day, he gave a ſpecimen of the cruelty which afterwards ſtained his character, by ordering the execution of Walter Walker, a grocer, for having ſpoken contemptuouſly of his title to the crown. His army increaſed as he advanced; and when he reached Pomfret, March 27, he found himſelf at the head of an army of near 50,000 men.

Queen Margaret, and the nobles of her party, after their return into the north, had been very active in recruiting their army, which lay at York, and amounted to 60,000 men. The duke of Somerſet was appointed commander in chief; leaving the king, queen, and prince of Wales, at York. Early in the morning of Palm Sunday, March 29, theſe two mighty armies, inflamed with the moſt violent animoſity, were drawn up in order of battle on the fields between the villages Saxton and Towton, about ten miles ſouth of York. Edward iſſued expreſs orders to his troops to take no priſoners, and give no quarter; nor is it improbable that the orders on the other ſide were in the ſame ſanguinary ſtrain. The action began at nine in the morning, in the midſt of a heavy ſhower of ſnow, which was blown with great violence in the faces of the Lancaſtrians, and prevented them from ſeeing the enemy diſtinctly, or judging rightly of their diſtance. Lord Fauconbridge, taking advantage of this circumſtance, commanded his archers to advance briſkly a few paces, and ſhoot their arrows with all their force, and then fall back. The Yorkiſts advanced; and, pouring in ſhowers of arrows upon their enemies, did great execution, and made them ruſh on to a cloſe engagement, with ſwords, ſpears, battle-axes, &c. The conflict now became fierce and bloody, and continued between four and five hours, victory ſometimes inclining to one ſide, and ſometimes to the other. At length the Lancaſtrians began to give way; and, being hard preſſed, they broke, and fled on all ſides, and were purſued with great ſlaughter. This was one of the moſt bloody battles that ever was fought in Britain. Thoſe who were employed to number and bury the dead, declared, that their number amounted to 38,000. Amongſt theſe were the earls of Northumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Shrewſbury; the lords Clifford, Beaumont, Nevil, Willoughby, Wells, Roos, Scales, Grey, Dacres, and Molineux; beſides a prodigious number of knights and gentlemen. This was the fourth pitched battle fought in leſs than three months in England, in which above 60,000 of her braveſt ſons periſhed; among whom were ſeveral princes of the blood, and many of the prime nobility. The dukes of Somerſet and Exeter, when they ſaw that all was loſt, returned to York, attended by ſeveral lords and gentlemen; and, taking with them the king, queen, and prince of Wales, fled into Scotland; and never thought themſelves ſafe till they had reached the capital of that kingdom.

Edward, in the mean time, not ſatiated with the ſlaughter of the battle, cauſed much noble blood to be ſhed on the ſcaffold. The earl of Devonſhire and ſir W. Hill, being taken in their flight, were beheaded at York, and their heads were ſet upon the walls of that city, inſtead of that of the duke of York, the king's father, and that of the earl of Saliſbury, which were now taken down. The earl of Ormond and Wiltſhire was beheaded at Newcaſtle, and ſir Thomas Fulford at Hexham. Edward then marched as far north as Newcaſtle; and having left the earl of Warwick with a competent force, to keep that part of the country in ſubjection, he returned to London, June 26; and three days after he was crowned at Weſtminſter with the uſual ſolemnity.

While theſe reſentful and ſanguinary perſecutions were going on in England, the Scots remained in a manner paſſive: the then king James III. was a minor, and the regency was diſputed by the queen-dowager and the family of Douglas. Margaret found Scotland little leſs diſtracted than England; but on her offering to the council to deliver to them immediately the important town and fortreſs of Berwick, and to contract her ſon in marriage with a ſiſter of James, they promiſed the aſſiſtance of their arms to reinſtate her family on the throne of England. As the danger from that quarter, however, did not appear urgent, Edward, inſtead of purſuing the fugitive king and queen, ſummoned a parliament for ſettling the government. That aſſembly no longer heſitated between the two families; they eſtabliſhed the title of Edward, and paſſed an act of attainder againſt Henry and Margaret, againſt their infant ſon Edward, and ſeveral of their principal adherents.

Domeſtic peace, however, was not yet reſtored to England; nor was there wanting danger from the efforts of foreign powers. Louis XI. of France, was of an intriguing and politic temper, and, to keep alive the flames of civil diſcord in England, he ſent a body of two thouſand men at arms to the aſſiſtance of the depoſed Henry. Thus Margaret was again enabled to take the field; but, though reinforced by a numerous train of adventurers from Scotland, and by many partizans of the family of Lancaſter, ſhe received a check at Hedgley-moor, from lord Montagu, brother to the earl of Warwick; who was ſo elated with this ſucceſs, that while a numerous reinforcement was on their march to join him by orders from Edward, he ventured with his own handful of troops to attack the Lancaſtrians at Hexham, and obtained a complete victory over them. The duke of Somerſet, the lords Rous and Hungerford were taken in the purſuit, and immediately beheaded. Summary puniſhment was in like manner executed on ſeveral perſons of rank. All thoſe who were ſpared in the field ſuffered on the ſcaffold; and the utter extermination of their adverſaries was now become the object of the York party.

The hard fate of the ex-royal family deſerves to be recorded. Margaret, flying with her ſon into a foreſt, was beſet, during the darkneſs of the night, by a gang of robbers, who deſpoiled her of her rings and jewels, and treated her with the utmoſt indignity. The partition of this rich booty raiſed a quarrel among them; and while their attention was thus engaged, ſhe took the opportunity of plunging with her ſon into the depths of the foreſt, where ſhe wandered for a long time, ſpent with hunger and fatigue, and overwhelmed with terror and affliction. While in this wretched condition, ſhe ſaw a robber approach with his naked ſword; and finding that ſhe had no means of eſcape, with ſingular preſence of mind, ſhe advanced towards him; and preſenting to him the young prince, exclaimed, "Here, my friend, I commit to your care the ſafety of your king's ſon." The man, whoſe generous ſpirit had been obſcured by his vicious courſe of life, was charmed with the confidence repoſed in him; and vowed

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vowed, not only to abſtain from all injury againſt the princeſs, but to devote himſelf entirely to her ſervice. By his means ſhe lived ſome time concealed in the foreſt, and was at laſt conducted to the ſea-coaſt, whence ſhe made her eſcape into Flanders. She paſſed thence to her father's court, where ſhe lived ſeveral years in privacy and retirement. Her royal conſort was neither ſo fortunate nor ſo dexterous in finding the means of eſcape. Some of his friends took him under their protection, and conveyed him into Lancaſhire; where he remained concealed during a year; but he was diſcovered A. D. 1465, and delivered up to Edward, and thrown into the Tower.

The impriſonment of Henry, the expulſion of Margaret, and the execution and confiſcation of all the moſt eminent Lancaſtrians, ſeemed to give full ſecurity to Edward's government. But the prince had no ſooner vanquiſhed his domeſtic enemies, than he delivered himſelf up to the impulſe of his amorous paſſions. Elizabeth Grey, the daughter of the ducheſs of Bedford, by her ſecond marriage with ſir Richard Woodville, and the widow of ſir John Grey of Groby, who had been ſlain in the ſecond battle of St. Albans, fighting on the ſide of Lancaſter, finding her huſband's eſtate confiſcated, ſeized the opportunity, when the king was on a viſit to the ducheſs of Bedford, to intreat his pity for her impoveriſhed and diſtreſſed children. The ſight of ſo much beauty in affliction, ſoon found its way to Edward's heart; and he was reduced, in his turn, to the poſture of an humble ſuppliant at the feet of Elizabeth. But the lady was either averſe to diſhonourable love, or inflamed with ambition; ſo that the importunities of Edward proved fruitleſs againſt her rigid and inflexible virtue. His paſſion, ſtimulated by a denial, carried him beyond all bounds; and he offered to ſhare with her his heart, as well as his throne. The marriage was privately celebrated at Grafton; and the ſecret was carefully kept for a time, from the dilemma to which the king was reduced.

Before this interview with Elizabeth Grey, Edward had caſt his eye on Bona of Savoy, ſiſter of the queen of France, who, he hoped, would, by her marriage, enſure him the friendſhip of that power, which was then both able and inclined to give ſupport and aſſiſtance to his rival. To render the negociation more ſucceſsful, the earl of Warwick had been diſpatched to Paris, where the princeſs then reſided. This nobleman had demanded Bona in marriage for the king; his propoſals had been accepted; and nothing remained but the ratification of the terms agreed on, and the bringing over the princeſs to England. Matters were in this ſtate, when the ſecret of Edward's ſtolen marriage broke out, and the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, immediately returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation, which Edward ſeemed little diſpoſed to ſoften by explanation or apology. Every incident, therefore, now tended to widen the breach between the king and this powerful nobleman. All preferments and honours were laviſhed on the queen's friends and relations. Warwick bore with impatience the diminution of his influence; and the nobility of England, envying the ſudden growth of the Woodvilles, partook of his diſcontent; but the moſt conſiderable aſſociate that he gained was George duke of Clarence, the king's ſecond brother. This prince was allured by the offer in marriage of the elder daughter of Warwick, co-heireſs to his immenſe fortunes, to join the party of that earl; and thus an extenſive and dangerous combination was inſenſibly formed againſt Edward and his miniſtry.

To ſecure himſelf againſt this faction, Edward, A. D. 1469, entered into an alliance with Charles, ſurnamed the Bold, duke of Burgundy, whoſe rich demeſnes marked him as the proper perſon to oppoſe the dark and dangerous ambition of Louis XI. Edward alſo formed a league with the duke of Brittany; but from theſe foreign negociations his attention was withdrawn by domeſtic inſurrection. The improper application of ſome part of the revenue of St. Leonard's hoſpital, near York, which had been deſtined for the relief of the poor, provoked the common people to riſe in arms. Theſe being headed by ſir Henry Nevil and ſir John Conyers, defeated and put to death the earl of Pembroke; and ſeizing the earl of Rivers, the father of the queen, with his ſon John, immediately executed them.

A dark ſhade reſts on this part of the Engliſh hiſtory, and the real views and objects of the principal actors cannot now be developed with any degree of certainty. At the commencement of this rebellion, Warwick reſided, together with his ſon-in-law, the duke of Clarence, in his government of Calais; and it appears, that his brother Montagu acted with vigour againſt the northern rebels. We may thence preſume, that the inſurrection had not proceeded from the ſecret counſels and inſtigation of Warwick. He and Clarence indeed came over to England, offered their ſervice to Edward, were received without any apparent ſuſpicion, and were entruſted by him in the higheſt commands. Soon after, we find the rebels quieted and diſperſed by a general pardon granted by Edward, on the ſuggeſtion of the earl of Warwick; but why ſo courageous a prince, if ſecure of Warwick's fidelity, ſhould have granted a general pardon to men who had been guilty of ſuch violent and perſonal outrages, is not intelligible; nor why that nobleman, if unfaithful, ſhould have endeavoured to appeaſe a rebellion, from which he was able to reap ſuch advantages. To ſolve this difficulty, we may preſume, that, after this inſurrection, there was an interval of peace, during which the king loaded the family of Nevil with honours and favours of the higheſt nature; yet, it was not long after, that Edward, being invited to a feaſt by the archbiſhop of York, a younger brother of Warwick, entertained a ſudden ſuſpicion that they intended to ſeize his perſon, or to murder him; and in conſequence abruptly left the entertainment.

Another rebellion, which is as little accounted for as the preceding events, ſoon followed this; but it does not appear that the family of Nevil had any particular intereſt in the quarter where it broke out, or were at all ſuſpected in fomenting it. It aroſe in Lincolnſhire, and was headed by ſir Robert Welles, ſon to the lord of that name. The army of the rebels amounted to thirty thouſand men; but the king having defeated them, took their commander priſoner, and ordered him immediately to execution. Edward, during theſe tranſactions, had entertained ſo little jealouſy of the earl of Warwick or duke of Clarence, that he ſent them to levy forces againſt the rebels; but theſe malcontents, as ſoon as they left the court, raiſed troops in their own name, iſſued declarations againſt the government, and complained of grievances, oppreſſions, and bad miniſters. The unexpected defeat of Welles diſconcerted all their meaſures; and they were obliged to diſband their army, and to fly into Devonſhire, whence they embarked, and made ſail towards Calais.

The deputy-governor, whom Warwick had left at Calais, was named Vaucler, a Gaſcon, who ſeeing him return in this miſerable condition, refuſed him admittance; nor would he permit even the ducheſs of Clarence to land, though a few days before ſhe had been delivered on ſhip-board of a ſon, and was at that time much indiſpoſed. A little wine for the uſe of the ladies was all that he would ſuffer to be carried on-board; but he ſecretly palliated his conduct to Warwick, by alleging that the fortreſs was ill ſupplied with proviſions, and that he could not rely on the obedience of the garriſon. The earl at leaſt affected to be convinced; and Warwick immediately repaired to the court of Paris. The king of France received him with the greateſt regard; and jealous of the alliance between Edward and the duke of Burgundy, he hoped to make him his inſtrument for reeſtabliſhing the houſe of Lancaſter. Nothing could exceed the animoſity which had prevailed between that houſe and the earl of Warwick. But his preſent diſtreſſes, and the entreaties of Louis, made him hearken to terms

of

of accommodation; and Margaret, being ſent for from Angers, where ſhe then reſided, an agreement, dictated by mutual intereſt, was ſoon concluded between them. It was ſtipulated that Warwick ſhould eſpouſe the cauſe of Henry, and endeavour to reſtore him to liberty, and to re-eſtabliſh him on the throne; that the adminiſtration of the government during the minority of young Edward, Henry's ſon, ſhould be entruſted conjointly to the earl of Warwick and the duke of Clarence; that prince Edward ſhould marry the lady Anne, ſecond daughter of that nobleman; and that the crown, in caſe of the failure of male iſſue in that prince, ſhould deſcend to the duke of Clarence, to the entire excluſion of the reigning king and his poſterity.

Edward, A. D. 1470, appriſed of what had taken place, foreſaw that it would be eaſy to diſſolve an alliance compoſed of ſuch diſcordant materials. He employed a lady in the train of the ducheſs of Clarence, to repreſent to the duke the imprudence of the connection he had formed with the murderers of his father, and the implacable enemies of his family; ſo that Clarence, ſtruck with the danger of his ſituation, on a promiſe of forgiveneſs, ſecretly engaged to abandon the Lancaſtrian party. During this negociation, Warwick too was ſecretly carrying on a correſpondence of the ſame nature with his brother, the marquis of Montague, who was entirely confided in by Edward; and like motives produced a like reſolution in that nobleman. In conſequence of this promiſe of ſupport, Warwick availed himſelf of a ſtorm to eroſs the channel with a body of French troops, and landed at Dartmouth, accompanied by the duke of Clarence.

Edward, though brave and active, had little foreſight. He had made no preparation for this event; and when warned by the duke of Burgundy of his danger, he had anſwered, he wiſhed for nothing more than to ſee Warwick on Engliſh ground. The prodigious popularity, however, of that nobleman, the zeal of the Lancaſtrian party, and the ſpirit of diſcontent with which many were infected, drew ſuch multitudes to his ſtandard, that in a very few days his army amounted to ſixty thouſand men, and was continually increaſing. Edward, who had been engaged in ſuppreſſing a rebellion in the north, now haſtened ſouthwards to encounter him; and the two armies approached each other near Nottingham. The rapidity of Warwick's progreſs had incapacitated the duke of Clarence from executing his plan of treachery; but the marquis of Montague, having concerted meaſures with his adherents, took to arms in the night-time, and haſtened with loud acclamations to Edward's quarters. The king was alarmed at the noiſe, and ſtarting from bed, heard the cry of war uſually employed by the Lancaſtrian party. Lord Haſtings, his chamberlain, informing him of the danger, urged him to make his eſcape by ſpeedy flight, from an army where he had ſo many concealed enemies, and where few ſeemed zealouſly attached to his ſervice. He had juſt time to get on horſeback, and to hurry with a ſmall retinue to Lynn in Norfolk, where finding ſome ſhips ready, he inſtantly embarked. Thus, the earl of Warwick, in no longer ſpace than eleven days from his firſt landing, was left entire maſter of the kingdom.

But Edward's danger did not end with his embarkation. The Eaſterlings or Hans-towns were then at war both with France and England; and ſome ſhips of theſe people hovering on the Engliſh coaſt, eſpied the king's veſſels, and gave chaſe to them; nor was it without extreme difficulty that he made his eſcape into the port of Alcmaer in Holland, where he landed, almoſt deſtitute of every thing. The duke of Burgundy was embarraſſed how to receive the abdicated monarch; and began already to hold out, that his connections were with the kingdom of England, not with the king. Vaucler, the deputy-governor of Calais, declared with great energy for his old party; and every thing promiſed a full reſtoration of the crown in the family of Lancaſter. Henry, A. D. 1471, was delivered from the Tower, and proclaimed king with great ſolemnity; every ſtatute made during the reign of Edward was repealed; and that prince declared an uſurper.

Edward, however, being aſſiſted by the duke of Burgundy, his brother-in-law, though in a covert way, haſtened to return; and impatient to take revenge on his enemies, made an attempt to land with his forces, which exceeded not two thouſand men, on the coaſt of Norfolk. Being there repulſed, he ſailed northwards, and diſembarked at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire. Finding that the new magiſtrates, who had been appointed by the earl of Warwick, kept the people every where from joining him, he pretended, and even made oath, that he came not to challenge the crown, but only the inheritance of the houſe of York, which of right belonged to him; and that he did not intend to diſturb the peace of the kingdom. This affected moderation brought new partizans to his ſtandard: he was admitted into the city of York; and was ſoon in ſuch a ſituation as gave him hopes of ſucceeding in all his former claims. Warwick aſſembled an army at Leiceſter, with an intention of giving battle; but Edward, by taking another road, paſſed unmoleſted, and preſented himſelf before the gates of London. He was readily admitted into a capital, the inhabitants of which ſtill dwelt with pleaſure on his former courteous demeanor; and Henry, deſtined to be the perpetual ſport of fortune, again fell into the hands of his enemies.

Warwick, without waiting the arrival of queen Margaret, who was haſtening to England; being reinforced by his ſon-in-law Clarence, and his brother the marquis Montague, took poſt at Barnet, in the vicinity of London. His brother Montague ſeems to have remained ſincerely attached to the intereſts of his family: but his ſon-in-law, though bound to him by every tie of honour and gratitude, though he ſhared the power of the regency, though he had been inveſted by Warwick in all the honours and patrimony of the houſe of York, reſolved to fulfil the ſecret engagements which he had made with his brother. Accordingly, he deſerted to Edward in the night-time, and carried with him a body of twelve thouſand men. Warwick was now too far advanced to retreat; and, as he rejected with diſdain the terms of accommodation offered by Edward and Clarence, he was obliged to hazard a deciſive engagement. The battle was fought on Eaſter-Sunday, April 14, 1471, with equal obſtinacy on both ſides, and the victory remained long in ſuſpenſe; but an accident threw the balance to the ſide of the Yorkiſts. Edward's device was a ſun; that of Warwick a ſtar with rays; and the miſtineſs of the morning rendering it difficult to diſtinguiſh them; the earl of Oxford, who fought on the ſide of the Lancaſtrians, was, by miſtake, attacked by his friends, and chaſed off the field of battle. Warwick, contrary to his uſual practice, engaged that day on foot, reſolving to ſhew his army that he meant to ſhare every fortune with them, and was ſlain in the thickeſt of the engagement. His brother underwent the ſame fate; and as Edward had iſſued orders not to give any quarter, a great and undiſtinguiſhed ſlaughter was made.

The very day on which this deciſive battle was fought, queen Margaret and her ſon, now about eighteen years of age, and a prince of great hopes, landed at Weymouth, ſupported by a ſmall body of French forces. When this princeſs received intelligence of Henry's captivity, and of the defeat and death of the earl of Warwick, her courage, which had ſupported her under ſo many diſaſtrous events, now forſook her; and ſhe anticipated the calamities which were to follow. At firſt ſhe took ſanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu in Hampſhire; but being encouraged by the appearance of Tudor earl of Pembroke, Courtney earl of Devonſhire, the lords Wenloc and St. John, with other men of rank, who exhorted her ſtill to hope for ſucceſs, ſhe reſumed her former ſpirit, and determined to defend to the utmoſt the ruins of her fallen fortunes. Rapidly advancing through the counties of

Devon, Somerſet, and Glouceſter, ſhe increaſed her army on each day's march; but was at laſt overtaken by the rapid and expeditious Edward at Tewkeſbury, on the banks of the Severn. The Lancaſtrians were here totally defeated; the earl of Devonſhire and lord Wenloc were killed in the field; the duke of Somerſet, and about twenty other perſons of diſtinction, having taken ſhelter in the church, were dragged out and beheaded; and the army entirely diſperſed.

Queen Margaret and her unfortunate ſon being taken priſoners, and brought before the king, he aſked the prince, in an inſulting manner, how he dared to invade his dominions? The young prince, more mindful of his high birth than of his preſent fortune, replied, that he came thither to claim his juſt inheritance. The ungenerous Edward, indignant at his anſwer, and inſenſible to pity, ſtruck him on the face with his gauntlet; and the dukes of Clarence and Glouceſter, lord Haſtings, and ſir Thomas Gray, taking the blow as a ſignal for further violence, hurried the prince into the next apartment, and there diſpatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the Tower; where her degraded conſort had expired a few days after the battle of Tewkeſbury; but whether he died a natural or a violent death, will remain for ever uncertain. It is pretended, and was generally believed, that the duke of Glouceſter, afterwards Richard III. killed him with his own hands; but the univerſal odium which that prince incurred, inclined the nation perhaps to aggravate his crimes, by adding ſurmiſes to facts.

Edward, now firmly eſtabliſhed on the throne, A. D. 1472, began to devote himſelf to libidinous pleaſures; but he was ſoon roufed from his folly by the proſpect of foreign conqueſts. He formed a league with the duke of Burgundy to invade France; for this purpoſe he obtained from parliament a tenth of rents, or two ſhillings in the pound; which produced only 31,460l. and they added to this ſupply a whole fifteenth, and three quarters of another: but, as the king deemed theſe ſums ſtill unequal to the undertaking, he attempted to levy money by way of benevolence; a kind of exaction which, except during the reigns of Henry III. and Richard II. had not been practiſed in former times, and which, though the conſent of the parties was pretended to be gained, could not be deemed entirely voluntary. With theſe aids, in 1475, the king paſſed over to Calais, at the head of an army of fifteen hundred men at arms, and fifteen thouſand archers; but all his hopes of conqueſt were damped, by finding that the conſtable, St. Pol, on whoſe revolt he depended, neither received him into the towns of which he was maſter, nor did the duke of Burgundy bring him the ſmalleſt aſſiſtance. This defection gave him great diſguſt, and inclined him to liſten to the pacific propoſals of Louis XI. who conſented to pay Edward ſeventy-five thouſand crowns, on condition that he ſhould immediately withdraw his army from France; and promiſed to pay him fifty thouſand crowns a year during their joint lives. It was farther ſtipulated that the dauphin, when of age, ſhould marry Edward's eldeſt daughter; and theſe articles were ſolemnly ratified in a perſonal interview which the two monarchs had near Amiens.

Such were the principal articles of this treaty, which reflected but little honour to either party. Louis, however, did himſelf ſome credit by ſtipulating for the liberty of queen Margaret, who, though, after the death of Henry, and of her ſon, ſhe could no longer be formidable to government, was ſtill confined in the Tower by Edward. Louis paid fifty thouſand crowns for her ranſom; and that princeſs, who had been ſo active on the ſtage of the world, and who had experienced ſuch a variety of fortune, paſſed the remainder of her days in privacy, till the year 1482, when ſhe died.

Though Edward had ſo little reaſon to be ſatisfied with the conduct of the duke of Burgundy, he reſerved to that prince a power of acceding to the late treaty; but Charles, when the offer was made him, haughtily replied, that he was able to ſupport himſelf without the aſſiſtance of England, and that he would make no peace with Louis till three months after Edward's return into his own country. This prince poſſeſſed all the ambition and courage of a conqueror; but, being defective in policy and prudence, periſhed at laſt in battle againſt the Swiſs; a people whom he deſpiſed, and who, though brave and free, had hitherto been in a manner overlooked among the nations of Europe.

For ſome time Edward had relapſed into his fatal love of pleaſure, from which he ſeemed only to awake to exerciſe an act of diſgraceful tyranny on his own family. The duke of Clarence, after all his ſervices in deſerting Warwick, had never been able to regain the king's confidence. He was alſo an object of diſpleaſure to the queen, as well as to his brother the duke of Glouceſter, a prince of the deepeſt policy, and the moſt unrelenting ambition. The execution of ſeveral of his friends on the moſt trivial offences, warned him of the combination againſt himſelf; but, inſtead of ſecuring his life by ſilence and reſerve, he was open and loud in his reſentments. The king, highly offended with his freedom, or uſing that pretence, committed him to the Tower, ſummoned a parliament, and tried him for his life before the houſe of peers, on charges too frivolous to deſerve the name of crimes. A ſentence of condemnation, however, was procured againſt him; and the only favour which the king granted his brother, was to leave him the choice of his death; and he was privately drowned in a butt of malmeſey in the Tower; a whimſical choice, which implied that he had an extraordinary predilection for that liquor. The duke left two children by the elder daughter of the earl of Warwick; a ſon, created an earl by his grandfather's title; and a daughter, afterwards counteſs of Saliſbury. Both this prince and princeſs were unfortunate in their end, and died a violent death; a fate which for many years attended almoſt all the deſcendants of the royal blood in England.

All the energies of Edward's reign ſeem to have terminated with the civil wars: his ſpirit afterwards ſunk into indolence and diſſipation. There was no object on which he was more intent, than to have his daughters ſettled in ſplendid marriages; but moſt of theſe princeſſes were yet in their infancy, and a chain of accidents fruſtrated his views. His eldeſt daughter Elizabeth was contracted to the dauphin; but Louis XI. who paid no regard to treaties, found his advantage in affiancing the dauphin to the princeſs Margaret, daughter of the emperor Maximilian. Edward, however, notwithſtanding his depravity, prepared to avenge the inſult: when the French monarch, to divert the blow, by a proper diſtribution of preſents in the court of Scotland, incited James to make war upon England.

This prince, who lived on bad terms with his own nobility, and whoſe force was always unequal to the enterpriſe, levied an army; but, when he was ready to enter England, the barons, conſpiring againſt his favourites, put them to death without trial; and the army preſently diſbanded. The duke of Glouceſter, attended by the duke of Albany, James's brother, who had been baniſhed his country, entered Scotland at the head of a powerful army, took Berwick, and obliged the Scots to accept of a peace, by which they reſigned that garriſon to Edward. This ſucceſs determined the king to think more ſeriouſly of a French war; but, while he was making preparations for that enterpriſe, an enemy againſt whom there is no defence ſoon put a period to all his projects. He died at Weſtminſter, April 9, 1482, in the forty-firſt year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign; but of what diſeaſe is not certainly known. He had iſſue by his queen three ſons and ſeven daughters, of whom one ſon and two daughters died before him; and two ſons and five daughters ſurvived him; viz. Edward, his eldeſt ſon and ſucceſſor; Richard duke of York; Elizabeth, courted by

Richard III. and afterwards married to Henry VII. Cecilia, married to John viſcount Wells; Anne, married to Thomas Howard duke of Norfolk; Bridget, who became a nun at Dartford; and Catharine, contracted to the infanta of Spain, but married to William Courteney earl of Devonſhire.

Edward IV. was much admired, in his youth, for the beauty of his features and the elegance of his perſon; but, before his death, he became corpulent and bloated by intemperance. His addreſs was eaſy, engaging, and familiar, which gained him the hearts of many, and the money of not a few, particularly of the fair ſex. He never forgot the name or face of any perſon with whom he had once converſed; and he is even ſaid to have known the characters and circumſtances of every nobleman or gentleman of any conſequence in his dominions. His great ſucceſs in war (having gained nine pitched battles, in which he was preſent, and fought on foot, and never loſt one) may be admitted as a ſufficient proof of his military ſkill and courage, as well as of his good fortune. In a word, if his virtues had been equal to his endowments, he would have been both a great and a good king. But that was not the caſe. His piety is, indeed, celebrated by the monk of Croyland; but it did not prevent him from violating his moſt ſolemn oaths, when he was prompted to it by paſſion, or the proſpect of advantage. He was guilty of many acts of cruelty; and the unnatural murder of his brother Clarence muſt fix an indelible ſtain upon his character. Whenever he enjoyed peace, he abandoned himſelf to the gratification of his appetites. On his paſſion for women he laid no reſtraint; and his imprudent and criminal indulgence of it plunged him into much diſtreſs and guilt, produced almoſt all the diſorders of his reign, and all the calamities that befel his friends and family. The indulgence of vicious paſſions is alike pernicious to princes and to private perſons.

Edward prince of Wales, his eldeſt ſon, was proclaimed king in London, April 9, 1483, by the name of Edward V. He was then only in the thirteenth year of his age; but his title was ſo clear, that it was not imagined any diſpute could poſſibly ariſe about his poſſeſſion of the throne. The kingdom was at that time divided into two great factions. The queen's family, who, during the laſt reign, had grown into power, was become obnoxious to the old nobility, who could not bear to act in ſubordination to perſons whom they conſidered as inferiors. The king, during his life-time, had been able to overawe theſe animoſities; and on his death-bed endeavoured to guard againſt their future increaſe. He expreſſed a deſire that his brother, the duke of Glouceſter, ſhould be entruſted with the regency, and recommended peace and unanimity during the minority of his ſon. But the king was no ſooner dead than the parties broke out with all their former reſentments; and the duke of Glouceſter, a crafty, wicked, and ambitious, prince, reſolved to profit by their mutual contentions. His firſt aim was to foment the diſcontents of the old nobility, by inſinuating that the queen wanted to hide the meanneſs of her original in a multitude of new promotions; at the ſame time he redoubled his profeſſions of zeal and attachment to that princeſs, and thus entirely gained her confidence. Having ſucceeded thus far, he gained over the duke of Buckingham, and ſome other lords, to his intereſt, and prevailed upon them, by the lure of reward, to ſecond him in his attempts to get the guardianſhip of the young king conferred upon him, together with the cuſtody of his perſon.

Being now ſure of the co-operation of theſe noblemen, he reſolved to take the young king out of the cuſtody of the earl of Rivers, his uncle by the mother's ſide; and, having procured that nobleman to be arreſted, he met young Edward at Stoney-Stratford, and, with the moſt profound reſpect, offered to conduct him to London. Having thus ſecured the perſon of the king, his next ſtep was to get the charge of the king's brother, the duke of York, then about ſeven years old, who, with the queen, his mother, had taken ſanctuary in Weſtminſter abbey. The queen, who had miſgivings of the dangers that threatened her family, was very hardly perſuaded to deliver up her child; but, at the interceſſion of the primate, and the archbiſhop of York, ſhe was at laſt induced to comply: when tenderly embracing him, and bedewing him with her tears, ſhe bade him an eternal adieu! The young king, finding that he was to have the pleaſure of his brother's company, was greatly rejoiced at the queen's compliance, not conſidering the fatal intent of theſe preparations; for, in a few days, the duke of Glouceſter, who had been made protector of the realm, upon a pretence of guarding their perſons from danger, conveyed them both to the Tower. Having thus ſecured their perſons, his next ſtep was to ſpread a report of their illegitimacy; and, by pretended obſtacles, to put off the day appointed for the young king's coronation. Lord Stanley, a man of deep penetration, was the firſt to diſcloſe his fears of the protector's ill deſigns: and communicated his ſuſpicions to lord Haſtings, who had long been firmly attached to the king's family. Haſtings would at firſt give the ſurmiſe no credit; and probably his wiſhes that ſuch a project might not be true, influenced his judgment, and confirmed his ſecurity. But he was ſoon undeceived; for Cateſby, a vile inſtrument of the protector, was ſent to ſound him, and to try whether he could not be brought over to aſſiſt the projected uſurpation. Haſtings treated the propoſal with horror; he profeſſed himſelf immoveable in his adherence to the king; and his death was, therefore, reſolved on by the protector.

In the mean time, orders had been diſpatched to execute the lords Rivers, Gray, and Vaughan, who had been confined in Pomfret caſtle, and whoſe only crime was their attachment to the young king. On the very day on which they were beheaded, the protector ſummoned a council in the Tower, whither lord Haſtings, amongſt others, repaired, no way ſuſpecting that his own life was in danger. The duke of Glouceſter was capable of committing the moſt bloody and treacherous murders with the greateſt coolneſs and deliberation. He came thither at nine o'clock in the morning, with the moſt cheerful countenance, ſaluting the members with the utmoſt affability and good humour. He complimented the biſhop of Ely on his early ſtrawberries, deſiring to have a diſh of them. He then left the council, as if called away by other buſineſs; but deſired that his abſence might not interrupt the debates. In about an hour he returned with a ſtern countenance, knitting his brows, biting his lips, and ſhewing ſome ſigns of inward perturbation. A profound ſilence enſued, and the lords looked upon each other, expecting ſome horrid cataſtrophe. At length he broke out: "My lords, what puniſhment do they deſerve who have conſpired againſt my life?" This queſtion redoubled the aſtoniſhment of the aſſembly; and, the ſilence continuing, lord Haſtings at length made anſwer, that whoever did ſo, deſerved to be puniſhed as a traitor. "Theſe traitors (cried the protector) are the ſorcereſs my brother's wife, and Jane Shore his miſtreſs, with their aſſociates. See to what a condition they have reduced me by their incantations and witchcrafts." Upon which he ſhewed his arm, all ſhrivelled and decayed; but which was known to have been a natural defect. The amazement of the council ſeemed to increaſe at this terrible accuſation; and lord Haſtings again ſaid: "If they have committed ſuch a crime, they deſerve puniſhment." "*If!* (cried the hypocrite with a loud voice) doſt thou anſwer me with ifs? I tell thee that they have conſpired my death; and that thou, traitor, art an accomplice in their crime!" He then violently ſtruck the table with his hand; and the room was inſtantly filled with guards. "I arreſt thee (continues he, turning to Haſtings,) for high treaſon;" and at the ſame time gave him in charge to the ſoldiers. In the mean time the council-room was

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filled with tumult and confuſion; and, though no reſcue was offered, yet the ſoldiers cauſed a buſtle, as if they apprehended danger. One of them narrowly miſſed cleaving lord Stanley's head with a battle-axe; but he fortunately eſcaped by ſhrinking under the table. However, though he eſcaped the blow, he was arreſted by the protector's order, who was well appriſed of his attachment to the young king. As for lord Haſtings, he was hurried out to the little green before the Tower chapel, and there beheaded on a log of wood that accidentally lay in the way. Two hours after, a proclamation very well drawn, was read to the citizens of London, enumerating his offences, and palliating the ſuddenneſs of his puniſhment. It was remarked, by a merchant among the auditors, that the proclamation was certainly drawn up by a ſpirit of prophecy.

The protector, having thus got rid of thoſe he moſt feared, was willing to pleaſe the populace, and manifeſt his own ſanctity and virtue, by puniſhing Jane Shore, the late king's miſtreſs. This unfortunate woman was an enemy too humble to excite his jealouſy; yet, as he had accuſed her of witchcraft, of which all the world ſaw ſhe was innocent, he thought proper to make her an example for thoſe faults of which ſhe was really guilty. Jane Shore had been formerly deluded from her huſband, who was a goldſmith in Lombard-ſtreet, and continued to live with the late king Edward, the moſt guiltleſs miſtreſs in his abandoned court. She was ever known to intercede for the diſtreſſed, and was uſually applied to as mediator for mercy. She was benevolent, generous, and of a moſt pleaſing converſation; her wit being as irreſiſtible as her beauty. As ſhe was blameleſs in other reſpects, the protector ordered her to be ſued for incontinency, as having left her huſband to live in adultery with another. It is very probable that the people were not diſpleaſed at ſeeing one humbled, who had for a while been raiſed above them, and enjoyed the ſmiles of a court. The charge againſt her was too notorious to be denied; ſhe pleaded guilty, and was accordingly condemned to walk bareſoot through the city, and to do penance in St. Paul's church in a white ſheet, with a wax-taper in her hand, before thouſands of ſpectators. She lived above forty years after this ſentence, reduced to the moſt extreme wretchedneſs; and ſir Thomas More, in the ſucceeding reign, aſſures us, that he ſaw her gathering herbs in a field near the city for her nightly repaſt; an extraordinary example of the fleeting favours of courts, and the reverſes of fortune.

The protector now began to throw off the maſk, and to deny his pretended attachment to the ſons of the late king, thinking it high time to aſpire at the throne more openly. He directed the duke of Buckingham, therefore, to infuſe into the people an opinion of the baſtardy of the late king, and alſo that of his children. Doctor Shaw, a popular preacher, was hired to harangue the audience from St. Paul's croſs to the ſame purpoſe; where, after having diſplayed the incontinence of the queen, and inſiſting on the illegality of the young king's title, he expatiated on the virtues of the protector. "It is the protector (cried he) who carries in his face the image of virtue, and the marks of a true deſcent. He alone can reſtore the loſt honour and glory of the nation." It was expected that ſome of the populace would have cried out, "Long live king Richard;" but the audience remaining ſilent, the duke of Buckingham undertook to perſuade them, in his turn. His ſpeech was copious upon the calamities of the laſt reign, and the baſtardy of the preſent race; he ſaw only one method of ſhielding off the miſeries that threatened the ſtate, which was, to elect the protector; but he ſeemed apprehenſive that he would never be prevailed on to accept of a crown, accompanied with ſuch difficulty and danger. He then aſked his auditors, whether they would have the protector for their king; but was mortified to find them ſtill ſilent. The mayor, Fitz-Williams, who was in the ſecret, willing to relieve him in this embarraſſment, obſerved, that the citizens were not accuſtomed to be harangued by a perſon of ſuch quality, and would only give an anſwer to their recorder. This officer then repeated the duke's ſpeech; but the people ſtill continuing mute, "This is ſtrange obſtinacy! (cried the duke) we only require of you, in plain terms, to declare, whether or not you will have the duke of Glouceſter for your king; as the lords and commons have ſufficient power without your concurrence?" After all theſe efforts, ſome of the meaneſt apprentices, incited by the protector's and Buckingham's ſervants, raiſing a feeble cry of, "God ſave king Richard!" a deſpicable mob repeated the cry, and, throwing up their caps, repeated, a Richard! a Richard!

The duke of Buckingham took advantage of this falſe and forced approbation; and the next day, at the head of the mayor and aldermen, he waited upon the protector, at Baynard's caſtle, with offers of the crown. When Richard was told that a great multitude was waiting at the door, he, with his uſual hypocriſy, appeared to the crowd in a gallery between two biſhops, and at firſt ſeemed quite ſurpriſed at ſuch a concourſe of people. But when he was informed that their buſineſs was to offer him the crown, he declared againſt accepting it; alleging his love for the late king his brother, his affection for the children under his care, and his own inſufficiency. Buckingham, pretending to be diſpleaſed with this anſwer, muttered out, "That it was needleſs to refuſe, for the people were bent on making him king; that they had now proceeded too far to recede; and therefore, in caſe of his refuſal, were determined to offer the crown where it would meet a more ready acceptance." This was a reſource to which the protector's tenderneſs for his people would not ſuffer them to be driven. "I perceive (cried he, in a modeſt tone,) that the kingdom is reſolved to load me with preferments, unequal to my abilities or my choice; yet, ſince it is my duty to obey the dictates of a free people, I will, though reluctantly, accept their petition. I, therefore, from this moment, enter upon the government of England and France, with a reſolution to defend the one, and ſubdue the other." The crowd being thus diſmiſſed, each man returned home, pondering upon the extraordinary proceedings of the day; and making ſuch remarks as paſſion, intereſt, or party, might ſuggeſt.

Richard III. was no ſooner ſeated upon the throne, A. D. 1483, than he ſent the governor of the Tower orders to put the two young princes to death; but this conſcientious man, whoſe name was Brackenbury, refuſed to be made the inſtrument of the tyrant's will; and anſwered, that he knew not how to embrue his hands in innocent blood. A fit ſubſtitute, however, was not long wanted; ſir James Tyrrel readily undertook the office, and Brackenbury was ordered to reſign to him the keys for only one night. Tyrrel chooſing three aſſociates, Slater, Dighton, and Foreſt, came in the dead of night to the door of the chamber where the princes were lodged; and, ſending in the aſſaſſins, he bid them execute their commiſſion, while he ſtaid without. They found the young princes in bed, and fallen into a ſound ſleep; after ſuffocating them with the bolſter and pillows, they ſhewed their naked bodies to Tyrrel; who ordered them to be buried at the ſtair-foot, deep in the ground, under an heap of ſtones. Theſe facts appeared in the ſucceeding reign, being confeſſed by the perpetrators; who, however, eſcaped puniſhment for the crime. The bodies of the princes were afterwards ſought for by Henry VII. but could not be found; however, in the reign of Charles II. the bones of two children, anſwering their age, were diſcovered in the very ſpot where it was ſaid they were buried; and they were interred in a marble monument, by order of the king, in Weſtminſter abbey.

Richard having waded through every obſtacle to the throne, began, after the manner of all uſurpers, to ſtrengthen his ill-got power by foreign connections. Senſible alſo of the influence of pageantry and ſhow upon the minds of the vulgar, he cauſed himſelf, and his conſort Anne Nevile,

vile, to be crowned firſt at London, and afterwards at York. The clergy he gained over by great indulgencies; and his friends were ſecured by beſtowing rewards on them, in proportion as they were inſtrumental in placing him on the throne. Yet he found his peace and ſafety threatened from a quarter where he leaſt expected. The inſatiable duke of Buckingham, though he had received the greateſt rewards for his infamous conduct, yet coveted more. He made a demand of the confiſcated eſtates in Herefordſhire, to which his family had an ancient claim; but Richard either reluctantly complied with his requeſt, or but partially indulged it, ſo that a coolneſs enſued; and, no ſooner had Buckingham ſuppoſed himſelf injured, than he reſolved to pull down a monarch, whom he had ſo lately been the wicked inſtrument of ſetting up. At firſt he was in doubt, whether he ſhould claim the crown for himſelf, or propoſe it for another; but, the latter reſolution prevailing, he determined to declare for Henry earl of Richmond, who was detained in a kind of honourable cuſtody by the duke of Bretagne. He was one of thoſe who had the good fortune to eſcape the numerous maſſacres of the preceding reigns; but, as he was a deſcendant of John of Gaunt, and the only ſurviving branch of the houſe of Lancaſter, by the female line, his preſence was conſidered dangerous, and he was for that reaſon obnoxious to thoſe in power. He had long lived in exile; and was, at one time, delivered up to the ambaſſadors of Edward, who were preparing to carry him over to England, when the prince, who delivered him, repented of what he had done, and took him from the ambaſſadors juſt as they were leading him on ſhip-board. This was the youth on whom the duke of Buckingham now caſt his eye to ſucceed to the crown; and a negociation was begun between them for that purpoſe. Henry's hereditary right to the throne was in ſome meaſure doubtful; but the crimes of the uſurper ſerved to ſtrengthen his claims. However, ſtill further to improve his title, a marriage was projected between him and the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of the late king; and the queen-dowager was prevailed on heartily to accede to the meaſure.

Richard, in the mean time, either informed by his creatures, or become diſtruſtful by conſcious guilt, began to ſuſpect Buckingham's fidelity; and the ſecret informations which he daily received, left him no room to doubt of the truth of his ſuſpicions. Impreſſed with this jealouſy, he formed a reſolution of ſending for him to court; and the duke's refuſing to obey the ſummons, confirmed him in his ſuſpicion. But he ſoon had evident proof of Buckingham's enmity, intelligence arriving that this nobleman was at the head of a large body of men in arms, and marching towards the weſtern ſhore. Richard, whoſe courage no danger could allay, immediately levied ſome troops in the north, and prepared to meet the inſurgents with his uſual intrepidity. But fortune ſeemed his friend, and rendered his preſent preparations unneceſſary. As Buckingham was advancing by haſty marches towards Glouceſter, where he deſigned to croſs the Severn, he found that river ſwoln to ſuch a degree, that the country on both ſides was deluged, and the inundation continued for ten days; during which, Buckingham's army, compoſed of Welſhmen, could neither paſs the river, nor find ſubſiſtence on their own ſide; they were therefore obliged to diſperſe, notwithſtanding all the duke's efforts to prolong their ſtay. In this helpleſs ſituation, the duke, after a ſhort deliberation, took refuge at the houſe of one Baniſter, who had been his ſervant, and who had received repeated obligations from his family. But the wicked ſeldom find, as they ſeldom deſerve, friendſhip. Baniſter, unable to reſiſt the temptation of a large reward that was ſet upon the duke's head, betrayed him to the ſheriff of Shropſhire, who, ſurrounding the houſe with armed men, ſeized the duke, in the habit of a peaſant, and conducted him to Saliſbury, where he was inſtantly tried, condemned, and executed.

In the mean time the earl of Richmond landed in England; but finding his hopes fruſtrated by the failure of Buckingham, he haſtily ſet ſail again, and returned to Bretagne. Thus every coincidence ſeemed to promiſe Richard a long poſſeſſion of the crown; however, the authority of parliament was ſtill wanting to give ſanction to the injuſtice of his proceedings; but in thoſe times of ignorance and guilt that was eaſily procured. An act was paſſed, confirming the illegitimacy of Edward's children; an act of attainder alſo was confirmed againſt Henry earl of Richmond; and all the uſurper's wiſhes ſeemed to be the aim of their deliberations. One thing only was wanting to complete Richard's ſecurity, which was the death of his rival; to effect this, he ſent ambaſſadors to the duke of Bretagne, ſeemingly upon buſineſs of a public nature; but, in reality, to treat with Landois, that prince's miniſter, to deliver up Richmond. The miniſter was baſe enough to enter into the negociation; but Richmond, having had timely notice, fled into France, and juſt reached the confines of that kingdom, when he found that he was purſued by the ungenerous Landois.

Richard, thus finding his inſidious attempts abortive, became every day more cruel, as his power grew more precarious. Among thoſe who chiefly excited his jealouſy, was lord Stanley, who was married to the widow of Edward; and to keep him ſtedfaſt in obedience, he took his ſon as an hoſtage for the father's behaviour. He now alſo reſolved to get rid of his queen, Anne Nevile, to make room for a match with his niece, the princeſs Elizabeth, by whoſe alliance he hoped to ſtrengthen his claims to the throne. The lady whom he deſired to get rid of, was the youngeſt daughter of the great earl of Warwick, and widow of the young prince of Wales, whom Richard, when duke of Glouceſter, had murdered with his own hands at Tewkeſbury; and it is no ſlight indication of the barbarity of the times, that the widow ſhould accept for her ſecond lord the murderer of her former huſband. But ſhe was now rewarded for her former indecorous conduct: Richard treated her with ſo much inhumanity and neglect, that ſhe died with grief. However, his amorous deſires were not crowned with ſucceſs in his applications to Elizabeth; the queen-mother, indeed, was eager for the inceſtuous match; but the princeſs herſelf treated his addreſſes with contempt and deriſion.

At the moment when Richard had to endure the mortification of a refuſal from a princeſs, who with ſo baſe a conſort had courage and virtue to refuſe a crown, he received information that the earl of Richmond had ſailed from Harfleur, and was arrived at Milford-Haven, in Pembrokeſhire, where he had landed without oppoſition. Upon this alarming news, Richard inſtantly reſolved to meet his antagoniſt, and decide their mutual claims by a pitched battle. Richmond, being reinforced by ſir Thomas Bourchier, ſir Walter Hungerford, and others, to the number of about ſix thouſand, boldly advanced with the ſame intention; and, in a few days, both armies drew up in Boſworth field to determine a conteſt that had for more than forty years filled the kingdom with civil commotions, and deluged its plains with blood. The army of Richard was more than double that of Henry; but the chief confidence of the latter lay in the friendſhip and ſecret aſſurances of lord Stanley, who, with a body of ſeven thouſand men, hovered near the field of battle, but joining neither ſide.

Richard perceiving his enemy advance, judiciouſly drew up his army, conſiſting of about thirteen thouſand men; he gave the command of the van-guard to the duke of Norfolk, while he led the main body himſelf, with the crown on his head, deſigning by this diſtinction either to impreſs the enemy with awe, or to render himſelf conſpicuous to his own army. The van of Richmond's army, conſiſting of archers, was commanded by John earl Oxford; ſir Gilbert Talbot led the right wing, ſir John Savage the left; while the earl himſelf, accompanied by his

his uncle, the earl of Pembroke, placed himſelf in the main body. Lord Stanley, in the mean time, poſted himſelf on one flank, between the two armies, while his brother took his ſtation on the other, which was oppoſite. Richard ſeeing him thus in a ſituation equally convenient for joining either army, ſent him orders to unite himſelf to the main body, which the other refuſing, he gave inſtant orders for beheading lord Stanley's ſon, whom he ſtill kept as an hoſtage. He was perſuaded, however, to poſtpone the execution till after the fight; and attending to the more important tranſactions of the moment, he directed the trumpets to ſound for the charge. The two armies approaching each other, the battle began with a ſhower of arrows, and ſoon the adverſe fronts were ſeen cloſing. This was the critical moment for which lord Stanley had been waiting, who now joined the earl of Richmond, and thus turned the fortune of the day. This meaſure, ſo unexpected to the men, though not to their leaders, had a proportioned effect on both armies; it inſpired invincible courage into Henry's ſoldiers, and threw Richard's into confuſion. The enraged tyrant, perceiving the danger of his ſituation, ſpurred his horſe into the thickeſt of the fight, while Richmond quitted his ſtation in the rear, to encourage his troops by his preſence in the front. Richard perceiving him, was deſirous of ending all by one blow; and with irreſiſtible fury preſſed through the ranks to attack him. He ſlew ſir William Brandon, the earl's ſtandard bearer, who attempted to ſtop his career. Sir John Cheyne having taken Brandon's place, was inſtantly thrown to the ground. Richmond in the mean time, came forward to oppoſe him; but they were ſeparated by the interpoſing crowd. Richard, thus diſappointed, and perceiving his army every where yielding or flying, ruſhed with impetuoſity into the midſt of the enemy, and there met a better death than his crimes and cruelties deſerved. After the battle, which was fought on Monday Auguſt 23, 1485, his body was found ſtripped, among a heap of ſlain, covered with wounds, and the eyes frightfully ſtaring; an evident proof that he died in extreme agony. The corpſe was thrown acroſs a horſe, and carried to Leiceſter. It lay there two days expoſed to public view, and was then buried without ſtate or ceremony, in the church of the Grey friars. Richard's crown being found by one of Henry's ſoldiers on the field of battle, it was immediately placed upon the head of the conqueror; while the whole army cried out, "Long live king Henry!"

Thus ended the bloody reign of Richard; and, by his death, the race of the Plantagenet kings, who had been in poſſeſſion of the crown during the ſpace of three hundred and thirty years, became extinct. Thus ended alſo the conteſts between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, by which moſt of the ancient families of the kingdom were extinguiſhed, and more than an hundred thouſand men prematurely loſt their lives, either by the ſword or the executioner.

Richard III. was the moſt abandoned tyrant, that ever waded through ſlaughter to a throne. He ſeems to have been an utter ſtranger to the tender emotions of the human heart, and entirely deſtitute of every ſocial feeling. His ruling paſſion was ambition; for the gratification of which he trampled upon every law, both human and divine; but this thirſt of dominion was unattended with the leaſt work of generoſity, or any deſire of rendering himſelf agreeable to his fellow-creatures: it was the ambition of a ſavage, not of a prince; for he was a ſolitary king, altogether detached from the reſt of mankind, and incapable of that amelioration of the heart, which reſults from private friendſhip and philanthropy. He was dark, ſilent, and reſerved, and ſo much maſter of diſſimulation, that it was impoſſible to dive into his real ſentiments, when he either wiſhed to take an advantage, or conceal his deſign. If he had been a prince unſtained with blood, he would have been the only one of his houſe, who lived to a mature age, exempt from that defilement; his enemies allow, however, that his judgment was ſound and penetrating, and his courage undaunted. To heighten the common deteſtation of this prince, writers have deſcribed him as a crooked, hump-backed, withered, monſter, who remained two years in his mother's womb, and, at laſt, was born with teeth, and hair reaching down to his ſhoulders, to intimate how careful Providence was, when it formed a tyrant, to give timely warning of what was to be expected! "Yet theſe portents," ſays Mr. Walpole, "were far from prognoſticating a tyrant; becauſe other tyrants have been born without theſe prognoſtics. The truth appears to be, that Richard, who was not the moſt elegantly formed, had the right ſhoulder higher than the left; a defect eaſily ſwelled by the magnifying glaſs of party, the diſtance of time, and the amplification of tradition, into the utmoſt deformity. Philip de Comines, his cotemporary, mentions the beauty of Edward IV. but ſays nothing of the deformity of his brother Richard; and the counteſs de Deſmonde, who had danced with Richard, declares he was the handſomeſt man in the room except his brother Edward; and John Rous the antiquary of Warwickſhire, who ſaw Richard at Warwick, deſcribing his perſon, mentions no other defect than the inequality of his ſhoulders, and the harſhneſs of his features. Indeed the vigour and activity with which he exerted himſelf in battle, are an evident proof of his being poſſeſſed of that bodily ſtrength which can never be enjoyed by perſons much deformed.

Richard was thirty-two years of age when he died; and had reigned two years and two months. His death terminated the conteſt between what was called *the two roſes*, which had not only depopulated the country, but had introduced a ſavage ferocity of manners, and preſented a wide ſcene of inhumanity, ſlaughter, and deſolation, throughout the kingdom.

From the ACCESSION of the HOUSE of TUDOR, to the UNION with SCOTLAND under JAMES I.

Henry VII. aſcended the throne of England A. D. 1485; under whoſe mild and auſpicious reign human wiſdom, as if rouſed from a lethargy of thirteen hundred years, began to exert her utmoſt efforts to ſubdue the natural ferocity of the nation, and to introduce the arts of peace, and a more enlightened juriſprudence. His title came through Catharine, queen of Henry V. by a ſecond marriage with Owen Tudor, a Welſh prince, by whom ſhe had Edmund Tudor earl of Richmond, who married Margaret, only daughter of John Beaufort duke of Somerſet, grandſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter; the iſſue of which marriage was Henry earl of Richmond, who now aſcended the throne. Henry's firſt care, after his acceſſion, was to marry the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. and thus he united the intereſts of the two houſes of York and Lancaſter, ſo that ever after they were inſeparable. Nevertheleſs, being apprehenſive that the people might ſuppoſe he claimed the crown in right of this union, he deferred the queen's coronation till two years after, by which he made the priority of his own claim inconteſtable. His reign alſo happily commenced with an obedience to the forms of law, of which England had hitherto ſeen but few examples. An act had been paſſed in the preceding reign for the attainder of his friends and followers, which continued ſtill in force; and the names of many members of that houſe, by which it was to be repealed, were expreſsly mentioned in the attainder. To ſuffer theſe to join in repealing that ſtatute, would be admitting them as judges in their own cauſe; but to this Henry prudently objected, obliging them to leave the houſe, till an act was paſſed for reverſing their attainder.

Before this reign, it had been uſual, when any perſon was attainted and executed, for the king to give away his eſtates to any of the court favourites that happened to be moſt in confidence. Henry wiſely perceived that

that this cuſtom was attended with two bad effects: the cruelty of the meaſure in the firſt place excited indignation; and it alſo made the favourite too powerful for a ſubject. In order to remedy theſe inconveniences, he made a law to deprive thoſe who were found in arms of their eſtates and effects, but which ſhould ever after eſcheat to the crown. Much of the miſery of his predeceſſors had proceeded from their poverty, which was generally occaſioned by riot and diſſipation. Henry ſaw that money alone could turn the ſcale of power in his favour; and therefore hoarded up all the confiſcations of his enemies with the utmoſt frugality. From hence he has been accuſed by many hiſtorians of avarice; but that avarice which tends to ſtrengthen the hands of government, and repreſs ſedition, is not only excuſable, but praiſeworthy. Liberality in a king is too often a miſplaced virtue. What is thus given is commonly extorted from the induſtrious and needy, to be laviſhed as rewards on the rich, the inſidious, and the fawning, ſycophants of a court. Henry ſhewed himſelf ſuperior to his predeceſſors in theſe reſpects, as he gave very few rewards to the courtiers about his perſon; and none, except the needy, ſhared his benefactions. He releaſed all priſoners for debt in his dominions, whoſe debts did not amount to forty ſhillings, and paid their creditors from the royal coffers. Thus his act of inſolvency was founded in juſtice; and his economy rendered him not only a protector of the poor, but enabled him to fulfil every pecuniary engagement with honour and punctuality, both abroad and at home. With regard to the king's ſervants, he was himſelf the only acting miniſter; and he did not chooſe his under agents from among the nobility, as had been uſual, but pitched upon John Morton, and Richard Fox, two clergymen, perſons of induſtry, vigilance, and capacity, to whom he chiefly confided his ſecret councils. They had ſhared with him in all his former dangers and adverſity; and he now took care that they ſhould participate in his good fortune; the one being created biſhop of Ely, the other biſhop of Exeter.

Immediately after his marriage with Elizabeth, he iſſued a general pardon to all who had been in rebellion; but thoſe haughty barons who had been the favourites of the laſt reign, and long accuſtomed to turbulence, refuſed his proffered lenity, and flew to arms. Lord Lovel, with Humphrey and Thomas Stafford, placed themſelves at the head of this inſurrection; but Henry ſent the duke of Bedford to oppoſe them, with orders to try what might be firſt done by offering them pardon. The duke obeyed his inſtructions; and this humane and generous endeavour to ſpare the effuſion of human blood had ſuch an effect upon the army, that it immediately diſperſed. Lovel made his eſcape into Flanders, where he was protected by the ducheſs of Burgundy; and the two Staffords took ſanctuary in the church at Colnham, near Abingdon; but it appearing that this church had not the privilege of giving protection, they were taken thence; the eldeſt Stafford was executed at Tyburn; the younger, pleading that he was miſled by his brother, obtained his pardon. Yet, after all, the diſaffected were become ſo turbulent and factious by a long courſe of civil war, that neither law nor lenity could reſtrain them; ſo that one rebellion ſeemed extinguiſhed only to give birth to another. The king, in the beginning of his reign, had given orders that the ſon of that duke of Clarence who had been drowned in a butt of malmſey, ſhould be liberated from the priſon where he had been confined by the bloody Richard, and brought to the Tower. This unfortunate youth, who was ſtyled the earl of Warwick, was, by long confinement, totally unacquainted with the world; and though perfectly harmleſs and inoffenſive, was made an inſtrument to delude the people. There lived in Oxford a prieſt named Richard Simon, who, poſſeſſing ſome ſubtlety, and more raſhneſs, trained up a daring youth named Lambert Simnel, a baker's ſon, to counterfeit the perſon of the earl of Warwick; and he was previouſly inſtructed to talk upon many facts and occurrences, as having happened to him in the court of Edward. The plot unfolded to their wiſhes; and Henry had the mortification to find that his mother-in-law, the queen-dowager, was at the bottom of it.

It was in Ireland where the ſcene was firſt opened; that country had been governed by Clarence, and was ſtill attached to his memory; and no ſooner did the wily prieſt preſent Simnel to the earl of Kildare, and claim his protection as the unfortunate Warwick, than that credulous nobleman acknowledged him; while the city of Dublin followed the example of the earl, and tendered its allegiance to Simnel as the true Plantagenet; and he was crowned with great ſolemnity by the chancellor of Ireland. Henry, perplexed at the news of this revolt, firſt ſeized the queen-dowager, and impriſoned her in the nunnery of Bermondſey, where ſhe ended her life in poverty and ſolitude. He next ſhewed the young earl of Warwick through the ſtreets of London; but though this had its effect in England, it convinced not the people of Ireland, who reproached Henry with having ſhewn a counterfeit perſonage. The conſpiracy ſoon extending, it was entered into by the earl of Lincoln, ſon of the duke of Suffolk by Elizabeth, eldeſt ſiſter of Edward IV. a nobleman of courage and ambition. Having eſtabliſhed a correſpondence in Lancaſhire, he had returned to Flanders, where Lovel had arrived before him; and he lived in the court of his aunt, the ducheſs of Burgundy. That princeſs, the widow of Charles the Bold, had acquired great authority among the Flemings, and hearing with indignation of the malignant jealouſy entertained by Henry againſt her family, ſhe was determined to make him repent of that enmity, to which ſo many of her friends had fallen victims. After conſulting with Lincoln and Lovel, ſhe hired a body of two thouſand mercenary Germans, under the command of Martin Swart, a brave and experienced officer; and ſent them over, together with theſe two noblemen, to join Simnel in Ireland. The countenance given by perſons of ſuch high rank, and the acceſſion of this military force, raiſed much higher the rebellious diſpoſition of the Iriſh; whence they came to a reſolution of invading England, as well for the ſake of plunder, as of revenge for pretended injuries.

Henry, apprized of their deſign, prepared for a timely defence. He ordered troops to be levied in different parts of the kingdom, and put them under the command of the duke of Bedford and the earl of Oxford. And, to gratify the people by an appearance of devotion, he made a pilgrimage to our lady of Walſingham; and there offered up prayers for ſucceſs, and for deliverance from his enemies. Being informed that Simnel was landed at Foudrey in Lancaſhire, he drew together his forces, and advanced towards the enemy as far as Coventry. The rebels had entertained hopes that the diſaffected in the north would riſe in their favour; but the people in general, convinced of Lambert's impoſture, and kept in awe by the king's reputation for courage and conduct, either remained in tranquillity, or gave their aſſiſtance to the royal army. The earl of Lincoln, therefore, who commanded the rebels, finding no hopes but in victory, was determined to bring the matter to a ſpeedy deciſion; and the king, ſupported by the native courage of his temper, and emboldened by a great acceſſion of volunteers, declined not the conflict. The hoſtile armies met at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham, A. D. 1488, and a bloody and obſtinate battle enſued. The leaders of the rebels were reſolved to conquer or to periſh; and they inſpired their troops with like reſolution. The Germans alſo, being experienced ſoldiers, kept the event long in ſuſpence; and even the Iriſh, though ill-armed and almoſt defenceleſs, ſhewed themſelves not defective in ſpirit and bravery. The king's victory, though purchaſed with loſs, was entirely deciſive. Lincoln, Broughton, and Swart, periſhed in the field of battle, with four thouſand of their followers, and as Lovel was never more heard of,

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he was believed to have undergone the ſame fate. But on the authority of the late Mr. Thomas Warton, poet-laureat, ſome light ſeems to have been recently thrown on the fate of this diſtinguiſhed nobleman. The walls of his once magnificent ſeat at Minſter Lovel, Oxfordſhire, of which ſome ſmall ruins ſtill remain, being pulled down for the ſake of the materials, early in the eighteenth century, a ſecret chamber was diſcovered with a trap-door, and in it a ſkeleton of a perſon in complete armour was found. From hence it was ſuppoſed, and on probable grounds, that this was the body of lord Lovel, who, after eſcaping from the battle of Stoke, took refuge in this place, and from ſome cauſe, not now to be accounted for, was left to periſh in his concealment. Simnel, and his tutor Simon, were taken priſoners. Simon, being a prieſt, was only committed to cloſe cuſtody; and Simnel, as being too contemptible to be an object either of apprehenſion or reſentment, was pardoned, and made a ſcullion in the king's kitchen; whence he was afterwards advanced to the rank of king's falconer, in which employment he died. Thus ended an inſurrection, which, under a leſs judicious monarch, might have been very dangerous. Henry now returned to London in triumph from the north, and paid a viſit to his queen at Wincheſter, who was there prematurely delivered of a ſon, September 20, 1486. The young prince was named Arthur, in honour of the renowned Britiſh prince of that name, from whom the king derived his deſcent, by his grandfather, Owen Tudor.

The proſperous ſituation of Henry's domeſtic affairs now afforded him leiſure to obſerve the ſituation of the neighbouring nations. The throne of Scotland was filled by James III. a prince of little induſtry and narrow genius. Spain, by the union of Caſtille and Arragon, in the perſons of Ferdinand and Iſabella, and by the conqueſt of Granada from the Moors, began to make a great figure in the tranſactions of Europe. France, during the two preceding reigns, had attained a mighty increaſe of power and dominion; moſt of the great fiefs, Normandy, Champagne, Anjou, Dauphiny, Guienne, Provence, and Burgundy, had been united to the crown; and during the minority of Charles VIII. Anne, lady of Beaujeu, who, as his ſiſter, had obtained the regency, formed the project of acquiring Brittany, the laſt independent fief of the monarchy. The reigning duke was of ſlender capacity; and by abandoning himſelf to the counſels of Peter Landais, a man of mean birth, had diſguſted his nobles. They had ſeized the obnoxious miniſter, and had put him to death; and their apprehenſions of the reſentment of their prince, induced them to invite the court of France to an invaſion of their country.

The French people ſeldom required much importunity to ſeize ſuch an advantage: they preſently over-ran Brittany; and the duke of that province was obliged to ſeek ſhelter in Nantz. He in vain implored the aſſiſtance of England, and reminded Henry of the protection he had granted him in his diſtreſs. That monarch was not ignorant of what an important acquiſition Brittany would be to France; but he was averſe to the expence and hazard of a continental war; and he flattered himſelf ſome unforeſeen event would ariſe to defeat the deſigns of the French. But while he reſted in this expectation, he received the unwelcome intelligence that the Bretons had been defeated in a deciſive action; and that many perſons of high rank were made priſoners. The death of the duke, which followed ſoon after, threw affairs into ſtill greater confuſion; and Henry now ſeemed determined to act with vigour. An inſurrection which had been excited in the north on account of ſome new tax, had been quelled by the earl of Surrey, whom the king had reſtored to liberty, and had taken into favour; and, no longer alarmed by domeſtic enemies, he diſpatched lord Broke with ſix thouſand men to the defence of Brittany: but though the Engliſh and the Bretons were for ſome time maſters of the field, affairs were in ſuch confuſion, that the general was obliged to re-embark his troops for England.

Mean while, Anne ducheſs of Brittany, preſſed on every ſide, had conſented to eſpouſe Maximilian king of the Romans, and the ceremony was performed by proxy. Yet this did not prevent the lady of Beaujeu from entertaining the proſpect of obtaining her hand for Charles VIII, and though the affections of Anne were fixed on Maximilian, and ſhe was ſtrongly prejudiced againſt Charles, as the author of all the calamities which had befallen her family, ſuch was the diſtreſs to which ſhe was reduced, that ſhe was compelled to ſubmit, and was married at Langay, in Touraine, to the king of France. The rage of Maximilian at this event was unbounded; and even Henry had never more reaſon to reproach himſelf with miſconduct. He immediately declared his reſolution to invade France; and under that exigency he iſſued a commiſſion for levying a *benevolence* on his people; though a ſpecies of taxation which had been aboliſhed. Archbiſhop Morton, the chancellor, inſtructed the commiſſioners to employ a dilemma, in which every one might be comprehended: if the perſons applied to lived frugally, they were told that their parſimony muſt neceſſarily have enriched them; if their method of living was ſplendid and hoſpitable, they were concluded to be opulent on account of their expences. This device was by ſome called chancellor Morton's fork, by others his crutch. Both the parliament and the nobles readily countenanced the invaſion: the former granted him two fifteenths; the latter collected their vaſſals to attend him. On the 6th of October, 1492, the king arrived at Calais with an army of twenty-five thouſand foot, and ſixteen hundred horſe, and laid ſiege to Bullogne; but it was ſoon apparent that he had no ſerious intention of puſhing on the war to ſuch extremities as he pretended, and a negociation was opened between him and Charles. The latter anxious to ſecure Brittany, and eager to invade Italy, conſented to pay Henry ſeven hundred and forty-five thouſand crowns, and ſtipulated a yearly penſion to him and his heirs of twenty-five thouſand crowns. Thus the king, as remarked by his hiſtorian, made profit upon his ſubjects for the war, and upon his enemies for the peace.

Circumſtances now ſeemed to leave Henry in poſſeſſion of durable tranquillity; but his inveterate enemies ſoon raiſed him an adverſary, who long kept him in diſquietude. The ducheſs of Burgundy, full of reſentment for the depreſſion of her family, had propagated a report that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet duke of York, had eſcaped from the tower of London, and was ſtill alive; and ſhe had been looking out for ſome young man proper to perſonate that prince. Warbeck, a renegado Jew of Tournay, who had viſited London in the reign of Edward IV. having had opportunities of being known to the king, and obtaining his favour, he prevailed with that prince, whoſe manners were very affable, to ſtand godfather to a ſon, born in this country, to whom he gave the name of Peter, corrupted, after the Flemiſh manner, into Peterkin or Perkin. It was by ſome believed that Edward, among his amorous adventures, had a ſecret commerce with Warbeck's wife, and people thence accounted for that ſuppoſed reſemblance, which was afterwards remarked between young Perkin and that monarch. Some years after the birth of this child, Warbeck returned to Tournay, whence Perkin his ſon, by different accidents, was carried from place to place, and his birth and fortune became thereby unknown, or difficult to be traced. The variety of his adventures had much favoured the natural verſatility and ſagacity of his genius; and he ſeemed to be a youth perfectly fitted to act any part, or aſſume any character. In this light he had been repreſented to the ducheſs of Burgundy; who, ſtruck with the concurrence of ſo many circumſtances ſuited to her purpoſes, deſired to be made acquainted with him. She found him to exceed her moſt ſanguine expectations;

ſo comely did he appear in his perſon, ſo graceful in his air, ſo courtly in his addreſs, ſo full of docility and good ſenſe in his behaviour and converſation. The leſſons neceſſary to be taught him, in order to his perſonating the duke of York, were ſoon learned by a youth of ſuch quick apprehenſion; but as the ſeaſon ſeemed not then favourable for the enterpriſe, Margaret, in order the better to conceal him, ſent him, under the care of lady Brampton, into Portugal, where he remained a year, in perfect ſecrecy.

The war which was then ready to break out between France and England, ſeemed to afford a proper opportunity for launching this impoſtor; and Ireland, which ſtill retained its attachment to the houſe of York, was choſen as the theatre for his firſt appearance. He landed at Cork, and immediately aſſuming the name of Richard Plantagenet, drew to him numerous partiſans among that credulous people. He wrote letters to the earls of Deſmond and Kildare, inviting them to join his party; and diſperſed every where the ſtrange intelligence of his eſcape from the cruelty of his uncle Richard; while men, fond of every thing new and marvellous, began to make him the general ſubject of their diſcourſe, and even the object of their regard. The news ſoon reached France; and Charles, prompted by the ſolicitations of the ducheſs of Burgundy, ſent Perkin an invitation to repair to him at Paris. He received him with all the marks of regard due to the duke of York, ſettled on him a handſome penſion, aſſigned him magnificent lodgings, and gave him a guard to attend his perſon. The French courtiers readily embraced a fiction, which their ſovereign thought it his intereſt to adopt; and Perkin, both by his deportment and perſonal qualities, was well qualified to ſupport the prepoſſeſſion which was ſpread abroad of his royal pedigree. From France, the admiration and credulity diffuſed themſelves over England: ſir George Nevile, ſir John Taylor, and above a hundred gentlemen more, went to Paris to offer their ſervices to the ſuppoſed duke of York, and to ſhare his fortunes; and the impoſtor, having now the appearance of a court attending him, began really to fancy himſelf the character he aſſumed.

Henry had now the ſuperior policy to conclude a peace with France; and Charles, in conſequence, conſented to diſmiſs Perkin, who found refuge with the ducheſs of Burgundy. That princeſs affected to put on the appearance of diſguſt, and it was not till after a long and ſevere ſcrutiny, that ſhe pretended to burſt out into joy and admiration, and embraced Perkin as the true image of Edward, and the ſole heir of the Plantagenets. Numbers of the Engliſh favoured the impoſture; among the reſt, ſir Robert Clifford and ſir William Stanley. The king, informed of theſe particulars, proceeded deliberately, in counterworking the projects of his enemies. His firſt object was to aſcertain the death of the real duke of York, and to confirm the opinion that had always prevailed with regard to that cataſtrophe. Five perſons had been employed by Richard, in the murder of his nephews, or could give evidence with regard to it; but as only two of them were now alive, and as the bodies were ſuppoſed to have been removed, by Richard's orders, from the place where they were firſt interred, and could not now be found, it was not in Henry's power to eſtabliſh the fact beyond all doubt and controverſy. He was, however, more ſucceſsful in detecting who this wonderful perſon was, who now advanced pretenſions to his crown. He engaged Clifford, who had been admitted into the ſecret, by the hopes of rewards and pardon, to betray the ſecret; and ſuch was the diligence of his ſpies, that in the iſſue the whole plan of the conſpiracy was clearly laid before him, with the pedigree, adventures, life, and converſation, of the pretended duke of York; and the latter part of the ſtory was immediately publiſhed for the ſatisfaction and aſtoniſhment of the credulous nation.

Several of the conſpirators were immediately arreſted. Some of inferior note were rapidly arraigned, convicted, and executed; but more ſolemnity was neceſſary in the proceeding againſt ſir William Stanley, one of the moſt opulent ſubjects in the kingdom. After ſix weeks delay, which was interpoſed, in order to ſhew that the king was reſtrained by doubts and ſcruples, the priſoner was brought to his trial, condemned, and beheaded. The fate of Stanley ſtruck the adherents of Perkin with the deepeſt diſmay; yet the impoſtor reſolved to attempt ſomething which might revive the hopes and expectation of his partizans. Having collected a band of outlaws, pirates, robbers, and deſperadoes, of all nations, to the number of ſix hundred men, he put to ſea, with a reſolution of making a deſcent in England. Information being brought him that the king had made a progreſs to the north, he caſt anchor on the coaſt of Kent, and ſent ſome of his retainers aſhore, who invited the country to join him. The gentlemen of Kent aſſembled ſome troops to oppoſe him; but they purpoſed to do more eſſential ſervice, than by repelling the invaſion: they carried the ſemblance of friendſhip to Perkin, and invited him to come himſelf aſhore, in order to take the command over them. But the wary youth, obſerving that they had more order and regularity in their movements than could be ſuppoſed in new levied forces who had taken arms againſt eſtabliſhed authority, refuſed to entruſt himſelf into their hands; and the Kentiſh men, deſpairing of ſucceſs in their ſtratagem, fell upon ſuch of his retainers as were already landed; and killing ſome, took a hundred and fifty priſoners, who were tried, condemned, and executed, by orders from the king.

In Ireland, the king's authority appeared equally effective and uncontrolled. Sir Edward Poynings, who had been ſent over to that country, with an intention of quelling the partizans of the houſe of York, and of reducing the natives to ſubjection, having ſummoned a parliament to Dublin, he then obtained the memorable ſtatute, which ſtill bears his name, and which eſtabliſhed the paramount authority of the Engliſh government over Ireland. By this ſtatute all the former laws of England were made to be in force in Ireland; and in future no bill could be introduced into the Iriſh parliament, unleſs it had previouſly received the ſanction of the council of England. By the late act of union, theſe regulations, which were often the object of jealouſy and contention, are happily rendered obſolete.

After the retreat of Perkin from the coaſt of Kent, he ſought ſhelter in Ireland; but tired of the wandering life he was compelled to lead in that country, he paſſed over to Scotland, where he was well received by James IV. and obtained in marriage the lady Catharine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntley. The jealouſy which then ſubſiſted between the courts of England and Scotland, induced the latter to arm in his behalf; but James was ſoon convinced that the Engliſh would never receive a prince from neighbours whom they hated; and perceived that Perkin's pretenſions were become obſolete, even in the eyes of the populace. To repel the threatening Scots, parliament had granted to Henry a ſubſidy of one hundred and twenty thouſand pounds, with two fifteenths; which heavy impoſition excited conſiderable oppoſition, particularly in Cornwall; where the people were inſtigated to reſiſtance by Michael Joſeph, of Bodmin, who, by thruſting himſelf forward on every occaſion, and being loudeſt in every complaint againſt the government, had acquired an authority among his townſmen. Thomas Flammoc too, a lawyer in the neighbourhood, encouraged the ſedition, by informing them that the tax was entirely illegal; that the northern nobility were bound by their tenures to defend the nation againſt the Scots; and that the Corniſhmen muſt deliver a petition to the king, ſeconded by ſuch a force as would give it authority.

Encouraged by theſe inflammatory ſpeeches, the multitude flocked together, and armed themſelves with axes, bills,

bills, bows, and ſuch weapons as were then in uſe. Flammoc and Joſeph were their leaders, who ſoon conducted the Corniſhmen through the county of Devon, and reached that of Somerſet. At Taunton, the rebels killed an officious commiſſioner of the ſubſidy; and when they reached Wells, they were joined by lord Audley, a nobleman popular in his diſtrict; but vain, ambitious, and reſtleſs in his temper. Proud of the countenance given them by ſo conſiderable a perſonage, they continued their march, breathing deſtruction to the king's miniſters and favourites, particularly to Morton, and ſir Reginald Bray, who were deemed the moſt active inſtruments of oppreſſions. Notwithſtanding their rage againſt the adminiſtration, as they met with no reſiſtance, they committed neither violence nor diſorder during their progreſs.

Henry, to oppoſe the Scots, had an army in readineſs; but though it was his uſual ſaying, "that he deſired but to ſee the rebels," it was not until he had ſelected all his forces, that he ventured to attack them. They had advanced to the very gates of London, and were formidable from their numbers and their valour; but being ill diſciplined, ignorant, and ill armed, were not a match for the regular troops. After a ſhort reſiſtance, they were broke and put to flight on Blackheath. Lord Audley, Flammoc, and Joſeph, their leaders, were taken and executed; but Henry, pitying the ignorance and ſimplicity of the multitude, to the eternal honour of the ſovereign power, diſmiſſed them without puniſhment. Meanwhile, the Scottiſh king had laid ſiege to the caſtle of Norham, in Northumberland; but on the appearance of the earl of Surrey, he abandoned the enterpriſe. A truce was afterwards concluded between the two crowns, and James perceiving that while Perkin remained in Scotland he ſhould never enjoy peace with Henry, privately deſired him to depart.

For ſome time after quitting Scotland, Perkin concealed himſelf in the wilds and faſtneſſes of Ireland. Impatient, however, of this kind of fugitive life, he held conſultations with his followers, Herne, Skelton, and Aſtley, three broken tradeſmen; and by their advice he reſolved to try the affections of the Corniſh people, whoſe mutinous diſpoſition, notwithſtanding the king's lenity, ſtill ſubſiſted. No ſooner did he appear at Bodmin, than the populace, to the number of three thouſand, flocked to his ſtandard; and Perkin, elated with this appearance of ſucceſs, took on him, for the firſt time, the appellation of Richard IV. king of England. Not to ſuffer the expectations of his followers to languiſh, he preſented himſelf before Exeter; and, finding that the inhabitants ſhut their gates againſt him, he laid ſiege to the place; but being unprovided with artillery, ammunition, and every thing requiſite for the attempt, he made no progreſs in his undertaking. When Henry was informed that Perkin lay before Exeter, he expreſſed great joy at his being ſo near, and prepared himſelf with alacrity to attack him. The courtiers, ſenſible that their activity on this occaſion would be the moſt acceptable ſervice which they could render the king, diſplayed equal zeal for the enterpriſe. The lords Daubeney and Broke, with ſir Rice ap Thomas, haſtened forward with a ſmall body of troops to the relief of Exeter. The earl of Devonſhire, and the moſt conſiderable gentlemen of the county of that name, took arms of their own accord, and marched to join the king's generals. The duke of Buckingham put himſelf at the head of a troop, conſiſting of young nobility and gentry, who ſerved as volunteers; and the king himſelf prepared to follow with a conſiderable army. Perkin, informed of theſe great preparations, raiſed the ſiege of Exeter, and retired to Taunton. Though his followers ſeemed ſtill reſolute to maintain his cauſe, he himſelf deſpaired of ſucceſs, and ſecretly withdrew to the ſanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Foreſt. The Corniſh rebels ſubmitted to the king's well-known mercy, and found that his forgiveneſs was not yet exhauſted. Except a few perſons of deſperate fortunes who were executed, and ſome others who were ſeverely fined, all were diſmiſſed with impunity. Lady Catharine Gordon, wife to Perkin, fell into the hands of the victor, and was treated with a generoſity which does him honour. He placed her in a reputable ſtation about the queen, and aſſigned her a penſion, which ſhe enjoyed for life.

Perkin, being perſuaded to quit his ſanctuary, A. D. 1498, was conducted in a kind of mock triumph to London. His own confeſſion of his impoſture and adventures was publiſhed; but, though his life was granted him, he was ſtill detained in cuſtody, and ſent to the Tower, where his habits of intrigue and enterpriſe ſtill followed him. He inſinuated himſelf into the confidence of four ſervants of ſir John Digby, lieutenant of the Tower; and, by their means, opened a correſpondence with the young unoffending earl of Warwick, who was confined in the ſame place. This unfortunate prince, who had from his earlieſt youth been ſhut up from the commerce of men, and who was ignorant even of the moſt common affairs of life, was eaſily ſuſceptible of any impreſſion. The natural love of liberty engaged him to embrace a project for his eſcape, by the murder of the lieutenant; and Perkin offered to conduct the whole enterpriſe. The conſpiracy, however, eſcaped not the king's vigilance; and Perkin, by this new attempt, having rendered himſelf totally unworthy of mercy, was arraigned, condemned, and hanged at Tyburn, acknowledging his impoſture to the laſt. In a few days after Perkin's execution, the wretched earl of Warwick was tried by his peers; and, being convicted of high-treaſon, in conſequence of pleading guilty, he was beheaded on Tower-hill; and in him ended the laſt male branch of the houſe of Plantagenet. The deplorable end of this innocent nobleman, and the fate of Perkin, who, notwithſtanding all the impoſtures that had been proved againſt him, was, by the credulous and ignorant, who are ever the greateſt number, ſtill deemed the real ſon of king Edward, had filled the kingdom with ſuch an averſion to the government of Henry, that, to throw the odium from himſelf, he diſingenuouſly laid it to the account of his ally, Ferdinand of Arragon, who, he ſaid, refuſed him his alliance, while any prince of the houſe of York remained alive.

There had been hitherto nothing active in this reign but plots, treaſons, impoſtures, and inſurrections; and it is probable that Henry's ſeverity proceeded from the continual alarms in which theſe inquietudes held him. It is certain that no prince ever valued peace more than himſelf; and much of the ill-will of his ſubjects aroſe from his endeavours to repreſs their inclination for war. The uſual preface to all his treaties was, "That when Chriſt came into the world, peace was ſung; and when he went out of the world, peace was bequeathed." He had no ambition to extend his power, except only by treaties and by wiſdom: by theſe he rendered himſelf much more formidable to his neighbours than his predeceſſors had ever done by their victories; they indeed became terrible to their own ſubjects; but he was chiefly dreaded by rival kings.

Henry had all along two principal points in view; one to repreſs the nobility and clergy; the other to exalt and humanize the populace. From the ambition and turbulence of the former, and from the wretchedneſs and credulity of the latter, almoſt all the troubles in the former reigns had taken their origin. In the feudal times, every nobleman was poſſeſſed of a certain number of vaſſals, over whom he had an abſolute controul; and, upon every ſlight diſguſt, he was able to compel them to join him in whatever principle he choſe to uphold. Henry, therefore, wiſely conſidered, that the giving theſe petty tyrants a power of ſelling their eſtates, which before this time were unalienable, would eventually tend to weaken their intereſt. With this view he paſſed an act, by which the nobility had free liberty to diſpoſe of their eſtates; a law infinitely pleaſing to them all, ſince they had thus

an immediate reſource for ſupplying their taſte for prodigality, and a ready means of anſwering at all times the demands of their creditors. The blow, indeed, only reached their poſterity; and they were too ignorant to be affected by ſuch diſtant conſiderations.

His next regulation was to prevent their giving uniforms to many hundreds of their dependents, who were thus retained to ſerve their lord, and kept like the ſoldiers of a ſtanding army, to be ready at the command of their leader. By an act paſſed in this reign, none but menial ſervants were permitted to wear a livery, under ſevere penalties; and this law was enforced with the moſt punctual obſervance. The king one day paying a viſit to the earl of Oxford, was entertained with all poſſible ſplendour and hoſpitality. When he was ready to depart, he ſaw ranged upon each ſide a long avenue of men dreſſed up in rich uniforms. The king, ſurpriſed at the number, aſked lord Oxford whether he conſtantly entertained ſuch a regiment of domeſtics; to which the earl very innocently replied, that they were only men whom he kept in pay to do him honour upon ſuch occaſions. At this the king ſtarted back, and ſaid, "By my faith, my lord, I thank you for your good cheer; but I muſt not ſuffer to have the laws broken before my face; my attorney-general muſt talk with you." Oxford is ſaid to have paid no leſs than fifteen thouſand marks as a fine for this unadviſed ſhow of oſtentation.

We have it recorded, in a thouſand inſtances, what a perverted uſe was made of monaſteries, and other places appropriated to religious worſhip, by the number of criminals who found ſanctuary and protection therein. This privilege the clergy aſſumed as their religious prerogative; and theſe places of pretended ſanctity were now become the abode of murderers, robbers, conſpirators, and of every ſpecies of felons. Witches and magicians were the only perſons that were forbidden to avail themſelves of the ſecurity theſe ſanctuaries afforded. Henry uſed all his intereſt with the pope to get theſe ſanctuaries aboliſhed; but he was not able to ſucceed. All that he could procure was, that if thieves, murderers, or robbers, regiſtered as ſanctuary men, ſhould ſally out, and commit freſh offences, and retreat again, in ſuch caſes they might be taken out of the ſanctuary, and delivered over to public juſtice. Yet all this while Henry was not remiſs in abridging the pope's power, though at the ſame time he profeſſed the utmoſt ſubmiſſion to his will, and the greateſt reſpect for the clergy. The pope at one time was ſo far impoſed upon by his ſeeming attachment to the church, that he even invited him to renew the croiſades for recovering the Holy Land. Henry's anſwer deſerves to be remembered. He aſſured his holineſs that no prince in Chriſtendom would be more forward to undertake ſo glorious an expedition; but, as his dominions lay very diſtant from Conſtantinople, it would be better to apply to the kings of France and Spain for their aſſiſtance; and in the mean time he would go to their aid himſelf, as ſoon as all the differences between the Chriſtian princes ſhould be compromiſed. This was at once a polite refuſal, and an oblique reproach.

Yet while he thus employed his power in lowering the influence of the nobles and clergy, he was uſing every art to extend the privileges of the people. In former reigns they were ſure to ſuffer on whatever ſide they fought, when they were unſucceſsful. This rendered each party deſperate in a declared civil war, ſince no hopes of pardon remained, and conſequently terrible ſlaughters were ſeen to enſue. Henry therefore paſſed an act, by which it was declared, that no perſon ſhould be impeached or attainted for aſſiſting the king for the time being; or, in other words, the ſovereign who ſhould be then actually in poſſeſſion of the throne. This excellent ſtatute ſerved to repreſs the incitements to civil war; and hence the common people, no longer maintained in vicious idleneſs by their ſuperiors, were obliged to become induſtrious for their ſupport. The nobility, inſtead of vying with each other in the number and boldneſs of their vaſſals, acquired by degrees a more civilized ſpecies of emulation; and endeavoured to excel in the ſplendour and elegance of their equipages and tables. In fact, the king's greateſt efforts were directed to promote trade and commerce, becauſe this not only enriched the treaſury, but naturally introduced a ſpirit of liberty among the people, and diſengaged them from all dependence, except upon their own induſtry, the laws, and the king. Before this great era, all our towns were crowded near ſome ſtrong caſtle, where ſome powerful lord reſided. Theſe were at once fortreſſes for protection, and priſons for all ſorts of criminals. To theſe ſeats of protection, artificers, victuallers, and ſhop-keepers, naturally reſorted, and ſettled on ſome adjacent ſpot to furniſh the lord and his attendants with all the neceſſaries they might require. The farmers alſo, and the huſbandmen in the neighbourhood, built their houſes there, to be protected againſt the numerous gangs of robbers, called *Robertſmen*, who hid themſelves in the woods by day, and infeſted the open country by night. Henry now endeavoured to bring the towns from ſuch a neighbourhood, by ſhewing the inhabitants the ſuperior advantages of a commercial ſituation. He attempted to teach them frugality, and a juſt payment of debts; and never once omitted the rights of the merchant, in all his treaties with foreign princes.

But it muſt not be concealed, that, from a long contemplation upon the relative advantages of money, Henry at laſt grew into an habit of conſidering it as valuable for itſelf alone. As he grew old, his avarice ſeemed to preponderate over his ambition; and the methods he took to increaſe his treaſures cannot be juſtified by his moſt ardent biographers. He had found two miniſters, Empſon and Dudley, perfectly qualified to ſecond his avaricious intentions. They were both lawyers; the firſt of mean birth, brutal manners, and an unrelenting temper; the ſecond, better born, and better bred, but equally inflexible. It was their uſual practice to commit, by indictment, ſuch perſons to priſon as they intended to oppreſs; from whence they ſeldom got free, but by paying heavy fines, which were called mitigations and compoſitions. By degrees, as they were grown more hardened in oppreſſion, the very forms of law were omitted; they determined in a ſummary way upon the properties of the ſubject, and confiſcated their effects to the royal treaſury. But the chief inſtruments of oppreſſion employed by theſe miniſters were the penal ſtatutes, which, without the conſideration of rank, quality, or ſervices, were rigidly put in execution againſt all men. In this manner was the latter part of this active monarch's reign employed, in many a degrading ſcheme for amaſſing money. In the year 1500, he had the ſatisfaction of completing a marriage between his eldeſt ſon Arthur prince of Wales, and the infanta Catharine of Spain, which had been negociated ſeven years before. But this marriage proved, in the event, unproſperous. The young prince ſickened and died in a few months after, very much regretted by the whole nation; and the princeſs was then obliged to marry his ſecond ſon, Henry, who was created prince of Wales, in the room of his brother. The prince himſelf made all the oppoſition to this union which a youth of twelve years of age was capable of; but, as the crowned heads perſiſted in their reſolution, the marriage was, by the pope's diſpenſation, ſhortly after ſolemnized.

The magnificence of theſe nuptials was followed up by the accidental arrival of Philip archduke of Caſtile, with Joan his conſort. Theſe noble perſonages had embarked for Spain, in order to take the advantage of an invitation, which the people of that country had offered, to place them upon the Spaniſh throne. Meeting, however, with a violent tempeſt at ſea, they were obliged to take ſhelter in Weymouth harbour, where they were honourably received by ſir John Trenchard, a gentleman of authority in the county of Dorſet. The king, being informed of their arrival, A. D. 1506, ſent the earl of

Arundel to compliment them on their ſafe landing; and to inform them that he intended paying them a viſit in perſon. Philip, for the ſake of diſpatch, reſolved to anticipate the viſit by ſtepping up to Windſor. Henry received him with all magnificence and cordiality; but was reſolved to reimburſe himſelf for the expence, by advantages that would be more ſubſtantially conducive to his own intereſts, and thoſe of the nation. There had been a plot carried on againſt him by the earl of Suffolk; for which ſir James Tyrrel and ſir James Windham had been condemned and executed, while Suffolk, the original contriver, had made his eſcape into the Low Countries, where he found protection from Philip. But he was now given up at Henry's requeſt; and, being brought to England, he was impriſoned in the Tower. A treaty of commerce was alſo agreed upon between the two ſovereigns; which was at that time of the greateſt benefit to England, and continues to remain the ground-work of all other commercial treaties to this day.

Henry having thus lived to ſee England in a great meaſure civilized by his exertions, his people ariſing the taxes without conſtraint, the nobles confeſſing a due ſubordination, the laws alone inflicting puniſhment, the towns beginning to flouriſh, and becoming independent of the powerful barons, commerce increaſing, the ſpirit of faction extinguiſhed, and foreigners either fearing England, or ſeeking her alliance, he began to feel the approaches of his end. He then reſolved to reconcile himſelf to heaven; and, by diſtributing alms, founding religious houſes, and granting a general pardon to all his ſubjects, to make an atonement for the errors of his paſt life. In this diſpoſition he died, April 21, 1509, in the twenty-fourth year of his reign, and fifty-fourth of his age. He had rendered his ſubjects powerful and happy, and wrought a greater change in the manners of the people, than it was poſſible to ſuppoſe could have been effected in ſo ſhort a time. If he had any fault that deſerves to be marked with great reproach, it was that, having begun his reign with economy, as he grew old his deſires ſeemed to change their object from the uſe of money, to the pleaſure of hoarding it. But he ought even in this to be pardoned, becauſe he ſaved for the public; the royal coffers being then the only treaſure of the ſtate; and, in proportion to the king's finances, the public might be ſaid to be either rich or indigent. As an apology for Henry's avarice, let it be remembered that he expended fourteen thouſand pounds in building one ſhip, called the Great Harry. This, properly ſpeaking, was the firſt ſhip of war in the Engliſh navy. Before this period, when the king wanted a fleet, he had no other expedient but to hire ſhips from the merchants. He was alſo the founder of the chapel in Weſtminſter abbey, which has ever ſince gone by the name of Henry the Seventh's chapel.

Henry VII. was in ſtature a little above the middle ſize, ſlender, ſtrong, and active. His deportment was, in general, grave, reſerved, and ſtately; but he could put on a ſmiling countenance, and aſſume a gracious engaging manner, when he ſaw it convenient. In perſonal courage he was not defective; but it was attended with caution, and not of the impetuous enterpriſing kind. Though he ſometimes threatened, he never really intended to engage in any foreign war; becauſe he knew it was exceedingly expenſive, and peculiarly dangerous to a prince with a diſputed title and diſcontented ſubjects. From theſe conſiderations, rather than from timidity, he cultivated peace with all the neighbouring princes. In application to buſineſs he was indefatigable, and deſcended to the moſt minute details. He was his own miniſter, impenetrably ſecret in all his ſchemes, and preſcribed to his ſervants the parts they were to act, without acquainting them with his views. His underſtanding was good, but neither quick nor comprehenſive: but he ſupplied the want of quickneſs by mature deliberation; and the ſucceſs with which all his meaſures were crowned, procured him the appellation of *Solomon the Wiſe*. He has been highly praiſed for diminiſhing the exorbitant power of the great barons, which had often endangered the crown and oppreſſed the people. This he certainly in part accompliſhed: but it was far from being a difficult taſk. The civil wars had ruined two-thirds of the great families, and at his acceſſion there were only twenty-ſeven temporal peers in England. The great defects in the character of this prince proceeded not from the weakneſs of his head, but the obduracy of his heart, which was exceedingly ſelfiſh and unfeeling; little ſuſceptible of the impreſſions of love, friendſhip, pity, or any benevolent affection. He was an unkind huſband to an amiable conſort; never had a friend, and rarely forgave an enemy. As a ſon, he treated his venerable mother with formal reſpect, but allowed her no influence; as a father, he was ſolicitous, but not affectionate. His arbitrary actions of various kinds, his ſeverity to ſir William Stanley, and his cruelty to the noble earl of Warwick, have procured him, and not unjuſtly, the odious name of tyrant. An inordinate love of money, and an unrelenting hatred to the houſe of York, were his ruling paſſions, and the chief ſources of all his vexations, and of all his vices.

Henry VII. had iſſue four ſons and four daughters. 1. Arthur, born September 20, 1486; died April 2, 1502. 2. Henry, who ſucceeded to the crown, was born in June, 1492. 3. Edmund, who died at five years old. 4. Edward, born in February, 1500, died in his infancy. 5. Margaret, married in 1502 to James IV. king of Scotland, which eventually occaſioned the union of the two kingdoms. 6. Catharine, who died in her infancy. 7. Mary, married December 17, 1508, to Charles archduke of Auſtria, prince of Caſtile. 8. Elizabeth, born in 1503, died ſoon after the queen, whoſe death was occaſioned by her birth.

Henry VIII. aſcended the throne of England, A. D. 1509. He had then completed his ſeventeenth year, and had been occupied entirely in the purſuits of literature, and manly exerciſes; and the proficiency which he made in each, gave no bad prognoſtic of his parts and ingenuity. Even the follies of vehemence, ardour, and impatience, to which he was prone, and which afterwards degenerated into tyranny, were conſidered only as foibles incident to unguarded youth, which would be corrected by time. And, as the contending titles of York and Lancaſter were united in his perſon, men juſtly expected from a prince, obnoxious to no party, that impartiality of adminiſtration which the conſtitution of England was intended to promulgate; but unfortunately this was not the caſe. The firſt public act of unprovoked ſeverity, was the puniſhment of Empſon and Dudley, who were obnoxious to the populace for having been the inſtruments of the late king's avarice. They were cited before the council to anſwer for this conduct; and Empſon, in his defence alleged, that ſo far from deſerving cenſure, he was confident he had merited reward and approbation. Though a ſtrict execution of the law was the crime of which he and Dudley were accuſed; and though theſe laws had been eſtabliſhed by the voluntary conſent of the people; yet Empſon and Dudley were ſolemnly brought to their trial, and the jury were ſo far infected with popular prejudice, that they gave a verdict againſt them; and they were both executed by a warrant from the king.

This meaſure, which betrayed an unjuſt compliance with popular clamour, was followed by another highly detrimental to the nation, although ſtill more pleaſing to the people. Julius II. was at that time pope, and had filled all Europe with his intrigues and ambition; but his chief reſentment happened to be levelled againſt Louis XII. of France, who was in poſſeſſion of ſome valuable provinces of Italy, from which he hoped, by his intrigues, to remove him. For this purpoſe he entered into a treaty with Ferdinand king of Spain, and Henry of England; to each of whom he propoſed ſuch advantages

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as were moſt likely to inflame their ambition, in caſe they fell upon Louis on their reſpective quarters; while he undertook himſelf to make war againſt him in Italy. Henry, who had no other motives than military renown, and the vanity of receiving the title of the Moſt Chriſtian King, which the pope aſſured him would ſoon be wreſted from Louis, to be conferred upon him, readily undertook to defend his cauſe; and his parliament as readily granted ſupplies for a purpoſe ſo congenial to the minds of the people. The ſpirit of chivalry and foreign conqueſt was not yet extinguiſhed in England; the kingdom of France was ſtill an object they deſired to poſſeſs, and Henry, in compliance with their wiſhes, gave out that he intended ſtriking for the crown. It was in vain that the old prudent counſellors of his deceaſed father objected, or contended that conqueſts on the continent would only drain the kingdom, without enriching it: the young king, deaf to all remonſtrances, reſolved to undertake the war. The marquis of Dorſet was firſt ſent over, with a large body of forces, to Fontarabia, to aſſiſt the operations of Ferdinand; but that faithleſs and crafty monarch had no intentions of effectually ſeconding their attempts, wherefore they were obliged to return in diſgrace.

A conſiderable fleet was next equipped, to annoy the enemy by ſea, and the command given to ſir Edward Howard; who, after ſcouring the Channel, preſented himſelf before Breſt, where the French navy lay, and challenged them to battle. But they determined to wait for a reinforcement, which they expected, under the command of Prejeant de Bidoux, from the Mediterranean. But in this the gallant Howard was reſolved to diſappoint them; and, upon the appearance of Prejeant with ſix gallies, who had time to take refuge behind ſome batteries erected on the rocks, he boldly rowed up with two gallies, followed by barges filled with officers of diſtinction. Upon coming up to Prejeant's ſhip, he immediately faſtened upon it, and leaped on board, followed by Carroz, a Spaniſh cavalier, and ſeventeen Engliſhmen. The cable, mean while, which faſtened both ſhips together, was cut by the enemy, and the admiral was thus left in the hands of the French; but as he ſtill continued to fight with great gallantry, he was puſhed overboard by their pikes, and periſhed in the ſea. Upon this misfortune the fleet retired from before Breſt. This repulſe, however, only ſerved to inflame the king's ardour for war; and he ſent a body of eight thouſand men to Calais, under the command of the earl of Shrewſbury; and another body of ſix thouſand, under the conduct of lord Herbert. He alſo embarked himſelf with the main body and rear, and arrived at Calais, attended by numbers of the Engliſh nobility. But he ſoon had an attendant, who did him ſtill greater honour. This was no leſs a perſonage than Maximilian, emperor of Germany, who had ſtipulated to aſſiſt him with eight thouſand men, but, being unable to perform his engagements, he joined the Engliſh army with ſome German and Flemiſh ſoldiers, who were uſeful in giving an example of diſcipline to Henry's new-levied ſoldiers. He even enliſted himſelf in the Engliſh ſervice, wore the croſs of St. George, and received pay, 100 crowns per day, as one of Henry's ſubjects and captains.

Henry being now at the head of fifty thouſand men, France began to tremble for her ſafety. But that kingdom was not threatened by the Engliſh alone; the Swiſs, on another quarter, with twenty-five thouſand men, were preparing to invade it; while Ferdinand of Arragon, whom no treaties could bind, was only waiting a convenient opportunity for an attack on his ſide. Never was the French monarchy in a more diſtreſſed ſituation; but the errors of its aſſailants provided for its ſafety. The Swiſs entered into a truce with Trimouille, the French general, who gave them their own terms, ſatisfied that his maſter would reſcind them all, as not having given him any powers to treat; Ferdinand continued to remain a quiet ſpectator, vainly waiting for ſome effectual blow to be ſtruck by his allies; and Henry ſpent his time in beſieging towns, which could neither ſecure his conqueſts, nor advance his reputation. The firſt of theſe was Terouenne, on the frontiers of Picardy. The beſieged, falling ſhort of proviſions, a bold and deſperate attempt was made to ſupply them, which ſucceeded. A French captain, whoſe name was Fontrailles, led up a body of eighteen hundred cavalry, each of whom carried a bag of gunpowder and two quarters of bacon behind him. With this ſmall force he made a fierce and unexpected irruption through the Engliſh camp; and, ſurmounting all reſiſtance, advanced to the gates of the town, where each horſeman delivered his burthen. Then returning upon the gallop, they were again ſo fortunate as to break through the Engliſh without much loſs in the undertaking. But the party of cavalry ſent to cover their retreat, was not ſo fortunate: though this body of troops was commanded by the boldeſt and braveſt officers of the French army, yet on ſight of the Engliſh they were ſeized with an unaccountable panic, and immediately fled; but, ſome of their beſt officers were taken. This action was called by the French, the battle of Guinegate, from the place where it was fought; but, by the Engliſh, the battle of the Spurs; as the French, on that day, made more uſe of their Spurs, than of their ſwords.

After this victory, which might have been followed with very important advantages, had the Engliſh army marched forward to Paris; Henry was perſuaded to lay ſiege to Tournay, a city of Flanders, at that time in the hands of the French. This ſiege, though ſhort, yet when added to the reſt, contributed ſtill to retard the great object, which was the conqueſt of France; and Henry hearing that the Swiſs had returned home, and being elated with theſe petty ſucceſſes, reſolved to tranſport his army back to England, where flattery was put to the torture to make him happy in the glory of his beſieging expedition. A truce was concluded ſoon after between the belligerent powers; and Henry continued to diſſipate, in more peaceful follies, thoſe immenſe ſums which had been amaſſed by his predeceſſor for very different purpoſes.

The ſucceſs which, during his foreign expedition, attended his arms in the North of England, was much more important and deciſive. A war having been declared between the Engliſh and Scots, the king of that country ſummoned out the whole force of his kingdom; and, having paſſed the Tweed with a body of fifty thouſand men, ravaged thoſe parts of Northumberland which lay along the banks of that river. But as his forces were numerous, and the country barren of proviſions, his men deſerted, and many returned to their native country. In the mean time the earl of Surrey, at the head of twenty-ſix thouſand men, came up with the Scots, who were encamped at the foot of the Cheviot hills. The river Till ran between the two armies, and prevented an engagement; wherefore the earl of Surrey ſent a herald to the Scots' camp, challenging the enemy to deſcend into the plain, which lay to the ſouth, and there to try their valour on equal ground. This offer not being accepted, he made a feint, as if he intended to march for Berwick; which putting the Scots in motion to annoy his rear, he took advantage of a great ſmoke cauſed by the firing their huts, and forded the river which had hitherto prevented the engagement. Both armies now approaching each other, they prepared for battle with great compoſure and magnanimity. The Engliſh divided their army into two lines; lord Howard led the main body of the firſt line; ſir Edmund Howard the right wing, and ſir Marmaduke Conſtable the left; the earl of Surrey himſelf commanded the centre of the ſecond line, aſſiſted by lord Dacres and ſir Edward Stanley on the right and left. The Scots drew up in three diviſions; the middle commanded by the king in perſon; the right by the earl of Huntley, and the left by the earls of Lenox and Argyle; a battalion under the earl of Bothwell, formed a body of reſerve.

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Lord Huntley began the onſet, charging the diviſion of lord Howard with ſuch fury, that it was ſoon routed. But this diviſion was ſo ſeaſonably ſupported by lord Dacres, that the men rallied, and the battle became general. Both ſides fought with incredible valour, until the Highlanders, being galled by the Engliſh artillery, broke in, ſword in hand, upon the line commanded by the earl of Surrey; and at their head king James fought with the moſt forward of the nobility. The rear diviſion, however, could not advance in time to ſupport the advanced troops, ſo that a body of Engliſh intercepted their retreat. James, though almoſt ſurrounded, refuſed to quit the field; but, alighting from his horſe, formed his little troop into an orb, and in this poſture fought with ſuch deſperate courage, as reſtored the battle. The Engliſh therefore were again obliged to have recourſe to their artillery and arrows, which made a terrible havock; but night ſeparating the combatants, it was not before the morning that lord Howard perceived he had gained a great and glorious victory. The Engliſh had loſt no perſons of note; but almoſt the flower of the Scots' nobility fell in the battle. Ten thouſand of the common men were cut off; and a body, ſuppoſed to be that of king James, was ſent to London, where it remained unburied, becauſe a ſentence of excommunication* ſtill exiſted againſt James, for having leagued with France againſt the Holy See. But upon Henry's ardent application to the pope, abſolution was granted, and the body interred. However, the populace of Scotland ſtill continued to think their king alive; and it was given out among them that he had ſecretly departed on a pilgrimage to Jeruſalem.

Theſe ſucceſſes only ſerved to intoxicate Henry with pride and ſelf-importance; and while his idle pleaſures engroſſed his time, the preparations for repeated expeditions exhauſted his treaſures. As it was natural to ſuppoſe the old miniſters, who were appointed to direct him by his father, would not concur in theſe projects, Henry had for ſome time diſcontinued their advice, and chiefly confided in the counſels of Thomas, afterwards cardinal Wolſey, who countenanced and applauded all his favourite purſuits. Wolſey was the ſon of a private gentleman, and not of a butcher, as is commonly reported, of Ipſwich. He was ſent to Oxford ſo early, that he was a bachelor at fourteen, and at that time was called *the boy bachelor*. He roſe by degrees from one preferment to another, till he was made rector of Lymington in Hants, by the marquis of Dorſet, to whoſe children he had been preceptor. He had not long reſided on that living, when one of the juſtices of the peace put him in the ſtocks for being drunk, and raiſing diſturbances at a neighbouring fair. This diſgrace, however, did not retard his promotion; for he was recommended as chaplain to Henry VII. and being employed by that monarch in a ſecret negociation reſpecting his intended marriage with Margaret of Savoy, he acquitted himſelf with equal diligence and dexterity. That prince having given him a commiſſion to Maximilian, then at Bruſſels, was ſurpriſed, in leſs than three weeks, to ſee Wolſey preſent himſelf, with an aſſurance that he had ſucceſsfully fulfilled all his majeſty's commands. His dexterity on that occaſion procured him the deanery of Lincoln; and under that preferment, he was introduced by Fox, biſhop of Winchеſter, to Henry VIII. in hopes that he would have talents to ſupplant the earl of Surrey, the favourite at that time; and in this Fox was not miſtaken. Wolſey uſed every art to ſuit himſelf to the royal temper; he ſung, laughed, and danced with all the libertines of the court; neither his years, nor his diſcretion, nor his dignity as an elevated clergyman, were any check upon the vicious habits of the king, or his government. His character thus coming into a conſpicuous point of view, began to manifeſt itſelf the more. He was inſatiable in his acquiſitions, but ſtill more magnificent in his expence; of extenſive capacity, but ſtill more unbounded in enterpriſe; ambitious of power, but ſtill more deſirous of glory; inſinuating, engaging, perſuaſive, and at other times lofty, elevated, and commanding; haughty to his equals, but affable to his dependents; oppreſſive to the people, but liberal to his friends; more generous than grateful; formed to take the aſcendant in every intercourſe, but vain enough not to cover the deſigns of his real ſuperiority.

He had been advanced from the deanery to the biſhopric of Lincoln; but this he reſigned, on being promoted to the archbiſhopric of York. Upon the capture of Tournay, he had been promoted to the ſee of that place; but beſides, he got poſſeſſion, at very low leaſes, of the revenues of Bath, Worceſter, and Hereford, biſhoprics then filled by Italians, who were allowed to reſide abroad, and who were glad to compound for this indulgence, by parting with a conſiderable ſhare of their profits. Beſides many other church-preferments, he was allowed to unite with the ſee of York, firſt that of Durham, next that of Winchеſter; and his appetite ſeemed to ſharpen by the means that were taken to ſatisfy it. The pope, obſerving his great influence over the king, was deſirous of engaging him in his intereſts, and created him a cardinal. His houſehold conſiſted of eight hundred ſervants, of whom many were knights and gentlemen. Some even of the nobility put their children into his family, as a place of education; and whoever were diſtinguiſhed by any art or ſcience, paid court to the cardinal, and were often liberally rewarded. He was the firſt clergyman in England who wore ſilk and gold, not only on his habit, but alſo on his ſaddles, and the trappings of his horſes. Beſides theſe various diſtinctions, the pope conferred upon him that of legate, with a deſign to make him inſtrumental in draining the kingdom of money, upon pretence of employing it in a holy war againſt the Turks, but in reality to fill his own coffers. In this he ſo well ſerved the court of Rome, that the poſt of legate was conferred upon him for life; and he united in his perſon the dignified offices of legate, cardinal, archbiſhop, and prime miniſter.

It was now that Warham, lord chancellor, and archbiſhop of Canterbury, a man of a moderate temper, choſe rather to retire from public employment, than maintain an unequal conteſt with this haughty cardinal. Wolſey inſtantly ſeized on the chancellorſhip, and is ſaid to have exerciſed the duties of that employment with great impartiality. The duke of Norfolk, finding the king's treaſures exhauſted, and his taſte for expence increaſing, was glad to reſign his office of treaſurer, and retire from court. Fox, biſhop of Winchеſter, who had been the inſtrument of Wolſey's elevation, withdrew himſelf in diſguſt; the duke of Suffolk alſo went home with a reſolution to remain private; whilſt Wolſey availed himſelf of their ſalaries, and filled up their places by his creatures, or his perſonal aſſiduity. Theſe were vaſt ſtretches of power; and yet the churchman was ſtill inſatiable. He procured a bull from the pope, empowering him to make knights and counts, to legitimate baſtards, to give degrees in arts, law, phyſic, and divinity, and to grant all ſorts of diſpenſations. So much pride and power could not avoid giving high offence to the nobility; yet none dared to vent their indignation.

In order to divert the public attention, he entered into a correſpondence with Francis I. of France, who had taken various methods to work upon his vanity, and at laſt ſucceeded. In conſequence of that monarch's wiſhes, Henry was perſuaded by the cardinal to deliver up Tournay to the French; and he alſo agreed to an interview with that monarch. This ſplendid congreſs was held A. D. 1520, between Guiſnes and Ardres, near Calais, within the Engliſh pale, in compliment to Henry for croſſing the ſea. The two monarchs ſaluted each other in the moſt cordial manner, and retired into a tent erected for the purpoſe, where Henry produced the articles of their intended alliance. As he began to read the firſt words of it, "I, Henry, king," he ſtopped a moment, and then ſubjoined only "of England," without adding *France*,

the uſual title of the Engliſh monarchs. Francis remarked this delicacy, and expreſſed his approbation by a ſmile. Nothing could exceed the magnificence of the nobility of both courts on this occaſion. Many of them involved themſelves in large debts; and the penury of a whole life was ſcarcely ſufficient to reimburſe the extravagance of a few days. There was however ſomething illiberal in the mutual diſtruſts that were conſpicuous on this occaſion: the two kings never met without having the number of their guards counted on both ſides; every ſtep was carefully adjuſted; they paſſed each other in the middle point between both places, when they went to viſit their queens; and at the ſame inſtant that Henry entered Ardres, Francis put himſelf into the hands of the Engliſh at Guiſnes. But Francis, who is conſidered as the firſt reſtorer of genuine politeneſs in Europe, put an end to this low and ſuſpicious dealing. Taking with him two gentlemen and a page, he rode directly into Guiſnes, crying out to the Engliſh guards, that they were their priſoners, and deſired to be carried before the king their maſter. Henry was ſenſibly affected with the manly conduct and candour of Francis; and, taking him in his arms, "My brother (ſaid he) you have given me the moſt agreeable ſurpriſe; you have convinced me of the full confidence I may place in you; I ſurrender myſelf your priſoner from this moment." He then took from his neck a collar of pearls of great value, and putting it on Francis, begged him to wear it for the ſake of his priſoner. Francis accepted the noble preſent; and giving him a bracelet of double the value of the former, inſiſted on his wearing it for his ſake. Henry went the next day to Ardres, without guards or attendants; and confidence being now ſufficiently eſtabliſhed between theſe monarchs, they employed the reſt of the time in ſumptuous feaſts and tournaments. So gorgeous and ſtately was this tournament kept, that a defiance had been ſent through all the chief cities of Europe, importing, that Henry and Francis, with fourteen aids, would be ready in the plains of Picardy to anſwer all comers that were gentlemen, at tilt and tourney. Accordingly the monarchs, richly appareled, entered the liſts on horſeback; Francis ſurrounded with Henry's guards, and Henry with thoſe of Francis. They were both at that time the moſt comely perſonages of their age, and prided themſelves on their expertneſs in the military exerciſes. The ladies were always the umpires in theſe feats of chivalry; and they put an end to the encounter whenever they thought proper. It is ſuppoſed that the crafty French monarch was willing to gratify Henry's vanity by allowing him to enjoy a pre-eminence in theſe paſtimes. He ran a tilt againſt monſieur Grandeval, whom he diſabled at the firſt encounter. He engaged the valiant Montmorency, whom, however, he could not throw from his ſaddle. He fought at faulchion with a French nobleman, who gave up his courſer, in token of ſubmiſſion.

But ſuch unmeaning ſplendours were not calculated to appeaſe the jealouſy of the nobles at home, or quiet the murmurs of the people. The duke of Buckingham, a ſon of him who loſt his life in the reign of Richard III. was the foremoſt to complain. He had often been heard to treat the cardinal's pride and profuſion with contempt; but carrying his reſentment perhaps to an improper length, ſome court hirelings took care that Wolſey ſhould be appriſed of it. The ſubſtance of his impeachment was, that he had conſulted a fortune-teller concerning his ſucceſſion to the crown. This was but a weak pretext to take away the life of a nobleman, whoſe father had died in defence of the late king: but he was brought to a trial; and the duke of Norfolk, whoſe ſon had married his daughter, was created lord high ſteward, to preſide at this ſolemn procedure. He was condemned as a traitor, by a jury, conſiſting of a duke, a marquis, ſeven earls, and twelve barons; and was executed on Tower-hill, A. D. 1521.

The immenſe treaſures of Henry VII. were at length exhauſted on empty pageants, guilty pleaſures, or vain treaties and expeditions. But the king relied on Wolſey alone for repleniſhing his coffers. A treaty with France, which threatened a breach with the emperor, induced Henry to demand ſupplies; but as the parliament teſtified a reluctance to indulge his wiſhes, he followed the advice of Wolſey, and made uſe of his prerogative alone for that purpoſe. He iſſued out commiſſions to all the counties of England, for levying four ſhillings in the pound on the clergy, and three ſhillings and four-pence from the laity; nor did he attempt to cover the violence of the meaſure by giving it the name either of benevolence or loan. This unwarrantable ſtretch of royal power was ſoon oppoſed by the people; they were unwilling to ſubmit to impoſitions unknown till now; and a general inſurrection threatened to enſue. Henry had the prudence to ſtop ſhort in that dangerous path into which he had entered; and declared, by circular letters to all the counties, that what was demanded was only by way of benevolence. But the ſpirit of oppoſition, once roufed, was not ſo eaſily allayed; the citizens of London heſitated at the demand; and in ſome parts of the country inſurrections were actually begun, which were ſuppreſſed by the duke of Suffolk. Theſe impoſts, firſt adviſed by Wolſey, not ſucceeding, he began to loſe a little of his favour with the king; and this diſpleaſure was ſtill more increaſed by the complaints of the clergy, who accuſed him of extortion. Henry ſeverely reproved Wolſey, which rendered him more cautious and artful for the future. As an inſtance of his cunning, having built a noble palace, called York-place, at Weſtminſter, for his own uſe, fearing now the general cenſure againſt him, he made a preſent of it to the king, aſſuring him that from the moment the firſt ſtone was laid, he intended it as a preſent to his majeſty. Thus Wolſey's impunity ſerved to pave the way to greater extortions. In order to have a pretext for amaſſing ſuch ſums, he undertook to found two new colleges in Oxford, for which he received freſh grants from the pope and the king. To execute this favourite ſcheme, he obtained a liberty of ſuppreſſing ſeveral monaſteries, and converting their revenues to the benefit of his new foundation. Whatever might have been the pope's inducement to grant him theſe privileges, nothing could be more fatal to the pontiff's intereſts; for Henry was thus himſelf taught ſhortly afterwards to imitate what he had ſeen a ſubject perform with impunity.

Hitherto the adminiſtration of affairs was carried on by Wolſey; for the king was contented to loſe, in the embraces of his women, all the complaints of his ſubjects; and the cardinal undertook to keep him ignorant, in order to continue his own uncontrouled authority. But a period was approaching, that was to put an end to this miniſter's exorbitant power. One of the moſt extraordinary and important revolutions that ever employed the attention of man, was now ripe for execution. This was no other than the glorious Reformation, which ſhook off the fetters of Rome. To have an adequate idea of the riſe of this memorable event, it will be proper to take a curſory view of the ſtate of the church at that time, and to obſerve by what ſeemingly contradictory means Providence produces the moſt happy events.

The church of Rome had, for more than a thouſand years, been corrupting the ancient ſimplicity of the goſpel, and converting into a temporality the kingdom of another world. The popes had been frequently ſeen at the head of their own armies, fighting for their dominions with the arm of fleſh, and forgetting, in cruel maxims of ſtate, all the ſanctity of religion. The cardinals, prelates, and dignitaries of the church, lived like voluptuous princes, and ſome of them poſſeſſed eight or nine biſhoprics at once. Wherever the church governed, its power was marked with cruelty; ſo that to their luxuries, were added the crime of tyranny. But what moſt increaſed the hatred of the people againſt them, was the

ſelling

felling pardons and abfolutions for ſin at certain ſtated prices. A deacon, or ſubdeacon, who committed murder, was abfolved from his crime, and allowed to poſſeſs three benefices, upon paying twenty crowns. A biſhop or abbot might commit murder for about ten pounds of our money. Every crime had its ſtated value; and abſolutions were given for ſins not only already committed, but ſuch as ſhould be committed hereafter. The wiſeſt of the people looked with ſilent deteſtation on theſe impoſitions; and the ignorant themſelves began to open their eyes to ſuch glaring abſurdities.

Theſe vices and impoſitions were now almoſt come to a head; and the increaſe of arts and learning among the laity, propagated by means of the art of printing, which had been lately invented, ſoon taught them to reſiſt that power which was originally founded on deceit. Leo X. A. D. 1519, was at that time pope, and fedulouſly employed in building the noble church of St. Peter, at Rome. To procure money for carrying on the undertaking, he gave an unlimited commiſſion for felling indulgences. Theſe were to free the purchaſer from the pains of purgatory; and they would ſerve even for one's friends, if purchaſed with that intention. Shops were every where opened for their ſale; but in general they were to be had at taverns, brothels, and gaming-houſes. The Auguſtine friars had been employed in Saxony to preach up the virtue of theſe indulgences, and from this truſt had derived both profit and conſideration; but the pope's miniſter, ſuppoſing that they had found out illicit methods of ſecreting the money, transferred the employment from them to the Dominicans. Martin Luther, profeſſor in the univerſity of Wirtemberg, was an Auguſtine monk, and one of thoſe who reſented this tranſfer of the ſale of indulgences from their order to that of another. He began to ſhew his indignation by preaching againſt their efficacy; and being naturally of a fiery temper, he queſtioned even the authority of the pope himſelf. The people, who had long groaned under the papal tyranny, heard his diſcourſes with pleaſure, and defended him againſt the fury of his enemies. Frederic, elector of Saxony, ſurnamed the Wiſe, openly encouraged him; the republic of Zurich even reformed their church according to the new model; and Luther, who was naturally inflexible, was incapable, either from promiſes of advancement, or terrors of ſeverity, to recede from the part he had taken. It was in vain, therefore, that the pope iſſued out his bulls againſt Luther; it was in vain that the Dominican friars procured his books to be burnt; he expoſed the hypocriſy of the Dominicans, and burnt, in his turn, the pope's bull in the ſtreets of Wirtemberg. In the mean time, the diſpute was warmly conteſted by controverſial writing on both ſides. Luther, though oppoſed by the pope, the conclave, and all the clergy, ſupported his cauſe ſingly, and with ſucceſs. As the controverſy was new, his ignorance of many parts of the ſubject was not greater than theirs; and, ill as he wrote, they replied ſtill worſe. Opinions are often inculcated upon the minds of mankind, rather by confidence and perſeverance, than by ſtrength of reaſoning, or beauty of diction; and no man had more confidence or more perſeverance than he. In this diſpute it was the fate of Henry to be a champion on both ſides. His father, who had given him the education of a ſcholar, permitted him to be inſtructed in ſchool-divinity, which then was the principal object of learned enquiry. Henry, therefore, willing to convince the world of his abilities in that ſcience, obtained the pope's permiſſion to read the works of Luther, which had been forbidden under pain of excommunication. In conſequence of this, the king defended the ſeven ſacraments, out of St. Thomas Aquinas, with conſiderable dexterity; though it is ſuppoſed that Wolſey had the chief hand in directing him. The book being thus finiſhed, was ſent to Rome for the pope's approbation, which it is natural to ſuppoſe would not be withheld. The pontiff, raviſhed with its eloquence and depth, compared it to the labours of St. Jerome or St. Auguſtine; and rewarded the author with the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which has ever ſince remained as one of the titles of the Engliſh kings.

Beſides the religious obſervances, which contributed to render the Romiſh church odious and contemptible, there were ſtill others, proceeding from political meaſures. Clement VII. had ſucceeded Leo; and the hereditary animoſity between the emperor and the pope breaking out into open war, Clement was impriſoned in the caſtle of St. Angelo; and with thirteen cardinals, his adherents, kept in cuſtody for his ranſom. As the demands of the emperor were exorbitant, Henry undertook to negociate for the pope, and was procuring him a favourable treaty; when his holineſs, corrupting his guards, made his eſcape from confinement; and, leaving the treaty unfiniſhed, wrote Henry a letter of thanks for his mediation. The violence of the emperor taught Henry that popes might be injured with impunity; and the behaviour of the pope manifeſted but little of that ſanctity or infallibility to which the pontiffs had pretended. Beſides, as Henry had laid the pope thus under obligations, he ſuppoſed that he might, upon any emergency, expect a grateful return.

It was in this predicament of the church and the pope, that a new ſcene was to be opened, which was to produce endleſs diſturbances, and to change the whole ſyſtem of affairs in Europe. Henry had, A. D. 1527, been eighteen years married to Catharine of Arragon, who, as we have related, had been brought over from Spain to marry his elder brother, who died a few months after cohabitation. But, notwithſtanding the ſubmiſſive deference paid to the indulgence of the church, Henry's marriage with this princeſs did not paſs without ſcruple and heſitation. The prejudices of the people were in general bent againſt a conjugal union between ſuch near relations; and the late king, though he had ſolemnized the eſpouſals when his ſon was but twelve years of age, gave many intimations that he intended to annul them at a proper opportunity. Theſe circumſtances might have given Henry ſome doubts and ſcruples concerning the legitimacy of his marriage; but as he had three children by the princeſs, and as her character and conduct were blameleſs, he for a while kept his intentions private. But the queen was ſix years older than him; and the decay of her beauty, together with particular infirmities, had contributed to make him deſirous of another conſort. However, though he felt appalled at her perſon, yet for a long time he broke out into no flagrant act of contempt; but was contented to range from beauty to beauty among the ladies of his court, with whom his rank procured him an eaſy compliance. But Henry was carried forward by a motive much more powerful than the tacit ſuggeſtions of his conſcience. Among the maids of honour to the queen, was Anna Boleyn, the daughter of ſir Thomas Boleyn, a gentleman of diſtinction, and related to moſt of the nobility. He had been employed by the king in ſeveral embaſſies, and was married to a daughter of the duke of Norfolk. The beauty of Anna far ſurpaſſed that of all others who had hitherto appeared at this voluptuous court: and her education, which had been finiſhed at Paris, tended to ſet off her perſonal charms. Henry, who had never learnt the art of reſtraining any paſſion that he wiſhed to gratify, ſaw, and loved her; but, after ſeveral efforts to induce her to gratify his criminal deſires, he found that without marriage he had no chance of ſucceeding. This obſtacle, therefore, he undertook to remove; and, as his own queen was become hateful to him, in order to procure a divorce, he alleged that his conſcience rebuked him for having ſo long lived in inceſt with the wife of his brother. In this pretended perplexity, he applied to pope Clement VII. who owed him many obligations, deſiring him to diſſolve the bull of the former pope, which had given him permiſſion to marry Catharine; and to declare that it was not in the power, even of the holy ſee, to diſpenſe with a law ſo completely

completely at variance with the holy ſcriptures. The pope was now in the utmoſt dilemma: queen Catharine was aunt to the emperor who had lately made him a priſoner, and whoſe reſentment he dreaded to rekindle by injuring ſo near a relation; beſides, he could not in prudence declare the bull of the former pope illicit, for this would be giving a fatal blow to the doctrine of papal infallibility. On the other hand, Henry was his protector and friend, the dominions of England were the chief reſource from whence his finances were ſupplied, and the king of France, ſome time before, had obtained a bull of divorce in ſomewhat ſimilar circumſtances. In this exigence, he thought it the wiſeſt method to ſpin out the affair by a negociation: and in the mean time ſent over a commiſſion to Wolſey, in conjunction with the archbiſhop of Canterbury, to examine the validity of the king's marriage, and the former diſpenſation; granting them alſo a proviſional diſpenſation for the king's marriage with any other perſon. When this meſſage was laid before the council in England, they prudently conſidered that an advice given by the pope in this ſecret manner, might very eaſily be diſavowed in public; and that a clandeſtine marriage would totally invalidate the legitimacy of any iſſue the king ſhould have by ſuch a match. In conſequence of this, freſh meſſengers were diſpatched to Rome, and evaſive anſwers returned, the pope ſtill continuing to promiſe, recant, diſpute, and temporiſe; hoping that the king's paſſion would never hold out during the tedious courſe of an eccleſiaſtical controverſy. In this he was entirely miſtaken. Henry had been long taught to diſpute as well as the pope; and he quickly found, or perverted, many texts of ſcripture to favour his opinions. To his arguments he alſo added threats, aſſuring the pope, that the Engliſh were already ſufficiently diſpoſed to withdraw from the holy ſee; and that if he continued to refuſe his compliance, the whole country would readily follow the example of a monarch who, ſtung by ingratitude, ſhould deny all obedience to a pontiff by whom he had been treated with falſehood and duplicity.

The pope, at firſt dreading the reſentment of the king, had thoughts of complying with his ſolicitations, and ſent cardinal Campegio, his legate, to London, who, with Wolſey, opened a court for trying the legitimacy of the king's preſent marriage, and cited the king and the queen to appear before them. They both preſented themſelves; and the king anſwered to his name when called: but the queen, inſtead of anſwering to hers, roſe from her ſeat, and, throwing herſelf at the king's feet, in the moſt pathetic manner entreated him to have pity upon her helpleſs ſituation. A ſtranger, unprotected, unbefriended, ſhe could only rely on him as her guardian and defender, on him alone who knew her ſubmiſſion and her innocence, and not upon any court, in which her enemies prevailed, and would torture the laws to make them ſubſervient to their purpoſe; ſhe therefore rejected all ſubmiſſion to a trial, where ſhe could expect neither juſtice nor impartiality. Yet, notwithſtanding the queen's objections, the court proceeded, and Henry flattered himſelf that he ſhould now ſoon revel in the arms of Anna Boleyn. The principal point which came before the legates, was the proof of prince Arthur's conſummation of his marriage with Catharine, which ſome of his own expreſſions to that purpoſe tended to confirm. Other topics were preparing, tending to prove the inability of the pope himſelf to grant ſuch a diſpenſation; and the buſineſs ſeemed now to be drawing near a period, when Campegio, to the aſtoniſhment of all, prorogued the court, and transferred the cauſe to the court of Rome.

During theſe perplexing negociations, Henry expected to find in his favourite Wolſey, a warm defender, and a ſteady adherent; but in this he was deceived. Wolſey ſeemed to be in much the ſame dilemma with the pope. On the one hand, he was to pleaſe his maſter the king, from whom he had received a thouſand favours; and on the other, he dreaded to offend the pope, whoſe ſervant he more immediately was, and who had power to puniſh his diſobedience. He therefore reſolved to continue neuter; and, though of all men the moſt haughty, he gave way on this occaſion to Campegio, in all things, pretending a deference to his ſuperior ſkill in canon law. Wolſey's ſcheme of temporiſing was highly diſpleaſing to the king; but for a while he endeavoured to ſtifle his reſentment, until it could act with certainty. He for ſome time looked out for a man of equal abilities and leſs art; and it was not long before accident threw in his way Thomas Cranmer, of greater talents, and probably of more integrity. Cranmer was a profeſſor at Cambridge, but had loſt his office upon marrying contrary to the canon law, which enjoined celibacy to all the clergy. He had travelled in his youth into Germany; and it was there he became acquainted with Luther's works, and embraced his doctrines. This man happening to fall into company with Gardiner, ſecretary of ſtate, and Fox, the king's almoner, the buſineſs of the divorce became the ſubject of converſation. He gave it as his opinion, that the readieſt way to quiet the king's conſcience, or to extort the pope's conſent, would be to conſult all the univerſities of Europe upon the affair; an advice which pleaſed the king ſo much, that Cranmer was immediately taken into favour. Henry finding himſelf thus provided with a perſon who could ſupply Wolſey's place, he appeared leſs ſcrupulous in his reſentments againſt him. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment againſt him; and he was ſoon after commanded to reſign the great ſeal. Crimes are eaſily found againſt a favourite in diſgrace, and the courtiers were not wanting to increaſe the catalogue of his errors. He was ordered to depart from York-place palace; and all his furniture and plate were ſeized for the king's uſe. The parliament alſo confirmed the ſentence of the court of Star-chamber againſt him, and he was ordered to retire to a country ſeat which he poſſeſſed at Eſher, and there await the king's further pleaſure. Still, however, he poſſeſſed the archbiſhopric of York, and biſhopric of Wincheſter; and the king gave him diſtant gleams of hope, by ſending him a ring, accompanied with a gracious meſſage. Wolſey, like every other imperious character, proud to his equals, and mean to thoſe above him, happening to meet the king's meſſenger on horſeback, immediately alighted, and throwing himſelf on his knees in the dirt, received, in that abject manner, thoſe marks of his majeſty's condeſcenſion. But all his hopes ſoon vaniſhed; for, after he had remained ſome time at Eſher, he was ordered to remove to his ſee of York; where he took up his reſidence at Cawood, and rendered himſelf popular by his great affability. He was not allowed to remain long unmoleſted in this retreat. He was arreſted by the earl of Northumberland, at the king's command, for high treaſon; and preparations were made for conducting him to London, in order to his trial. He at firſt refuſed to comply with the requiſition, as being a cardinal; but finding the earl bent on performing his commiſſion, he complied, and ſet out on the journey. In his way, he ſtaid a fortnight at the earl of Shrewſbury's; where one day, at dinner, he was ſuddenly ſeized with violent ſickneſs, which furniſhed a ſuſpicion that he had taken poiſon. Being brought forward from thence, he with much difficulty reached Leiceſter-abbey; where the monks coming out to meet him, he ſaid, "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you;" and immediately ordered his bed to be prepared. As his diſorder increaſed, an officer being placed near, at once to guard and attend him, he ſpoke to him, a little before he expired, to this effect: "I pray you have me heartily recommended to his royal majeſty; he is a prince of a moſt royal carriage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miſs, or want any part of his will, he will endanger one half of his kingdom. I have kneeled before him, for three hours together, to perſuade him from his will and appetite, but could not prevail. Had I

but ſerved God as diligently as I have ſerved the king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. But this is the juſt reward that I muſt receive for my indulgent pains and ſtudy, not regarding my ſervice to God, but only to my prince." He died November 29, 1530; and left two natural children, one of whom, being a prieſt, was loaded with church preferments.

Henry thus freed from the controul of a perſon who had for ſome time been an obſtacle to his views, he, by Cranmer's advice, had the legality of his marriage canvaſſed in all the noted univerſities of Europe. It was very extraordinary to ſee the king of England on one ſide ſoliciting the univerſities to be favourable to his paſſion; and, on the other, the emperor of Germany preſſing them with equal ardour to be favourable to his aunt. Henry liberally rewarded thoſe who declared on his ſide; and the emperor granted benefices to ſuch as voted in conformity to his wiſhes. Time has completely developed theſe intrigues. In this conteſt the liberalities, and conſequently the votes, of Henry prevailed. All the colleges of Italy and France unanimouſly declared his marriage with Catharine to have been repugnant to all law divine and human; and therefore alleged, that it was not in the power of the pope himſelf to grant a diſpenſation. The only places where this deciſion was moſt warmly oppoſed, were at Oxford and Cambridge: but they alſo finally concurred in the ſame opinion. But the agents of Henry were not content with the ſuffrages of the univerſities alone; the opinions of the Jewiſh rabbies were alſo demanded, becauſe their ſuffrages were eaſily bought up.

Henry, thus ſupported by the ſuffrages of the univerſities, was reſolved to oppoſe even the pope himſelf, and began in parliament by reviving an old law againſt the clergy, by which it was decreed, that all thoſe who had ſubmitted to the legatine authority, had incurred ſevere penalties. The clergy, to conciliate the king's favour, were obliged to pay a fine of 118,000l. A confeſſion was likewiſe extorted from them, that the king alone was the protector and ſupreme head of the church and the clergy of England. By theſe conceſſions a great part of the profits, and ſtill more of the power, of the church of Rome was cut off. An act was alſo paſſed againſt levying the firſt fruits, or a year's rent, of all the biſhoprics that fell vacant. The tie that held Henry to the church being thus broken, he determined to keep no further meaſures with the pontiff. He therefore privately married Anna Boleyn, whom he had created marchioneſs of Pembroke; the duke of Norfolk, uncle to the new queen, her father, mother, and doctor Cranmer, being all preſent at the ceremony. Soon after, finding the queen pregnant, he publicly acknowledged his marriage, and, to give his renunciation of the pope an appearance of triumph, he paſſed with his beautiful bride through London, with a magnificence greater than had ever been known before. The ſtreets were ſtrewed with flowers, the walls of the houſes were hung with tapeſtries, the conduits ran with wine, and an univerſal joy pervaded all ranks of the people, who were more pleaſed with the feſtivity, than ſolicitous about the motives of it. Catharine, who had all along ſupported her claims with reſolution, and yet with modeſty, was cited to a trial; but, refuſing to appear, ſhe was pronounced contumacious, and judgment given againſt the validity of her marriage with the king. At length, finding the inutility of further reſiſtance, ſhe retired to Ampthill, near Dunſtable, were ſhe wore out the reſt of her life in privacy and peace.

In the mean time, this intelligence had no ſooner reached the court of Rome, than the conclave was in commotion; and the pope, incited by their ardour, and terrified by the menaces of the emperor, publiſhed a bull, declaring queen Catharine alone to be Henry's lawful wife; and requiring him to take her again, with a denunciation of cenſures in caſe of a refuſal. On the other hand, Henry, finding his ſubjects had taken part with him, and willing to break the papal yoke, reſolved no longer to renew theſe ſubmiſſions, which had never been in their power to extort. The people had been prepared by degrees for this great innovation: care had been taken for ſome years to inculcate the doctrine, that the pope was entitled to no authority beyond the limits of his own dioceſe. The king, therefore, no longer heſitated. The parliament was at his devotion; the majority of the clergy was for him, as they had already declared againſt the pope, by decreeing in favour of the divorce; and the people, above all, wiſhed to ſee the church humbled, which had ſo long controuled them, and grown opulent by their labours and diſtreſſes. Thus all things conſpiring to cooperate with his deſigns, he ordered himſelf to be declared by his clergy the ſupreme head of the church, A. D. 1534; the parliament confirmed the title, aboliſhed all authority of the pope in England, voted all tributes formerly paid to the holy ſee as illegal, and entruſted the king with the collation to all eccleſiaſtical benefices. The nation came into the king's meaſures with joy, and now firſt took an oath, called the oath of ſupremacy; all the credit of the pope, that had ſubſiſted for ages, was at once overthrown, and none ſeemed to repine at the revolution, except thoſe who were immediately intereſted by their dependence on the court of Rome.

But, though Henry had thus ſeparated from the papal church, yet he not attached himſelf to the ſyſtem of any reformer. The young queen, however, engaged by intereſt as well as inclination, favoured the cauſe of Luther. Thomas Cromwell, who, from being a creature of Wolſey, and who, by an admirable defence of the conduct of his old maſter, had been taken into the confidence of the king, embraced the ſame views. Being a man of prudence and ability, he was very ſucceſsful in promoting the reformation, though in a concealed manner. Cranmer, who was now become archbiſhop of Canterbury, had all along adopted the proteſtant tenets, and had gained Henry's friendſhip by his candour and ſincerity. On the other hand, the duke of Norfolk adhered to the old mode of worſhip; and, by the greatneſs of his rank, as well as by his talents for peace and war, he had great weight in the king's council. Gardiner, lately created biſhop of Wincheſter, had enliſted himſelf in the ſame party; and the ſuppleneſs of his character, and the dexterity of his conduct, had rendered him extremely uſeful to it. The king, mean while, who held the balance between theſe contending factions, was enabled, by the courtſhip paid him by both proteſtants and catholics, to aſſume an immeaſurable authority. Yet, as the minds of thoſe who were of oppoſite ſentiments, were extremely exaſperated with each other, it naturally followed that ſeveral muſt fall a ſacrifice in the conteſt between ancient eſtabliſhments and modern reformation. The reformers were the firſt exhibited as unhappy ſpectacles of the vindictive fury of thoſe who ſupported ancient ſuperſtitions. James Bainham, a gentleman of the Temple, being accuſed of favouring the doctrines of Luther, had been brought before ſir Thomas More during his chancellorſhip; and, after being put to the torture, was condemned as a heretic, and burnt in Smithfield. Thomas Bilney, a prieſt, had embraced the new doctrine; but, being terrified into an abjuration, he was ſo ſtung with remorſe, that he went into Norfolk, publicly recanting, and expoſing the errors of popery. He alſo was ſeized, tried in the biſhop's court, condemned, and burnt. On the other hand, Henry was not remiſs in puniſhing thoſe who dared to call in queſtion the propriety of his late defection from Rome; and the monks, as they ſuffered moſt by the reformation, ſo they were the moſt free to the royal reſentment. To bring them more readily to puniſhment, the parliament had made it capital to deny the king's ſupremacy over the church; and many eccleſiaſtics loſt their lives by this new ſpecies of crime. But of all who fell a ſacrifice to this law, none are ſo much to

be regretted as John Fiſher biſhop of Rocheſter, and the celebrated ſir Thomas More.

The concurrence which the people gave to theſe ſeverities, added to the great authority which Henry, from his auſtere adminiſtration, poſſeſſed, induced him to proceed ſtill further in his ſcheme of innovation. As the monks had ſhewn him the greateſt reſiſtance, he reſolved to deprive them of future power. He accordingly directed Cromwell, ſecretary of ſtate, to ſend commiſſioners into every county, to inſpect the monaſteries. This was done with ſcrupulous exactneſs; and the commiſſioners are ſaid to have diſcovered monſtrous abuſes in many of the religious houſes. Whole convents of women were abandoned to all manner of lewdneſs; friars and monks accomplices in their crimes; pious frauds practiſed to impoſe on the liberality of the people; and cruel and inveterate factions maintained between the members of theſe ridiculous inſtitutions.

Henry thought he might with ſome degree of popularity, aboliſh theſe inſtitutions; but, willing to proceed gently at firſt, he gave directions to parliament, A. D. 1536, to go no further than to ſuppreſs the leſſer monaſteries, which poſſeſſed revenues below the value of two hundred pounds a year. By this act, three hundred and ſeventy-ſix monaſteries were ſuppreſſed; and their revenues, amounting to thirty-two thouſand pounds a year, were granted to the king, beſides their goods and plate, computed at a hundred thouſand pounds more. About two years after, he determined upon the entire deſtruction of all monaſteries whatſoever in England. Theſe, on the whole, amounted to ſix hundred and forty-five, of which twenty-eight had abbots, who enjoyed a ſeat in parliament. Ninety colleges were demoliſhed in ſeveral counties; 2374 chantries and free chapels, and a hundred and ten hoſpitals. The whole revenue of theſe eſtabliſhments amounted to one hundred and ſixty-one thouſand pounds, which was about a twentieth part of the national income. The loſs which was ſuſtained by the clergy upon this occaſion, was by no means ſo mortifying as the inſults and reproaches to which they were expoſed, for their former frauds and voluptuouſneſs. The numberleſs relics which they had amaſſed, to delude and extort money from the people, were now brought forward, and expoſed before the populace with marked contempt. Such were the violent meaſures with which the king proceeded againſt theſe feats of impoſture; but, as great murmurs were excited, he took care that all thoſe who could be uſeful to him, or even dangerous in caſes of oppoſition, ſhould be ſharers in the ſpoil. He either made a gift of the revenues of the convents to his principal courtiers, or ſold them at low prices. He alſo erected ſix new biſhoprics, Weſtminſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol, Cheſter, and Glouceſter, of which the laſt five ſtill continue. He alſo ſettled ſalaries on the abbots and priors, proportioned to their former revenues; and each monk was allowed a yearly penſion of eight marks for his ſubſiſtence.

Still, however, the monks became Henry's moſt formidable enemies, who, having their principal dependence on the pope, apprehended their total ruin would be the conſequence of aboliſhing his authority in England. Some of theſe entered into a conſpiracy that proved fatal to themſelves. Elizabeth Barton, commonly called the Holy Maid of Kent, had been ſubject to hyſterical fits, which threw her into unuſual convulſions. The ſilly people in the neighbourhood were ſtruck with theſe appearances, which they imagined to be ſupernatural; and Richard Maſters, vicar of the pariſh, founded on them a project, from which he hoped to acquire both profit and conſideration. He went to Warham archbiſhop of Canterbury; and, having given him a wonderful account of Elizabeth's fits, he ſo far wrought on that ſuperſtitious prelate, as to receive orders to attend her in her trances, and carefully to note down all her ſayings. The regard paid her by a perſon of ſo high a rank, ſoon rendered her an object of public conſideration; and it was eaſy for Maſters to perſuade the world, as well as the Maid herſelf, that her ravings were inſpirations of the Holy Ghoſt. Knavery ſoon after ſucceeding to deluſion, ſhe learnt to counterfeit trances; and then uttered ſuch ſpeeches as were dictated to her by her ſpiritual director. Maſters aſſociated with him Dr. Bocking, canon of Canterbury; and, though their deſign at firſt was only to raiſe the credit of an image of the Virgin, finding their impoſture ſucceeded, they extended their views, and taught their penitent to declaim againſt the new doctrines of the ſtate, and to prophecy the death of the king, if he perſiſted in his intended divorce from queen Catharine. Henry at length began to think the matter worthy of his attention; and, having ordered Elizabeth and her accomplices to be arreſted, they confeſſed, and ſuffered for their guilt. See the whole of this impoſture, under BARTON, vol. ii. p. 765.

Though the king had now entirely ſeparated himſelf from Rome, yet he was unwilling to follow any guide in conducting a new ſyſtem. He would not therefore wholly aboliſh thoſe practices, by which prieſtcraft had been carried to ſuch a height of abſurdity. He gave orders for the Bible to be tranſlated into the Engliſh tongue; but it was not permitted to be put into the hands of the laity. It was a capital crime to believe in the pope's ſupremacy; and yet equally heinous to be of the reformed religion. The incoherence of the king's opinions were at length delivered in a law, which, from its horrid conſequences, was termed the *bloody ſtatute*, by which it was ordained, that whoever denied tranſubſtantiation, whoever maintained that the communion in both kinds was neceſſary, whoever aſſerted that it was lawful for prieſts to marry, whoever alleged that vows of chaſtity might be broken, whoever maintained that private maſſes were unprofitable, or that auricular confeſſion was unneceſſary, ſhould be found guilty of hereſy, and burnt or hanged as the court ſhould determine. As the people were chiefly compoſed of thoſe who followed the opinions of Luther, and ſuch as ſtill adhered to the pope, this ſtatute, with Henry's former decrees, in a great meaſure excluded both, and opened a field for perſecution, which too ſoon had its full and fatal harveſt.

Theſe perſecutions, however, were preceded by one of a different nature, ariſing neither from religious nor political cauſes, but from ſheer brutality and inordinate luſt. Anna Boleyn, his queen, had been always a favourer of the reformation, and conſequently had many enemies on that account. The king's paſſion for her was allayed; and he now languiſhed for a freſh beauty, the amiable Jane Seymour, maid of honour to the queen. As ſoon, therefore, as the queen's enemies perceived the king's diſguſt, they reſolved on framing imaginary crimes againſt her, which they knew his paſſions would quickly magnify into real. The counteſs of Rochford in particular, who was married to the queen's brother, herſelf a woman of infamous character, began with the moſt cruel inſinuations againſt the reputation of her ſiſter-in-law. She pretended that her own huſband was engaged in an inceſtuous correſpondence with his ſiſter; and repreſented all the harmleſs levities of the queen as favours of a criminal nature. The king's jealouſy was firſt publicly manifeſted in a tournament at Greenwich, on the 1ſt of May, 1536; where the queen happened to drop her handkerchief, as was inſinuated, to one of her minions to wipe his face. Though this might have been very harmleſs, or wholly unintended, yet the king abruptly retired, and ſent orders to have the queen confined to her apartment. Anna ſmiled, thinking the king was in jeſt; but, when ſhe found it was a ſerious affair, ſhe received the ſacrament in her cloſet, ſenſible of what little mercy ſhe had to expect from ſo implacable a tyrant.

In the mean time her enemies were not remiſs in inflaming the accuſation. The duke of Norfolk, from his attachment to the old religion, took care to produce ſeve-

ral witneſſes, accuſing her of incontinency with ſome of the meaner ſervants of the court. Four perſons were particularly pointed out as her paramours; Henry Norris, groom of the ſtole; Weſton and Brereton, gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber; and Mark Smeton, a muſician. As theſe had ſerved her with much aſſiduity, their reſpect was the more eaſily conſtrued into a criminal attachment; and under this pretence ſhe was committed to the Tower. Every perſon at court abandoned the queen in her diſtreſs, except archbiſhop Cranmer, who wrote a letter to the king in her behalf, but without effect. On the twelfth of the ſame fatal month of May, Norris, Weſton, Brereton, and Smeton, were tried in Weſtminſter-hall, when Smeton was prevailed upon, by the promiſe of a pardon, to confeſs a criminal correſpondence with the queen; but he was never confronted by her he accuſed; and his execution with the reſt, ſhortly after, ſerved to acquit her of the charge. Norris, who had been much in the king's favour, had an offer of his life, if he would confeſs his crime, and accuſe his miſtreſs; but he rejected the propoſal with contempt, and died, profeſſing her innocence to the laſt.

After this ſcene of arbitrary and ſavage perſecution, the queen and her brother were tried by a jury of peers; but upon what proof the crime of inceſt was urged againſt them, has no where appeared. The chief evidence, it is ſaid, amounted to no more than that Rochford, her own brother, had been ſeen to lean on her bed before company. Part of the charge was, that ſhe had declared that the king never had her heart; which was ſtrained into a breach of a late ſtatute, by which it had been declared criminal to throw any ſlander upon the king, queen, or their iſſue. The queen, unaſſiſted by counſel, defended herſelf with ſuch confident integrity and preſence of mind, that the ſpectators could not refrain from publicly declaring her innocent. She anſwered diſtinctly to all the charges brought againſt her: but the king's authority was not to be controuled; ſhe was declared guilty by the hirelings of the court, who ſentenced her to be burnt or beheaded, at the king's pleaſure. When this terrible ſentence was pronounced, ſhe could not help offering up an invocation to Heaven, vindicating her innocence; and, in a moſt pathetic ſpeech to her judges, averred the injuſtice of her condemnation. She was beheaded on the 19th of May, 1536, by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over, as being more expert than any one in England. Her body was thrown into a common cheſt of elm-tree, made to hold arrows, and was buried in the Tower. Anna Boleyn appeared to be guilty of no other crime than that of having ſurvived the king's affections; and, although many crowned heads had been put to death in England, ſhe was the firſt that underwent all the ſolemnities of the law in ſuch caſes, being formally beheaded on a ſcaffold. See particulars of her life, and execution, under BOLEYN, vol. iii. p. 156.

The people beheld her fate with pity; but with reſentment, when they diſcovered the true cauſe of the tyrant's impatience to deſtroy her; for the very next day after her execution, he married lady Jane Seymour, his callous heart being no way ſoftened by the wretched fate of one who had been ſo lately the object of his warmeſt affections. He alſo ordered his parliament to grant him a divorce between her ſentence and execution; and thus he endeavoured to baſtardiſe the illuſtrious queen Elizabeth, the only child he had by Anna Boleyn, as he had in the ſame manner formerly baſtardiſed Mary, his only child by queen Catharine.

It is eaſy to imagine that ſuch capricious cruelties were not obſerved by the people without indignation; but their murmurs were fruitleſs, and their complaints of little avail. Henry now made himſelf umpire between thoſe of the ancient ſuperſtition, and the modern reformation; both looked up to him for aſſiſtance, and at mutual enmity with each other: he took advantage of them all. He had the powerful men of the nation on his ſide, by the many grants he had made of the lands and goods of which he had deſpoiled the monaſteries. It was eaſy for him, therefore, to quell the various inſurrections which his conduct produced, as they were neither headed by any powerful man, nor conducted upon any principle of foreſight. The firſt inſurrection was in Lincolnſhire, headed by Mackrel, prior of Barlings; and, though this tumultuary army amounted to twenty thouſand men, yet, upon a proclamation being made with aſſurances of pardon, the populace diſperſed; and Mackrel, with ſome more of the leaders, falling into the king's hands, were put to death. Another inſurrection broke out in the north, amounting to above forty thouſand men, who were preceded by prieſts, carrying enſigns before the army, and all chiefly inſpired with enmity againſt Cromwell, whom they conſidered as the inſtigator of the king's ſeverities. But theſe alſo diſperſed upon finding their proviſions ſhort; after having in vain endeavoured to attack the duke of Norfolk's army, which was ſeparated by a rivulet that was ſwoln by heavy rains. A new inſurrection then broke out, headed by Muſgrave and Tilby; but the inſurgents were defeated by the duke of Norfolk; after which, lord d'Arcy, ſir Robert Conſtable, ſir John Bulmer, ſir Thomas Percy, ſir Stephen Hamilton, Nicholas Tempeſt, and William lord Lumley, were condemned and executed. Henry, enraged by theſe revolts, was reſolved to ſuffer no bounds to his ſeverities; but the birth of a prince, afterwards Edward VI. and the death of the queen, who ſurvived the birth only two days, made a ſmall pauſe in the fierceneſs of his ſavage unrelenting mind.

In the midſt of theſe violent meaſures, A. D. 1537, the fires of Smithfield blazed with the combuſtion of human fleſh. Thoſe who adhered to the pope, or thoſe who followed the doctrines of Luther, were alike the objects of royal vengeance, and of eccleſiaſtical perſecution. The principal victim of Henry's pretended zeal, was poor John Lambert, a ſchoolmaſter in London, who was ſentenced to the flames, for denying tranſubſtantiation, or the doctrine of *the real preſence*. He was therefore burnt at a ſlow fire, his legs and thighs being firſt conſumed; and, when there appeared no end of his tortures, ſome of the guards, more merciful than the reſt, lifted him on their halberts into the midſt of the flames, and thus put a more ſpeedy end to his ſufferings. This poor man's death was the ſignal for that of many more. The ſtatute of ſix articles was now paſſed, A. D. 1539, called the *bloody ſtatute*; and no leſs than five hundred perſons were impriſoned and perſecuted for contradicting the opinions ſet forth in that ſhameful formula of eccleſiaſtical law.

During theſe horrid tranſactions, the libidinous Henry was reſoved to take another queen, and, after ſome negociation upon the continent, he contracted a marriage with Anne of Cleves; to fortify, as he pretended, his alliances with the princes of Germany. The king, upon her landing, went privately to meet her at Rocheſter, where he was very much damped in his amorous deſires. He found her not only coarſe and maſculine, but utterly devoid of grace and beauty. To Cromwell, who had been principally active in making up the match, he gave her the epithet of the *great Flanders mare*; and ſwore that he could never ſettle his affections upon her. In ſhort, Henry's averſion to his new queen increaſed every day; and he reſolved to get rid of her and his prime-miniſter together. The fall of this favourite was ardently wiſhed for by the nation. The nobility naturally hated a man, who, from mean birth, was placed before the firſt perſons in the kingdom; for, beſides being vicar-general, which gave him almoſt abſolute authority over the clergy, he was lord-privy-ſeal, lord-chamberlain, maſter of the wards, and knight of the garter; and, to carry his exaltation ſtill higher, he had been recently made earl of Eſſex. The proteſtants diſliked him for his concurrence with the king's will in their perſecution; and the papiſts deteſted him, as the inveterate enemy of their religion.

It

It only remained, therefore, with the king, to haſten or retard the deſtruction of a man who had no partiſan in the nation, except himſelf. But he had already a new motive for increaſing his diſpleaſure. He had fixed his luſtful eye on Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk; and the only means of gratifying this inſatiate paſſion was, as in former caſes, by diſcarding the preſent queen, to make room for a new one. The duke of Norfolk had long been Cromwell's mortal enemy, and eagerly embraced this opportunity to deſtroy a man he conſidered as his rival. He therefore made uſe of every artifice to ruin the favourite; and when his project was ripe for execution, he obtained a commiſſion from the king to arreſt Cromwell for high-treaſon. His diſgrace was no ſooner known, than all his friends forſook him, except Cranmer, who earneſtly pleaded for him; but in vain. He was accuſed in parliament of hereſy and treaſon, and, without being ever heard in his own defence, was condemned to ſuffer the pains of death, as the king ſhould think proper to direct. Cromwell's fortitude ſeemed wholly to forſake him in this dreadful exigency. On the 28th of July, 1540, he ſubmitted his neck to the executioner, who mangled him in a ſhocking manner. A few days after his death, a number of people were executed together upon very different accuſations; ſome for having denied the king's ſupremacy, and others for having maintained the doctrines of Luther.

The parliament, upon very ſlight grounds, pronounced a divorce between Henry and his wife Anne of Cleves: ſhe quietly accepted a penſion, and continued to reſide in England. About a month after the death of Cromwell, the king publicly declared his marriage with Catharine Howard. This was regarded as a favourable incident by the catholic party; and the ſubſequent events for a while turned out to their wiſh. The king's councils being entirely directed by Norfolk and Gardiner, a furious perſecution commenced againſt the proteſtants; and the law of the bloody ſtatute was executed with rigour; inſomuch that a foreigner, then reſiding in England, obſerved, that thoſe who were againſt the pope were burned, and thoſe who were for him were hanged. The king, with an oſtentatious impartiality, reduced all parties to an equal ſhare of ſubordination, and infuſed terror into every breaſt. But the meaſure of his abſurdities was not yet filled up. He had thought himſelf happy in his new marriage. He was ſo captivated with the queen's accompliſhments, that he gave public thanks for his felicity, and deſired his confeſſor to join with him in the ſame thankſgiving. This joy, however, was of ſhort duration. While the king was at York, upon an intended conference with the king of Scotland, a man of the name Laſcelles, waited upon archbiſhop Cranmer at London; and, from the information of this man's ſiſter, who had been ſervant to the ducheſs-dowager of Norfolk, he gave a very unexpected account of the queen's incontinence. He averred that ſhe had led a very lewd courſe of life before her marriage, and had carried on a criminal correſpondence with two men, named Derham, and Mannock; and that ſhe continued to indulge herſelf in the ſame laſcivious pleaſures ſince ſhe had been raiſed to the crown. Cranmer, equally ſurpriſed and embarraſſed at this intelligence, made the king acquainted with the whole affair, on his return to London. Henry at firſt diſbelieved the report; he therefore ordered the keeper of the privy-ſeal to examine Laſcelles, who perſiſted in his former narrative, and even produced his ſiſter to confirm the fact. Upon this, Derham and Mannock, being arreſted, confeſſed their guilt, and the queen's incontinence. They went ſtill further, by impeaching the old lady Rochford, who had formerly been inſtrumental in procuring the death of Anna Boleyn. They alſo alleged that this lady had introduced one Culpepper into the queen's bed-chamber, who ſtayed with her from eleven at night till four in the morning. When the queen was firſt examined, ſhe totally denied the charge; but finding that her accomplices were her accuſers, ſhe confeſſed her incontinence before marriage, but denied her having diſhonoured the king's bed ſince their union. But three maids of honour, who had been admitted to her ſecrets, ſtill further alleged her guilt; and ſome of them even confeſſed having paſſed the night in the ſame bed with her and her paramours. The king was ſo affected, that he burſt into a flood of tears, not knowing how to vent his rage, or hide his ſhame, at having been ſo completely duped. Derham, Mannock, and Culpepper, were executed; but Henry was reſolved to throw the odium of the queen's death upon the parliament, who had always ſhewn themſelves the ready miniſters of his will. Theſe tools of arbitrary authority, being informed of the queen's crime and confeſſion, quickly found her guilty, and petitioned the king that ſhe might be puniſhed with death; that the ſame ſentence might be inflicted on lady Rochford, the accomplice of her debaucheries; and that her grand-mother, the ducheſs-dowager of Norfolk, together with her father, mother, and nine others, as having been privy to the queen's irregularities, ſhould participate in her puniſhment. With this petition the king was highly pleaſed, and they were all condemned to death by an act of attainder. The queen was beheaded on Tower-Hill, February 12, 1542, together with lady Rochford, who found but little compaſſion with the public. The queen was more pitied, as ſhe owned that ſhe had led a diſſolute life before marriage, but moſt ſeriouſly denied that ſhe had ever been untrue to the king's bed.

Henry having thus, by various acts of tyranny, proved himſelf deſtitute of juſtice, morals, or humanity, took it into his head to compoſe a book of religion, by which his ſubjects were in future to regulate all their belief and actions. Having procured an act of parliament, A. D. 1541, in which all ſpiritual ſupremacy was declared to be veſted in himſelf, he publiſhed a ſmall volume, called the "Inſtitution of a Chriſtian Man," which was received by the convocation, and voted to be the infallible rule of orthodoxy. All the abſtruſe points of juſtification, faith, free will, good works, and grace, are there defined, upon nearly the principles of the reformers; while the ſacraments, which a few years before were only allowed to be three, are increaſed to their old number of ſeven, conformable to the catholics. But the king was not long ſatisfied with this rule of belief. He ſoon after procured a new book to be compoſed, called the "Erudition of a Chriſtian Man," which he publiſhed upon his own authority; and though this new creed differed a great deal from the former, yet he was no leſs poſitive in requiring univerſal aſſent to this, than he had before been to that of the other. In both theſe books he was very ſtrenuous in enforcing the doctrine of paſſive obedience. And to heighten his tyranny, the parliament made a law, by which the king's proclamations were to have the ſame force as the ſtatutes; and to facilitate the execution of this act, by which all ſhadow of liberty was totally annihilated, they appointed that any nine of the privy-council ſhould form a legal court for puniſhing diſobedience to his will. Thus the king was empowered to iſſue a proclamation to deſtroy the lives, or take away the properties of any of his ſubjects; and the only appeal was to himſelf in council.

In the year 1543, Henry once more changed his condition, by marrying his laſt wife, Catharine Parr. She had been the wife of the late lord Latimer, and was conſidered as a woman of diſcretion and virtue. She had already paſſed the meridian of life, and knew how to manage this capricious tyrant with prudence and ſucceſs. Henry was now in his dotage, and verging on imbecility: he was almoſt choaked with fat, and had contracted a moroſe air, and forbidding aſpect. Nevertheleſs, this woman, ſacrificing her appetites to her ambition, ſo far prevailed in gaining his confidence, that ſhe was appointed regent of the kingdom during his abſence in France, whither he vainly paſſed over at the head of thirty thouſand men, to

profecute a war which had been declared between him and the French king. He there behaved, as in all his former expeditions, with ineffectual oftentation. Inftead of marching his troops into the heart of the country, he fat down before Boulogne, which was obliged to capitulate; while his ally, the emperor of Germany, made a feparate peace. Henry was thus obliged to return to England, where he found his fubjects ready to offer him their accuftomed adulation, for an enterprife which had only betrayed his weaknefs and folly. Upon his return from this fruitlefs and expenfive expedition, his obfequious parliament granted him a fubfidy equal to his demands, and added to it a gift, which will make their memory for ever odious to pofterity. By one vote they beftowed upon him all the revenues of the two univerfities, and of all places of education and public worfhip. But rapacious as this monarch was, he refrained from defpoiling thofe venerable feats of learning of their ancient endowments; however, they owed their fafety to his lenity, and not to the protection of this bafe and degenerate parliament. Nor was he lefs juft with regard to the fuggeftions of his council, who had long conceived an hatred againft Cranmer, and laboured to deftroy him; and alfo againft the queen, whofe rectitude and fidelity they endeavoured to impeach. Henry, in thofe two inftances, fhewed himfelf fuperior to the machinations of wicked and defigning men.

Still, however, the king's feverity on the fcore of religion, continued as violent as ever. For fome time he had been afflicted with an ulcer in his leg; the pain of which, added to his great corpulency, and other infirmities, increafed his natural irafcibility, fo that none could approach him without terror. It was not to be expected, therefore, that any who differed from him in religious opinions, could hope for pardon. Among the many, whofe unmerited fufferings excite pity and indignation, the fate of Anne Afkew will ever be remembered. This lady was a woman of merit as well as beauty; and for her attachment to the reformation, was condemned to be burnt alive. With her fuffered in the fame caufe, Nicholas Belenian, a prieft; John Lafcelles, of the king's houfehold; and John Adams, a tailor; who, upon being tied to the ftake, were informed, that upon recanting, they would be granted their lives. But they refufed, and faw with tranquillity the executioner kindle the flames which confumed them.

Though the king's health was now rapidly declining, yet his implacable cruelties were not the lefs frequent or violent. His refentments were diffufed indifcriminately to all; at one time a proteftant, and at another a catholic, were the objects of his feverity. The duke of Norfolk, and his fon the earl of Surrey, were the laft that felt the injuftice of this tyrant's perfecution. The duke was a nobleman who had ferved the king with great fidelity; his fon was a young man of the moft promifing hopes, who excelled in every accomplifhment that became a fcholar, a gentleman, and a foldier. He excelled in all the military exercifes, and was the firft who brought our language, in his poetical pieces, to any degree of refinement. Thefe qualifications, however, were no fafeguard againft Henry's implacable malevolence. The earl of Surrey had dropt fome expreffions of refentment againft the king's minifters, upon being difplaced from the government of Boulogne; and the whole family were become obnoxious by the fate of Catharine Howard, the late queen. From thefe motives, therefore, orders were given to arreft the father and fon; and they were both committed to the Tower. Surrey being a commoner, his trial was the more expeditious; and there were many informers bafe enough to betray the intimacies of private converfation, and all the connections of blood. The ducheffs dowager of Richmond, Surrey's own fifter, appeared among the number of his accufers; and fir Richard Southwell alfo, his moft intimate friend, charged him with infidelity to the king. He was therefore condemned for high treafon, and executed on Tower-hill, January 19, 1547. In the mean time the duke endeavoured to mollify the king by letters and fubmiffions; but the monfter's heart was callous to tender impreffions. The parliament found a bill of attainder againft the duke of Norfolk, though the only crime his accufers could allege againft him was, "that he had faid the king was fickly, and could not hold out long; and that the kingdom was likely to be torn between contending parties of different perfuafions." Cranmer, though engaged for many years in an oppofite party to Norfolk, would have no hand in fo unjuft a profecution; but retired to his feat at Croydon. However, the death-warrant was made out, and immediately fent to the lieutenant of the Tower. The duke prepared to meet his fate, and the following morning was to be his laft; but an event of greater confequence to the kingdom intervened, and prevented his execution.

The king had been for fome time approaching towards his end; and for feveral days all thofe about his perfon plainly faw that his fpeedy diffolution was inevitable. His anguifh and remorfe were at this time greater than can be expreffed; he defired that Cranmer might be fent for; but before that prelate could arrive, he was fpeechlefs. Cranmer defiring him to give fome fign of his dying in the Chriftian faith, he fqueezed his hand, and immediately expired, on Friday the 28th of January, 1547, after a reign of thirty-feven years and nine months, in the fifty-fixth year of his age.

Henry was fix times married: two of his queens were beheaded; two of them divorced; one of them died foon after her marriage; the laft, after narrowly efcaping the block, furvived him. By his firft queen, Catharine of Spain, he had two fons, who died in their infancy, and one daughter named Mary, afterwards queen of England. By his fecond queen, Anna Boleyn, he had one daughter, named Elizabeth, who fucceeded her fifter in the throne. By his third queen, Jane Seymour, he had one fon, named Edward, his immediate fucceffor. By his laft three queens he had no iffue. By Elizabeth Blount, daughter of fir John Blount, he had a natural fon, named Henry, of whom he was exceedingly fond, but who died when he was only about feventeen years old.

By his laft will, for fettling the fucceffion, Henry bequeathed his crown and dominions to his fon prince Edward, and the heirs of his body lawfully begotten; failing fuch heirs, to his daughter the princefs Mary, and her heirs; failing thefe, to his daughter the princefs Elizabeth, and her heirs; failing thefe, to the lady Frances, eldeft daughter of his late fifter the French queen, and her heirs; failing thefe, to lady Eleanor, youngeft daughter of the French queen, and her heirs; and failing thefe, to his next lawful heir. His two daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, being unmarried, it was declared, that if they married without the confent of his executors, or the major part of them, they fhould lofe their right to the fucceffion, and be confidered as being dead without lawful heirs. To each of thefe two daughters he gave 10,000l. in plate, jewels, and furniture, as a marriage portion, and an annuity of 3000l. to live upon while they were unmarried. To fhew the faith in which he died, he did not forget to appoint a great number of maffes to be faid for the health of his foul.

Very different characters have been drawn of Henry VIII. by different authors. Some have repreſented him as a brave, wife, juft, and merciful, prince, with few vices or imperfections; while others have painted him in the blackeft colours, as a cruel unrelenting tyrant, with few or no virtues or good qualities. Thofe, however, who have delineated his character with the greateft care and candour, have purfued a middle courfe, by doing juftice to his good actions and commendable qualifications, while they have not overlooked his criminal paffions and his vices. The following fhort defcription of the moft ftriking features in the character of this prince may, it is imagined, be juftified by authentic monuments, and the real tranfactions of his reign. He was very tall, and in his youth handfome, ftrong, and active. He delighted and excelled

in all manly exercifes; as riding, tilting, hunting, hawking, leaping, wreſtling, &c. His mien was ſtately, and his air majeſtic. Theſe perſonal accompliſhments gained him great popularity in the early part of his reign. He was fond of muſic, a good performer on ſeveral inſtruments, and no contemptible compoſer. Great pains had been taken with his education, and he had a genius capable of acquiring knowledge. He ſpoke ſeveral languages fluently, particularly the Latin and French: but unfortunately his favourite ſtudy was ſchool-divinity; in which he imagined himſelf ſo great a doctor, that he entered the liſts with Martin Luther, in his famous book *De Septem Sacramentis*; for which he received ſuch a deluge of praiſe as no author of an inferior rank muſt ever expect. We have no reaſon to ſuſpect that he was deficient in perſonal courage, though he was not forward in expoſing himſelf to danger. His underſtanding was good, when not blinded by thoſe paſſions which were the ſources of all his errors and of all his crimes. In his youth the love of pleaſure was conſtantly predominant, with an extravagant fondneſs for royal feaſts, tilts, tournaments, and other pompous diverſions of thoſe times. As he advanced in years, paſſions of a darker complexion and more dangerous tendency appeared. From his father he inherited an extreme jealouſy of all who were related to the royal family, and could be ſuppoſed to entertain the moſt diſtant thoughts of the throne. To this ſeveral perſons of high rank fell a ſacrifice. His exceſſive ſelf-conceit, and the high opinion he entertained of his own wiſdom, though it was rather a ridiculous than a criminal paſſion, had the very worſt effects. It rendered him greedy of flattery, and highly pleaſed with adulation. The two great parties, the friends of the pope, and the favourers of the reformation, tried to exceed one another in a ſervile compliance with all his humours, which rendered him intolerably proud, and impatient of contradiction. This alſo increaſed his authority, ſubjected both theſe parties to his will, and put it in his power to do whatever he pleaſed. The court that was paid him by the two great rivals, the emperor of Germany and the king of France, contributed ſtill further to inflame his pride; and, in ſpite of all his faults, it rendered him popular among his own ſubjects, who were pleaſed to ſee their ſovereign the arbiter of Europe. Though prodigality and avarice are oppoſite paſſions, they were poſſeſſed by Henry in the extreme. Of his prodigality, the immenſe ſums he ſquandered are a ſufficient proof; and his hiſtory affords ſufficient evidence of his avarice. At two different times he borrowed great ſums from many of his ſubjects, and procured acts from his ſervile parliaments, abſolving him from the obligation of repaying them, though he had given his creditors ſecurity under the privy ſeal. But of all his failings, his implacable malice was the moſt terrible. When he conceived a diſlike of any perſon, their ruin was inevitable; no ſubmiſſions, no ſupplications, no interceſſions, no evidence of their innocence, could ſave them from deſtruction. In a word, the character he is ſaid to have given of himſelf, "That he had never ſpared a man in his anger, nor a woman in his luſt," ſeems to be but too well founded; and juſtifies thoſe who have denominated him a tyrant. Yet, in the midſt of his cruelties and perſecuting zeal, he was poſſeſſed of ſome valuable accompliſhments, and was capable at times of generous and laudable actions, and of kind affections. He was certainly the inſtrument, in the hand of Providence, of much good to his poſterity, by diſſolving the ſupremacy of the church of Rome, and laying the foundation of the proteſtant faith.

Edward VI. ſucceeded to the throne in the ninth year of his age, A. D. 1547. The late king, in his will, fixed the majority of the young prince at the completion of his eighteenth year; and, in the mean time, appointed ſixteen executors of his will, to whom, during the minority, he entruſted the government of the king and kingdom. The firſt act of the executors was to chooſe the earl of Hertford, afterwards made duke of Somerſet, as lord protector; and in him was veſted all the regal power, with a privilege of naming his own privy-council. This was a favourable ſeaſon for thoſe who profeſſed the reformed religion. They no longer ſtifled their ſentiments, but maintained their doctrines openly, both in preaching and in teaching, even while the laws againſt them continued in force. The protector had long been regarded as the partizan of the reformers; and, being now freed from reſtraint, he ſcrupled not to expreſs his intention of correcting all the abuſes of the ancient religion, and of adopting ſtill more the doctrines of Luther. His power was not a little augmented by his ſucceſs againſt an incurſion of the Scots, in which about eight hundred of their army were ſlain; and the popularity which he gained upon this occaſion, ſeconded his views in the propagation of the new doctrines. But the character of Somerſet did not ſtand in need of props acquired in this manner; for he was naturally affable and courteous to the meaneſt ſuitor, while all his actions were directed by motives of piety and candour. In this view the protector, in his ſchemes for advancing the reformation, had always recourſe to the counſels of Cranmer, the primate; who, being a man of moderation and prudence, was averſe to violent changes, and determined to bring over the people by inſenſible degrees to the reformed ſyſtem. The perſon who oppoſed with the greateſt authority theſe advances, was Gardiner biſhop of Winchester; who, though he had not obtained a place at the council-board, yet, from his age and experience, was regarded by moſt men with veneration. Upon a general viſitation of the church, Gardiner ſtill defended the uſe of images, which was now very openly attacked by the proteſtants; he even wrote an apology for holy water; but he particularly alleged, that it was unlawful to make any change in religion during the king's minority. This oppoſition of Gardiner drew on him the indignation of the council; and he was ſent to the Fleet priſon, where he was treated with much ſeverity.

Theſe internal regulations were ſomewhat retarded by the war with Scotland, which ſtill continued to rage with violence. But a defeat which that nation ſuffered at Muſſelborough, in which above ten thouſand periſhed on the field of battle, induced them to ſue for peace; and the protector returned to ſettle the buſineſs of the reformation, which was as yet only in its infancy. But, though he acquired great popularity by this expedition, he did not fail to attract the envy of ſeveral noblemen, and even of the queen-mother. However, he ſtill encouraged the reformation, and gave more conſiſtency to the tenets of the church. The cup was reſtored in the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper; private maſſes were aboliſhed; the king was empowered to create biſhops; vagabonds were adjudged to be ſlaves, and marked with a red-hot iron; an act commonly ſuppoſed to be levelled againſt the ſtrolling prieſts and friars. An order was alſo iſſued for the removal of all images from the churches; a regulation which was much deſired by the reformers, and which alone, with regard to the populace, amounted almoſt to a perfect change of the eſtabliſhed religion.

Theſe innovations, evidently calculated for the good of the people, were not brought about without great ſtruggles at home, while the protector himſelf was buſily employed againſt the Scots, who, ſeconded by France, were puſhing on their depredations with unceaſing vigilance. There was ſtill another enemy that he had to fear more than any of the former; and this was his own brother, admiral lord Seymour; a man of great talents, but proud, turbulent, and untractable. This nobleman could not endure the diſtinction which the king had always made between him and his elder brother; ſo that they divided the whole court and the kingdom by their oppoſite cabals and diſſenſions. Seymour, by his flattery and addreſs, had ſo inſinuated himſelf with the queen-dowager, that, forgetting her uſual prudence, ſhe indecently married him immediately upon the deceaſe of the late king, her huſband. He then bribed the king's domeſtics

to

to his intereſt; and young Edward frequently went to his houſe, on pretence of viſiting the queen. There he ingratiated himſelf with his ſovereign, by the moſt officious aſſiduities, particularly by ſupplying him with money to diſtribute among his favourites. His conſort, the queen-dowager, eagerly fed the natural ambition of her huſband, and ſuggeſted ideas to lord Seymour, bordering on high treaſon. In this conjuncture ſhe died in child-bed, A. D. 1548: but this accident, far from repreſſing his ambitious ſchemes, only ſerved to promote them. He now made his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth; and it is ſaid ſhe liſtened to his inſinuations, notwithſtanding her father had excluded her the ſucceſſion, in caſe ſhe married without the conſent of council. Seymour, however, had projects of getting over that objection; and his plans ſeemed to indicate an attempt to ſeize the crown. By promiſes and perſuaſions he brought over many of the principal nobility to join his party; he neglected not even the moſt popular perſons of inferior rank; and he computed that he could command ten thouſand men among his ſervants, tenants, and retainers. He had already provided arms for their uſe; and having engaged in his intereſts ſir John Sharrington, maſter of the mint at Briſtol, he flattered himſelf that money would not be wanting.

Somerſet, the protector, being informed of theſe alarming circumſtances, endeavoured, by every expedient in his power, to draw him from his deſigns. He reaſoned, he threatened, he heaped new favours upon him; but to no purpoſe. At laſt he reſolved to make uſe of a dreadful remedy, to attaint his own brother of high treaſon. In conſequence of this reſolution, he deprived him of his office of high-admiral, and ſigned a warrant for committing him to the Tower. Yet ſtill the protector ſuſpended the blow, and ſhewed reluctance to ruin one ſo nearly connected in the tie of blood. He offered once more to be ſincerely reconciled, and give him his life, if he would be contented to ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement. But finding it impoſſible to work on the inflexible temper of his brother, he ordered a charge to be drawn up againſt him, conſiſting of thirty-three articles; and the whole to be brought before the parliament. The charge being firſt adduced in the houſe of lords, ſeveral peers gave an account of what they knew concerning lord Seymour's conduct, and his criminal intentions. In the houſe of commons the bill paſſed on a diviſion, near four hundred voting for it, and not above nine or ten againſt it. The ſentence was executed, by beheading him on Tower-hill, A. D. 1549.

This obſtacle being removed, the protector went on to reform and regulate the new ſyſtem of religion, which was now become the chief concern of the nation. A committee of biſhops and divines had been appointed to frame a liturgy for the ſervice of the church; and this work was executed with great moderation and accuracy. A diſpenſation was alſo paſſed, permitting prieſts to marry; the ceremony of auricular confeſſion, though not aboliſhed, was left at the diſcretion of the people; but the doctrine of the real preſence was the laſt tenet of popery that was wholly abandoned by the people, as both the clergy and laity were unwilling to renounce ſo miraculous a benefit as it was aſſerted to be. However, not only this, but all the principal opinions and practices of the catholic religion, contrary to what the ſcriptures authorize, were at laſt aboliſhed; and the reformation, ſuch as we have it, was almoſt entirely completed in England, A. D. 1549. It had been well for the credit of the reformers, had they ſtopt here; inſtead of which, they reſolved to become perſecutors in their turn; and though their own doctrines had been founded on a true ſpirit of toleration, yet they could not bear that any ſhould controvert what they had been at ſo much pains to eſtabliſh. Among the number of thoſe who were ſuppoſed to incur guilt upon this occaſion, was Joan Boucher, commonly called Joan of Kent; and Van Paris, a Dutchman; both of whom, principally at the inſtigation of Crannier, and contrary to the king's expreſs deſire, were committed to the flames.

Although meaſures had been taken for the benefit of the nation, and to the advantage of ſociety, yet they were attended with many inconveniences, to which all ſudden changes are liable. When the monaſteries were ſuppreſſed, a prodigious number of their dependants were obliged to earn their ſubſiſtence by labour; ſo that all kinds of buſineſs were overſtocked. The lands of the monaſteries too had been farmed out to the common people, ſo as to employ a great number of hands; and the rents being moderate, they were able to maintain their families on the profits of agriculture. But now theſe lands being poſſeſſed by the nobility, the rents were advanced; and the farmers, perceiving that ſheep and wool were a better commodity than corn, turned all their fields into paſture. In conſequence of this practice, the price of bread roſe, to the unſpeakable hardſhip of the lower claſs of people. To add to the general calamity, all the gold coin of the kingdom was hoarded up, or exported abroad, while a baſe metal was coined in great abundance; and this the poor were obliged to take, but could not diſburſe at an equal advantage. Thus an univerſal ſtagnation of commerce took place; and nothing but murmurs and complaints were heard in every quarter. The protector generouſly eſpouſed the cauſe of the ſufferers. He appointed commiſſioners to examine whether the poſſeſſors of the church-lands had fulfilled the conditions on which thoſe lands had been ſold by the crown; and ordered all encroachments on the commons to be laid open for the benefit of the poor. As the object of this commiſſion was very offenſive to the nobility, they called it arbitrary and illegal; while the common people, fearing it would be eluded, and being impatient of redreſs, roſe in great numbers, and reſorted to arms. The riſing began at once in ſeveral parts of England, as if an univerſal conſpiracy had been formed among the people. The rebels in Wiltſhire were diſperſed by ſir William Herbert; thoſe of Oxford and Glouceſter, by lord Grey of Wilton; the commotions in Hampſhire, Suſſex, and Kent, were quieted by gentle methods; but the diſorders in Devonſhire and and Norfolk were the moſt obſtinate, and threatened the greateſt danger. In Devonſhire, the inſurgents, amounting to ten thouſand men, were headed by Humphry Arundel, an experienced ſoldier; and they were ſtill more encouraged by ſermons, which gave their revolt the air of a religious confederacy. They accordingly ſent a ſet of articles to court, which required an abolition of the ſtatutes made in favour of the reformation; but the council rejected their demands with contempt, at the ſame time offering a pardon to all that would lay down their arms, and return to their habitations. But the inſurgents, encouraged by the monks who were with them, laid ſiege to Exeter, carrying before them crucifixes, banners, holy water, and other implements of their ancient ſuperſtition; but the town was gallantly defended by the inhabitants. Lord Ruſſel was ſent to relieve the city; and, being joined by lord Grey and others, he attacked and drove the inſurgents from their entrenchments. Great ſlaughter was made upon theſe deluded creatures, both in the action and the purſuit. Arundel, their leader, and ſeveral others, were ſent to London, where they were condemned and executed.

The ſedition in Norfolk appeared more formidable. The inſurgents there amounted to twenty thouſand men; and, as their forces were numerous, their demands were exorbitant. They required the ſuppreſſion of the nobility, the placing new counſellors about the king, and the eſtabliſhment of their ancient rights. One Ket, a tanner, had aſſumed a priority among them; he erected his tribunal near Norwich, under an oak, which was termed the Oak of Reformation. He undertook the ſiege of Norwich, which having reduced, he impriſoned the mayor, and ſome of the principal citizens. The marquis of

Northampton was ſent againſt him, but met with a repulſe; the earl of Warwick followed, and, coming to a general engagement, put them entirely to the rout. Two thouſand of them fell in the fight; Ket was hanged at Norwich caſtle; nine of his followers on the boughs of the Oak of Reformation; and the inſurrection, which was the laſt in favour of popery, was thus entirely ſuppreſſed.

Though the ſuppreſſion of theſe diſorders appeared to be favourable to the intereſts of the protector, yet the authority which the earl of Warwick gained in quelling them, terminated in Somerſet's ruin. Of all the miniſters at that time in the council, Dudley earl of Warwick was the moſt artful, ambitious, and unprincipled. Reſolved at any rate to poſſeſs the principal place under the king, he cared not by what means he acquired it. However, unwilling to throw off the maſk, he covered the moſt exorbitant views under the faireſt appearances. Having aſſociated himſelf with the earl of Southampton, he formed a ſtrong party in the council, who were determined to free themſelves from the controul the protector had ſo long aſſumed over them. That nobleman was, in fact, grown obnoxious to the prevailing party in the kingdom. He was envied by the nobles for his power; he was hated by the catholic party for his regard to the reformation; and he was condemned by many for his ſeverity to his brother: beſides, the great eſtate he had raiſed at the expence of the church and the crown, rendered him obnoxious to all. The palace which he was then building in the Strand, ſerved alſo, by its magnificence, and ſtill more by the unjuſt methods that were taken to raiſe it, to expoſe him to the cenſures of the public. The pariſh church of St. Mary, with three biſhops' houſes, were pulled down to furniſh ſufficient ſpace and materials for the ſtructure.

Theſe imprudences were ſoon enlarged upon by Somerſet's enemies. They repreſented him as a parricide, a ſacrilegious tyrant, and an uſurper upon the privileges of the council, and the rights of the king. In conſequence of this, lord St. John, preſident of the council, the earls of Warwick, Southampton, and Arundel, with five others, met at Ely-houſe, October 6, 1549; and aſſuming to themſelves the whole power of the government, began to act independent of the protector, whom they pretended to conſider as the author of every public grievance. They wrote letters to the nobility of England, informing them of the preſent meaſures, and requiring their aſſiſtance. They ſent for the mayor and aldermen of London, and enjoined them to concur in their authority, which they repreſented as the only means of ſaving the nation.

Somerſet no ſooner heard of theſe tranſactions, than he ſent the king to Windſor, and armed the inhabitants of Hampton and Windſor alſo for his ſecurity. But finding that no man of rank, except Cranmer and lord Paget, adhered to his cauſe, and that the people did not riſe at his ſummons; perceiving that he was in a manner deſerted by all, and that reſiſtance was fruitleſs, he reſolved to throw himſelf on the mercy of his enemies. This gave freſh confidence to the party of Warwick; they aſſured the king, with the humbleſt profeſſions of obedience, that their only aim was to put the council on the ſame footing on which it had been ordained by the will of his father, and to reſcue his authority from the hands of a man who had aſſumed all power to himſelf. The king, who never much regarded Somerſet, gave their addreſs a favourable reception; and the protector was ſent to the Tower, with ſome of his friends and partizans, among whom was Cecil, afterwards earl of Saliſbury. Mean while, the council deputed ſix noblemen to act as governors to the king, two at a time, officiating alternately. It was then, for the firſt time, that the earl of Warwick's ambition began to appear in full view: he ſet himſelf forward as the principal promoter of the protector's ruin; and his colleagues, without the leaſt oppoſition, permitted him to aſſume the reins of government.

It was now expected that Somerſet's fate was decided. A bill of attainder was preferred againſt him in the houſe of lords; but he contrived, for this time, to elude the rigour of their ſentence, by confeſſing the charge before the members of the council. This confeſſion, which he ſigned with his own hand, was alleged and read againſt him at the bar of the houſe, who then ſent a deputation to him, to know whether the confeſſion was voluntary or extorted. Somerſet thanked them for their candour; owned that it was his voluntary act, but ſtrenuouſly inſiſted, that he had never harboured a ſiniſter thought againſt the king or the commonwealth. In conſequence of this ſtrong feature of his innocence, he was ſet at liberty, and re-admitted into the council.

The catholics had been extremely elevated at the protector's fall; and they began to entertain hopes of a revolution in their favour. But they were deceived in their opinion of Warwick, who now took the lead, as ambition was the only principle in his breaſt; and to that he was reſolved to ſacrifice all others. He ſoon gave inſtances of his ſeverity in religious points, by inflicting on biſhop Gardiner the penalties preſcribed againſt diſobedience. Many of the prelates were ſtill addicted to their ancient communion. A reſolution was therefore taken to deprive them of their fees; and it was thought proper to begin with him, in order to ſtrike a terror into the reſt. He had already been two years in priſon, when the council ſent him ſeveral articles to ſubſcribe, among which was one, acknowledging the juſtice of the order for his confinement. He was likewiſe to acknowledge the king's ſupremacy; and that the Common Prayer Book was a preferable and more godly form than the Miſſal. Gardiner was willing to put his hand to all the articles, except that by which he accuſed himſelf, which he refuſed to do, juſtly perceiving that their aim was either to ruin or diſhonour him. For this refuſal he was deprived of his biſhopric, committed to cloſer cuſtody, his books and papers ſeized, all company denied him, and not even permitted the uſe of pen and ink. But the reformers did not ſtop here: Warwick and his aſſociates deprived, in the ſame manner, Day biſhop of Chicheſter, Heathe of Worceſter, and Voiſy of Exeter. The biſhops of Landaff, Saliſbury, and Coventry, came off ſomething better, by ſacrificing the moſt conſiderable part of their eccleſiaſtical revenues. The libraries of Weſtminſter and Oxford were now ordered to be ranſacked, and purged of the Romiſh miſſals, legends, and other ſuperſtitious volumes; in which ſearch great devaſtation was made even in uſeful literature. Many volumes, claſped in ſilver, were deſtroyed for the ſake of their rich bindings; many valuable works in geometry, aſtronomy, and the mathematics, being ſuppoſed by the ignorant to be conjuring books, met with no mercy. The venerable univerſity, unable to ſtop theſe ravages, ſilently looked on, and trembled for its own ſafety.

Warwick had hopes of gaining popularity with the public by theſe humiliations of the church; and, perceiving that the king was extremely attached to the reformation, he perceived that he could not make his court to the young monarch better than by a ſeeming zeal in the cauſe. But he was ſtill ſteadfaſtly bent on enlarging his own power; and, as the earl of Northumberland had died without iſſue or heirs, Warwick procured for himſelf a grant of his ample poſſeſſions, and obtained the title alſo of duke of Northumberland. The duke of Somerſet was now the only perſon who ſtood in his way; for, though fallen, yet he ſtill preſerved a ſhare of popularity, which rendered him formidable to this aſpirer. He was, therefore, by Northumberland's command, arreſted, with many others, accuſed of being his partizans; and he was, with his wife the ducheſs, thrown into priſon. He was now accuſed of having formed a deſign to raiſe an inſurrection in the north; of attacking the train-bands on a muſter-day; of plotting to ſecure the Tower, and to excite a rebellion in London. Theſe charges he moſt ſolemnly

ſolemnly denied; but he confeſſed one of as heinous a nature, which was, that he had laid a plan for murdering Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke. He was therefore brought to trial before the marquis of Wincheſter, who ſat as high ſteward, with twenty-ſeven peers, including Northumberland himſelf, Pembroke, and Northampton, who were at once his judges and accuſers. He was charged with an intention to ſecure the perſon of the king; to re-aſſume the adminiſtration of affairs; to aſſaſſinate the duke of Northumberland; and raiſe an inſurrection in the city. He pleaded not guilty to the firſt part of the charge, and of this he was acquitted; but he was found guilty of conſpiring the death of a privy counſellor, which crime had been made felony in the reign of Henry VII. and for this he was condemned to death. The populace ſeeing him re-conveyed to the Tower without the axe, imagined he had been acquitted, and in repeated ſhouts and acclamations manifeſted their joy; but this was ſuddenly damped, when they were informed of his doom. Care, in the mean time, had been taken to prepoſſeſs the young king againſt his uncle; and, leſt he ſhould relent, no acceſs was permitted to any of Somerſet's friends. At length the priſoner was brought to the ſcaffold on Tower-hill, where he appeared, without the leaſt emotion, in the midſt of a vaſt concourſe of the populace, by whom he was beloved. He ſpoke to them with great compoſure, proteſting that he had always promoted the ſervice of his king, and the intereſts of true religion, to the beſt of his power. The people atteſted their belief to what he ſaid, by crying out, "It is moſt true." An univerſal tumult was beginning to take place; but Somerſet deſiring them to be ſtill, and not to interrupt his laſt meditations, but to join with him in prayer, he laid down his head, and ſubmitted to the ſtroke of the executioner, A. D. 1552. Sir Ralph Vane and ſir Miles Partridge, were hanged; and ſir Michael Stanhope and ſir Thomas Arundel, were beheaded, as his accomplices.

Nothing could have been more unpopular than the meaſure of deſtroying Somerſet, who, though many actions of his life were certainly exceptionable, yet ſtill conſulted the good of the people. The houſe of commons was particularly attached to him; and of this Northumberland was ſenſible. He therefore determined to diſſolve the parliament, and call another that would be more obſequious to his will. For this purpoſe he engaged the king to write circular letters to all the ſheriffs, in which he enjoined them to chooſe ſuch men as he and the privy-council ſhould recommend. With this deſpotic mandate the ſheriffs complied; and the members returned fully anſwered Northumberland's purpoſe. He had long aimed at abſolute authority; and the infirm ſtate of the king's health opened the proſpects of his ambition. He repreſented to that young prince, that his ſiſters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were appointed by Henry's will to ſucceed on the failure of male heirs to the crown, had been both declared illegitimate by parliament; that the queen of Scots, his aunt, ſtood excluded by the king's will, and being an alien alſo, loſt all right of ſucceeding; that as theſe three princeſſes were thus legally excluded, the ſucceſſion naturally devolved on the marchioneſs of Dorſet, whoſe next heir was lady Jane Grey. The king, who had long been deluded by this deſigning miniſter, agreed to have the ſucceſſion inveſtigated by the privy-council, with whom Northumberland was ſure of carrying his point.

In the mean time, as the king's health rapidly declined, the miniſter laboured to ſtrengthen his own connections. His firſt aim was to ſecure the intereſts of the marquis of Dorſet, father to lady Jane Grey, by procuring for him the title of duke of Suffolk, which had lately become extinct. He then propoſed a match between his fourth ſon, lord Guilford Dudley, and lady Jane Grey, who he intended to advance to the throne. Bent on extending his intereſts as widely as poſſible, he married his own daughter to lord Haſtings, and had the nuptials ſolemnized with all poſſible pomp and feſtivity. Meanwhile Edward continued to languiſh; and ſeveral fatal ſymptoms of conſumption appeared. It was hoped, however, that his youth and temperance might get the better of his malady; and from their love, the people were unwilling to think him in danger. It had been remarked indeed by ſome, that his health was viſibly ſeen to decline, from the time the Dudleys were brought about his perſon. The character of Northumberland alſo gave colour to ſuſpicion; and his removing every one, except his own emiſſaries, from about the king, further increaſed the diſguſts of the people. Northumberland diſregarded their murmurs; he was aſſiduous only in his attendance upon the king, and profeſſed the moſt anxious concern for his ſafety, but ſtill drove forward his darling ſcheme of transferring the ſucceſſion to his own daughter-in-law. The judges, who were appointed to frame the king's letters-patent for that purpoſe, warmly objected to the meaſure, and gave their reaſons before the council. They inſiſted that a parliament ought to be ſummoned, both to give it force, and free its projectors from danger; for that the form was invalid, and would not only implicate the judges who drew it, but every counſellor who ſigned it, to a charge of treaſon. Northumberland could not brook theſe demurs; he threatened them with the dread of his authority; called one of them a traitor; and ſaid he would fight in his ſhirt with any man in ſo juſt a cauſe as that of lady Jane's ſucceſſion. A ſcheme was therefore ſuggeſted of ſcreening the judges from danger, by granting them the king's pardon for what they ſhould draw up; and at length, after much deliberation, the patent for changing the ſucceſſion was completed. By this patent Mary and Elizabeth were ſet aſide, and the crown was ſettled on the heirs of the ducheſs of Suffolk; for the ducheſs herſelf choſe to forego her claim.

Northumberland having ſo far ſucceeded, thought phyſicians no longer neceſſary in the king's complaint; they were diſmiſſed by his advice; and Edward was put into the hands of a female empiric, who very confidently undertook his cure. After the uſe of her medicines, all the bad ſymptoms increaſed in a moſt violent degree; he felt a difficulty of ſpeech and breathing; his pulſe failed, his legs ſwelled, his colour changed, and every ſymptom appeared of his approaching end. He expired at Greenwich, July 6, 1553, in the ſixteenth year of his age, and the ſeventh of his reign, greatly regretted by all, as his early virtues gave a fair proſpect of future proſperity to the country.

The character of Edward VI. has been alike celebrious in the contemplation of all his biographers. Had he been permitted to live to years of maturity, he would, moſt probably, have approved himſelf an able and reſpectable monarch. Of natural capacity he had a great ſhare; and he ſeems to have had a genius for government. He reflected much on the concerns of his dignified ſtation; he was ſedulous in his enquiries into the ſtate of his kingdom; he was acute in diſcovering the abuſes which prevailed; he planned ſchemes of improvement and reformation; he encouraged every meaſure which he conſidered as conducive to the intereſts and the happineſs of his people. He cultivated foreign politics with eagerneſs, and aſtoniſhed the ambaſſadors of Europe by the variety of his knowledge, and the ſagacity of his obſervations. He patronized the arts, as well liberal as mechanical; and he was a friend to merit of every denomination. The navy, that bulwark of an inſular ſituation, was improved under his auſpices; and on commerce, that promoter of national aggrandizement, he beſtowed a high degree of attention. Among the writings which are attributed to him, we find the heads of a judicious ſcheme for the eſtabliſhment of a general mart of European commerce in England. He has been always celebrated for the mildneſs and humanity of his diſpoſition, for the modeſty and humility of his deportment, for his regard to juſtice and equity, for his

combination of liberality with economy, and for his vigorous application to public buſineſs. His literary character has alſo been the ſubject of extraordinary panegyric. At an early age he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his acquiſitions in philology; he was acquainted with the controverſial points of divinity; and he had made a great proficiency in philoſophical purſuits. Cardan, the celebrated Italian phyſician, paſſing ſome time at his court, was ſurpriſed at the multifarious accompliſhments which he obſerved in this princely youth; and he has borne teſtimony to Edward's acquaintance with ancient and modern languages; to his ſkill in logic, muſic, and natural philoſophy; to his dignity of demeanor, and complacency of temper. But, notwithſtanding all the encomiums which have been paſſed on his character, ſome blemiſhes may be remarked. His early initiation in the doctrines of the reformers, had given him ſo rooted a diſguſt to whatever was repugnant to his own religious ideas, that his devotion may juſtly be ſaid to have been tinctured with bigotry; and, though he deſerves our commendation for having teſtified ſuch reluctance to the execution of Joan of Kent and Van Paris, who were the only perſons committed to the flames in his reign, (and it is much to be regretted, for the honour of the proteſtants, that even two ſhould ſuffer for opinions under their ſway,) it would have been more honourable if he had carried to a greater extent his oppoſition to ſuch unjuſtifiable cruelty. In another inſtance, there ſeems to be ſufficient reaſon for blaming his want of mental vigour. We allude to the death of his uncle the duke of Somerſet, a faithful ſervant of the crown, whom, from a facility in believing the inſinuations of his enemies, and from an apparent defect in manly firmneſs, he gave up to the malice of faction. The ſacrifice of his other uncle was leſs reprehenſible, as the guilt of that nobleman was leſs problematical.

This monarch was never married, though an alliance had been projected between him and one of the daughters of Henry II. of France. He was the founder of ſome valuable inſtitutions. Chriſt's hoſpital in London, that of St. Thomas in Southwark, and ſeveral free-ſchools in different parts of the realm, owe their eſtabliſhment to his bounty.

On the death of Edward, a ſanguine cloud prepared to overcaſt the horizon of England; and no fewer than four princeſſes were ready to aſſert their pretenſions to the crown. Mary, who ſtood firſt upon Henry's will, had been declared illegitimate by an act of parliament, which was never repealed: Elizabeth was next; and though ſhe had been declared illegitimate, yet ſhe had been reſtored to her rights during her father's life-time. Margaret queen of Scotland, Henry's eldeſt ſiſter, was firſt in right, ſuppoſing the two daughters illegitimate; while lady Jane Grey, beſides her right of ſucceſſion after the line of Margaret, was made to allege the will of the late king as a claim of priority in her favour. The ambitious Northumberland, therefore, took every ſtep to ſeize the princeſſes as priſoners, and to fix the crown on the head of lady Jane. In the mean time Mary and Elizabeth were actually on the road to the court, allured thither by a feigned meſſage from the duke of Northumberland; but the news of the king's death gave them warning of the deceit; and Mary, flying into Suffolk, found every one eager to arm in her cauſe. The deteſtation, indeed, in which the duke of Northumberland was held, rendered every project in favour of his family fruitleſs; and the unfortunate though amiable Jane, who, after many refuſals, had been prevailed on by her father and huſband to accept the crown, reſigned it with real and unaffected pleaſure, after a joyleſs reign of ten days. Mary, at the head of a numerous army, a thouſand of which had been levied by the princeſs Elizabeth, entered London, and aſcended the throne. Nor did the mean conduct of Northumberland ſave his life; although, on finding himſelf deſerted by his army, he had caſt up his cap for Mary, and had fallen on his knees to lord Arundel, her general, who apprehended him; while, at that humiliating moment, a woman held up to the daſtardly ſuppliant's face a handkerchief, dipped, as ſhe ſaid, in the innocent blood of Somerſet, whom he had murdered. He was immediately tried and condemned by his peers for treaſon, and beheaded on Tower-hill, with Palmer and Gates, his intimate aſſociates.

As it was the wiſh of Mary to acquire popularity, ſhe ſhed no more blood on the preſent occaſion; and, to attract the attention of the multitude, ſhe rode through London in pomp, crowned by a circle of gold and precious ſtones, ſo heavy, that ſhe was forced to ſupport her head with her hand. Behind her came in a chariot the princeſs Elizabeth and lady Anne of Cleves. So careful was Mary not to irritate or offend her ſubjects, that though lady Jane Grey, with her huſband and his brothers, had been tried and condemned for treaſon, their ſentences were reſpited. Yet after ſhe had releaſed the venerable Norfolk, and the other priſoners in the Tower, ſhe wiſhed to celebrate the funeral obſequies of her brother with the ceremonies of the papal church; but Cranmer ſtoutly oppoſed this innovation, and ſheltering himſelf under acts of parliament ſtill in force, he interred the remains of Edward in the chapel of Henry VII. after the rites of the reformed church. If he officiated in perſon, it was probably his laſt act of office; for he was almoſt immediately confined to his houſe, and treated as a criminal. Mary had afterwards a ſervice performed for her deceaſed brother in her own chapel.

But it was not long before the natural bigotry of Mary took its full ſcope. A parliament was formed which would ſecond her in any meaſure, except the reſtoration of the church lands. The proteſtant biſhops were ejected and impriſoned; their ſees filled with zealous catholics, and cardinal Pole was ſent for haſtily to aſſiſt, as the pope's nuncio, in cleanſing the polluted land. But the policy of Gardiner, who ſuſpected that the queen meant Pole for her huſband, or at leaſt for her primate, found means to check the too impetuous zeal of Mary, by the intervention of the emperor. The queen, however, tried to pleaſe the people by remitting the ſubſidy granted to Edward, but not levied; yet the acts of her parliament were not in general popular. Her own illegitimacy was reverſed, but that of Elizabeth was ungenerouſly confirmed; and Mary, by aſſigning to her ſiſter a low rank, even beneath the counteſſes, drove from the court one who had earneſtly forwarded her ſucceſſion. Religion was placed on the papal footing at the laſt part of Henry VIII's reign, and all preaching, except by licence, ſtopped. The proteſtants were now ſeverely treated, their preachers impriſoned, and even the men of Suffolk, to whoſe loyalty Mary owed her crown, were ſeverely threatened, and one of them pilloried for demanding that liberty of conſcience, with the promiſe of which ſhe had engaged their aſſiſtance.

Mary was now for a ſhort time diverted from her perſecutions, by the overtures made by her couſin, Charles V. of Spain, for a match between her and his ſon Philip, a handſome prince, ten years younger than herſelf. The nation, however, ſaw the event in a light ſo different, that a dangerous revolt enſued, headed by ſir Thomas Wyat, a Kentiſh knight; who, although a ſteady Roman catholic, had imbibed, by travelling through Spain, an utter deteſtation of that country's ſevere manners. Followed by a ſtrong party he marched from Rocheſter to London, having been joined on the road by a band of citizens, at the head of whom that venerable warrior, the duke of Norfolk (now relieved from his attainder), meant to have oppoſed him. Wyat, however, finding the bridge of the metropolis well defended, loſt ſo much time in marching round by Kingſton, and in repairing the broken carriages of his artillery, that when he entered London through Hyde-park, a ſtrong force had been collected, by which he was overpowered and taken. He expiated his fault on Tower-hill, where he ſolemnly avowed

avowed the innocence of the princeſs Elizabeth and of Courtney, who both had been charged as favouring his revolt. Much blood was ſhed on this occaſion. Suffolk, with lady Jane Grey, and her huſband, were beheaded; and lord Thomas Gray, a gallant commander, with hundreds of inferior rank, ſuffered death in the ſame cauſe. The unfortunate Jane was highly accompliſhed, and well verſed in the ancient as well as the modern tongues. To her laſt moments ſhe lamented her having accepted the crown; and laid the blame on her own blind filial affection; and told the people from the ſcaffold that ſhe ſuffered deſervedly, ſince her innocence was no excuſe for the trouble which ſhe had occaſioned to the realm. She would not ſee her huſband, leſt the interview ſhould be too affecting; and, with inimitable meekneſs, thanked doctor Fecknam with her laſt words, for the pains he had ineffectually taken in endeavouring to convert her to his faith. She was only ſixteen years of age when ſhe ſuffered. Mary now gave orders, that the church ſhould be purged of all married prieſts, and ſome thouſands of the clergy, in conſequence, loſt their benefices.

In July, 1554, prince Philip of Spain arrived at Southampton. Diſpleaſed, perhaps, at the ſtern commander of his convoy, who had fired at the Spaniſh ſhips to make them ſalute the Engliſh flag, he landed with his ſword drawn, and made no return to the compliments which attended his approach to that polite town. The Engliſh were diſguſted by a continuation of this haughty conduct; but Mary endeavoured to make up by her fondneſs for the indifference of her ſubjects. The articles of the union had been drawn with great caution; and Philip gained little by the wedding, which was celebrated at Weſtminſter, A. D. 1554, except a homely, ill-tempered, jealous, wife. The gold which he brought with him (which filled twenty-ſeven cheſts, beſides ninety-nine horſe-loads and two cart-loads of coin) ſmoothed his way; and he gained ſome credit with the Engliſh by interfering with Mary in behalf of her ſiſter Elizabeth, of Courtney, Dudley, Harrington, and others who were confined, and in great danger.

A conference on religion held at Oxford having ended, as the Roman catholics declared, in favour of the old faith, Mary, who now gave it out that ſhe was pregnant, no longer deferred the ſolemn re-union of England to the holy ſee, and with ſincere tranſport quitted that heretical title "The Supreme Head of the Church;" and was ſo much affected at the ſpeech which cardinal Pole made on this occaſion before both houſes of parliament, that it was declared "ſhe felt the child ſtir in her womb." Inſtantly the Roman catholics affirmed it would be a male; and Bonner, biſhop of London, ordered prayers throughout his dioceſe, "that he might be beautiful, vigorous, and witty." The prieſt of Alderſgate went further, and, by a ſpirit of prophecy, deſcribed the ſex and features of the embryo. Yet this uterine commotion proved to be nothing but a dropſy! Whether it was from this diſappointment, or the levity of the proteſtants, or both, a ſcene of the moſt bloody perſecution now followed. The parliament had revived the moſt ſanguinary laws againſt heretics, and the mild ſyſtem of Pole gave way to the atrocious counſels of Gardiner. Rogers, the moſt popular of proteſtant preachers, led the way to the ſtake; Hooper, late biſhop of Glouceſter, followed; nor were the horrors of bigotry long checked even by the declaration of Alphonſo, almoner to Philip, who, before the council, bitterly reproached the Engliſh biſhops for their impolitic inhumanity, and endeavoured to ſtop the effuſion of innocent blood. After a ſlight pauſe, the perſecution raged with more fury than ever. Ferrars, biſhop of St. David's, was burnt in his own dioceſe; and the venerable Latimer, with Ridley, late biſhop of London, ſuffered the ſame cruel death at Oxford. The fate of Gardiner, who was awfully ſtruck with death while exulting in the tortures of the laſt-mentioned ſufferer, did no ſervice to the cauſe of humanity. Bonner, who ſurpaſſed him in carrying on the infernal perſecution, added ſavage buffoonery to the moſt refined cruelty. Yet, even he, fatigued with the ſacrifice of blood, was ſometimes reprimanded for indolence.

To finiſh at once this diſgraceful and deteſtable ſubject, during the three remaining years of Mary's ſanguinary reign, there periſhed at the ſtake two hundred and ſeventy-ſeven perſons; among whom were reckoned, five biſhops, twenty-one clergymen, eight gentlemen, eighty-four tradeſmen, one hundred huſbandmen, fifty-five women, and four children. The temper of Mary grew more turbid, in proportion as her views and hopes were defeated. That pregnancy on which both ſhe and Philip ſo much depended, cloſing in diſappointment, the ſpouſe, on whom ſhe ſo fondly doated, left her, with cool contemptuous indifference, and haſtily ſailed to Spain; and even her hireling ſenate, when ſhe wanted money to gratify her huſband, reproached her for having given back to the church thoſe domains which ought to have ſupplied her with what ſhe now demanded. Philip certainly wedded Mary with a view to rule in England, and when the queen was ſuppoſed to be pregnant, he applied to parliament that he might be regent during the minority of any child which might appear, offering to give bond to ſurrender the government to ſuch child when of age to rule. The debate grew warm; but lord Paget aſking, "who ſhould ſue the king's bond?" the whole was ſuddenly concluded in the negative.

Diſappointed by her parliament, and deſerted by her huſband, Mary now exerted herſelf in diſcovering and fining ſuch as had ſhared the moveables, books, &c. of monaſteries; and by her orders, towards the cloſe of the year 1555, archbiſhop Cranmer was tried by three commiſſioners for hereſy, and condemned to be degraded, and to be burnt alive. It was at this awful period that the frailty of human nature, and the importunity of Engliſh and foreign divines, perſuaded Cranmer to forſake that religion, of which he had hitherto been the chief ſupport. His apoſtacy was ſhort. Mary, who deteſted him for his ſhare in her mother's divorce, not chooſing to loſe her revenge, privately ordered his execution. But Cranmer had already repented of his weakneſs; and when he was brought to church to abjure proteſtantiſm publicly, he diſappointed the auditors by bemoaning his own folly, and affirming his determination to die in his former opinions. See the particulars of his execution under CRANMER, vol. v. p. 324.

Mean time cardinal Pole ſucceeded Cranmer in the ſee of Canterbury; and the fires at Smithfield blazed fiercely for inferior heretics, while the zealous Mary was only prevented from burning larger numbers of her ſubjects by the remiſſneſs of the county magiſtrates, whom the council were forced perpetually to remind of their duty. The princeſs Elizabeth, during this heat of perſecution, was in no pleaſant ſtate. Since her releaſe from the Tower, ſhe had been in ſuch ill-omened cuſtody, that ſhe had often reaſon to think her life in danger. Once Gardiner had actually procured a warrant for her death, ſigned by ſome of the privy-council; but the queen being told of it, was obliged to forbid the execution. At Woodſtock ſhe was perpetually teazed by Gardiner, to own her enmity towards Mary; but which ſhe ſteadily denied. Philip, as is generally believed, at length, obtained leave for her to live at Hatfield; and even there ſhe had to her knowledge, in her own houſehold, two ſpies upon her conduct. To calm the anxiety which ſuch ſituations muſt occaſion, the princeſs had recourſe to the grateful aid of literature, and ſoothed her fears by peruſing the elegant productions of the ancients in their native tongues.

During this period, A. D. 1556, the weakneſs and bigotry of the government, its want of money, and the unwillingneſs to exaſperate by taxation a people who deteſted its meaſures, rendered the ſtate of England contemptible in the eyes of foreign nations. A war with

Scotland was with difficulty avoided, by the firmneſs of the lords Shrewſbury and Wharton; who, with a ſmall force, ill-paid, kept the borderers in peace with each other. But the extreme diſcontent of the people occaſioned more than one riſing in various parts of England. One of theſe at Dis, in Norfolk, though trifling in itſelf, and headed only by a poor ſchoolmaſter, named Cleber, furniſhed a ſufficient pretence for ſeveral perſons to ſuffer the death of traitors at Bury, in Suffolk.

It was not until 1557, that Philip of Spain deigned to viſit his neglected conſort; but, more actuated by intereſt than love, he made her immediate declaration of war againſt France the price of all future endearments. Mary could hardly have brought this about, ſince the marriage articles, drawn by the cautious Gardiner, expreſsly guarded the nation againſt this contingency, had not an inſurrection in the north, under Stafford, given her a pretence to accuſe the French councils of diſturbing the peace of her realm. This ill-adviſed revolter, with a few French adventurers, who forſook him at the firſt onſet, pompouſly propoſed himſelf as protector of England againſt the Spaniards. He was ſeized in Scarborough by lord Weſtmoreland, brought to London, and with three accomplices executed.

To raiſe money from a turbulent people, to ſupport the meaſures of a weak queen and a timid miniſtry, was no eaſy taſk; and various and humiliating were the expedients to which recourſe was had by Mary. One time ſhe forced ſixty gentlemen to lend her one thouſand pounds a-piece: but theſe impoſitions fell chiefly on proteſtant families; the Roman catholics preſumed much on their favour at court, and were moſtly ſkreened from theſe oppreſſions; but ſometimes they preſumed too far, as in the caſe of lord Stourton, a Roman baron of Wilts, who, on this principle, had bitterly oppreſſed his neighbour, a gentleman, named Hartgill, to whom he owed an old grudge. At length, in 1557, truſting to his intereſt with the council of Mary, he nearly murdered the younger Hartgill, who was on a viſit at his houſe. Being fined and impriſoned for this attempt, he got leave to return to Wilts, that he might pay the fine to the Hartgills. He then decoyed the whole family into Kilmington churchyard, where he made his ſervants bind the father and ſon, and carry them by force to his houſe at Stourhead, after having wounded the wife of the younger Hartgill, who implored for her huſband on her knees. When he had them in his houſe, he cauſed them to be beaten with clubs, and then held the candle while his ſervants cut their throats. No intereſt of power or religion could protect lord Stourton after this execrable act. He was tried, found guilty, and hanged in the market-place of Saliſbury, as were his four ſervants at Stourhead.

With ſums thus acquired by extortions little ſhort of robberies, and by ſeizing the corn and grain for the uſe of her army, without any kind of remuneration to the owners, Mary was enabled to maintain a body of eight thouſand men, whom ſhe ſent under lord Pembroke, to join the army of her huſband Philip in Flanders, where they arrived in time to ſhare in the honour of the battle of St. Quintin. Meanwhile, Mary fought the battles of bigotry at home; and, forming an eccleſiaſtical council of twenty-one, which had as near a reſemblance to the inquiſition as ſhe dared to give it, ſhe placed ſpies on the country juſtices, ſummoned them to appear in London, and haraſſed them into meaſures which afforded new fuel for the Smithfield fires.

A ſevere diſgrace now impended over England. Calais, which had now been appended to the Britiſh dominions two hundred years, and had been eleven months in ſubduing, was loſt in almoſt as many days. Archbiſhop Heathe was chancellor and miniſter; and his royal miſtreſs and himſelf thought more of burning heretics, than of ſecuring the poſſeſſions of the crown. Calais, therefore, and its dependencies, deſtitute of men, money, and ſtores, fell eaſily to a ſpirited attack, commanded by the great duke of Guiſe, and ſeconded by the brother of the equally great admiral Coligny. This fortreſs, of much more conſequence to the honour than to the profit of the Engliſh nation, had been long menaced; and Philip of Spain had given notice of its danger to his improvident wife. She, however, took no attention to the preſervation of ſo intereſting a poſt, but permitted a large part of the garriſon, as had been uſual, from motives of an ill-judged parſimony, to quit the duty during the winter months. Lord Gray, the governor, a man of honour, in vain preſaged the fatal conſequence of this neglect. Mary's eccleſiaſtical miniſters mocked his fears, and ſaid that, during winter, their white ſtaves would be garriſon enough to defend the place. But Mary, unfeeling as ſhe was, felt this diſgrace, and ſaid, "that when ſhe ſhould die, Calais would be found engraven on her heart." The French turned all the inhabitants out of the place after plundering them. A number of Scots, who ſerved on the ſide of France, behaved with great kindneſs to the diſtreſſed Engliſh, even in the midſt of the exultations of the French, which were unreſtrained and unbounded. The caſtle of Guiſnes reſiſted longer than Calais, but ſoon fell, and that of Hammes was abandoned. Thus melted away the faſt hold which England long vaunted that ſhe kept over France. A parliament was now aſſembled; and, though in a very ill humour, it granted to Mary a ſupply, which enabled her to ſend a fleet under lord Clinton, which ravaged part of the French coaſt; but with little advantage or honour. Ten Engliſh ſhips of war were more fortunate. Hearing the noiſe of a battle while cruizing off Gravelines, they ſailed up an arm of the ſea, and by cannonading one wing of the French army, they enabled the Spaniards to give their foes a ſignal overthrow.

And now, after a ſeries of political errors and cruel perſecutions, the termination of Mary's inglorious reign drew on apace. Every reflection had for a long time weighed heavy on her heart, and now tormented her. The conſciouſneſs of being hated by her ſubjects, the proſpect of her ſiſter Elizabeth's ſucceſſion, whom ſhe hated, and, above all, her anxiety for the loſs of her huſband, who had taken a final farewel, all theſe painful ſenſations preyed upon her mind, and heightened a lingering fever, of which ſhe died, on the 17th of November, 1558, after a diſgraceful reign of five years, four months, and eleven days, in the forty-third year of her age. Her relation cardinal Pole, the primate, ſurvived her only ſixteen hours. She was buried in the chapel of her grandfather Henry VII. under the ritual of the church of Rome.

To delineate the character of this inglorious queen, is nearly as unpleaſant a taſk as to write the memoirs of her reign. Her perſon was mean, as her mind was narrow; from her mother ſhe inherited pride; from her father, obſtinacy and cruelty; but neither of her parents contributed to her any ſhare of their abilities. Yet, ſays Blackſtone, "many ſalutary and popular laws, in civil matters, were made under her adminiſtration; perhaps the better to reconcile the people to the bloody meaſures which e was induced to purſue, for the re-eſtabliſhment of religious ſlavery." The mildneſs and humanity of her brother Edward VI. muſt have been ſtrongly contraſted in the minds of the people, as well as in the impartial opinion of poſterity, with the horrible and unmitigated cruelty of Mary's government. That ſuch ſavage and ſanguinary acts ſhould have been endured in a country which had advanced any ſteps towards civilization, is aſtoniſhing! but it nearly exceeds the bounds of belief, that theſe acts ſhould have been practiſed under the pretence of promoting the cauſe of a religion, of which the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics are peace, forbearance, and good-will towards men. From the contemplation of ſuch enormities, we turn away with horror and diſguſt, to the milder influence of a more benignant reign. Yet, in juſtice to Mary, it muſt be acknowledged that the execrable example was afforded her by the proteſtants, in the

the time of her predeceſſor, in the horrid inſtance which has been noticed in the preceding pages.

Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. by Anna Boleyn, was ſtill leading a fugitive life at Hatfield, when the news reached her of her ſiſter's death; and haſtening to London, was received by the multitude with univerſal acclamations. Elizabeth had received her education in that beſt ſchool, the ſchool of adverſity; and ſhe had made a proper uſe of her retirement. Being debarred the enjoyment of pleaſures abroad, ſhe ſought for knowledge at home; ſhe cultivated her underſtanding, learned the languages and ſciences; but of all the arts which ſhe acquired, that of concealing her opinions, of checking her inclinations, of diſpleaſing none, and of ſtudying judiciouſly to reign, were the moſt beneficial to her. This *virgin* monarch, as ſome hiſtorians have called her, upon entering the Tower, according to the then cuſtom, A. D. 1558, could not refrain from remarking on the difference of her preſent and her former fortune, when ſhe was ſent there as a priſoner, and from whence ſhe had ſo narrowly eſcaped. She had no ſooner been proclaimed queen, than Philip, who had been married to Mary, but who had ever teſtified a partiality for Elizabeth, ordered his ambaſſador in London, the duke of Feria, to make her propoſals of marriage in his behalf. What political motives Elizabeth might have againſt this connection, are not mentioned; but certain it is, that ſhe neither approved the perſon nor the religion of her admirer. She was willing at once to enjoy the pleaſures of independence, and the vanity of numerous ſolicitations. But, while theſe were her views, ſhe returned him a very obliging, though evaſive, anſwer; and he ſtill retained ſuch hopes of ſucceſs, that he ſent meſſengers to Rome, to ſolicit a diſpenſation for that purpoſe from the pope.

Elizabeth had, from the beginning, reſolved upon reforming the church, even while ſhe was held in the conſtraints of a priſon; and now, upon coming to the crown, ſhe immediately ſet about the ſalutary work. But not to alarm the partiſans of the catholics, ſhe retained eleven of her ſiſter's council; and, in order to balance their authority, added eight more, who were known to be affectionate to the proteſtant cauſe. Her particular adviſer, however, was ſir William Cecil, ſecretary of ſtate, a man more earneſtly employed in the buſineſs than in the ſpeculations of the times; and who was anxious to adopt any religion that he thought would contribute to the welfare of the ſtate. By his advice, therefore, ſhe recalled all exiles, and gave liberty to all priſoners, confined on account of religion. She publiſhed a proclamation, which prohibited preaching without a licenſe, authorized divine ſervice to be read in Engliſh; and forbad in future the elevation of the hoſt. A parliament, A. D. 1559, completed what the prerogative had begun; act after act was paſſed in favour of the reformation; and in a ſingle ſeſſion the form of religion was eſtabliſhed, as we have at preſent the happineſs to enjoy it.

The oppoſition at firſt made by the clergy to theſe religious eſtabliſhments, was very furious; yet of nine thouſand four hundred beneficed clergymen, which was then the number in the kingdom, only fourteen biſhops, twelve archdeacons, fifteen heads of colleges, and about eighty of the parochial clergy, choſe to quit their preferments, rather than give up their religion. Thus England was ſeen to change its religious tenets four times ſince the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. "Strange" ſays a foreign writer, "that a people ſo reſolute ſhould be guilty of ſo much inconſtancy; that the ſame people who this day aſſiſted at the execution of heretics ſhould, the next, not only think thoſe heretics guiltleſs, but conform to their ſyſtems of thinking."

The queen, thus fixed upon a proteſtant throne, had all the catholic countries of Europe to contend with; and France, Scotland, Italy, and Spain, combined againſt her. Even her ſubjects of Ireland were concealed enemies; and the catholic party in England, though profeſſing obedience, were ready to take advantage of her ſlighteſt misfortunes. In this ſituation ſhe had no other reſources than the affection of her ſubjects, her own perſeverance, and the wiſdom of her adminiſtration. From the commencement of her reign, ſhe aimed at two very difficult attainments; of being loved by her ſubjects, and feared by her courtiers. She reſolved to be frugal of her treaſury, and ſtill more ſparing in her rewards to favourites. This at once kept the people in good humour, and the great in a conſtant ſtate of dependence. In ſhort, ſhe appeared to have ſtudied the people ſhe was born to govern, and thence knew how to flatter their foibles, and ſecure their affections. Her chief miniſter was Robert Dudley, ſon to the late duke of Northumberland, whom ſhe ſeemed to regard from capricious motives; for he poſſeſſed neither abilities nor virtue. But to make amends, the two miniſters next in power were Bacon and Cecil, men of great capacity and infinite application; they regulated the finances, and directed the political meaſures with foreign courts, which were afterwards followed with ſo much ſucceſs.

The affairs of Elizabeth wore every feature of genial ſucceſs; but a ſtate of permanent felicity is not to be expected on earth. Mary Stuart, commonly called Mary queen of Scots, was the firſt perſon that excited the apprehenſions of the magnanimous queen of England. We have already noticed, that Henry VII. married his eldeſt daughter Margaret to James IV. king of Scotland, who dying, left an infant ſon, by Margaret, afterwards James V who marrying, for his ſecond wife, Mary Guiſe, ducheſs dowager of Longueville, had iſſue Mary, afterwards queen of Scots. At a very early age, this princeſs, being poſſeſſed of every accompliſhment of perſon and mind, was married to the dauphin of France, afterwards Francis II. who dying in 1560, left her a widow at the age of nineteen. As Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate by Henry VIII. Francis, in right of his wife, the granddaughter of Margaret, began to aſſume the title of king of England; nor did the queen of Scots, his conſort, ſeem to decline ſharing this empty appellation. But what gave the greateſt offence to Elizabeth, was a report that Francis and Mary had coined money with the arms of France quartered with thoſe of England, and had actually cauſed the ſame to be engraved on their ſervice of plate.

Upon the death of Francis, Mary, the widow, ſtill ſeemed diſpoſed to keep up the title; but finding herſelf expoſed to the perſecution of the dowager queen, the mother of Francis, who now began to take the lead in France, ſhe determined to return home to Scotland, and demanded a ſafe paſſage from her couſin Elizabeth through England. But it was now Elizabeth's turn to refuſe; and ſhe ſent back a very haughty anſwer to Mary's requeſt, upbraiding her with having deſigns on the crown of England. From hence a perſonal enmity began to prevail between theſe rival queens.

The reformation in England having completely taken place, that work was now alſo going on in Scotland; but with circumſtances of great animoſity among the people. The mutual reſentment which either party in that kingdom bore to each other, knew no bounds. It was in this divided ſtate of the country, that Elizabeth, by giving encouragement to the reformers, gained their affections from their native queen, who being a catholic, naturally favoured thoſe of her own communion. The reformers conſidered Elizabeth as their patroneſs and defender, and Mary as their perſecutor and enemy. In this ſituation of things Mary had returned from France to reign in Scotland, entirely attached to the cuſtoms and manners of that airy people, and conſequently averſe to the gloomy auſterity which her reformed ſubjects affected, and which they fancied made an indiſpenſable ingredient in religion. The jealouſy thus excited, began every day to grow ſtronger; the clergy waited only for ſome indiſcretion in the queen, to fly out into open oppoſition;

ſition; and her affairs too ſoon gave them ſufficient opportunity.

After two years ſpent in altercation and reproach between Mary and her ſubjects, it was reſolved by her council, A. D. 1564, that ſhe ſhould look out for ſome alliance, by which ſhe might be protected againſt the inſolence and infatuation of her ſpiritual inſtructors. After ſome deliberation, lord Darnley, ſon to the earl of Lenox, was the perſon in whom their wiſhes centred. He had been born and educated in England; was grandſon to Henry VII. by his daughter Margaret of Scotland, and therefore divided with Mary the claim to the crown of England; he was now in his twentieth year, and was poſſeſſed of a fine manly exterior. When Sir James Melvill was ſent to communicate this treaty of marriage to the court of London, and to have recognized their next right of ſucceſſion to the crown, Elizabeth affected to approve of the nuptials. The Engliſh princeſs, as jealous of Mary's charms as of her title, ſifted the ambaſſador even as to the colour of her hair. At laſt, ſhe aſked him plainly, which of the two he thought the faireſt? To this the cautious Melvill anſwered, that her majeſty was the faireſt perſon in England, and his miſtreſs in Scotland. During their interviews, Elizabeth ſhewed herſelf to him in the dreſſes of various countries, and contrived to let him hear her perform on the virginals, an inſtrument which ſhe underſtood to perfection; all the time endeavouring, with incredible dexterity, to allure the envoy into compariſons diſadvantageous to his miſtreſs.—Yet Elizabeth, when afterwards informed of the actual conſummation of theſe nuptials, pretended to teſtify the utmoſt diſpleaſure; ſeized the earl of Lenox's Engliſh eſtate, and threw the counteſs and her ſecond ſon into the Tower. Duplicity of conduct, was a ſtrong feature in Elizabeth's character; and, on the preſent occaſion, it ſerved as a pretext for publicly denying Mary's title to the future ſucceſſion of England, which that princeſs urged. In this ſame year 1564, under the perſecuting hand of Elizabeth towards all her relations of the blood royal, Frances ducheſs of Suffolk, daughter to Mary of France, youngeſt ſiſter to Henry VIII. ended in priſon a life, which, for variety of wretchedneſs, had but few parallels ſince that of the Trojan Hecuba. She had ſeen her daughter, lady Jane Grey, beheaded. Her own and her daughter's huſbands had ſhared the ſame fate. Her daughter Catharine, after having been repudiated by the earl of Pembroke, was now confined in the Tower; and her youngeſt daughter, Mary, moſt unequally matched to an inferior officer of the houſehold.

The queen of Scots, in the mean time, had been too much dazzled by the pleaſing exterior of her new huſband, to allow herſelf to look to the accompliſhments of his mind. Darnley was but a weak and ignorant man; violent, yet variable in his gratifications; inſolent, yet credulous, and eaſily governed by flatterers; devoid of all gratitude, becauſe he thought no favours equal to his merit; and being addicted to low pleaſures, he was equally incapable of the delicate ſenſations of love and tenderneſs. Mary, at firſt had taken a pleaſure in exalting him beyond meaſure; but having leiſure to remark his follies and his vices, ſhe converted her regard into diſguſt; and Darnley, enraged at her coldneſs, directed his vengeance againſt every perſon he ſuſpected to be the cauſe of this change in her behaviour.

There was then in her court one David Rizzio, the ſon of a muſician at Turin, himſelf a muſician, who, finding it difficult to ſubſiſt by his art in his own country, had followed the ambaſſador from that court into Scotland. As he underſtood muſic to perfection, he was introduced into the queen's concert, who was ſo taken with him, that ſhe deſired the ambaſſador, upon his departure, to leave Rizzio behind. The queen ſeemed to place peculiar confidence in him; and her ſecretary for French affairs having fallen under her diſpleaſure, ſhe promoted Rizzio to that office. It was eaſy to prevail upon a man of Darnley's jealous temper, that Rizzio was the perſon who had eſtranged the queen's affections; and a ſurmiſe once conceived, became to him a certainty. He therefore conſulted with ſome lords of his party, ſtung as he was with envy, rage, and reſentment; and they not only fanned the conflagration, but offered their aſſiſtance to diſpatch Rizzio. The earl of Murray, brother to the queen, the earl of Morton, lord Douglas, natural brother to the counteſs of Lennox, the lords Ruthven and Lindſey, are ſaid to have ſettled the circumſtances of this poor creature's aſſaſſination; and determined that, as a puniſhment for the queen's indiſcretions, the murder ſhould be committed in her preſence. Mary was at this time in the ſixth month of her pregnancy, and was then ſupping in private, attended by the counteſs of Argyle, her natural ſiſter, ſome other ſervants, and her ſecretary Rizzio. Lord Darnley led the way into the apartment by a private ſtaircaſe, and ſtood for ſome time leaning on the back of Mary's chair. His angry looks and unexpected intruſion, greatly alarmed the queen, who neverthelcſs remained ſilent. A little after, Ruthven, Douglas, and the other conſpirators, ruſhed in, all armed, and ſhowing in their looks ſome brutal intentions. The queen could no longer reſtrain her fears, but demanded the reaſon of this bold intruſion. Ruthven made her no anſwer; but ordered Rizzio to quit a place of which he was unworthy. Rizzio now ſaw that he was the object of their vengeance; and, trembling with apprehenſion, put himſelf under the queen's protection, who, on her part, ſtrove to interpoſe in his behalf. Douglas, in the mean time, had reached the unfortunate Rizzio; and ſnatching a dagger from the king's ſide, plunged it into Rizzio's boſom, who, ſcreaming with fear and agony, was dragged into the ante-chamber, where he was inhumanly butchered with fifty-ſix wounds. The affrighted princeſs, being informed of his fate, inſtantly diſcontinued her lamentations, and menaced revenge. The inſult indeed upon her perſon and honour, and the danger to which her life was expoſed on account of her pregnancy, were injuries ſo atrocious and ſo complicated, that they left but little room for pardon. Yet this act of violence ſeemed only to be puniſhed by temporiſing; ſhe pretended to forgive ſo great a crime; and exerted the force of her natural allurements ſo powerfully, that her huſband ſubmitted implicitly to her will. He gave up his accomplices to her reſentment, and retired with her to Dunbar, while ſhe, having collected an army which the conſpirators had no power to reſiſt, advanced to Edinburgh, and obliged them to fly into England, where they led a fugitive life, in poverty and diſtreſs. They made application, however, to the earl of Bothwell; and that nobleman, deſirous to ſtrengthen his party by the acceſſion of their intereſt, found means to pacify her reſentment, and he at length procured them liberty to return home.

The earl of Bothwell was of a conſiderable family in Scotland; and though not diſtinguiſhed by any talents, civil or military, yet he made ſome noiſe in the diſſenſions of the ſtate, and was an oppoſer of the reformation. He was a man of profligate manners, had involved his fortune in great debts, and reduced his income by his profuſions. This nobleman, however, is ſaid to have ingratiated himſelf ſo far with the queen, that all her meaſures were eventually directed by his advice and authority. Reports were even ſpread of more unpardonable intimacies; and theſe gave ſuch uneaſineſs to Darnley, that he left the court, and retired to Glaſgow, where he was ſuddenly taken ill. Thoſe who wiſhed well to Mary's character, were extremely pleaſed to hear that her tenderneſs for her huſband was revived, and that ſhe had taken a journey to Glaſgow to viſit him in his ſickneſs. Darnley was ſo delighted with her affectionate behaviour, that he reſolved to part with her no more; he put himſelf under her direction, and returned with her to Edinburgh. She lived in the palace of Holyrood-houſe; but as the ſituation of that manſion was low, and the concourſe of

perſons

perſons about the court attended with noiſe, which might diſturb him in his infirm ſtate of health, ſhe fitted up an apartment for him in a ſolitary houſe at ſome diſtance, called the Kirk of Field. Mary even there gave him every mark of kindneſs and attachment; ſhe converſed cordially and kindly with him, and ſlept in a room under him. But on the ninth of February, 1567, ſhe told him ſhe would paſs that night in the palace, becauſe the marriage of one of her houſehold was to be there celebrated in her preſence. But dreadful was the conſequence which enſued. About two o'clock in the morning the whole city was alarmed at an uncommon exploſion: the houſe in which Darnley lay was blown up with gunpowder! His dead body was found at ſome diſtance in a neighbouring field, but without any marks of violence or contuſion. No doubt could be entertained but that Darnley was murdered; and the general ſuſpicion fell upon the earl of Bothwell. All orders of the ſtate, and the whole body of the people, began moſt commendably to demand juſtice, and a ſtrict enquiry to be ſet on foot, in order to detect, and to puniſh, the perpetrators; amongſt whom even the queen herſelf was ſuſpected to be implicated. On this ſubject the pens of the moſt able hiſtorians have been employed; and various have been their conjectures as to the fact. The enquiry, indeed, rather belongs to the article SCOTLAND; but as the ſubject is ſo very intereſting, and ſo intimately connected with queen Elizabeth's reign; and more particularly as Mary queen of Scots was brought to the ſcaffold in England, it may not be conſidered as much out of its place, if we ſtate the principal facts under the records of this country. The party zeal of our more early hiſtorians induced them to labour hard to ſtain the memory of the unfortunate Mary with the blood of her huſband; while later and more diſpaſſionate writers, have been inclined wholly to acquit her. Dr. Coote, in his very able and impartial hiſtory, ſeems judiciouſly to have ſteered between the two extremes, which has prompted us to follow him.

It was the partizans of the earl of Murray who firſt propagated reports to the prejudice of the queen's character, inſinuating that ſhe had been concerned in the murder of a huſband whom ſhe hated. But more ſatisfactory evidence than has yet been produced, ſeems neceſſary, to an impartial mind, to juſtify thoſe who have imputed to her ſo horrible a crime. However great might be the averſion which ſhe had conceived for Darnley, the humanity of her diſpoſition was too ſtrong to ſuffer her to concur in his deſtruction. Had ſhe been deſirous of his death, ſhe might have procured the judicial condemnation of one who was ſo generally deſpiſed, that the nobles would not have interpoſed to reſcue him from juſtice. She might have brought him to trial for the united crimes of murder and treaſon; of murder, in having abetted the aſſaſſination of her ſecretary; of treaſon, in having directed his agents to commit that deed in the queen's apartment, to the manifeſt hazard of her life. She might, with equal facility, have procured a *legal* ſeparation from him, without injuring her ſon's legitimacy, which could not have been affected by a divorce grounded on his adulterous commerce with other women; or, even if there had been a riſk of deſtroying the ſon's right of inheritance, an act which expoſed that right to diſpute would have been far leſs criminal than the murder of the father.

From the character, alſo, of the chief accuſers of Mary, a diſpaſſionate enquirer would be led to form a ſtrong preſumption of her innocence. Theſe were the earls of Murray and Morton, who were men of ſuch depraved hearts, and ſuch unprincipled minds, that no crime which might gratify their irregular paſſions, would appear too enormous for them to perpetrate. The former was confident that, by his hypocritical pretences to piety, and by his artful mode of throwing off his own guilt on the heads of others, he could retain the good opinion of the whole preſbyterian party, whoſe plan of reformation he had warmly patroniſed. An eminent hiſtorian obſerves, that Murray could have no motive for the commiſſion of the murder; but, without judging from the event, we may infer, from his conduct preceding the king's death, that he aimed at the poſſeſſion of the government; and, as he retained a ſtrong reſentment againſt his ſiſter for her final reſolution of puniſhing him, which nothing but the ſituation of her affairs, on the aſſaſſination of Rizzio, had induced her to relinquiſh, he was ready to contrive any ſcheme which might at once be ſubſervient to his animoſity and his ambition. We alſo find that he had been apprehenſive of the execution of Darnley's menaces againſt his life; a fact recorded by Camden, which, according to the frequent practice of that age, would prompt him to anticipate the blow. Under theſe circumſtances, can it be juſtly ſaid that he had no motive for the crime? On the contrary, he ſeems to have had every motive which, however repugnant to humanity and juſtice, could urge a vindictive and aſpiring nobleman, who foreſaw, in the event of the conſpiracy, the indulgence not only of his revenge againſt Darnley, but likewiſe againſt the queen, whom, by calumnies conſequent on the murder, and by ſuch advice as might contribute to increaſe the effect of his malicious fabrications, he might render ſo unpopular that her depoſition might eaſily be procured by his influence over a people who had long been impatient of the government of a catholic princeſs. The earl of Morton, the friend and confederate of Murray, was influenced by ſimilar views. He was exaſperated againſt Darnley for having deſerted him after the murder of Rizzio, in violation of his ſolemn engagements for the protection of the authors of that horrid deed. Beſides, the deſire of vengeance, the hopes of recovering his influence in the government, and the dignified office of chancellor, inclined him to promote, with great eagerneſs, the iniquitous ſchemes of the queen's brother.

When Mary had received intelligence of her huſband's ſudden diſſolution, ſhe iſſued a proclamation, offering rewards for the diſcovery of the murderers. Bothwell being accuſed of the crime by the public voice, the earl of Lenox adviſed the queen to bring him to trial, as well as all other perſons who were ſuſpected of a concern in it. Mary, without heſitation, gave directions for that purpoſe; and Lenox was deſired to repair to Edinburgh, that he might be preſent at the judicial proceedings. He propoſed that Bothwell ſhould be taken into cuſtody; but the queen at firſt declined it, becauſe the accuſation againſt him reſted only on the evidence of anonymous bills fixed up in different parts of the city. When the day of trial arrived, the arts of Bothwell, and the influence of Morton and the other partizans of Murray (for this nobleman himſelf, to avoid ſuſpicion, had retired into France), deterred the earl of Lenox from appearing as an accuſer; and no evidence being adduced againſt Bothwell, the jury thought proper to acquit him. This verdict received the ſanction of a parliament which met two days afterwards; and the diſſolution of this aſſembly was followed by a remarkable aſſociation of many of the nobles for promoting the marriage of Bothwell with the queen. They ſigned a bond, expreſſing their conviction of his innocence of the king's murder, and promiſing to hazard their lives and fortunes in defending him againſt all who ſhould preſume to charge him with that crime. He had lately been extremely aſſiduous in his endeavours to obtain favour with Mary; but, when he made propoſals of marriage to her, ſhe ſignified her diſſent. Unwilling to ſubmit to a refuſal, he reſolved to make uſe of compulſive meaſures; and, by a daring violation of her chaſtity, to render a marriage with him neceſſary for the reparation of her wounded honour. He aſſembled a party of eight hundred horſe, under pretence of making an excurſion againſt banditti; and meeting the queen in her return from a viſit to her infant ſon, he diſperſed her ſmall guard, and ſeizing her horſe by the bridle, conveyed her to the caſtle of Dunbar. He there conjured her, in the moſt

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perſuaſive terms, to forgive that vehemence of paſſion which had hurried him into this outrageous behaviour; called to her mind the loyal ſervices which he had performed; repreſented in ſtrong terms the inveterate malignity of his enemies; and declared that nothing but the queen's favour, exemplified in her acceptance of his hand, could ſecure him from the effects of their hatred. Her reluctance not being overcome by his artful inſinuations, he produced the bond which the aſſociated nobility had ſigned. Finding his addreſſes ſo ſtrongly ſanctioned, and not being aware of the perfidious views of the chief ſubſcribers of the bond, ſhe began to relax in her oppoſition to his propoſals, and promiſed to gratify him with the matrimonial union. A mere promiſe not being ſo valid a ſecurity as he wiſhed, he had recourſe to "extraordinary and unlawful means (ſays Melvil in his Memoirs) for the completion of his wiſhes. Partly by artifice, and partly by force, he triumphed over her chaſtity. He ſoon after procured a divorce from his wife; and Mary having promoted him to the dukedom of Orkney, the nuptials between him and his ſovereign were ſolemnized at Edinburgh.

Bothwell, in the mean time, though an undoubted agent in the murder, was ſuffered by the rebellious nobles to remain at Dunbar, unmoleſted, near a fortnight; a circumſtance which may be conſidered as corroborative of the opinion of thoſe who have attributed the contrivance of that deed to Murray and Morton. The latter, who, in the abſence of the former, directed the motions of the inſurgents, dreaded the regular condemnation of Bothwell, leſt he ſhould diſcloſe ſuch particulars as might injure the reputation of his ſecret accomplices. He therefore connived at the retreat of this obnoxious nobleman, who, apprehenſive of the ſtroke of aſſaſſination, put to ſea with a few veſſels, and commenced the practice of naval depredation. Being purſued by Kirkaldy of Grange, he eſcaped to Norway, where he was thrown into priſon for an act of piracy. He died in confinement ſome years afterwards; and, on his death-bed, made a ſolemn declaration of queen Mary's innocence of the murder of Darnley, in which, ſays Keith, in the Appendix to his Hiſtory, "he affirmed, the earls of Murray and Morton, ſecretary Maitland, and other perſons of diſtinction, were concerned with him."

This fatal alliance, however, was the deſtruction of Mary. The principal nobility met at Stirling; and an aſſociation was formed for protecting the young prince her ſon, and puniſhing the king's murderers. Lord Hume was the firſt in arms; and, leading a body of eight hundred horſe, ſuddenly environed the queen in the caſtle of Borthwick, and conducted her to Edinburgh, amidſt the inſults of the populace. From thence ſhe was ſent a priſoner to the caſtle of Lochlevin, ſituated on a lake of that name. Here Mary, by her charms and promiſes, engaged a young gentleman of the name of Douglas to aſſiſt in making her eſcape; and this he effected by conveying her in diſguiſe in a ſmall boat, rowed by himſelf. The news of her enlargement being ſoon ſpread abroad, the loyalty and love of her people ſeemed to revive once more. As Bothwell was no longer aſſociated in her cauſe, many of the nobility ſigned a bond of aſſociation for her defence; and in a few days ſhe ſaw herſelf at the head of ſix thouſand men.

The earl of Murray, her brother, who had been declared regent, was not ſlow in aſſembling forces againſt her; and, although his army was inferior to that of the queen, he boldly took the field. A battle was fought at Langſide, near Glaſgow, A. D. 1568, which proved deciſive in his favour. Mary, now totally ruined, fled from the field of battle with great precipitation; and came with a few attendants to the borders of England, vainly hoping for protection from Elizabeth. With theſe hopes ſhe embarked on board a fiſhing boat in Galloway, and landed the ſame day at Workington in Cumberland, about thirty miles diſtant from Carliſle, whence ſhe immediately diſpatched a meſſenger to London, craving protection, and deſiring liberty to viſit the queen. Elizabeth, previouſly informed of her misfortunes, deliberated upon the proper methods of proceeding, and reſolved, at laſt, to act in a friendly yet cautious manner. She ſent orders to lady Scrope, ſiſter to the duke of Norfolk, to attend on the queen of Scots; and ſoon after diſpatched lord Scrope and ſir Francis Knolles, to pay her all poſſible reſpect. Notwithſtanding theſe marks of kindneſs, the queen refuſed to admit Mary into her preſence, until ſhe had cleared her character from the foul aſperſions with which it was ſtained.

Mary was now to undergo an examination before commiſſioners; her rival Elizabeth was to be the umpire; and the accuſation was to be undertaken by her brother Murray, the Scottiſh regent. This extraordinary conference, which was to deliberate on the conduct of a foreign queen, was managed at York; three commiſſioners being appointed by Elizabeth, nine by the queen of Scots, and five by the regent, in which he himſelf was included.

The prejudices entertained by Elizabeth againſt her unhappy kinſwoman, were now evident in her conduct in the appointment of commiſſioners, and in the teſtimony which ſhe admitted or rejected on thoſe occaſions. When the different commiſſions had been read, Mary's repreſentatives entered a proteſt, importing, that, though ſhe had conſented to refer the diſputes between herſelf and her rebellious ſubjects to the arbitration of the queen of England, ſhe had no idea of acknowledging any ſuperiority in that princeſs, but was herſelf an independent ſovereign. The Engliſh commiſſioners, on the other hand, declared, that, though they received this proteſt, they would not ſuffer it to prejudice that right of feudal ſuperiority which the ſovereigns of England had always claimed over Scotland. A paper was afterwards preſented to the court by Mary's deputies, containing a ſtatement of the acts of treaſon and rebellion committed againſt her by her brother's faction, and of the ſucceſſive injuries which had been heaped upon her. The regent, in his turn, accuſed Mary of having countenanced the iniquitous ſchemes of the earl of Bothwell, ſo as to render it neceſſary for her nobles to inſiſt on his diſmiſſion from her ſociety; mentioned the ſteps which had been taken againſt the earl, as well as againſt the queen, whoſe partiality for him juſtified them in depriving her of her liberty; and affirmed that ſhe had voluntarily reſigned her crown to her ſon, from the diſguſt which the fatigues and inquietudes of royalty had excited in her mind; that the parliament had ſanctioned her reſignation; and that the national affairs had been conducted with order and tranquillity, till ſome turbulent individuals had releaſed her from her confinement, and taken arms againſt the young king.

The omiſſion of the charge of murder againſt the Scottiſh queen, which the regent had before induſtriouſly propagated, gave great ſurpriſe to many. But, excluſive of the ſuppoſition that he was ſcrupulous of advancing an accuſation which he knew to be incapable of proof, he had lately had ſecret conferences with the duke of Norfolk, which may account for his ſilence on this head. The duke, commiſerating the fate of Mary, of whoſe reſtoration he was ſincerely deſirous, and whoſe perſon he wiſhed to poſſeſs, remonſtrated with the regent on the infamy to which he would ſubject himſelf by a public accuſation of his ſiſter and his ſovereign; aſſured him that Elizabeth had reſolved not to give a definitive ſentence in the cauſe, whatever evidence might be adduced on either ſide; and hinted the danger not only of being deſerted by that queen, but of being expoſed to the ſevereſt vengeance of Mary, if ſhe ſhould ever regain her crown. The earl liſtened to theſe obſervations, ſays Melvil, and gave the duke a promiſe that he would not produce thoſe documents which, he pretended, would convict Mary of adultery and murder. The documents here alluded to conſiſted of letters and ſonnets, ſuppoſed to have been

written by Mary to Bothwell. If theſe were genuine, little doubt would remain of the guilt of that princeſs. A controverſy has long ſubſiſted on this ſubject; and authors of eminence have appeared on both ſides of the queſtion. Some have maintained, that the letters and poems are the real compoſitions of Mary; while others, after a very accurate examination, have proved to the general ſatisfaction, that they were forged under the auſpices of the earls of Murray and Morton, whom, not only the moſt reſpectable friends of the injured queen, but many of the criminals who ſuffered death for their agency in the murder of Darnley, accuſed of having planned that nefarious deed.

Theſe pretended productions of Mary were ſhewn by the regent to Elizabeth's commiſſioners, in a private interview; a circumſtance which does not reflect a very high character of the candour of the earl and his colleagues, who thus clandeſtinely tampered with the Engliſh delegates in the conſideration of that important evidence, which ought to have been firſt produced in open court. They had before expreſſed an unwillingneſs to exhibit in form this grand head of accuſation, till they had received an explicit anſwer on the following points: Whether the commiſſioners were authoriſed to give a final decree in the cauſe; and whether Elizabeth would protect the accuſers of Mary from that reſentment which the latter princeſs would naturally feel againſt her adverſaries. To theſe interrogatories an evaſive reply was given by the Engliſh deputies, who, at the deſire of the regent, ſent to Elizabeth for further inſtructions. It was in this interval of delay, that Murray had privately opened to them his budget of evidence, that they might communicate their opinion of it to their ſovereign, who would then ſee how far they were diſpoſed to concur in the plan which ſhe and the earl appear to have concerted for obſtructing the vindication of Mary's character. From the account which they gave Elizabeth of the papers, ſhe was inclined to think that they conſidered them as forgeries; a circumſtance which did not coincide with her views. Hence ſhe was induced to recal the commiſſion which ſhe had granted, and to evoke the cauſe to Weſtminſter, where the proceedings would be more immediately under her eye. A new commiſſion was then iſſued, in which, though the duke of Norfolk and his two colleagues were re-appointed, five other delegates were named, in whoſe ſubſerviency Elizabeth placed greater confidence. Theſe were, the lord-keeper Bacon, the earls of Arundel and Leiceſter, Clinton the high-admiral, and ſecretary Cecil.

Mary being now called upon by the Engliſh commiſſioners to ſtate her anſwer to the various charges ſet forth by Murray, declined entering into any ſuch defence or explanation, unleſs in the preſence of Elizabeth, who alone could be conſidered as her equal, and conſequently of propoſing to her any kind of interrogatory. This privilege being refuſed, Mary perſiſted in demanding Elizabeth's protection as an injured queen; and ſhe deſired either to be aſſiſted in her endeavours to recover her crown, or that liberty ſhould be given her for retiring into France, there to make trial of the friendſhip of other princes. But Elizabeth, aware of the danger which attended both theſe propoſals, was ſecretly reſolved to detain her in captivity; and the queen of Scots was ſent to Tutbury caſtle, in the county of Stafford, and put under the cuſtody of the earl of Shrewſbury; there ſhe beguiled her royal priſoner with the hopes of one day coming into favour; and that, unleſs her own obſtinacy prevented, an accommodation might at laſt take place. But the deſigns and arts of Elizabeth had no ſuch pacific views: while ſhe kept up the moſt friendly correſpondence with Mary, and expreſſed the warmeſt proteſtations of ſincerity, ſhe was far from aſſiſting her cauſe, or rendering her the ſmalleſt ſervice. It was her intereſt to keep the factions in Scotland alive, and to weaken the power of that reſtleſs and turbulent nation: for this purpoſe ſhe depreſſed the party of the queen, which had now power to prevail; and in the mean time procured her adverſary, the earl of Lenox, to be appointed regent in the room of Murray, who had ſuffered a merited fate.

Thus every event which promiſed to be favourable to Mary, was prematurely cut off by the inſidious vigilance of Elizabeth. The duke of Norfolk, who enjoyed the higheſt title of nobility in England, was at this time a widower; and, being of a ſuitable age to eſpouſe the queen of Scots, made him deſirous of the match. But the obtaining Elizabeth's conſent, previous to their nuptials, was a circumſtance eſſential to his aims: yet, while this nobleman made almoſt all the nobility of England confidants to his paſſion, he never had reſolution to open his intentions to the queen. On the contrary, in order to ſuppreſs the ſurmiſes that were currently reported, he ſpoke contemptuouſly of Mary to Elizabeth. This duplicity only ſerved to inflame the queen's ſuſpicions; who, on enquiry, finding this intercourſe ſtill going on, ſhe had him committed to the Tower.

But the duke of Norfolk had too many partiſans in the north, to be confined without an effort for his releaſe. The earls of Weſtmoreland and Northumberland had prepared meaſures for a rebellion; had communicated their deſign to Mary; had entered into a correſpondence with the duke of Alva, governor of the Low Countries, and had obtained his promiſe of men and ammunition. But the vigilance of Elizabeth was not to be eluded: orders were immediately ſent for their appearance at court; and now the inſurgent lords, perceiving their plan diſcovered, were obliged to begin their revolt before matters were ripe for its execution. They accordingly publiſhed a manifeſto, in which they alleged that no injury was intended againſt the queen, to whom they vowed unſhaken loyalty; but that their ſole aim was to re-eſtabliſh the religion of their anceſtors, to remove all evil counſellors from about the queen's perſon, and to reſtore the duke of Norfolk to his liberty, and to the queen's favour. Their number amounted to four thouſand foot, and ſixteen hundred horſe; and they expected to be joined by all the catholics in England. But they ſoon found themſelves miſtaken: the queen's conduct had gained the general good-will of the people, and ſhe began to perceive that her ſureſt truſt was in the juſtice of her actions. The duke of Norfolk himſelf, for whoſe ſake they had revolted, uſed every method that his circumſtances would permit, to aſſiſt the queen; the inſurgents were obliged to retire to Hexham; and, hearing that reinforcements were upon their march to join the royal army, they had no other expedient but to diſperſe. The earl of Northumberland fled into Scotland, and was confined by the regent to the caſtle of Lochlevin; Weſtmoreland, after attempting to excite the Scots to revolt, was obliged to eſcape into Flanders. This rebellion was followed by another, fomented by lord Dacres, but with as little ſucceſs. Some ſeverities were uſed againſt theſe revolters; and, it is ſaid, that no leſs than eighty ſuffered by the hands of the executioner. The queen was ſo well ſatisfied with the duke of Norfolk's behaviour, that ſhe releaſed him from the Tower, A. D. 1569, and allowed him to return home, after exacting a promiſe that he would not proceed any further in his pretenſions to the queen of Scots. But this fatal promiſe involved his life. He had not been releaſed above a year, when new projects were ſet on foot by the enemies of the reformed religion, ſecretly fomented by Rodolphi, an inſtrument of the pope, in concert with the biſhop of Roſs. It was propoſed that Norfolk ſhould renew his addreſſes to Mary, to which it is probable he was prompted by paſſion; while the duke of Alva engaged to ſend over a body of ſix thouſand foot, and four thouſand horſe, to enable Norfolk to recover Mary's liberty. This ſcheme was ſo ſecretly conducted, that it had entirely eſcaped both the vigilance of Elizabeth, and of Cecil, who now bore the title of lord Burleigh. It was diſcovered merely by ac-

cident; for the duke having ſent a ſum of money to lord Herries, one of Mary's partiſans in Scotland, omitted truſting the ſervant with the contents of his meſſage; and he finding, by the weight of the bag, that it contained a larger ſum than the duke mentioned to him, began to miſtruſt ſome plot, and brought the money, with the duke's letter, to the ſecretary of ſtate. By the artifices of Burleigh, the duke's ſervants were brought to make a full diſcovery of their maſter's guilt; and the biſhop of Roſs, finding the plot diſcovered, to ſave his own life, confirmed their teſtimony. The duke was re-committed to the Tower, and ordered to prepare for his trial. A jury of twenty-five peers found him guilty, and the queen, four months after, ſigned the warrant for his execution. The earl of Northumberland being delivered up by the regent, underwent a ſimilar trial, and was alſo brought to the ſcaffold for rebellion. All theſe ineffectual ſtruggles in favour of the unfortunate queen of Scots, only ſerved to rivet her chains, and harden the obdurate and ſuſpicious heart of Elizabeth.

While theſe cruel and vindictive meaſures were purſuing in England, the Hugonots, or Chriſtian reformers, in France, had been greatly perſecuted by the catholic party of the houſe of Guiſe, and were obliged to ſolicit the aid and protection of the Engliſh. With a view to ſecure the confidence of Elizabeth, being then in poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of Normandy, they offered to put Havre de Grace into the queen's hands; a proffer which ſhe heſitated not to accept. She wiſely reflected, that, as Havre commanded the mouth of the Seine, it might in ſome meaſure compenſate the loſs of Calais; and, by this acquiſition, ſhe could ſtill have a check upon the French on the continent. Accordingly, three thouſand Engliſh troops took poſſeſſion of Havre and Dieppe, under the command of the earl of Warwick; but the latter place was ſo little capable of being defended, that it was immediately abandoned; and Havre itſelf, being ſoon after cloſely inveſted, was obliged to capitulate. But the French could not have accompliſhed this, had not a dreadful peſtilence reduced the gallant Engliſh band to a handful. The capitulation had hardly been ſigned, before lord Clinton appeared at the mouth of the harbour with a fleet and three thouſand ſoldiers. They were too late; and, to add to this diſaſtrous campaign, the diſeaſe which had thinned the garriſon, accompanied the poor remains of the army to London, where, in 1563, it ſwept away near thirty thouſand ſouls; while the perſecuting ſpirit of the bloody-minded French proceeded to the maſſacre of St. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY; for which ſee vol. ii. p. 764.

The death of Charles IX. of France, which followed in 1574, eaſed the mind of Elizabeth from half its anxiety. Henry III. who then ſucceeded to the throne, both hated and dreaded the houſe of Guiſe, and conſequently depreſſed the intereſt of the unfortunate Mary of Scotland. That kingdom enjoyed at this period a kind of tranquillity under the government of Morton, whoſe entire dependence on the Engliſh queen, at the ſame time that it confirmed his power, prevented his gratifying his natural and wicked propenſities to the extent of his wiſhes.

Ireland had been ſtrangely convulſed; but the care of Walter Devereux earl of Eſſex had reſtored at leaſt the appearance of ſubmiſſion among the revolted chiefs. The whole annual revenue of Ireland was then barely ſix thouſand pounds. To this Elizabeth moſt unwillingly added twenty thouſand more. One thouſand ſoldiers, or in great need, two thouſand, compoſed the whole military power. A force perfectly incapable of ſubduing a numerous and warlike race; but rather ſerving to provoke the natives, and to excite thoſe frequent inſurrections which kept up and inflamed the animoſity between the two nations. That Elizabeth ſhould never have exerted the ſtrength of England to end theſe troubles, appears ſo ſtrange to a learned prelate, biſhop Hurd, that he thinks "the weak meaſure muſt have proceeded from the dictates of a crooked policy."

Although Elizabeth privately ſupported the proteſtant intereſt in France, and ſupplied the Hugonots with large ſums to levy German troops, ſhe nevertheleſs ſent, in 1575, to congratulate the new French monarch, the enemy of the Guiſes, and to inveſt him with the order of the garter. Her embaſſy was received with great reſpect. Elizabeth had at this epoch, indeed, attained to that high importance in the political balance of the continent, which her father had miſſed through his own intemperate levity; her brother, through his youth and inexperience; and her ſiſter, through violence and bigotry.

In 1576, the Hollanders, diſtreſſed beyond meaſure by the power of Spain, which they had long and gallantly reſiſted, entreated Elizabeth, as heireſs of Philippa, queen of our Edward III. to accept their ſovereignty, and undertake their protection. Tempting as was this offer, the Engliſh queen declined it; ſhe interpoſed, however, her good offices with Philip, although in vain; and afterwards advanced twenty thouſand pounds to the diſtreſſed revolters. But the appearance of Don John of Auſtria in the Netherlands, as governor, in 1577, greatly diſconcerted Elizabeth. She dreaded that prince; ſhe knew that it was his avowed wiſh to wed Mary of Scotland, and to aſſert her pretenſions to the crown of England. She therefore determined to ſupport the revolters with vigour; ſhe advanced to them one hundred thouſand pounds by way of loan; and conſented by treaty to ſupply them with five thouſand foot, and one thouſand horſe. At the ſame time ſhe wrote to the king of Spain a moſt artful apology for her conduct, profeſſing that ſhe had only undertaken the protection of the Netherlanders, to prevent their throwing themſelves into the hands of France; and offering to withdraw her aid, if Don John and the Spaniſh troops ſhould be recalled. Philip imitated the deep policy of Elizabeth; and, while he profeſſed a continuation of amity, attempted to excite the Iriſh to revolt. But the wiſe precautions of the Engliſh queen had guarded againſt his machinations.

In 1578, Elizabeth received an embaſſy from France, propoſing a treaty of marriage between her and the duke of Anjou, late Alençon. This embaſſy was kindly received; but the eyes of Europe were not yet opened to a ſpecies of political coquetry, which ever aſſiſted that princeſs in her negociations. Even the ſubtle Catharine de Medicis was deceived, and thought her youngeſt ſon already king of England; at the ſame time that Philip of Spain was ſo far led to ſuſpect the deſigns of his brother Don John of Auſtria towards an union with Elizabeth, that he put to death privately one of that prince's ſecretaries, whom he thought the confidant of a matrimonial treaty between him and that moſt inſcrutable of ſovereigns.

The negociations for the queen's marriage were quickened in 1579, by the arrival of Simier, an artful agent ſent by Catharine de Medicis; who gained ſuch an aſcendant over the counſels of Elizabeth, that even her favourite Leiceſter was alarmed, and intimated to the credulous, his apprehenſion of philtres, ſpells, &c. while Simier, irritated at the charge, informed the queen of Leiceſter's private marriage with the widow of Eſſex, a diſcovery which would have conducted the imprudent favourite to the Tower, had not lord Suſſex interpoſed, and repreſented to Elizabeth the extreme illegality of puniſhing any man for a legal act like matrimony. The fatal end of Morton, regent of Scotland, a man devoted to her commands, as he held his authority ſolely under her protection, being now tried, convicted, and executed, for treaſon againſt the young king James VI. made Elizabeth ſpend the cloſe of 1580 in ſome degree of anxiety.

It was now time alſo that the wire-drawn farce of the French marriage ſhould come to a concluſion. The duke of Anjou had every reaſon to fancy himſelf ſure of

his royal bride; ſhe had ſent to him in Flanders a preſent of 100,000 crowns, the matrimonial articles were ſettled to her mind, and a ſumptuous embaſſy was ſent from France to aſſiſt at the wedding: Anjou himſelf arrived now in England, and was received by the queen with viſible pleaſure. She placed on his finger a valuable ring as a pledge of her love, and took up the pen to ſign the marriage deeds, but ſhe proceeded no further. The duke daſhed the ring on the floor; and loudly curſing the caprice of Elizabeth and the ruggedneſs of her people, he took his way ſoon afterwards to Flanders, where his ill-concerted plans of deſpotiſm rendered him odious to the people who had invited his coming. It is ſtill a myſtery why the Engliſh queen ſhould have worn the uſeleſs maſk of affection ſo long, and have put this wanton inſult on a ſuitor ſo reſpectable in his connections. Many are of opinion, that an uncontroulable paſſion for Anjou carried her to ſuch abſurd lengths, in ſpite of that policy which would have made her break off the negociation by degrees. Had France been freed from civil broils, the queen might have drawn a cruel war on her ſubjects by this worſe than fantaſtical conduct. Her moſt favoured courtiers had, it is true, wearied her with arguments againſt the union, and ſhe herſelf, when ſhe dropt the pen, aſked her council harſhly, 'If they were not conſcious that this marriage would be her death?' An odd queſtion, which has given riſe to as odd conjectures.

In 1584, Elizabeth, alarmed at the general cry againſt her ſeverity, openly queſtioned her judges as to their treatment of Roman catholics and others, charged with treaſonable proceedings, and they anſwered very ingenuouſly, "Campion had indeed been ſtretched (the term uſed for racking) but with ſuch moderation, that he could walk immediately afterwards. Another criminal, Bryan, had been kept without nouriſhment until he gave a ſample of his writing, which had been in vain demanded." Elizabeth abſolved the judges, but ordered the rack to be uſed no more in England, and releaſed ſeventy prieſts who had been impriſoned on ſuſpicion.

The ſituation of Elizabeth was now extremely critical; many of her own ſubjects, led by miſtaken motives of religion, and excited by the artful miſſionaries of the Flemiſh univerſities, were exciting conſpiracies againſt her; unaided by any ally, ſhe was on the point of engaging in a conteſt with the moſt potent and ſubtle prince which Europe had ever known. Philip could at this period command the aſſiſtance of the German empire; he poſſeſſed (beſides Spain and the Indies) Portugal and her important colonies: his naval ſtrength was ſuperior to that of all the reſt of Europe; the Netherlands (whoſe gallant defender the prince of Orange had been juſt then aſſaſſinated) ſeemed to be proſtrate at his feet; and France, his old and dreaded enemy, from the impolitic ſuggeſtions of narrow bigotry, rather favoured than oppoſed the ambitious plans of the Spaniſh tyrant. In that country the Guiſes, whoſe power, grounded on popular fanaticiſm, was unbounded, had formed, or rather renewed, a formal covenant, ſtyled 'The League;' by which Henry of Navarre, the next heir, on failure of the houſe of Valois, was excluded from the throne, if he ſhould continue to profeſs the reformed religion.

It was at this awful criſis that Elizabeth, convinced of the king of Spain's inveterate enmity, and determined to ſhew herſelf as vigorous in purſuing, as ſhe had been cautious in adopting meaſures of hoſtility, began inſtantly to attack Philip in his moſt vulnerable ports. The enterprizing ſpirit of Drake was now called into action. With twenty ſtout veſſels he ſailed to the Weſt Indies, reduced St. Jago, the capital of the Cape Verd Iſlands; on his paſſage took the town of St. Domingo in Hiſpaniola, and Cathagena on the continent of South America; then, after ravaging the coaſt of Florida, returned to England with the loſs of 700 men by diſeaſe, but enriched by vaſt treaſures, and accompanied by the poor remains of a colony which ſir W. Raleigh had endeavoured to ſettle in Virginia. See the article DRAKE, p. 64 of this volume.

The Hugonots, hard preſſed in France, were not neglected by Elizabeth. She ſupplied the prince de Condé with a large ſum of money, and lent him ten ſhips of war, with which he effected the relief of Rochelle, the ſtrong hold of the French proteſtants. In the mean while Wootton, a man of the moſt inſinuating turn, entertaining in converſation, and ſkilled in dreſs and falconry, was ſent by the Engliſh queen to reſide at the court of James VI. of Scotland, to gain his favour, and inſpect his conduct. It is even ſaid, that he was to endeavour at ſeizing the perſon of the Scottiſh monarch, with a view to convey him to England; if ſo, James ſhewed great ſenſe in forgiving the unjuſt machination, and in entering very ſoon afterwards (in ſpite of the remonſtrances of France) into the moſt rational and political treaty ever made between the ſiſter nations. It was an alliance offenſive and defenſive, and may be ſaid to have ſecured to the king of Scots the affections of the Engliſh, and the ſucceſſion to their ſovereignty. The regard of James was aſſuredly much conciliated by an annual penſion of 5000l. equivalent to the Lenox eſtate, and granted at this period.

The extenſive enterprizes of Elizabeth in foreign lands, ſhould ſeem to imply that all was peace at home. It was not ſo. Parry, a member of the commons, being convicted of an intention to aſſaſſinate the queen, ſuffered the death of a traitor; Arundel, ſon to the unfortunate duke of Norfolk, ſeeking to fly the realm, was ſent to the Tower, where Henry Percy earl of Northumberland had juſt ſhot himſelf, either conſcious of guilt, or dreading the prejudices of his judges. Other circumſtances of a melancholy nature now alſo took place. Anthony Babington, a young gentleman of Derbyſhire, inſpired with fanatical zeal to effect a change in the religion and government of his country, had joined with ſeveral men of family and fortune in a plot to aſſaſſinate Elizabeth. They had been excited to this conſpiracy by the exhortations of Dr. Gifford, and others of the Rhemiſh ſeminary. An eccentric ſpecies of ambition tempted ſeven of the chief plotters to have their portraits taken in one picture, with a myſterious motto, *Quorſum alio properantibus?* This picture was ſhewn to Elizabeth, who knew Barnwell, one of the group, as he had been with her in buſineſs from lord Kildare. Soon after this view of his portrait, ſhe met him, and ſtedfaſtly viewing him, ſaid ſternly to the captain of her guard, "Am I not well taken care of, that have not a man in my company who wears a ſword?"

The vigilant ſubtlety of Walſingham, ſecretary of ſtate, detected the whole contrivance; in conſequence, Babington, with thirteen of his aſſociates, ſuffered as traitors. This led to the final cataſtrophe of Mary queen of Scots. Though all England was acquainted with the event of Babington's conſpiracy, every avenue to the unfortunate Mary was ſo ſtrictly guarded, that ſhe remained in utter ignorance of the matter. But her aſtoniſhment could only be equalled by her anguiſh, when ſir Thomas Gorges, by Elizabeth's order, informed her of the fate of thoſe who were called her confederates. She was at that moment mounted on horſeback, going a-hunting; and was not even permitted to return to her former place of abode, but conducted from one nobleman's houſe to another, till ſhe was lodged in Fotheringay-caſtle, in Northamptonſhire, where the laſt ſcene of her deep tragedy was to conclude.

The council of England was divided in opinion about the meaſures to be taken againſt this illuſtrious ſtate priſoner. Some members propoſed, that as her health was infirm, her life might be ſhortened by cloſe confinement; therefore to avoid any imputation of violence or cruelty, Elizabeth's favourite, Leiceſter, propoſed that ſhe ſhould be diſpatched by poiſon; but the majority inſiſted on her being put to death by what was termed legal proceſs.

Accordingly

Accordingly a commiſſion was iſſued for forty peers, with five judges, or the major part of them, "to try and paſs ſentence upon Mary, daughter and heir of James V. king of Scotland, commonly called queen of Scots, and dowager of France." Thirty-ſix of theſe commiſſioners arriving at the caſtle of Fotheringay, Nov. 11, 1586, preſented her with a mandate from Elizabeth, commanding her to ſubmit to a trial for her late conſpiracy. Mary peruſed the warrant with great compoſure; but wondered the queen of England ſhould command her as a ſubject, who was an independent ſovereign like herſelf. She would never, ſhe ſaid, ſtoop to any condeſcenſion which would leſſen her dignity, or prejudice the claims of her poſterity. The laws of England, ſhe obſerved, were unknown to her; ſhe was deſtitute of counſel; nor could ſhe conceive who were to be her peers, as ſhe had but one equal in the kingdom. She added, that, inſtead of enjoying the protection of the laws of England, as ſhe had hoped to obtain, ſhe had been confined in priſon ever ſince her arrival in the kingdom; ſo that ſhe derived neither benefit nor ſecurity from them. When the commiſſioners preſſed her to ſubmit to the queen's pleaſure, otherwiſe they would proceed againſt her as contumacious, ſhe declared ſhe would rather ſuffer a thouſand deaths than own herſelf a ſubject to any prince on earth: that, however, ſhe was ready to vindicate herſelf in a full and free parliament; as, for aught ſhe knew, this meeting of commiſſioners was deviſed againſt her life, on purpoſe to take it away with a pretext of juſtice. She exhorted them to conſult their own conſciences, and to remember that the theatre of the world was much more extenſive than that of the kingdom of England. At length the vice-chamberlain Hatton vanquiſhed her objections, by repreſenting that ſhe injured her reputation by avoiding a trial, in which her innocence might be proved to the ſatisfaction of all mankind. This obſervation made ſuch an impreſſion upon her mind, that ſhe agreed to plead, if they would admit her proteſt, of diſallowing all ſubjection.

The principal charge againſt her was urged by ſerjeant Gaudy, who accuſed her with knowing, approving, and conſenting, to Babington's conſpiracy. This charge had been ſupported by Babington's confeſſion, by the copies which were taken of their ſuppoſed correſpondence, in which her approbation of the queen's murder was expreſsly declared, by the evidence of her two ſecretaries, Nairne and Curle, who ſwore that ſhe received Babington's letters, and that they had anſwered them by her orders. To theſe charges Mary made a moſt ſenſible defence; ſhe ſaid Babington's confeſſion was extorted from his fears of the torture; which was really the caſe: ſhe alleged that the letters were forgeries; and ſhe defied her ſecretaries to perſiſt in their evidence, if brought into her preſence, which was refuſed. She owned that ſhe had uſed her endeavours to recover her liberty, which was only purſuing the dictates of nature; but as for conceiving a thought againſt the life of the queen, ſhe treated the idea with horror. Whatever might have been this queen's offences, it is certain that her treatment was ſhamefully ſevere. She deſired to be put in poſſeſſion of ſuch notes as ſhe had taken preparative to her trial; but this was refuſed. She demanded a copy of her proteſt; but her requeſt was not complied with: ſhe wiſhed an advocate to plead her cauſe againſt ſo many learned lawyers as had undertaken her accuſation; but even this was rejected; and after an adjournment of ſome days, ſentence of death was pronounced againſt her in the Star-chamber in Weſtminſter, all the commiſſioners, except two, being preſent. At the ſame time a declaration was publiſhed by the commiſſioners, implying, that the ſentence againſt her did in no wiſe derogate from the title and honour of James, king of Scotland, ſon to the attainted queen.

During the interval between this ſentence of the Scottiſh queen and its execution, Elizabeth acted a part remarkable for diſſimulation and hypocriſy. When ſhe found that the tide of public prejudice ran ſtrongly againſt Mary, and that the people were as eager as herſelf for the execution of that princeſs, ſhe commanded ſecretary Daviſon to prepare the warrant for her ſignature. As ſoon as it was produced before her, ſhe ſigned it with as much cheerfulneſs and ſelf-complacency as if it had contained the grant of a pardon. She even inſulted the misfortunes of the injured queen by unſeaſonable jocularity. Having deſired the ſecretary to inform his colleague Walſingham (then indiſpoſed) of what ſhe had done, ſhe added, with an air of levity, that ſhe was apprehenſive of his dying of grief at the intelligence. But, after ſhe had thus given her ſanction to the public execution of Mary, her fear of the cenſures of mankind ſuggeſted to her an expedient by which ſhe hoped to remove the odium of her death on her keepers. She wiſhed them to murder her in private, on pretence of the aſſociation by which they had bound themſelves to revenge any attempt againſt the life of their own ſovereign. This contrivance, ſhe flattered herſelf, would tend to the propagation of an opinion that ſhe had not conſented to Mary's death, and that the officious zeal of private individuals had perpetrated the deed without her knowledge. Pleaſed with the ſuggeſtion, ſhe ordered the two ſecretaries of ſtate to write a letter to Paulet and Drury, who had the charge of the condemned queen, reproaching them with their want of loyalty and public ſpirit, in not having relieved her, by ſome deciſive means, from the danger to which ſhe was hourly expoſed by the life of Mary; urging the bond of aſſociation as a ſufficient juſtification of ſuch a meaſure to their own conſciences as well as to the world; and reprobating their unkindneſs in wiſhing to throw the odium upon her, acquainted as they were with the humanity of her diſpoſition, which rendered it ſo unpleaſing to her to order the execution even of the loweſt criminal, that they might eaſily ſuppoſe her to be peculiarly averſe to the idea of iſſuing an order for the delivery of a princeſs of her own family into the hands of the executioner. Paulet and his aſſociate, though not remarkable for their tenderneſs to Mary, had too much honour to perpetrate the infamous deed in which their unprincipled ſovereign was deſirous of employing them. She might command, they ſaid, their honourable ſervices; but they ſcorned to act the part of aſſaſſins. Mortified at their refuſal, which ſhe ridiculed as the offspring of idle ſcrupuloſity, Elizabeth reſolved to inſtigate ſome leſs conſcientious perſons to the ſecret murder of the Scottiſh queen. But, being diſſuaded from that reſolution by the remonſtrances of Daviſon, ſhe thought proper to have recourſe to the regular execution of the ſentence. That miniſter having communicated the warrant to the chancellor for the application of the great ſeal to it, Elizabeth ſent a meſſenger to countermand that operation; and finding that it was already performed, ſhe reprimanded Daviſon for his precipitation. Wiſhing to draw him into a ſnare, that ſhe might have a pretence for imputing Mary's execution to him, ſhe neither ordered him to iſſue the warrant, nor to with-hold it. Conceiving it to be his duty to expedite a writ which had paſſed through the neceſſary forms, and which he knew the queen to be extremely deſirous of executing, he produced it before the privy council; and, as Cecil lord Burghley, Hatton, and other experienced courtiers, penetrated her ſchemes againſt Daviſon, of which indeed he himſelf had ſome ſuſpicion, they reſolved to gratify her wiſh, and eaſily perſuaded the whole aſſembly to concur in ſending off the warrant, without further communication with their miſtreſs. To allay the apprehenſions of Daviſon, all the counſellors engaged to bear an equal ſhare of the blame that might attend this meaſure.

In the mean time, accounts of this extraordinary ſentence being ſpread into all parts of Europe, the king of France was among the foremoſt who attempted to ſoften the

the heart of Elizabeth. He ſent over an extraordinary ambaſſador to intercede for the life of Mary. James of Scotland, her ſon, was, as in duty obliged, ſtill more preſſing in her behalf. He diſpatched lord Keith, with a letter to Elizabeth, conjuring her to ſpare the life of his parent. Elizabeth treated his interceſſions with the utmoſt indignity; and when the Scots ambaſſador begged that the execution might be delayed for a week, the queen anſwered, with great emotion, "No, not for an "hour!"

On the 7th of February, 1587, the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots was brought to the block, at eight o'clock in the morning. In that awful conjuncture, ſhe diſplayed a fortitude and a decency which would have honoured a matron of Rome; and, to the moment of her death, united the majeſty of a queen with the meekneſs of a martyr. The earls of Shrewſbury and Kent carried to the hapleſs lady the warrant for her death. Worn with ſickneſs, confinement, and diſtreſs, ſhe ſeems to have looked on this ſummons rather as a relief, than as an addition to her woes. She divided her wardrobe among her ſervants, and even deigned to excuſe herſelf to them for not adding to her preſent the magnificent habit in which ſhe went to her death; "but I muſt, (ſaid ſhe,) appear in a dreſs becoming ſuch a ſolemnity." It was not without many intreaties, that ſhe could get permiſſion for ſix of her ſervants to attend at her death. She was even forced to remind the earls that ſhe was "couſin to Elizabeth, deſcended from Henry VII. a married queen of France, and an anointed ſovereign of Scotland." The unutterable agonies of her ſervants ſhe tenderly repreſſed, telling them that ſhe had undertaken for the firmneſs of their behaviour. To her ſon ſhe ſent a tender and conciliatory meſſage by the weeping Melville. It was her hard lot to have her devotion ſhamefully diſturbed by the fanaticiſm of the buſy dean of Peterborough. Having prayed for the church, for her ſon, and for the proſperity and long life of Elizabeth, the intrepid Mary uncovered her neck, and ſmiled at her own dilatorineſs: "She was not (ſhe cheerfully ſaid) accuſtomed to undreſs before ſo much company." An involuntary burſt of tears proclaimed the feelings of thoſe who ſtood around; ſhe comforted and bleſſed them; then ſerenely laid her head on the fatal block, and two ſtrokes ſevered it from her body. Her remains were not at firſt treated with due reſpect; but they were afterwards interred ſplendidly at Peterborough, from whence James, her ſon, in 1612, removed them to Weſtminſter-abbey. Of the long epitaph inſcribed on her tomb, one line is ſtrikingly comprehenſive:

Jure Scotos, thalamo Francos, ſpe poſſidet Anglos.

Scotland ſhe claims, eſpouſes France, and hopes for England's crown.

She ſuffered in the forty-fifth year of her age, and the nineteenth of her captivity. Thus fell, by an illegal ſtretch of power in England, Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland in her own right, dowager of France, and heireſs of the crowns of England and Ireland; a victim to the malignity of female jealouſy, and to the rage of puritanical bigotry. Having ſufficiently ſpoken of the controverted parts of her conduct, we ſhall diſmiſs this illuſtrious female with a ſketch of her general character. Her perſonal accompliſhments were brilliant and captivating. By beauty of countenance, ſymmetry of form, and dignity of ſtature, ſhe was eminently diſtinguiſhed. The natural elegance of her addreſs, improved by the poliſh of Gallic education, heightened the attractions of her perſon; and her engaging affability, vivacity, and eaſe, delighted all who had the honour of converſing with her. She poſſeſſed very reſpectable talents; and her mind was cultivated by literature and erudition. In the profound knowledge of policy and government, ſhe was inferior to Elizabeth; but, in generoſity, magnanimity, and other royal virtues, ſhe excelled her celebrated rival. Of the crimes of murder and adultery, of which ſhe has been ſo peremptorily accuſed, later writers have endeavoured to acquit her, not only on the ground of inſufficiency of evidence, but on the conſideration of the flagitious characters of her chief accuſers. Into various acts of indiſcretion, however, ſhe was certainly carried, by the warmth of her feelings, and the ſuddenneſs of her reſolutions. Her attachment to her religion was ſo ſtrong as to expoſe her to the imputation of bigotry; and though ſhe made no open attempts to overturn that theological ſyſtem which her ſubjects had eſtabliſhed during her abſence on the continent, her forbearance was leſs the reſult of inclination than of the weakneſs of female authority over a bold and turbulent people. Being naturally frank and open (though ſhe was not unſkilled in diſſimulation), ſhe was inclined to entertain too favourable an opinion of thoſe who concealed their vices; and her occaſional credulity, and unſeaſonable clemency, afforded the ambitious hypocrites of her court an opportunity of effecting her ruin. Her deportment had too great an appearance of levity, to pleaſe thoſe fanatics who, under the auſpices of the earl of Murray, and the inſtructions of Knox, endeavoured to throw a gloom over the innocent cheerfulneſs of human life. She did not perhaps take the moſt proper ſteps for repreſſing the factious ſpirit of her nobles, or the ſeditious exceſſes of her clergy; and, by deviating, in ſome inſtances, from the paths of prudence and judgment, ſhe was leſs able to avert the ſtorm which drove her from her throne. Her weakneſs in truſting to the profeſſions of Elizabeth cannot be mentioned without cenſure; but her behaviour in that long ſeries of adverſity, which ſhe ſuſtained after ſhe had put herſelf into the power of the Engliſh queen, demands our admiration of her patience, fortitude, and conſtancy. In her priſon, and on the ſcaffold, ſhe appears a greater woman than Elizabeth on her throne, while trembling, like a jealous tyrant, with mean ſuſpicions and degrading fears.

As ſoon as her execution was notified to Elizabeth, another ſcene of hypocriſy was played off. She affected the utmoſt grief and aſtoniſhment, and threatened her miniſters with her ſevereſt diſpleaſure, for having put her dear couſin to death, not only without her knowledge or conſent, but even in oppoſition to her declared will. She now wrote a letter to the king of Scotland, aſſerting her innocence of his mother's death, and profeſſing an inviolable attachment to his intereſts. James was ſo incenſed, that he reſolved not only to renounce his alliance with Elizabeth, but to avenge, by hoſtilities, the cauſe of the murdered princeſs, his mother. His nobles applauded the juſtneſs of his reſentment, and promiſed to act with vigour againſt a queen who had inſulted and degraded their nation. He refuſed to admit ſir Robert Cary, the bearer of Elizabeth's letter, within his frontiers; though he afterwards conſented that the epiſtle ſhould be received, as well as a memorial written by Cary, in which the blame of Mary's execution was imputed to ſecretary Daviſon, whom the queen intended to puniſh ſeverely for his preſumption. Theſe diſpatches did not tend to allay the wrath of James, who eaſily diſcerned the falſehoods which they contained. He continued to think of revenge; and, as his own kingdom was too weak to give him hopes of ſucceſs in a war with England, he looked out for a powerful ally, by whoſe aid he might puniſh the injuſtice. In the mean time, Daviſon was proſecuted in the Star-chamber for a miſdemeanor, in having produced the warrant before the privy council without the orders of the queen, who affirmed that ſhe had ſtrictly enjoined him not to communicate it to any one till he had received further directions from her. Though Daviſon denied that ſhe had given him ſuch a charge, he was condemned by an arbitrary court to pay a fine of 10,000l. and to ſuffer impriſonment during the queen's pleaſure. This iniquitous ſentence reduced the ſecretary to indigence and miſery. He lingered ſome years in confinement; during which the queen, by whoſe tyranny he had been ruined, occaſionally relieved his neceſſities.

And now, whatever may be ſaid to excuſe Elizabeth for the impriſonment and death of her hapleſs competitor on the ſcore of ſtate-neceſſity, and ſtill more on that of ſaving her ſubjects from ſeeing the fires of Smithfield renewed by the bigotry of a ſecond Mary, no apology can be made for the wretched farce which ſhe acted after that event; for her loud laments; for her appeals to Heaven that ſhe meant not the death of Mary; nor, laſtly, for her unjuſt and inhuman treatment of the worthy Daviſon. All this made up a tiſſue of wicked diſſimulation, which diſgraced her even in her nobleſt actions. That attachment to a worthleſs favourite alſo, which had all along thrown a cloud over the reign of Elizabeth, began now to unveil itſelf. The conduct of the earl of Leiceſter in Holland, where he commanded the army, had been uniformly treacherous, daſtardly, and treaſonable. Governors appointed by him, York and Stanley in particular, had ſold to the Spaniards the forts entruſted to their care; each town in Holland had become a ſcene of intrigue; and a ſpirit of diſcontent, fomented by this ambitious minion, had almoſt diſunited thoſe provinces, whoſe union alone could preſerve their exiſtence as a nation. The Dutch told their wrongs aloud, and lord Buckhurſt was ſent to examine and report the truth. He returned to the queen with ample evidence of Leiceſter's bad conduct and worſe deſigns. He found the favourite in poſſeſſion of Elizabeth's ear, and both he and ſir John Norreys were diſgraced for expoſing Leiceſter's enormities; while that odious favourite was ſent back to Holland in triumph, and again began his career of turbulence and treaſon. However, it was not long before evidence of his having plotted to ſeize and impriſon Barneveldt, and thirteen more of the firſt perſons in the country, was brought forward; and this charge, which was too well grounded even for the partial ear of Elizabeth to reſiſt, obliged her to recal that worthleſs minion from the Netherlands, and to ſend lord Willoughby to take the command of his turbulent and ill-diſciplined army.

An awful period in the annals of England now approached. Philip II. elate with the dominions of Spain, of Portugal, and both the Indies, had determined to exert his vaſt naval power, and cruſh, with one huge effort, the inſolent iſlanders of Britain, who preſumed to ſmile at his vengeance. He had juſt received a new provocation; Drake, the ſcourge of Spain, had deſtroyed a whole fleet of tranſports at Cadiz, laden with ſtores and ammunition; had ravaged his weſtern coaſt; inſulted Liſbon; and taken a veſſel laden with treaſure, and papers of high importance.

The preparations of Spain for the invaſion and conqueſt of England, now filled every breaſt with anxious expectation. One hundred and thirty veſſels, moſt of which were larger than had been uſually known in the European ſeas, manned by 8350 ſeamen, 19,290 ſoldiers, and 2080 galley-ſlaves, and mounting 2360 large pieces of ordnance, compoſed a power which, in the eyes of Europe, ſeemed irreſiſtible; and which the Spaniards haughtily chriſtened The Invincible Armada. Nor was this the whole force deſtined to act againſt this devoted country; the prince of Parma had 25,000 veteran troops quartered along the coaſt of Flanders, ready to embark in tranſports and flat-bottomed veſſels, the moment the Armada ſhould appear to protect their paſſage towards the banks of the Thames; and ſome hundreds of deſperate Engliſh renegadoes prefented the moſt odious, but not the leaſt formidable, ſhow of this armament; the treacherous band was led by Stanley, already proſcribed for ſelling a Dutch fortreſs to Spain. Beſides theſe, 12,000 Frenchmen devoted to the intereſt of the Guiſes, in habitual hatred of proteſtants, were encamped on the Norman coaſt, ready to embrace the firſt opportunity of croſſing the channel, and of renewing in the weſt of England thoſe horrors which the Hugonots had felt in France.

Proviſions abounded in the Armada; bread and wine for 40,000 men, during a whole year, ſtored the holds; while the decks ſwarmed with volunteers of the higheſt ranks. Superſtition, too, added her fanatic but powerful aid; bulls, denouncing fire and ſword to England, accompanied the ſquadron; and a conſecrated banner from Rome waved over the heads of theſe formidable cruſaders. To oppoſe this tremendous armament the ſtrength of England appeared quite inadequate. The whole realm could not ſupply 15,000 able ſeamen; and the royal navy conſiſted only of twenty-eight veſſels, moſt of them ſmall, and ill calculated to lie along ſide the huge galleons of Spain and Portugal. But Elizabeth reigned in the hearts of her people, and the exertions which they unanimouſly made for their country were proportioned to their loyalty. London alone ſent her 10,000 men and thirty ſhips; not large, indeed, but well-equipped. Other ports followed this noble example; and the nobility and gentry bought or hired veſſels, and equipped them to ſerve in this glorious cauſe. The queen had hardly an ally but James of Scotland, whoſe intereſt bound him to her, in ſpite of her paſt conduct, and whoſe fidelity to his engagements was of infinite conſequence to England and the proteſtant cauſe. Great were the offers by which the ſubtle Spaniard tempted him to join in an enterprize, which he wiſhed to repreſent as chiefly meant to revenge the death of his injured mother. But the young prince had diſcernment enough to penetrate the ſlight veil with which the Spaniard wiſhed to conceal his real deſigns, and wit enough to remark to an ambaſſador, that "he found himſelf treated as Polyphemus treated Ulyſſes, and reſerved for Philip's laſt meal." Some ſmall aid England might be ſaid to have derived from the king of Denmark and the Hanſe-towns. Theſe, though not on good terms with Elizabeth, yet, moved by the common intereſt of nations, found means to delay and even ſtop the ſailing of thoſe Spaniſh ſhips which had put into their harbours, and were laden with ſtores for the Armada.

The martial and maſculine ſpirit of Elizabeth now ſhewed itſelf. She aſſembled her beſt officers. Her fleet ſhe entruſted to lord Howard of Effingham, and to Drake, Cavendiſh, and Forbiſher, the firſt ſeamen of the age. She raiſed three armies; one of 20,000 was cantoned along the coaſt; while one of 34,000, under lord Hunſdon, guarded her perſon, and was to act as occaſion might require. It pains the hiſtorian to add, that ſhe entruſted the third and moſt important corps of 22,000 men, encamped at Tilbury, and deſtined to defend the metropolis, to the worthleſs, the daſtardly, Leiceſter, whom ſhe unwiſely appointed general in chief of all her forces. Had the Spaniards really landed their troops, this partiality might have been fatal to England.

Leiceſter's army the queen viſited in perſon; and, riding through the ranks with a cheerful countenance, ſhe elevated the loyalty of the ſoldiers almoſt to the pitch of phrenzy, by one of the moſt ſpirited orations which any hiſtory can produce. She told them, that ſhe had been warned not to truſt herſelf among armed multitudes for fear of treachery; but that ſhe did not wiſh for life, if ſhe muſt diſtruſt her people: "Let tyrants fear, (ſaid the eloquent heroine;) I have always ſo behaved myſelf, that, under God, I have placed my chiefeſt ſtrength and ſafeguard in the loyal hearts and good-will of my ſubjects. I am therefore come among you, not as for my recreation and ſport, but as being reſolved, in the middle and heat of the battle, to live or die amongſt you all; to lay down, for my God and my people, my honour and my blood, even in the duſt. I know (added ſhe) that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman; but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too; and think foul ſcorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince in Europe, ſhould dare to invade the borders of my realm. To which, rather than any diſhonour ſhall grow by me, I myſelf will take up arms; I myſelf will be your general, judge, and the rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field," &c.

Negociations,

Negociations, deluſive on both ſides, had employed the commencement of 1588, until the end of May, when the Armada ſailed under the duke de Medina Sidonia, who, on the deceaſe of the marquis di Santa Cruz, had been appointed to command. A ſtorm, which damaged the ſhips and drove them back to Liſbon, had nearly occaſioned the diſarming of the Engliſh fleet; which the economical Elizabeth judged no longer neceſſary. Lord Howard, however, dared to diſobey her orders; happily for England, for on the 19th of July a Scots privateer ran into Plymouth, and informed him that the Armada was in the channel. Howard inſtantly diſpatched expreſſes for aſſiſtance; and, eager for action, towed his little fleet (about fifty veſſels) in ſpite of wind and tide, out of the harbour; undiſmayed at the floating caſtles which covered the ſea, and which, as an elegant Italian, Bentivoglio, paints, "advanced ſlowly, as if the ocean were tired of ſupporting, and the winds of impelling, ſo enormous a weight." He hung upon their rear; and, ſupplying the want of force by valour and activity, he delayed their progreſs until he had received reinforcements from every ſouthern port, fitted out and commanded by the flower of the Engliſh nation. The fleet of Howard now amounted to 140 ſhips, or rather barks; with theſe, unequal as they were, he ſkirmiſhed with the Invincible Armada ſix days. During this time the Engliſh veſſels could not lie alongſide of the Spaniards, ſo great was the ſuperiority of their metal; nor could they board them, ſo lofty were their ſides; nevertheleſs, by their perſevering agility they had gained ſuch advantages, that diſmay had taken place of that inſolence which had hitherto animated the invaders.

The Armada now lay confuſedly moored off Calais; it had loſt ſeveral of its largeſt veſſels, and the prince of Parma had refuſed to leave the ports of Flanders until he could be certain that the Spaniards were maſters at ſea. On the ninth night, eight fire-ſhips, commanded by the captains Young and Prowſe, daſhing among the thickeſt of the fleet, ſcattered terror and deſtruction around them; and twelve of the beſt ſhips which Medina Sidonia could boaſt of, were conſumed or loſt. While England had only to lament one brave officer, named Cocke; who, with his crew, overwhelmed by ſuperior force, periſhed in that glorious fight. The next day it was determined to abandon all ideas of an invaſion, and to conduct, if poſſible, the remains of the fleet back to Spain; and rather than venture to repaſs the channel, expoſed to the now dreaded veſſels of England, it was thought better to encounter the rocks, ſands, and billows, of that ſtormy ſea which waſhed the iſles of Shetland. Every ſpecies of wretchedneſs now hovered around them. Had not the Engliſh wanted ammunition, the Spaniards had all been their priſoners; as it was, tempeſts unceaſingly accompanied their courſe; ſome of the galleons ran on the Scottiſh ſhore, where the few that eſcaped were treated with decent kindneſs; others more unfortunate were daſhed to pieces on the coaſts of Ireland, where thoſe who gained the ſhore were without pity maſſacred. In fine, the Invincible Armada, reduced to leſs than a third of its original number, returned to Spain full of famine and diſeaſe, to become the theme of Philip's affected philoſophy.

Beſides her deliverance from the Spaniſh invaſion, England had another ſtill more important event in 1588; the deceaſe of Dudley earl of Leiceſter, the moſt unprincipled of court minions. He was on the point of being conſtituted lieutenant-general of England. His royal miſtreſs lamented his loſs with many tears; but, with characteriſtic economy, diſtrained his goods to reimburſe herſelf for what ſhe had lent him!

The Engliſh queen had hitherto, by a ſeries of deep machinations, prevented James VI. of Scotland from marrying. She loved not wedlock in any of her family; and was particularly apprehenſive, that a wife of diſcernment might encourage him to a ſeceſſion from that dependence on her will which ſhe now kept up. Towards the end of 1589, however, he exerted a ſpirit of which ſhe ſuppoſed him not to be capable, and, in ſpite of her machinations, wedded Anne of Denmark, after having encountered the ſtorms and waves of the Norwegian ocean.

That flame of enterprize which had been kindled among the Engliſh by the firſt ſucceſſes of Drake, now blazed higher and higher. Lord Thomas Howard with ſeven ſhips ſailed to the Azores in 1591, to intercept a fleet laden with the treaſure of India. Philip had ſent a large ſquadron to protect them. The Engliſh were bore down upon by a vaſt ſuperiority of ſhips; and Howard, with five of his veſſels, ran out to ſea and eſcaped; but the vice-admiral, ſir Richard Greenville, thinking it beneath the Engliſh character to ſhew the ſtern of his ſhip, the Revenge, to a Spaniard, reſolved ſooner to engage the vaſt force which beſet him, amounting to fifty-three men of war, manned with 10,000 ſeamen. During fifteen hours, he fought with as many of the enemy as could find room to attack him; at length, covered with wounds, his men almoſt all ſlain or wounded, his powder nearly ſpent, his maſts gone, and his veſſel, pierced by 800 bullets, almoſt ſinking under him, he earneſtly recommended it to the few ſurvivors of his crew to truſt in God, rather than in Spain, and to blow up the ſhip. The gunner and ſome others approved the idea; but, a contrary ſentiment prevailing with the majority, the Revenge was ſurrendered on honourable terms to Don Alphonſo Baſſano, the admiral of Philip. The gallant Engliſhman died of his wounds in three days; and his ſhip, the firſt Engliſhman of war Spain had ever taken, ſunk at ſea with 200 Spaniards on-board; a dear-bought prize; as the capture of her had coſt the enemy 2000 of their braveſt ſailors, and two of their ſtouteſt ſhips, which were ſunk, beſides two diſabled. In the mean time, the Indian fleet, which the dread of lord Howard had detained at the Havannah beyond its due ſeaſon, endeavouring to reach Spain, was diſperſed by a ſtorm; many of them fell into the hands of the Engliſh.

In France, ſir John Norreys and ſir Roger Williams commanded with great honour two ſeparate bodies of auxiliaries, ſent by Elizabeth to the help of Henry IV. It was, indeed, the intereſt of theſe two ſovereigns to unite againſt the overgrown power of Spain. In 1594, the Engliſh army, led by the gallant Norreys, encountered and defeated the Spaniſh forces in Bretagne, and with great gallantry aſſiſted at the taking Morlaix, Quimpercorentin, and Breſt; before which laſt place ſir Martin Forbiſher, who attacked it by ſea, found, with many other Engliſhmen, an honourable death. Early in 1596, Elizabeth had intelligence of a new and vaſt armament which Philip had prepared at Cadiz, under Don Martin di Padilla, an able officer, with a determination to ſubdue Ireland. She waited not to be attacked. A numerous fleet, under lord Effinghani, accompanied by a gallant army, ſailed inſtantly for the coaſt of Spain. The fleet was reinforced by the experienced valour of ſir Walter Raleigh, who had juſt returned from a ſucceſsleſs expedition in South America. Cadiz was boldly attacked and taken, in ſpite of a moſt obſtinate reſiſtance; and all the fleet and ſhips in the harbour were made prizes. Philip loſt on this occaſion fifteen large ſhips of war, and twenty-two veſſels laden with merchandize for the eaſt. But, during the abſence of the fleet on this expedition, the Spaniſh admiral had ſailed with another fleet, and 8000 ſoldiers, with a deſign to ſeize the unguarded harbour of Falmouth, and wait at the mouth of the channel to intercept the fleet of lord Effingham on its return from Cadiz. What the conſequence might have been, it is not eaſy to ſay; but Providence deigned to interpoſe; and no ſooner had the Spaniards gained ſight of Scilly, than, at the inſtant a council of war was ſitting on-board the admiral's ſhip, a ſtorm aroſe with ſuch violence that it prevented the captains from returning to their ſhips. Forty of their fleet were loſt or forced into hoſtile ports,

and

and the reſt utterly diſabled. The ſame tempeſt met the victorious fleet of England on its return; but the ſhips being lighter eſcaped with little damage. It would be tedious to relate all the advantages obtained by the Engliſh over the enemy at ſea, where the capture of every ſhip muſt have been made a ſeparate narrative; or their various deſcents upon different parts of the Spaniſh main, which were attended with effects too tranſient for the page of hiſtory. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the naval commanders of that reign were conſidered as the boldeſt men the world had produced; among whom were Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendiſh, Hawkins, &c. The Engliſh navy then firſt began to take the lead, and has ſince continued irreſiſtible in all parts of the ocean.

Among thoſe who made the moſt ſignal figure in the army, was the young earl of Eſſex, a nobleman of great bravery, generoſity, and genius; and fitted, not only for the foremoſt ranks in war by his valour, but to conduct the intrigues of a court, by his eloquence and addreſs. But with all theſe endowments, he wanted prudence; being impetuous, haughty, and totally incapable of advice or controul. The earl of Leiceſter, who died ſome time before, left room in the queen's affections for a new favourite, which ſhe was not long in chooſing. The bravery, the popularity, and the meridian of manhood, which now diſtinguiſhed Eſſex, were recommendations too important not to engage her attention. Elizabeth, though ſhe refuſed a huſband, yet appeared always deſirous of a lover; and flattery had rendered her ſo inſenſible to her want of beauty, and to the depredations of age, that ſhe ſtill thought herſelf as captivating by her perſonal accompliſhments, as by her authority. The new favourite was active, ambitious, witty, and handſome; in the field, and at court, he always appeared with ſuperior luſtre. In all the maſks, which were then in faſhion, the earl and Elizabeth were coupled as partners; and although ſhe was near ſixty, and he not half ſo old, yet her vanity overlooked the diſparity; the world told her ſhe was young, and ſhe wiſhed to think ſo. The earl's advancement in the queen's affections, as may naturally be imagined, promoted his intereſts in the ſtate; and he at length conducted public meaſures at his own diſcretion. Inexperienced as he was, he began to fancy that the popularity he poſſeſſed, and the flatteries he received, were acquired by his merits, and not by court favour. His jealouſy alſo of lord Burleigh, his only rival in power, began to make him vindictive; and the ſucceſſes he had obtained againſt the Spaniards, increaſed his confidence. In a debate before the queen, between him and Burleigh, about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was ſo heated, that he entirely forgot the rules both of duty and decorum. He turned his poſteriors to the queen in a contemptuous manner; which ſo provoked her reſentment, that ſhe gave him a box on the ear. Inſtead of making the apology of a gentleman, or recollecting the ſubmiſſion due to the ſex and dignity of a queen, he clapped his hand to his ſword, and ſwore he would not have borne ſuch uſage from her father. This inſult, though unprecedented, was overlooked by Elizabeth; ſhe reinſtated him in her favour, and love ſeemed to have acquired new force from anger and reſentment. The death alſo of his rival, lord Burleigh, which happened ſhortly after, ſerved to confirm his power.

At that time the earl of Tyrone headed an inſurrection in Ireland; to ſubdue which, was an employment that Eſſex thought worthy of his ambition; nor were the courtiers diſpleaſed at the removal of a man who obſtructed their private aims of preferment. The earl of Eſſex, upon taking the command, employed the earl of Southampton, who had been long obnoxious to the queen, as general of horſe; nor was it till after repeated orders from Elizabeth, that he could be prevailed on to diſplace him. This indiſcretion was followed by another: inſtead of attacking the enemy in their grand retreat in Ulſter, he led his forces into the province of Munſter, where he exhauſted his ſtrength, and loſt the favourable opportunity of a deciſive victory; and thus, inſtead of forcing the rebels to a ſubmiſſion, he had concluded an inglorious ceſſation of hoſtilities. But his conduct was ſtill more abſurd and incomprehenſible, when quitting his command, and leaving the army inactive, he returned from Ireland on a viſit to the queen. Elizabeth, at firſt, was pleaſed with the interview; but the momentary ſatisfaction of his unexpected appearance being over, ſhe reflected on the impropriety of the affair, and ordered an inveſtigation of his conduct before the council, ſecure in their diſpoſition to do him no injury. In conſequence of this he was only ſentenced to reſign his employments, and remain a priſoner in his own houſe during her majeſty's pleaſure.

The cloud which had obſcured the fortune of this heedleſs nobleman was now inclined to diſperſe. A ſlight illneſs had ſoftened the heart of the queen, and by enquiry ſhe found that he had ſpent his hours in exerciſes of devotion, an enthuſiaſm which always ſeized his mind when fortune was adverſe: but one unlucky expreſſion of ſeverity occaſioned his deſtruction. The date of a lucrative patent enjoyed by Eſſex had juſt expired, and he petitioned for its renewal. Elizabeth refuſed it with this ſarcaſm, "an ungovernable beaſt ſhould be ſtinted of its provender." After this, he gave up all hopes of being reinſtated in the favour of his ſovereign; and, hurried away by the impetuoſity of his temper, he ruſhed headlong into violence, treaſon, and ruin. He excited James of Scotland to take meaſures to ſecure his ſucceſſion, which he ſaid was in danger from the machinations of a miniſter who had placed Raleigh to command in Jerſey, Carew in Ireland, and lord Cobham at the Cinque Ports, merely to facilitate the acceſſion of a Spaniſh princeſs. But James was too cautious to riſk ſo rich a prize by too much hurry. Eſſex alſo wrote to lord Mountjoy in Ireland, and almoſt perſuaded him to invade England. He ſilently caballed with the catholics, and openly with the puritans; and he ſtrove to form an aſſociation againſt Elizabeth among the magiſtrates and citizens of London. He even proceeded to ſettle the plan of an inſurrection; and it was determined that his friends ſhould overpower the guards and ſeize the palace; and that himſelf ſhould demand of the queen a new parliament, a new miniſtry, and a ſettlement of the ſucceſſion.

The fall of the miſguided Eſſex opened the year 1601. Driven to deſpair by the apprehenſion of ruin, he madly attempted to arm the populace againſt the throne of Elizabeth. Having garriſoned his houſe in the Strand, and impriſoned therein three of the privy-counſellors who had been ſent to enquire into his proceedings, he traverſed the city of London at the head of two hundred armed men, crying, "For the queen! for the queen! my life is in danger." But the lord mayor had ordered the citizens to keep within doors; and Eſſex, having been proclaimed a traitor by the earl of Cumberland, ſaw his followers ſhrink from his banner; and it was not without the loſs of ſome of his remaining friends, that he could ſecure a paſſage back to Eſſex-houſe. There he was aſſailed by the lord-admiral Nottingham with a corps of regular troops, and obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion. The privy-counſellors had been before releaſed by ſir Ferdinand Gorges, who is ſuppoſed to have acted as a ſpy on the motions of Eſſex.

The trial and condemnation of this ill-fated nobleman quickly followed. It was then that the enthuſiaſm of piety again poſſeſſed the ſoul of Eſſex. He wept over his faults, confeſſed his machinations, and even diſcloſed the intention of his friends in his favour; an avowal which, in his cooler moments, he would have abhorred. The queen ſigned the warrant for his death with an almoſt convulſive pang, and ſoon countermanded it, apparently waiting for ſome ſuppliant application, which might give her an occaſion for ſhewing mercy. No ſupplication, however, came, and reſentment at finding her compaſſion

(as ſhe believed) ſet at nought, gave her ſufficient reſolution to order the execution of the hapleſs Eſſex. He fell with dignity; pious, but not dejected; he deſired to be beheaded privately within the Tower, leſt the ſight of the people, who he knew would lament his fate, might turn his thoughts from Heaven. The unfortunate earl had run a long career of glory and favour in a few years: he died at only thirty-four. Several of his aſſociates were alſo tried and executed. Cuffe, whoſe counſels had precipitated him; Davers, Blount, and Meyric. Southampton (for whom Eſſex had felt much more than for himſelf) was ſpared, but remained a priſoner in the Tower while the queen lived. In ſpite of malice, and of his own egregious faults, ſcarcely does any character intereſt the reader of Engliſh hiſtory ſo much as that of Robert Devereux earl of Eſſex. His exterior was noble and beautiful, and his ſpirit gallant and enterpriſing; at eighteen, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf near Zutphen, where ſir Philip Sidney fell, whoſe widow he married; at twenty-two he joined as a volunteer in the enterprize to place Don Antonio on the throne of Portugal, and challenged the governor of Corunna to ſingle combat. At the ſiege of Rouen, in France, he defied Villars, the commandant, to fight him on foot or on horſeback; "I will make you (ſaid he) own that I am better than you, and that my miſtreſs is fairer than yours." From the moment of the fatal execution of this accompliſhed nobleman, a melancholy of the moſt black and immoveable kind overpowered the faculties of Elizabeth, and rendered her inſenſible to every comfort, and indifferent to all the affairs of the ſtate. Some have imputed this affliction of mind to the anxious jealouſy which ſhe felt at that attention which her penetrating eye had diſcerned among her courtiers towards James of Scotland. There is, however, a much more probable cauſe to be alleged: the tale till lately has been thought a fiction; but authentic papers, which have been within a few years paſt laid before the public, give ſtrong authority to believe it true.

When the earl of Eſſex was in the higheſt favour with his royal miſtreſs, he ventured to tell her of the perpetual anxiety which beſet him when duty demanded his abſence, leſt his rivals, who he knew ſurrounded her, ſhould deprive him of her good opinion; and he ſhould be condemned, unheard, to loſe her ſmiles, which he valued more than his life. The queen, moved with this earneſt and ingenuous diſcloſure of his fears and affections, gave him from her finger a ring, as a pledge of her eſteem; promiſing at the ſame time that, let his ſituation be ever ſo deſperate, at the ſight of that token ſhe would give him audience, and reſtore him to her friendſhip. Eſſex preſerved this precious gift through all his perils, until after he was ſentenced to death, and then he thought the time was come to prove its value. Unhappily it was the counteſs of Nottingham to whom he entruſted this invaluable jewel; a more unfit meſſenger he could not have found; ſince, beſides the animoſity borne to him by the lord-admiral, her huſband, the lady herſelf is believed to have loved Eſſex, and to have bitterly felt the pangs of diſappointment when he married another woman. In ſhort, ſhe carried not the ring; and Elizabeth, after contriving many delays, diſguſted at the obſtinacy of her favourite, (who, ſhe believed, deſpiſed her mercy,) in a fit of diſappointed rage, ſigned the warrant for his execution.

The counteſs of Nottingham, in 1603, drawing near her end, ſent a preſſing meſſage to the queen to entreat a ſight of her majeſty before her death. Elizabeth, who had dearly loved her, ſpeedily obeyed the ſummons; but, when ſhe heard the ſoul-harrowing confeſſion, ſhe caught faſt hold of the expiring criminal, ſhook her, and almoſt tore her from her bed: "God (ſaid ſhe) may forgive you, but I never can." From that moment ſhe rejected all conſolation, and not only refuſed medicines, but even food. Ten days and nights ſhe lay on a carpet, leaning her head on a cuſhion, and not permitting herſelf to be put into bed. Nature now appeared almoſt exhauſted; and her great officers of ſtate, deſpairing of her life, ventured to aſk, whom ſhe would have for her ſucceſſor? To this ſhe faintly anſwered, that her throne was a throne of kings; and, by ſigns, agreed to the appointment of James, the ſon of Mary. She expired on the 24th of March, 1603, aged ſixty-nine years, ſix months, and ſeven days, after having reigned forty-five years.

The perſon of Elizabeth was ſtout, tall, and majeſtic, her complexion fair, and her hair yellow. Her maſculine turn of mind, her firmneſs, her penetration, and her judgment, qualified her for the government of a great empire. Learned, intelligent, and enlightened; active, vigilant, and circumſpect; ſtudious of the honour of her country, and of the general welfare of her ſubjects; ſhe acquired a reputation and a popularity which greatly contributed to the ſucceſs of her enterpriſes, and the proſperity of her ſway. Though menaced with ruin by the catholic powers of the continent, ſhe baffled all their ſchemes by her conſummate prudence and diſtinguiſhed addreſs; ſhe deſpiſed alike the thunders of the Vatican, and the more formidable artillery of Philip; and, by the efforts of a brave people, who cheerfully riſqued their lives in the ſervice of their princeſs, ſhe was enabled to triumph over the perſevering malignity and the tremendous preparations of her foreign enemies. Her domeſtic foes ſhe ſometimes overawed by ſeverity, and ſometimes conciliated by lenity; but her diſpoſition ſeemed more to incline her to the former conduct. She was of an imperious ſpirit, and impatient of the leaſt oppoſition to her will; and the ſtorms of paſſion into which ſhe was betrayed were frequent and violent. Her frugality was carried to ſuch an extremity as ſometimes to obſtruct the complete ſucceſs of her ſchemes; and her deſire of treaſure impelled her into extortion and rapacity. Her courage and fortitude were great and exemplary; but ſtill, in ſome inſtances of her conduct, we diſcover ſtrong marks of a reſemblance to the arbitrary, unrelenting, and cruel, diſpoſitions of her father and her ſiſter. The whole courſe of her behaviour to the lovely and unfortunate queen of Scotland, is marked by female jealouſy, diſſimulation, perfidy, and the moſt unfeminine ſeverity. Whatever might have been the errors of Mary's government, and of her private and perſonal conduct, they were not ſubject to the juriſdiction of her rival. Elizabeth, in depriving the queen of Scots of her life, acted in as open a violation of the law of nations, as of every principle of juſtice, and every ſuggeſtion of humanity.

The Engliſh people, however, were certainly happier during her reign, than they had ever been before; and to this day they retain a grateful regard for her memory. Yet ſhe was no friend to liberty, but watchfully checked thoſe faint dawnings of its ſplendour, which now and then pervaded the gloom of deſpotiſm; nor was the adminiſtration of juſtice in her time well calculated to ſecure either life or property. Had ſhe lived in a private ſtation, Elizabeth would, perhaps, have been hated and ridiculed; on a throne, ſhe was enabled to hide her leſs commendable qualities under the blaze of a vaſt and magnanimous heroiſm. The ſagacity of her miniſters, and the bravery of her commanders by ſea and land, were ſtrong proofs of the ſtrength of her diſcernment, which could diſtinguiſh and employ ſuch talents in their properly adapted ſervices. In ſhort, when the weak and ſpiritleſs ſtate of England, at the criſis of the deceaſe of Mary, is conſidered; and when we find the condition of the realm ſo altered in the ſpace of a few years by the ſuperiority of Elizabeth's abilities, which enabled her to hold the balance of Europe; when we find the proteſtant religion firſt firmly ſettled in England, the commerce of the iſland increaſed, her fleets triumphant, and her friendſhip ſought for by all nations of Europe; we cannot, without injuſtice, withhold the tribute of praiſe from this glorious, though not faultleſs, ſovereign. In her

terminated the laſt of the Engliſh ſovereigns of the houſe of Tudor. For the writings and literary character of this princeſs, ſee p. 476, of this volume.

From the ACCESSION of the HOUSE of STUART, to the ABDICATION of the THRONE by JAMES II.

The crown of England paſſed, with the utmoſt tranquillity, from the family of Tudor to that of Stuart, in the perſon of James I. of England, and Sixth of Scotland. This monarch, the only iſſue of the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots, came to the throne with the univerſal approbation of all orders of the ſtate; as in his perſon were united every claim that either deſcent, bequeſt, or parliamentary ſanction, could confer. He had every reaſon, therefore, to anticipate a happy reign; and he was taught, from his infancy, that his prerogative was uncontroulable, and his right tranſmitted from Heaven. Theſe ſentiments he took no care to conceal; and even publiſhed them in many parts of thoſe works which he had written before he left Scotland. But he was rather miſtaken in the ſpirit of the times. New ſyſtems of government, and new ideas of liberty, had been rapidly ſtealing in with the reformation. In conſequence of the progreſs of knowledge, and a familiar acquaintance with the governments of antiquity, the old Gothic forms began to melt away, and an emulation took place to imitate the freedom of Greece and Rome. The ſevere though popular government of Elizabeth had confined this riſing ſpirit within narrow bounds; but when a new ſovereign and a new family appeared, leſs dreaded and leſs reſpected by the people, ſymptoms of a more free and independent genius began to diſtinguiſh the character of the nation.

James, on his acceſſion to the throne of England, with a miſtaken idea of making himſelf popular, conferred the honour of knighthood on no fewer than two hundred and thirty-ſeven perſons; among whom his Scottiſh courtiers were thought by the envious to have been too liberally noticed. But though his countrymen ſhared a part of theſe honours, yet juſtice ſhould be done the king, by acknowledging that he left almoſt all the great offices of the ſtate in the hands he found them. Among theſe, Cecil, created earl of Saliſbury, who had been ſo active in the laſt reign, was continued prime-miniſter and chief counſellor. But it was not ſo with lord Grey, lord Cobham, and ſir Walter Raleigh, who had been Cecil's aſſociates. They, on the contrary, felt the weight of the king's diſpleaſure, and were diſmiſſed their employments. Theſe three illuſtrious perſonages ſeemed to be marked out for peculiar indignation; for ſhortly after they were accuſed of entering into a conſpiracy againſt the king; neither the proofs of which, nor its aims, have ever reached poſterity. They were all condemned to the ſcaffold; but had their ſentence mitigated by the king. Cobham and Grey were pardoned, after they had laid their heads on the block. Raleigh was reprieved, and at large for many years, but at laſt ſuffered for this offence, which was never proved.

Though James and his parliament were conſtantly at variance in their endeavours to ſettle the rights of the people, and the prerogatives of the crown, yet his juſtice and clemency were very apparent in the toleration which he gave to the teachers of different religions throughout the kingdom. The minds of the people had long been irritated againſt one another, and each party perſecuted the other, as it happened to prevail; it was expected, therefore, that James would ſtrengthen the hands of the proteſtants, and that the catholics and ſectaries ſhould find no protection. But this monarch wiſely obſerved, that men ſhould be puniſhed for actions, and not for opinions; a philanthropic and noble deciſion, though it gave general diſſatisfaction; but the univerſal complaint of every ſect was the beſt argument of his moderation towards all. Yet mild as was this monarch's diſpoſition towards religious ſects, there was a project contrived in the very beginning of his reign for the re-eſtabliſhment of popery, which, were it not a fact well known to all the world, could ſcarcely be credited by poſterity. This was the gun-powder plot; than which a more horrid or terrible ſcheme never entered into the human heart to conceive, and which ſhews at once that the moſt determined courage may be united with the moſt execrable intentions.

The Roman catholics, on the acceſſion of James, expected a renewal of the papal ſupremacy, inaſmuch as he was the only deſcendant from Mary, a rigid catholic, and had ſhewn great partiality to that religion in his youth. But they ſoon diſcovered their miſtake, and were ſo enraged and diſappointed, that with the genuine ſpirit of malicious bigotry, they formed a reſolution of deſtroying the king and both houſes of parliament at once. The ſcheme was laid by Robert Cateſby, a gentleman of a good family, who conceived that gun-powder might be ſo placed under the parliament houſe, as to blow up the king and all the members at their firſt meeting. He opened his intention to Thomas Percy, of the illuſtrious houſe of Northumberland, who readily came into it. Thomas Winter was next let into the ſecret; and he went over to Flanders in queſt of Guy Fawkes, an engineer in the Spaniſh ſervice, with whoſe zeal and courage the conſpirators were thoroughly acquainted.

Every thing being concerted, and the conſpirators having taken an oath of ſecrecy, which they confirmed by receiving the ſacrament together, a houſe was hired in the name of Percy, adjoining that in which the parliament aſſembled; and, finding that a cellar was to be let under the houſe of lords, they ſeized the opportunity of renting it; and, forming a communication between Percy's houſe and it, depoſited there thirty-ſix barrels of gun-powder, which they covered with faggots and billet-wood. The doors of the vault were then boldly thrown open, to prevent any appearance of ſuſpicion; and nothing remained, but to watch the opportunity of rendering the horrible cataſtrophe complete.

The king, the queen, and prince Henry, were all expected to be preſent at the opening of parliament; but prince Charles, by reaſon of his tender age, would neceſſarily be abſent, and him it was intended to aſſaſſinate. The princeſs Elizabeth alone remained of the royal family whom papiſtical vengeance had not devoted, and it was their intention to place her on the throne. Twenty conſpirators had ſacredly kept this dreadful ſecret nearly a year and a half; but the ſame bigotry which had given riſe to the plot, was directed by the will of Providence to reveal it. A few days before the meeting of parliament, lord Monteagle, who was a catholic, received the following letter from an unknown correſpondent:

"My lord, out of the love I bear to ſome of your friends, I have a care of your preſervation. Therefore I would adviſe you, as you tender your life, to deviſe ſome excuſe to ſhift off your attendance in this parliament. For God and man have concurred to puniſh the wickedneſs of this time. And think not ſlightly of this advertiſement; but retire yourſelf into your country, where you may expect the event in ſafety. For, though there be no appearance of any ſtir, yet, I ſay, they will receive a terrible blow this parliament, and yet they ſhall not ſee who hurts them. This counſel is not to be contemned, becauſe it may do you good, and can do you no harm: for the danger is paſt, as ſoon as you have burnt the letter. And I hope God will give you the grace to make good uſe of it, unto whoſe holy protection I commend you."

This myſterious letter very little diſconcerted the nobleman to whom it was addreſſed; but though he was inclined to think it a ridiculous attempt to frighten him, yet he judged it right to carry it to lord Saliſbury, ſecretary of ſtate. The noble ſecretary gave little attention

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to it, yet produced it before the king in council, who came to town a few days after. None of the council thought much of it, though it appeared ſerious and alarming. In this mixture of agitation and doubt, the king was the firſt who penetrated the ſecret. He concluded that ſome ſignal miſchief was preparing by gunpowder; and it was thought adviſable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament. This care belonged to the earl of Suffolk, lord chamberlain, who judiciouſly poſtponed the ſearch till the day before the meeting of parliament, which was fixed for the memorable 5th of November, 1605. He then ſuſpected the great piles of faggots which lay in the vault under the houſe of peers; and he caſt his eye upon Fawkes, who ſtood in a dark corner, and who paſſed himſelf for Percy's ſervant. Theſe appearances determined lord Suffolk to take his time to make a more exact ſcrutiny. About midnight, therefore, ſir Thomas Knevett, a juſtice of the peace, was ſent with proper attendants; and juſt at the entrance of the vault he ſeized Guy Fawkes, who had diſpoſed every part of the train of gunpowder for taking fire the next morning, the matches and other combuſtibles being found upon him. The whole of this horrible plot was now diſcovered; but the atrocity of the perpetrator was ſuch, that he told the officers of juſtice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himſelf up together, he ſhould have been happy. Before the council he manifeſted the ſame ſavage diſpoſition, refuſing to diſcover his aſſociates, and expreſſing no concern but for the failure of his enterpriſe. Being committed to the Tower, his courage at laſt failed him, and he made a full diſcovery of his accomplices.

Cateſby, Percy, and the conſpirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arreſted, fled into Warwickſhire, where ſir Everard Digby, relying on the ſucceſs of the plot, was already in arms, in order to ſeize the princeſs Elizabeth. But the country ſoon began to take the alarm; and wherever they turned, they found a ſuperior force ready to oppoſe them. In this exigence, they reſolved to make a ſtand at a houſe in Warwickſhire, and ſell their lives as dearly as poſſible. Cateſby, Percy, and Winter, ſtanding back to back, fought long and deſperately; till at laſt the two firſt fell covered with wounds, and Winter was taken alive. Thoſe that ſurvived the ſlaughter fell by the hands of the executioner. Such was the end of a conſpiracy that brought ruin on its contrivers, and utterly ſupplanted that religion it was intended to eſtabliſh. Yet it is remarkable, that, before this diabolical attempt, the conſpirators had always borne a fair reputation; Cateſby was beloved by all who knew him; and Digby was as highly reſpected both for honour and integrity as any man in the nation. However, ſuch are the lengths to which ſuperſtition and prejudice can hurry minds originally well formed, but impreſſed by a wrong bias.

The king's moderation, after the extinction of this conſpiracy, was only equalled by his penetration in the diſcovery of it. The hatred excited by the people againſt the catholics, knew no bounds; and nothing but a total extinction of thoſe who adhered to that perſuaſion, ſeemed capable of ſatisfying the greater part of the nation. James nobly rejected all violent meaſures, and declared that the late conſpiracy, however atrocious, ſhould never alter his plans of government; but as, on the one hand, he was determined to puniſh guilt, ſo, on the other, he would ſtill ſupport and protect innocence. This principle of moderation, however, was very unpleaſing to the people; and the more malignant part of his ſubjects were diſpoſed to aſcribe this lenity to the papiſts, to his being himſelf tinctured with their ſuperſtitions. It is therefore probable, that the oppoſition which James met with from his ſubjects in England, induced him to prefer his own countrymen to places of truſt and confidence about his perſon.

A principal object in the contemplation of James, and on which he beſtowed his earneſt endeavours, was the improvement and amelioration of Ireland. To civilize that country, it was neceſſary to aboliſh many of its ancient inſtitutions. By the Brehen cuſtom, every crime, including thoſe of the deepeſt dye, might be atoned for by a fine. This rate was called *eric*. The Engliſh having formed a deſign of ſending a ſheriff into Fermenagh, Maguire, one of the chiefs of that diſtrict, replied, "Your ſheriff ſhall be welcome to me; but let me know beforehand his eric, or the price of his head, that if my people cut it off, I may levy the money on the county." Small offences were cognizable by no law; and in this rude ſtate of the country, the efforts of James to produce amelioration were highly praiſeworthy. He ſubſtituted as far as he could the Engliſh laws, declared the natives free citizens, eſtabliſhed circuits, and, by means of a ſmall army, kept the country in a ſtate of quiet and order before unknown.

While the king was thus laudably employed, the death of his eldeſt ſon, Henry prince of Wales, in the eighteenth year of his age, A. D. 1612, ſpread a general gloom over the proſpects of the nation. Neither his high birth nor his youth had ſeduced him into any irregularities; buſineſs and ambition were his ſole delight. His inclinations as well as exerciſes were martial. The French ambaſſador taking leave of him, and aſking his commands for France, found him employed in the exerciſe of the pike: "Tell your king (ſaid he) in what occupation you found me engaged." For ſir Walter Raleigh, then in the Tower, he ſeems to have conceived a ſtrong affection and eſteem. "Surely (obſerved he) no king but my father would keep ſuch a bird in a cage." The marriage of his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth with Frederic elector palatine, which took place ſoon after, ſerved to diſſipate the grief which aroſe from this melancholy event. But the marriage, though happy to the nation in its remote and ultimate conſequences, was unfortunate both to the king and his ſon-in-law. The elector, truſting to ſo powerful an alliance, entered on enterprizes beyond his ſtrength; and the king, not being able to ſupport his pretenſions, loſt entirely, towards the cloſe of his life, the eſteem and regard of his own ſubjects.

The court of James, now undiſturbed by foreign war, or domeſtic broils, ſoon became the reſort of paraſites and favourites. About the end of 1609, Robert Carr, a youth of about twenty, of a good family in Scotland, became the favourite of the king, and was conſidered as the moſt riſing man at court: he was knighted, created viſcount Rocheſter, honoured with the Garter, made a privy-counſellor, and finally raiſed to the earldom of Somerſet. This was a very haſty advancement, which ſome regarded with envy; but the wiſer part of mankind looked upon it with contempt and ridicule, ſenſible that ungrounded attachments are of no long continuance; and, indeed, the favourite gave early proofs of his being unworthy the confidence of the king. Among the friends whom he conſulted at court, was ſir Thomas Overbury, a man of great abilities and learning; among the miſtreſſes whom he addreſſed was the young counteſs of Eſſex, whoſe huſband had been ſent by the king's command to travel, until the young couple ſhould be arrived at the age of puberty. But the aſſiduities of a man of ſuch accompliſhments as the favourite, were too powerful to be reſiſted; a criminal correſpondence took place; and the unſuſpecting Eſſex, on his return from abroad, found his wife in the arms of another. But this was not all; the adultreſs now reſolved to procure a divorce, and then to marry the favourite, who had beguiled her heart. It was on this occaſion that Overbury, being conſulted by his friend, declared himſelf utterly averſe to the match. He deſcribed the counteſs as an infamous and abandoned woman; and went ſo far as to threaten the earl that he would ſeparate himſelf from him for ever, if he could ſo far forget his honour and his intereſt, as to proſecute ſuch a marriage: but this advice was fatal to the giver. In conſequence of his diſapprobation, the king was perſuaded

ſuaded, by the favourite, to order Overbury on an embaſſy into Ruſſia; Overbury was perſuaded by the ſame adviſer to refuſe going, and the delinquent was ſhut up in the Tower; where he was poiſoned by a tart, prepared and ſent him as a mark of eſteem, by this young but infamous counteſs. In the mean time the divorce took place, and the marriage of the favourite was ſolemnized with degrading ſplendour. But the reflection of the worthy and ineſtimable Overbury having been poiſoned, hung heavy upon the favourite's mind, amidſt all the glare and ſplendour of external happineſs and ſucceſs. The gallantry of his youth gradually diſappeared; the gaiety of his manners degenerated into ſullen ſilence; and the king, whoſe predilection had been acquired by his gay accompliſhments, began to cool towards a man who no longer miniſtered to his pleaſures. But the adoption of another favourite, and the ſurmiſe of Somerſet's guilt, ſoon removed all remains of regard which the king might have harboured for him.

The pupil of an eminent apothecary, who had been employed in making up the poiſon, accidentally divulged the ſecret; and the affair being laid before the king, he commanded ſir Edward Coke, then lord chief juſtice, to ſift the affair to the bottom, with a rigorous ſcrutiny. This injunction was executed with great induſtry, and Somerſet and his counteſs were both found guilty, but reprieved and pardoned, after ſome years confinement. The king's forbearance and injuſtice on this occaſion, are urged as very great ſtains upon his character. Somerſet was in his preſence at the time the officer of juſtice came to apprehend him; when he refuſed to be taken, and ſeverely reprimanded the officer for daring to arreſt a peer of the realm before the king. But James, informed of the cauſe, ſaid with a ſmile, "Nay, nay, you muſt go; for if Coke ſhould ſend for myſelf, I muſt comply." He then embraced him at parting, begged he would return immediately, and aſſured him he could not live without his company; yet he had no ſooner turned his back, than the falſe-hearted king exclaimed, "Go! and the devil go with thee!" He was alſo heard to wiſh, that God's curſe might fall upon him and his family, if he ſhould pardon thoſe whom the law ſhould condemn. However, he at laſt reſtored them both to liberty, and granted them a penſion, with which they retired, and languiſhed out the remainder of their lives in guilt, infamy, and mutual recrimination.

The liberality of James towards his favourites and dependents, often reduced him to pecuniary diſtreſs. In 1614, after every means had been exhauſted for raiſing money by virtue of the prerogative, even to the ſale of peerages, a parliament was convened to aid the king; but that aſſembly, inſtead of granting a ſupply, began with diſputing the king's power to levy new cuſtoms and impoſitions. James was provoked beyond all patience at this freedom, and diſſolved them without obtaining the object of their meeting. The monarchical principles, however, were not abandoned. He publicly at court propoſed the queſtion, whether he might not take his ſubjects' money when he wanted it, without the formality of parliaments? "God forbid, (replied the obſequious Neile biſhop of Durham,) but that you ſhould: for you are the very breath of our noſtrils." Andrews biſhop of Wincheſter, being next applied to for his opinion, prudently waved the queſtion, by declaring that he was not ſkilled in parliamentary caſes, but obſerved, "that his majeſty might lawfully take his brother Neile's money, becauſe he offered it."

Soon after Somerſet's fall, the favour of James was turned towards George Villiers, an accompliſhed young gentleman, of reſpectable family; who made his firſt appearance as cup-bearer to the king. But in the courſe of a few years he created him viſcount Villiers, earl, marquis, and duke, of Buckingham, knight of the garter, maſter of the horſe, chief juſtice in eyre, warden of the cinque ports, maſter of the king's-bench office, ſteward of Weſtminſter, conſtable of Windſor, and lord high-admiral of England. His mother obtained the title of counteſs of Buckingham; his brother was created viſcount Purbeck; and a numerous train of needy relations were all puſhed forward into credit and authority.

When uſeleſs and overbearing favourites are thus advanced, it is not to be wondered that the public concerns of the nation ſhould be neglected, and men of real merit treated with contumely and contempt. And ſuch truly was the caſe at this era; particularly with regard to thoſe connected with the cautionary towns in Holland, and the brave ſir Walter Raleigh at home. In the preceding reign, Elizabeth, when ſhe gave aſſiſtance to the Dutch, was not ſo diſintereſted upon lending them large ſums of money, as not to require a proper ſecurity for being repaid. The Dutch, therefore, put into her hands the three important fortreſſes of Fluſhing, Brille, and Ramekins, which were to be reſtored upon the payment of eight hundred thouſand pounds. But James, in his preſent exigency, having to ſupply a needy favourite, and a craving court, agreed to evacuate thoſe fortreſſes, upon being paid a third part of the money due. The cautionary towns were evacuated, which were calculated to hold the ſtates in ſubjection, and which an ambitious or enterpriſing prince would have regarded as a moſt valuable part of his poſſeſſions.

The general diſſatisfaction which this impolitic meaſure produced, was ſoon after aggravated by an act of unjuſt ſeverity, which ſtill impreſſes every feeling mind with regret. The brave and learned ſir Walter Raleigh, whoſe long ſufferings, and ingenious writings, had turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour, was now doomed to meet his fate. Raleigh had ſpread a report that he knew of a rich gold mine in Guiana. Though the king gave little credit to the tale, he releaſed Raleigh from priſon without pardoning him, and gave him permiſſion to try the adventure. Raleigh declared that the Spaniards had never planted any colonies on the coaſt where his mine lay; but twenty-three years had elapſed ſince he laſt viſited that region, and the Spaniards had formed a ſmall ſettlement on the river Oronooko, and built the town called St. Thomas. Raleigh, however, was no ſooner arrived, than he ſent a detachment under the command of his ſon and captain Kemys, an officer wholly devoted to him; who finding the Spaniards in force, were fired upon at their landing. Irritated by this reception, young Raleigh purſued the enemy into the town, which they ſoon reduced to aſhes; but a ſhot carrying him off in the career of victory, Kemys could not be prevailed on to proceed, though he owned that he was within two hours march of the mine which promiſed ſuch immenſe treaſure. Returning to Raleigh with the melancholy news of his ſon's death, and deſpairing of the event, he retired to his cabin, and put an end to his life. The other adventurers, thinking themſelves duped by Raleigh, or from rank cowardice, haſtened back to England, and carried their leader with them. Raleigh was pronounced by the privy-council to have abuſed the king's confidence, and the court of Spain making loud demands for ſatisfaction, James, adverting to that power which he had purpoſely reſerved in his own hands, ſigned the warrant for his execution.

Raleigh, finding his fate inevitable, collected all the energies of his enlarged mind, and met the ſentence with reſolution. As he felt the edge of the ax with which he was to be beheaded, "'Tis a ſharp remedy (ſaid he) but a ſure one for all ills." His harangue to the people was calm and eloquent; and with the utmoſt indifference he laid his head upon the block, and received the fatal blow.

The execution of Raleigh, which had been ſo long ſuſpended, was rendered ſtill more invidious, by the intimate connections entered into with Spain. Gondomer, the ambaſſador from that country, in order to divert the attention of James from the affairs of Germany, propoſed a match between the ſecond daughter of Philip IV. of Spain,

Spain, and Charles prince of Wales. The bait took; and though the ſtates of Bohemia, inſpired with the love of civil and religious liberty, had taken up arms againſt the emperor Ferdinand, and made Frederic elector palatine a tender of their crown, probably on account of his having married a princeſs of England, James refuſed to lend his ſon-in-law any aſſiſtance, notwithſtanding the urgent ſolicitations of his people; and in conſequence of his neglect, the unhappy prince was not only obliged to reſign his new dignity, but was driven from the palatinate, and, in 1620, was forced to fly with his family into Holland. The murmurs againſt the king's inactive diſpoſition now ran high; but James flattered himſelf that the reſtitution of the palatinate might be recovered from friendſhip, by means of his ſon's propoſed marriage with the infanta, and therefore was averſe to ſtrong meaſures.

At this time the great ſeal was in the hands of Francis Bacon lord Verulam, a man univerſally admired for the ſublimity of his genius, but who had made himſelf obnoxious by the irregular means he had uſed to obtain money, leſs indeed on his own account, than to gratify his dependents, whoſe importunities he could not reſiſt. Being impeached by the commons, the peers ſentenced him to pay a fine of forty thouſand pounds, to be impriſoned in the Tower, and to be for ever incapable of holding any office or employment. Bacon, however, was ſoon releaſed from priſon, his fine was remitted, and, in conſideration of his intrinſic worth, received a penſion of eighteen hundred pounds a-year. The ſhort remainder of his life was ſpent in literary purſuits; and in the greatneſs of his talents poſterity have almoſt forgot that he had the weakneſſes and the failings of a man.

Meanwhile, the commons, indignant at the puſillanimity of James, in ſuffering his ſon-in-law to languiſh in poverty and exile, and averſe to a match with a catholic family, ſtrongly remonſtrated with their ſovereign. The king, jealous of his prerogative, gave a prompt and ſharp reply, in terms very inimical to the privileges of parliament; and this drew from the commons a declaration, "that the liberties, franchiſes, privileges, and juriſdictions, of parliament, are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the ſubjects of England." This entry the king himſelf tore from the journals, and after committing ſome of the leading members in oppoſition to the Tower, finally diſſolved the parliament. Prerogative being thus oppoſed to pretenſion, every circumſtance tended to widen the breach between the king and his parliament; and the flame, though ſometimes ſmothered, was not extinguiſhed but with the overthrow of the monarchy under his unfortunate ſon.

James, by reiterated proclamations, had now prohibited the diſcuſſion of ſtate affairs; but, as might naturally be expected, public curioſity was only inflamed the more. With domeſtic politics thoſe of the continent were intermingled. Frederic had made vigorous efforts for the recovery of his dominions, but without any very conſiderable advantage; and James perſuaded him to diſarm, and to truſt to the effects of his negociations. Theſe, however, not being followed up, nor any appearance of appealing to the deciſion of arms, expoſed him to ridicule both at home and abroad. He was depicted with a ſcabbard, but without a ſword; and ſometimes with a ſword which no one could draw, though ſeveral were pulling at it. In ſhort, the pacific diſpoſition of James, inſtead of gaining him reſpect, rendered him the object of contempt. In order to haſten the match between the princeſs of Spain and his heir apparent, he diſpatched the earl of Briſtol to Philip IV. and matters were apparently in a fair train of ſettlement, when every flattering proſpect was ſoon blaſted by the temerity of his minion Buckingham.

Between this favourite and prince Charles, a coolneſs had taken place, which the former being anxious to remove, propoſed a journey of courtſhip to Madrid. The young and ardent mind of the prince eagerly embraced the ſcheme; and the king being prevailed on to give his conſent, though not without ſome reluctance and apprehenſion of the reſult, the prince, attended by Buckingham and ſome others, ſet out on this romantic expedition, A. D. 1622. They took the city of Paris in their way, where, at a grand ball, Charles firſt ſaw the princeſs Henrietta, whom he afterwards eſpouſed; yet ſo much ſpeed did they uſe, that in eleven days after their departure from London, they arrived at Madrid, to the ſurpriſe even of the ſpeed of kings. The Spaniſh monarch treated Charles with the moſt flattering attentions; but, according to the eſtabliſhed etiquette, the infanta was only ſhewn to her lover in public, till a diſpenſation ſhould arrive from Rome. Juſt at this criſis pope Gregory XV. died; and the nuncio refuſing to deliver the inſtrument till it ſhould be ſanctioned by his ſucceſſor Urban VIII. that crafty pontiff interpoſed various delays, in hopes that Charles might be converted to the catholic faith. The king, as well as the prince, became impatient; and the latter, probably feeling no very great inclination to the princeſs, took his leave, and embarking at St. Andero, returned to England. Every thing, however, was conducted at parting with the moſt marked and elaborate reſpect on both ſides; and had it not been for the intrigues of Buckingham, who had rendered himſelf both deſpiſed and hated by the Spaniſh court, and therefore felt reciprocal ill-will and animoſity, it ſeems probable, the negociations might have been brought to a favourable concluſion. James was not pleaſed with the conduct of his ſon and the favourite, as they ran counter to a plan which he had long fondly indulged; but he was over-ruled by his affection for the one, and his partiality for the other; and after the court of Spain had promiſed the reſtoration of the palatinate, and made other conceſſions, without effect, Philip ordered the infanta to lay aſide the title of princeſs of Wales, which ſhe had aſſumed after the arrival of the diſpenſation from Rome, and the long protracted negociation came to an end.

The king, A. D. 1624, having thus involuntarily broken with Spain, was obliged to ſummon a parliament, in order to obtain ſupplies. In that aſſembly, Buckingham threw all the blame on the court of Spain; and the nation, eager to commence hoſtilities with the papiſts, liſtened to his inſidious arguments, and loaded him with applauſe. The ſupply, however, was voted with a parſimonious hand, and to what was granted, ſome conditions were annexed, which trenched on the prerogative, but conducted at laſt to legitimate liberty. James, ſenſible that his favourite meaſures had been defeated by the intrigues and violence of Buckingham, began to eſtrange himſelf from that minion; but his domineering ſpirit ſoon regained an aſcendancy over the monarch; and when the earl of Briſtol, whom he both hated and feared, was recalled from Spain, he had influence enough to procure him to be ſent to the Tower, and afterwards baniſhed to his country ſeat.

Soon after this, a treaty of marriage between the prince of Wales and Henrietta of France being propoſed, James entered into the negociation with ſo much ardour, that it was ſoon brought to a favourable concluſion; but the king was much leſs fortunate in the enterpriſes of war, which his ſoul abhorred. The Engliſh nation, however, were bent on the recovery of the palatinate, and to accompliſh this object, in 1625, twelve thouſand foot and two hundred horſe were embarked under count Mansfeldt; but ſo ill had this expedition been concerted, that before the men were permitted to land, half of them were cut off by a peſtilential diſorder, and the other half were too weak to attempt the object of their deſtination.

James, who had zealouſly cultivated the arts of peace, did not long ſurvive the commencement of hoſtilities. Being ſeized with a tertian ague, and finding himſelf gradually becoming weaker, he ſent for the prince, whom he affectionately exhorted to bear a tender regard for his wife, but to preſerve a conſtancy in his own religion, to protect the church, and to extend his care to the unhappy family of the palatine; and having ſettled his other affairs, timid as he had been through life, he met death

with the fortitude of a Chriſtian hero. So compoſed was he, that he cloſed his own eyes in the laſt ſtruggle, March 27, 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years and ſome days.

In the annals of nations, it is ſcarcely poſſible to find a reign; more unſpotted and unblemiſhed than that of James; yet it contained nothing that could render it illuſtrious in hiſtory, and therefore it has been mentioned with obloquy and contempt. But if a king is only the father of a large family, and is equally bound with a natural parent, to watch over the welfare and ſafety of thoſe committed to his care, James will deſerve the higheſt panegyric, where unreflecting prejudice has aſſailed him the moſt. Still it muſt be owned, that though James poſſeſſed many virtues, ſcarcely one of them was free from the contagion of ſome neighbouring vice. His generoſity bordered on profuſion, his learning on pedantry, his love of peace on puſillanimity, and his wiſdom on cunning. He ruled over a people who delighted in war, from which they had ſeldom been long exempted before his time, and who valued high blood and treaſure, leſs than the ſplendour of battles and conqueſts.

James, in his ſtature, was of the middle ſize, of a fine complexion, ſmooth ſkin, and ſcanty beard; yet his appearance was mean, and his gait awkward from a weakneſs in the knees, which often gave him the appearance of a cripple. He valued himſelf much upon his polemical writings; and ſo fond was he of theological diſputations, that to keep them alive, he founded, for this expreſs uſe, Chelſea-college; which was converted to a much more benevolent purpoſe by Charles II. His Baſilicon Doron, Commentary on the Revelation, writings againſt Bellarmine, and his Dæmonologia, or doctrine of witchcraft, are ſufficiently known. There is a collection of his writings and ſpeeches in one folio volume. Several pieces of his are extant in the Caballa, others in manuſcript in the Britiſh Muſeum, and others in Howard's collection. He had iſſue, Henry, who died Nov. 6, 1612, in his nineteenth year; Charles, who ſucceeded him; Elizabeth, married, Feb. 14, 1613, to Frederic elector palatine of Germany. James's queen died in March 1618; Ruſhworth ſays in November.

Charles I. aſcended the throne of his father, A. D. 1625, with every apparent advantage; and yet no prince ever encountered more real difficulties. He found himſelf, upon coming to the crown, poſſeſſed of a peaceful and flouriſhing kingdom, his title undiſputed by all the world, his power ſtrengthened by an alliance with one of the moſt potent nations in Europe, his abſolute authority tacitly acknowledged by one part of his ſubjects, and enforced from the pulpit by the reſt. To add to all this, he was loved by his people, whoſe hearts he had gained by his princely virtues, his humility, and his candour. But on the other ſide we are preſented with a very different ſcene. Men had begun to think on the different rights of ſociety, and found that all had an equal claim to the ineſtimable bleſſings of freedom. The ſpirit of liberty was roufed; and it was reſolved to oppoſe the ancient claims of monarchs, who uſurped their power in times of ignorance, and who pleaded, in ſucceeding ages, former depredations as preſcriptive rights. Charles had been taught from his infancy to conſider the royal prerogative as a ſacred pledge, which it was not his duty to abridge. He had been brought up, as he himſelf expreſſed it, "at the feet of Gamaliel,"—and had early imbibed unfortunate prejudices. His father, who had contributed ſo much to ſink the claims of the crown, had, nevertheleſs, boldly defended them in his writings, and taught his ſon to defend by the ſword what he had only inculcated by the preſs. Charles, though a prince of tolerable underſtanding, had not comprehenſion enough to ſee that the genius and diſpoſition of his ſubjects had received a total change; he reſolved therefore to govern by old maxims which the people had diſcovered to have been eſtabliſhed on the foundations of ſlavery.

The king had as yet only eſpouſed the princeſs Henrietta of France by proxy; his marriage and coronation therefore were no ſooner celebrated in England, than he haſtened to call a parliament, whom he addreſſed in language of candour and cordiality. He had been loaded with a treaty for defending the palatinate, and the war for that purpoſe was to be carried on with vigour. But war was more eaſily declared, than ſupplies granted. After ſome reluctance, the commons voted him two ſubſidies, but far from being ſufficient to ſupport him in his intended equipment; and to this was tacked a petition for puniſhing papiſts, and for redreſſing the grievances of the nation. Buckingham, who had been the late king's favourite, and who was careſſed by the preſent monarch, did not eſcape their cenſures; ſo that, inſtead of granting the ſums requiſite, they employed the time in diſputations and complaints, till the ſeaſon for proſecuting the campaign was elapſed. Charles, therefore, wearied with their delays, and offended at the refuſal of his demands, thought proper to diſſolve them.

To ſupply the want of parliamentary aids, Charles had now recourſe to ſome of the ancient methods of extortion, practiſed by ſovereigns in neceſſitous circumſtances. That kind of tax called a *benevolence* was ordered to be exacted, and privy-ſeals were iſſued for that purpoſe. In order to cover the rigour of this ſtep, it was commanded that none ſhould be aſked for money but ſuch as were able to ſpare it; and he directed letters to different perſons, mentioning the ſums he deſired. With this the people were obliged to comply; it had been authorized by many precedents; but it was contended that no precedents whatſoever could give a ſanction to injuſtice. With the money thus raiſed a fleet was equipped againſt Spain, carrying ten thouſand men; the command of which was entruſted to Edward Cecil, created lord Wimbleton, who ſailed directly to Cadiz, and found the bay full of ſhips of great value. But he failed in making himſelf maſter of the harbour, while his undiſciplined army landing, inſtead of attacking the town, could not be reſtrained from indulging themſelves in the wine, which they found in great abundance on ſhore. Further ſtay, therefore, appeared fruitleſs; they were re-embarked; and the plague attacking the fleet, they were obliged to abandon the enterprize, and return to England. Loud murmurs were made againſt the court, for entruſting ſo important a command to a perſon unqualified for the undertaking.

This ineffectual expedition was a great blow to the popularity of Charles; and, to retrieve the glory of the nation, another attempt was to be made. With this view a new parliament was called, A. D. 1626; and though ſome ſteps were taken to exclude the more popular leaders of the laſt houſe of commons, by nominating them as ſheriffs of counties, yet the preſent parliament ſeemed more refractory than the former. When the king laid before the houſe his neceſſities, and aſked for a ſupply, they voted him only three ſubſidies, which amounted to about 160,000l. a ſum no way adequate to the importance of the war, or the neceſſities of the ſtate. But even this was not to be levied until the grievances of the ſtate were redreſſed. Their chief indignation was levelled againſt Buckingham, a miniſter who had no real merit, and who laboured under the great infelicity of being the king's favourite. The commons undertook to impeach him in the lower houſe, while the earl of Briſtol, who had returned from his embaſſy in Spain, accuſed him among his peers. The purport of the charge amounted to little more than that he had engroſſed too much power to himſelf and his relations; that he had neglected to guard the ſeas with a fleet; and that he had applied a plaſter to the late king's ſide, to haſten his end. Theſe frivolous accuſations muſt have ſunk of themſelves, had they not been intemperately oppoſed by the royal authority. The king gave orders to the lord-keeper to command the commons expreſsly in his name not to meddle with his miniſter Buckingham. The more to inflame them,

them, he had him elected chancellor of the university of Cambridge, and wrote that venerable body a letter of thanks for electing him. He assured the commons, that if they would not comply with his demands, he would try new councils. But what enraged them beyond measure was, when two of their members, sir Dudley Digges and sir John Elliot, complained of this partiality in favour of a man odious to the nation, the king ordered both to be committed for seditious behaviour. It was now that the commons violently exclaimed that their privileges were infringed, and all freedom of debate destroyed. They protested in the most solemn manner, that neither of their members had said any thing disrespectful of the king; and they made preparations for publishing their vindication. The king, whose character it was to shew a readiness to undertake harsh measures, but not to support them, released the two members; and this compliance confirmed that obstinacy in the house, which was afterwards his ruin. The earl of Arundel, for being guilty of the same offence in the house of lords, had also been imprisoned, and as tamely dismissed by the king. Thus the two houses having refused the levies without previous conditions, the king, rather than give up his favourite, chose to be without the supply, and therefore once more dissolved the parliament.

The new councils which Charles had hinted to the parliament were now to be tried, in order to supply his necessities. Instead of making peace with Spain, and thus abridging his expences, he resolved to carry on the war, and to keep up a standing army for this purpose. In order, therefore, to gain time and money, a commission was openly granted to compound with the catholics, and agree for a dispensation of the penal laws against them. He borrowed a sum of money from the nobility, whose contributions came in but slowly. But the greatest stretch of his power was in levying *ship-money*. In order to equip a fleet, (at least this was the pretence made,) each of the maritime towns was required, with the assistance of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were appointed them. The city of London was rated at twenty ships. This was the commencement of a tax, which, being afterwards carried to great lengths, created such violent discontents in the nation. But the extortions of the ministry did not rest here. Persons of birth and rank, who refused the loan, were summoned before the council; and, upon persisting in a refusal, were put under confinement. Five persons alone undertook to defend the cause of the public; and, at the hazard of their lives and fortunes, were resolved to try whether the king had a right to confine their persons, without an infringement of the law. The names of these patriots were, sir Thomas Darnel, sir John Corbet, sir Walter Earl, sir John Haveningham, and sir Edward Hambden. Their cause was brought to a solemn trial before the king's-bench, and the whole kingdom was absorbed in attention to so important a trial.

From the pleadings on this memorable trial it appeared, that personal liberty had been secured by no less than six different statutes, previous to that of the Great Charter itself; but that, in times of turbulence and sedition, the princes had infringed upon those laws: and of this also many examples were produced. The difficulty now lay, to determine when such violent measures were expedient; but of that the court pretended to be the supreme judge. As it was deemed legal, therefore, that these five gentlemen should plead the statute, by which they might demand bail, so it was thought expedient in the court to remand them to prison, without determining on the necessity of taking bail for the present. This was a cruel evasion of justice, and, in fact, satisfied neither the court nor the people. The court insisted that no bail could be taken: the country loudly exclaimed that the prisoners should be set free. Under these embarrassments, it was not without amazement that the country saw their king enter into an unprovoked war with France, with which he had so lately formed the most natural alliance. But Charles, among the foibles of a good disposition, relied too much on the insidious advice of Buckingham. All historians agree that this minister had conceived hopes of gaining the heart of the queen of France, widow of Henry IV. and mother to the queen of England; while, at the same time, cardinal Richelieu aspired to the same honour. The rivalry of these favourites produced an inveterate enmity; and, from a private quarrel, they resolved to involve their respective nations in the dispute. War was declared against France; and Charles was taught to hope, that hostilities with that kingdom would be the surest means of producing unanimity at home.

A fleet was now sent out, under the command of Buckingham, to relieve Rochelle, which had long enjoyed its privileges independent of the crown of France, but had embraced the reformed religion, and was therefore besieged by the catholic party. This expedition proved as unfortunate as that on the coast of Spain. The duke's measures were so ill concerted, that the inhabitants shut their gates against the English, fearful of admitting allies, of whose approach they had received no previous information. Instead of attacking the island of Oleron, which was fertile and defenceless, he bent his course to the isle of Rhé, which was garrisoned, and well fortified. He attempted also to starve out the garrison of St. Martin's castle, which was copiously supplied with provisions. In the mean while the French landed their forces privately at another part of the island; and Buckingham was obliged to retreat with such precipitation, that two-thirds of his army were cut to pieces before they could reach their ships. The failure of this expedition served to render the duke still more obnoxious, and the king more needy. He therefore resolved to call a third parliament, A. D. 1628; and in a conciliating speech, but with dignity and spirit, demanded supplies. The members, however, were still dissatisfied. They boldly inveighed against the late loans, benevolences, taxes without consent of parliament, arbitrary imprisonments, billeting of soldiers, and martial laws: these were the grievances of which they complained, and against these they insisted that an eternal remedy should be provided. An immunity from these vexations they alleged to be the inherent right of the subject; and the schedule of their present demands, was called a petition of right, as implying privileges they had before been possessed of. Nothing could therefore be more just than the enacting this petition into a law. The Great Charter, and the old statutes, were sufficiently clear in favour of liberty; but as all the kings of England had been more or less accustomed to elude them; and as Charles, in many instances had violated them; it was quite requisite to enact a new law, which might prevent these innovations for the future.

Charles was taught to consider this requisition as the most violent encroachment on his prerogative; yet when he found that nothing but his assent would satisfy the house, he gave it; but in such ambiguous terms, as left him still in possession of his former power. At length, however, to screen his favourite Buckingham, he thought proper to give it without reservation. He came therefore to the house, and pronouncing the usual form of words, "*Soit comme il est desiré*, Let it be law as it is desired," he gave the petition of right all the sanction that was necessary to pass it into a law. The acclamations which followed, sufficiently testified the joy of the people; and an immediate grant of five subsidies was the strongest mark of parliamentary approbation. The commons, having thus recognized their estate in the constitution, prepared to repress its future violation. They objected to the commission for raising money for the introduction of a thousand German horse, which, with just reason, they feared might be turned against the liberties of the people. They resumed also their censure of Buckingham, whom they resolved implacably to pursue. They asserted, that

the method of levying money, called tonnage and poundage, without the consent of parliament, was a palpable violation of the liberties of the people. All these grievances were preparing to be drawn up in a remonstrance to his majesty, when the king came suddenly to the house, and ended their deliberations by a prorogation. But the members were not to be diverted from their claims for the liberty of the people. They urged their demands with still more force on their next sitting; and the duty of tonnage and poundage was discussed with greater precision than before. This tax upon merchandize was a duty of very early institution, and had been conferred on Henry V. and all succeeding princes, during life, to enable them to maintain a naval force for the protection of the kingdom. But the parliament had usually granted it as of their special favour, in the beginning of each reign, except to Henry VIII. who had it not conferred till the sixth year of his reign. He had, indeed, received it from the beginning, but he thought it necessary to have the sanction of parliament to insure it to him, which clearly implied that it was not an inherent privilege of the crown. They refused, therefore, to grant it now; and insisted that the king could not levy it without their permission. Charles, however, persisted; and the officers of the custom-house were summoned before the commons, to shew by what authority they seized the goods of the merchants who had refused to pay these duties. The barons of the exchequer were questioned concerning their decrees on that head; the sheriff of London was committed to the Tower for his activity in supporting the custom-house officers. These were strong measures; but the commons now went further, by a resolution to examine into religious grievances; and a new spirit of intolerance began to appear. The king, therefore, resolved to dissolve a parliament which he found himself unable to manage; and sir John Finch, the speaker, just as the question on tonnage and poundage was going to be put, rose up, and informed the house that he had a command from the king to adjourn.

Nothing could exceed the indignation of the commons on this procedure. The house was in an uproar; the speaker was pushed back into his chair, and forcibly held in it by Hollis and Valentine, till a short remonstrance was framed and passed. In this hasty production, papists and Arminians were declared capital enemies to the state; tonnage and poundage was prohibited, as contrary to law; and not only those who raised that duty, but those who paid it, were made alike guilty of capital crimes. In consequence of this violent proceeding, sir Miles Hobart, sir Peter Hayman, Selden, Coriton, Long, and Strode, were, by the king's order, committed for sedition. But the same temerity that impelled Charles to imprison them, induced him to grant a release. Sir John Elliot, Hollis, and Valentine, were summoned before the king's bench; but they refusing to admit the interference of an inferior tribunal, for faults committed in a superior, were condemned to be imprisoned during the king's pleasure, to pay a fine, and to enter into recognizance for their future good behaviour. The members triumphed in their sufferings, while they had the whole kingdom as applauders of their fortitude.

In this conjuncture the king was severely afflicted by the death of his favourite, the duke of Buckingham, who fell a sacrifice to his unpopularity. It had been resolved once more to undertake the raising of the siege of Rochelle; and the earl of Denbigh, brother-in-law to the duke of Buckingham, was sent thither, but returned without effecting any thing. To repair this disgrace, the duke of Buckingham went to Portsmouth, to forward another expedition, and to punish such as had endeavoured to defraud the crown of the legal assessments. At this place was one Felton, an Irishman, who had served under the duke as lieutenant, but had resigned on being refused his rank on the death of his captain, who had been killed at the isle of Rhé. In revenge for what he conceived an insult on his country and himself, he watched a favourable opportunity, and while the duke was speaking to one of his colonels, Felton struck him over that officer's shoulder in the breast with a knife. The duke had only time to say, "The villain has killed me," when he fell at the colonel's feet, and instantly expired, A. D. 1629. No one had seen the blow, nor the person who gave it; but a hat was picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper containing a short ejaculation, desiring aid in the attempt. It was concluded that this hat must belong to the assassin; and while they were employed in debating whose it could be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before them, and was heard to cry out, "I am he." When asked at whose instigation he had committed that horrid deed? he answered, that they need not trouble themselves to enquire: that his conscience was his only prompter; and that no man on earth could dispose him to act against its dictates. He suffered for the crime with the same unrelenting courage and constancy, exulting in the event, which he said had delivered England from its greatest enemy.

Although this event sunk deep in the mind of Charles, who was ever awake to the feelings of humanity and friendship, and although he was now left, as it were, without an adviser, his consequent measures were judicious, and founded in wisdom. He made peace with the two crowns against whom he had waged war, which had been entered into without necessity, and conducted without glory. Being thus freed from his embarrassments, he bent his whole attention to the management of the internal policy of the kingdom, and took as his associates in this task, sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford, and Laud, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury.

Strafford, by his eminent talents and abilities, merited all the confidence which the king reposed in him. His character was austere; more fitted to procure esteem than love; his fidelity to the king was unshaken: but in serving the interests of the crown, he forgot the rights of the people. As he now employed all his counsels to support the prerogative, which he formerly had endeavoured to diminish, his loyalty was subjected to the imputation of self-interest and ambition; but his good character in private life made up for that seeming duplicity of public conduct.

Laud was in the church somewhat resembling Strafford in the state, rigid, severe, punctual, and industrious. His zeal was unremitted in the cause of religion; and the forms, as established by queen Elizabeth, seemed essentially connected with it.

Since the times of Elizabeth, that religious sect had been gaining ground in England, which, from the pretended greater purity of their manners, were called *puritans*. Of all other sects, this was the most obnoxious to monarchy; and the tenets of it more calculated to support that imagined equality which obtains in a state of nature. The partisans of this religion, being generally men of warm tempers, pushed their sentiments into a total opposition to those of Rome; and in the countries where their opinions had taken place, not only a religious but a political freedom began to be established. All enthusiasts, indulging more or less in extasies, visions, and inspirations, have a natural aversion to ceremonies and ritual forms, which are but external means of supplying devotion. The same unequivocal spirit which accompanied them in their addresses to the divinity, appeared in their political speculations; and the principles of civil liberty, which had hitherto been almost unknown in Europe, began to bud forth in this ungracious soil. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that kings and bishops were anxious to suppress the growth of opinions so unfavourable to their authority; and that Laud, who, of all men alive, was the most attached to religious ceremony, should treat with rigour all men who contemned or opposed his doctrines. And, indeed, in the histories of

of thoſe times, we find the great cauſe of contention between the king and his people aroſe not from civil but religious motives; not from a deſire on the one hand of extending power, and on the other hand of promoting liberty; but merely from the ardour of the king in ſupporting biſhops and ceremonials of the church, and the fury of the puritans in aboliſhing thoſe diſtinctions, as remnants of popiſh idolatry.

Orders were now given that the communion-table ſhould be removed from the middle of the church to the eaſt end; where it ſhould be railed in, and denominated the altar. The kneeling at the altar, and the uſing of copes or embroidered veſtments, as uſed in popiſh countries, were alſo introduced, to the great diſſatisfaction of the people. Pictures and images were again admitted into the churches, by Laud's command. All ſuch clergy as neglected to obſerve every ceremony, were ſuſpended, and deprived by the high commiſſion court. And to mortify the puritans, orders were iſſued from the council, forbidding any controverſy, either from the pulpit or the preſs, on the points in diſpute between them and their opponents, concerning free-will and predeſtination. The king's divine, hereditary, and indefeaſible, right, was the theme of every ſermon; and thoſe who attempted to queſtion ſuch doctrines, were conſidered as making an attack upon loyalty and religion. The king, who had made a reſolution of calling no more parliaments, and which reſolution he adhered to for the ſpace of eleven years, was highly gratified with theſe doctrines, as they were the means of facilitating his meaſures, and of procuring thoſe pecuniary ſupplies which he had no legal means of obtaining. While Laud, therefore, ruled the church, the king and Strafford undertook to manage the temporal intereſts of the nation. A proclamation was iſſued, in which Charles declared, "That whereas, for ſeveral ill ends, the calling again of a parliament is divulged; yet the late abuſes, having for the preſent unwillingly driven him out of that courſe, he will account it preſumption for any one to preſcribe to him any time for calling that aſſembly." This was conſtrued as a declaration, that, during his reign, no more parliaments would be ſummoned; and every meaſure of the king ſerved to confirm the ſuſpicion.

It was now that the people began to think themſelves at the uncontrouled diſpoſal of an arbitrary monarch, who, though good and gentle in his own nature, might at any time change his conduct, by ill-adviſers. They now ſaw the conſtitution at one blow diſſolved; and the executive power, with that which is hereditary in the nobility, wholly aſſumed by the king. Tonnage and poundage were continued to be levied by royal authority alone: cuſtom-houſe officers received orders from the council to enter any houſe whatever, in ſearch of contraband goods; compoſitions were openly made with papiſts; and the toleration of their religion was become a regular part of the revenue. The high-commiſſion court of Star-chamber exerciſed its power, independent of any law, upon ſeveral bold and reſolute perſons, who had the temerity to oppoſe theſe meaſures; and who gloried in their ſufferings, and contributed to render government odious and contemptible. The rigours, however, which they underwent, gave general offence; and the patience, or rather alacrity, with which they ſuffered, increaſed ſtill further the public indignation.

The puritans, thus perſecuted in England, ſhipped themſelves off for America, where they laid the foundations of a new government, agreeable to their own ſyſtem of political freedom. But the king, unwilling that the nation ſhould be deprived of its members, or dreading the unpopularity of theſe emigrations, was prevailed upon to iſſue a proclamation, debarring theſe devotees acceſs even to thoſe diſtant regions. Eight ſhips, lying in the Thames, and ready to ſail, were detained by order of council; and in theſe were embarked ſir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden, and Oliver Cromwell, who had reſolved for ever to abandon their native country. This may ſtand as a proof of the ſincerity theſe men afterwards teſtified in the cauſe for which they fought; and is a clear proof that hypocriſy, with which they were certainly tinctured, was not, at leaſt in the beginning, among the motives of their oppoſition.

The levying of ſhip-money was the next thing complained of as a national grievance. This was a tax which had, in former reigns, been levied without the conſent of parliament; but then the exigency of the ſtate demanded ſuch a ſupply. As the neceſſity at preſent was not ſo apparent, and might excite murmurs among the people, a queſtion was propoſed by the king to the judges, whether, for the defence of the kingdom, he might not impoſe this tax? and whether he was not ſole judge of this neceſſity? To this queſtion the judges concurred in opinion that he might; yet John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamſhire, refuſed to comply with the tax, and reſolved to bring it to a legal inveſtigation. The caſe was argued twelve days in the exchequer chamber, before all the judges of England. The nation regarded, with the utmoſt anxiety, the reſult of a trial that was to fix the limits of the king's power: but after the former opinion of the judges had been given, the event might have been eaſily foreſeen. All the judges, except four, gave ſentence in favour of the crown; while Hampden, who loſt his cauſe, affected to be more than recompenſed by the applauſes of the people. Nothing was heard but murmurs againſt government, and encomiums on him who had withſtood its uſurpations. It was now alleged that tyranny was confirmed into ſyſtem; and that there was no redreſs except in ſullen patience or contented ſlavery. Eccleſiaſtical tyranny was thought to give aid to political injuſtice; and all the rights of the nation, tranſmitted through ſo many ages, ſecured by ſo many laws, and purchaſed by the blood of ſo many heroes, lay proſtrate at the feet of arbitrary authority.

The Scots had, during the reign of James I. ſhewn a ſtrong attachment to puritanical principles; and though they ſtill continued to allow of biſhops, yet they were reduced to poverty, and treated with contempt. James, indeed, had ſeen the low eſtate of epiſcopacy in that kingdom, and had endeavoured once more to exalt and eſtabliſh it; but he died in the midſt of his endeavours. It was the fate of Charles for ever to aim at projects which were at once impracticable and unneceſſary; he reſolved therefore to complete what his father had begun. This ill-judged attempt ſerved to alienate the affections of his Scottiſh ſubjects, as much as his encroachments on liberty had rendered him unpopular in England. The flame of ſedition in Scotland paſſed from one city to another, while the puritans formed a *covenant*, to ſupport and defend their opinions; and reſolved to eſtabliſh their doctrines, or overturn the ſtate. On the other hand, the court was determined to eſtabliſh the liturgy of the church of England; and both ſides being obſtinate in opinion, thoſe ſanguinary meaſures were ſoon begun in Scotland, which had hitherto been only talked of among the Engliſh. Charles, finding them in arms, and that they inſiſted on diſplacing the biſhops, conſidered their demands as an open declaration of war; and accordingly ſummoned ſuch of the nobility of England as held lands of the crown, to furniſh him with a proper number of forces to oppoſe them. He demanded alſo a voluntary contribution from the clergy, as he was, in fact, fighting their cauſe; and, by means of his queen, the catholics were alſo called upon for their aſſiſtance. By theſe methods he ſoon found himſelf at the head of twenty thouſand men; but commanded by generals leſs willing to fight than to negociate. His ſuperiority in numbers, however, gave him a manifeſt advantage over the rebels, who were not ſlow in marching to give him battle. But Charles, who inherited the peaceable diſpoſition of his father, was unwilling to come to extre-

mities, although a blow then ſtruck with vigour might have prevented all his ſubſequent misfortunes. A ſuſpenſion of arms was agreed upon; and a treaty of peace concluded, which neither party intended to obſerve; yet both agreed to diſband their forces. This was a fatal meaſure to Charles, as he could not levy a new army without great expence; while the Scottiſh inſurgents, who were volunteers in the ſervice, could be muſtered at pleaſure. Of this the malcontents were ſenſible; for they lengthened out the negociations with affected difficulties, till they were confident of their own ſuperiority. Then, after much altercation, and many treaties ſigned and broken, both parties again reſorted to arms.

It was now, A. D. 1640, about eleven years ſince the king had called a parliament. The fierce and ungovernable ſpirit of the laſt meeting, had taught him to hate and to fear ſuch an aſſembly; but his treaſury being exhauſted, and great debts contracted, he had no other reſource. Yet ſtill, the many illegal, and the numerous imprudent, ſteps of the crown, contributed to fill this new parliament with nothing but murmurings and complaints. Every method the king had taken to ſupply himſelf with money, was declared an abuſe, and a breach of the conſtitution. Ship-money, the ſale of monopolies, the billeting ſoldiers upon refractory citizens, were all voted as ſtretches of arbitrary power. Charles, finding he had no hopes from the commons, had recourſe to the houſe of peers; but here he was equally foiled; and meeting with nothing but diſguſt and recrimination, he again diſſolved the parliament, to try arbitrary meaſures for ſupplying his neceſſities.

The king now called upon the citizens of London for a loan; which, being refuſed, he ſued ſuch of them in the ſtar-chamber, as had lands in Ireland, and made them pay a conſiderable fine. He continued alſo to exact the taxes againſt which every parliament had remonſtrated. A loan of forty thouſand pounds was extorted from the Spaniſh merchants, who had bullion in the Tower. Coat and conduct money for the ſoldiers was levied on the counties; an ancient practice, but ſuppoſed to have been aboliſhed by the petition of right. All the pepper was bought from the Eaſt India company upon truſt, and ſold at a great diſcount for ready money. A ſcheme was alſo propoſed for coining baſe money; and yet all theſe methods were far from proving effectual. The Scots, therefore, ſenſible of the extremities to which the king was reduced, led on an army of twenty thouſand men as far as Newcaſtle upon Tyne, to lay their grievances before their ſovereign, as they were pleaſed to term their rebellion. Perhaps the moſt diſguſting feature in the puritanical character, was this gentle language, and humble cant, in the midſt of treaſon; and their flattery to the king, while they were attempting to dethrone and deſtroy him. To the Scottiſh troops, inſpired by enthuſiaſm, and flushed with ſome ſlight victories, Charles was able only to oppoſe a ſmaller force, undiſciplined, ſeditious, and ill paid. Being, therefore, in deſpair of ſtemming the torrent, he at length yielded to it. He ſummoned a council of the peers to meet him at York; and, as he foreſaw that they would adviſe him to call a parliament, he told them he had already taken that reſolution. He now called that *long* parliament, which never diſcontinued ſitting till they finally accompliſhed his ruin. This parliament had no ſooner met, than it impeached the earl of Strafford, the king's firſt miniſter, for high treaſon. Pym, who opened the accuſation in the houſe of commons, was ſent up to ſupport it at the bar of the houſe of lords; and moſt of the commons attended their member.

To give the utmoſt ſolemnity to this trial, ſcaffolds were erected in Weſtminſter hall, where both houſes ſat, the one as judges, the other as accuſers. Beſide the chair of ſtate, a cloſe gallery was prepared for the king and queen, who attended the whole time. The articles of impeachment were twenty-eight; the ſubſtance of which was, that he had illegally attempted to extend the royal prerogative, to the manifeſt injury of the king and his ſubjects; and had been guilty of various unjuſt exactions in Ireland. In the midſt of this ſolemn trial, the earl of Strafford, whoſe wiſdom and character had been long reſpectable, ſtood unmoved and undaunted. He defended himſelf with equal preſence of mind, judgment, and ſagacity. But all was in vain: nothing leſs than his life could now appeaſe the vengeance of the people. He was found guilty by both houſes of parliament; and the king was called upon to give his ſanction to the bill of attainder. Charles, who loved and reſpected Strafford, heſitated and tried every expedient to put aſide ſo dreadful an event as that of ſigning the warrant for his execution. While in this agitation of mind, he received a letter from that unfortunate nobleman, deſiring that his life might be made the ſacrifice of a mutual reconciliation between the king and his people; adding that he was prepared to die, and to a willing mind there could be no injury. This noble generoſity was but ill requited by the king, who inſtantly gave orders for ſigning the fatal bill by commiſſion; Strafford was beheaded on Tower-hill; and behaved with all that dignity of mind and Chriſtian fortitude, which has immortalized his character.

But the commons choſe not to ſtop here. Laud alſo, after a deliberation of half an hour, was conſidered ſufficiently culpable to incur the ſame accuſation, and was committed to cuſtody. Finch, the lord-keeper, was likewiſe impeached; but he had the precaution to eſcape into Holland, as did ſir Francis Wyndebank, the ſecretary, into France. The king, thus deprived of his miniſters, began to tremble for the few privileges he ſtill poſſeſſed. The lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants of counties, who had acted under his influence, were voted delinquents. The ſheriffs alſo, who had obeyed the king's mandate in raiſing ſhip-money, were voted delinquents. All the farmers and officers of the cuſtoms, who had been employed during ſo many years in levying tonnage and poundage, were ſubjected to the ſame imputation, and purchaſed their ſafety by paying a hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. Every ſentence of the ſtar-chamber, and high-commiſſion courts, underwent a ſevere ſcrutiny; and all thoſe who had any hand in ſuch ſentences, were voted liable to the penalties of the law. The judges, who had declared againſt Hampden, in the trial of ſhip-money, were accuſed before the peers, and obliged to find ſecurity for their appearance. All thoſe monopolies which had been granted by the king were now annihilated, by order of the commons; and they carried their reſentment ſo far as to expel from their houſe all ſuch members as had been monopoliſts or contractors.

Hitherto we have ſeen the commons acting, in ſome meaſure, as the patrons of liberty. Had they been content to ſtop here, they might have been conſidered as the benefactors of mankind; and would have left the conſtitution on a fair and firm baſis. But from matters of civil and political inveſtigation, they proceeded to the affairs of the church. The pulpits were delivered over to puritanical preachers, whom the commons arbitrarily placed in all the conſiderable churches, which now reſounded with faction and fanaticiſm. The preſs teemed with productions dangerous to the ſtate; and ſedition and calumny pervaded all orders, againſt the king and his friends.

In this univerſal uproar, Prynne, Burton, and Baſtwick, who had been for years committed to remote priſons, were ſet at liberty by order of the commons. Baſtwick had been confined in Scilly, Burton in Jerſey, and Prynne in Guernſey; and, upon landing at their reſpective places, they were received by the acclamations of the people, and attended by crowds to London. Boughs were carried in this tumultuous proceſſion; the roads were ſtrewed with flowers, their ſufferings were aggravated,

gravated, and their perſecutors reviled. Every perſon who had been puniſhed for ſedition during the foregoing adminiſtration, now recovered their liberty, and had damages given againſt thoſe who had decreed their puniſhment.

The torrent of licentious liberty riſing to ſo dreadful a height, deſpair ſeized all thoſe who, from intereſt or habit, were attached to monarchy; while the king himſelf ſaw, with amazement, the whole fabric of the government haſtily overturned. "You have taken (ſaid he to the parliament) the whole machine of government to pieces; a practice frequent with ſkilful artiſts, when they deſire to clear the wheels from any ruſt which may have grown upon them. The engine may be reſtored to its proper uſe and motions, provided it be fitted up entire, ſo as not a pin be wanting." But the commons, in their implacable temper, were reſolved to ſhew that their plan was better adapted to deſtroy, than to fit up. They therefore immediately annihilated the high-commiſſion court, and the court of ſtar-chamber, by a bill which unanimouſly paſſed both houſes of parliament.

In the midſt of theſe domeſtic ferments, the catholics of Ireland thought it a convenient opportunity of throwing off the Engliſh yoke. There was a gentleman named Roger More, deſcended from an ancient Iriſh family, and much celebrated for his valour and capacity. He it was who formed the project of expelling the Engliſh, and aſſerting the independence of his native country. Struck with theſe motives, ſir Phelim O'Neale entered into the conſpiracy; lord Macguire ſeconded his deſigns, and ſoon after all the chiefs of the native Iriſh promiſed their concurrence. Their plan was, that ſir Phelim O'Neale, and the other conſpirators, ſhould begin an inſurrection on one and the ſame day throughout all the provinces, to maſſacre the Engliſh; while lord Macguire and Roger More ſhould ſurpriſe the caſtle of Dublin. They had fixed on the approach of winter for this revolt; and the earl of Leiceſter, who had been appointed lord lieutenant, was then in London. But the day before the intended ſeizure of the caſtle of Dublin, the plot was diſcovered by one O'Conolly, to the juſtices, who fled to the caſtle, and alarmed all the proteſtant inhabitants of the city to provide for their ſafety. Macguire was taken, but More eſcaped; and new informations being every hour added to thoſe already received, the project of a general inſurrection was defeated. But though the proteſtants in Dublin had juſt time enough to ſave themſelves from danger, thoſe diſperſed over different parts of the country, were expoſed to the moſt ſhocking cruelties. O'Neale, and his confederates, had already taken arms in Ulſter. The Iriſh catholics, every where intermingled with the Engliſh proteſtants, needed but a hint from their leaders to maſſacre a people whom they hated for their religion, and envied for their proſperity. Neither age, ſex, nor condition, received any pity: numberleſs were the inſtances of friends murdering their intimates, relations their kinſmen, and ſervants their maſters. Not only death, but ſtudied cruelties, were inflicted on the unhappy ſufferers; the very avarice of the revolters could not reſtrain their thirſt for blood, and they burned the inhabitants in their own houſes, to increaſe their puniſhment. By legendary computations, the Engliſh who periſhed by theſe cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and fifty or two hundred thouſand ſouls; but, by the moſt moderate computation, they could not have been leſs than forty thouſand. King Charles was in Scotland, when he received the firſt accounts of this dreadful rebellion; and though he exerted his utmoſt perſuaſions to induce his Scottiſh ſubjects to lend aſſiſtance to the proteſtant cauſe, yet he found them totally averſe to ſending any ſuccours into Ireland. Their aim was to act with the parliament of England, and not to obey the injunctions of their ſovereign. They went further, and had the effrontery to impute theſe dreadful maſſacres to the king's own contrivance. In fact, the rebels of Ireland had contrived to ſhow a royal patent, authoriſing their reſort to arms; and it is ſaid that ſir Phelim O'Neale, having found a royal patent in lord Caulfield's houſe, whom he had murdered, he tore off the ſeal, and affixed it to a commiſſion which he had forged for himſelf.

It was now A. D. 1641, that the republican ſpirit began to predominate in the parliament; and by attacking the foibles of the king, laid the plan of ſubverting the monarchy. The projectors of this ſcheme began their operations by attacking epiſcopacy, which was one of the ſtrongeſt bulwarks of the royal cauſe; but they previouſly framed a remonſtrance, in which they ſummed up all their grievances. Theſe they aſcribed to a regular ſyſtem of tyranny in the king, which had virtually deſtroyed the functions of the conſtitution. The commons, having thus endeavoured to prove the king's adminiſtration illegal, began upon the hierarchy. Their firſt meaſure was, to ſuſpend all the laws which had been made for the obſervance of public worſhip. They accuſed thirteen biſhops of high treaſon, for enacting canons without the conſent of parliament; and endeavoured to prevail upon the houſe of peers to exclude all the prelates from their ſeats and votes in that houſe. But, notwithſtanding all their efforts, the lords refuſed their concurrence to a meaſure, which was obviouſly pregnant with injuſtice. The majority of the peers adhered to the king; and began to foreſee that the depreſſion of the crown was only a prelude to the extinction of the nobility. The commons murmured, and at once juſtified their concluſion, by inſinuating that the buſineſs of the ſtate could be carried on without them.

In order to intimidate the lords, the populace was let looſe to inſult and threaten them. Multitudes of people flocked daily to Weſtminſter, and inſulted the prelates and peers who adhered to the crown. The rabble, by way of reproach, were called *Roundheads*, from the manner of wearing their hair: and the gentlemen, *Cavaliers*. Theſe names afterwards ſerved to diſtinguiſh the partiſans of either ſide, and ſerved ſtill more to divide the nation. The biſhops now, foreſeeing the ſtorm was gathering over them, reſolved to attend their duty in parliament no longer; but drew up a proteſt, which was ſigned by twelve of them, in which they declared, that, being hindered by the populace from attending at the houſe of lords, they reſolved to go there no more till all commotions were appeaſed; proteſting, in the mean time, againſt all ſuch laws as ſhould be enacted in their abſence. This ceſſation of the biſhops from parliament was what the commons moſt ardently deſired; and they took advantage of it with avidity. An impeachment of high-treaſon was immediately ſet up againſt them, for ſubverting the fundamental laws, and invalidating the legiſlative authority. In conſequence of this charge, they were excluded from parliament, and committed to cuſtody; no man in either houſe daring to ſpeak a word in their vindication.

This was a fatal blow to the royal intereſt; and naturally called forth every feeling of an inſulted king. Charles had long ſuppreſſed his reſentment, and had ſtrove to ſatisfy the unreaſonable demands of the commons, by the greatneſs of his conceſſions; but finding that his ſubmiſſive compliance had only increaſed the evil, he now determined to interpoſe his prerogative. He gave orders to Herbert, his attorney-general, to enter an accuſation of high-treaſon againſt lord Kimbolton, one of the moſt popular of his party, together with five commoners, ſir Arthur Hazelrig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym, and Strode. The articles were, that they had traiterouſly endeavoured to ſubvert the fundamental laws and government of the ſtate, to deprive the king of his regal power, and to impoſe on his ſubjects an arbitrary and tyrannical government; that they had invited a foreign army to invade the kingdom; had aimed at ſubverting the rights of parliament, and had raiſed and countenanced tumults againſt the king. The commons had ſcarcely time to contemplate this impeachment, when they were aſtoniſhed by another meaſure,

ſtill

ſtill more raſh and precipitate. A ſerjeant at arms, in the king's name, demanded of the houſe the five members, but was ſent back without any deciſive anſwer. The next day the king himſelf entered the houſe of commons, advancing forward, while all the members ſtood up to receive him. The ſpeaker withdrew from his chair, and the king took poſſeſſion of it. Having ſeated himſelf, with a ſtern aſpect, he told the houſe he was ſorry for the occaſion that forced him thither; that he was come in perſon to ſeize the members whom he had accuſed of high-treaſon, ſeeing they choſe not to deliver them up to his ſerjeant at arms. Addreſſing himſelf to the ſpeaker, he deſired to know whether any of the traitors were in the houſe; but the ſpeaker, falling on his knees, replied, that "he had neither eyes to ſee, nor tongue to ſpeak, but as the houſe was pleaſed to direct him:" and he aſked pardon for being able to give no other anſwer. He then directed his eyes every way, to ſee if the accuſed were preſent; but they had eſcaped a few minutes before. Thus diſappointed and perplexed, he next proceeded, amidſt the clamours of the populace, who continued to cry out, "Privilege! privilege!" to the common council of the city, and made his complaint to them. The common council conducted themſelves in a ſimilar manner to the houſe of commons; and the king, chagrined and diſappointed, returning to St. James's, was again inſulted by the mob, who cried out, "To your tents, O Iſrael!"—the menacing words of the Jews, when they were about to abandon their prince.

The commons, the next day, affected the greateſt terror, and paſſed an unanimous vote that the king had violated their privileges, and reſolved not to aſſemble again in the ſame place, till they ſhould have obtained ſatisfaction, with a guard for their ſecurity. They aſcribed the laſt meaſures of the king to the councils of the papiſts; and the city was thus filled with groundleſs conſternation. As the commons artfully kept up their panic to inflame the populace, and as the city was only one ſcene of confuſion, the king, afraid of expoſing himſelf to freſh inſults, retired to Windſor. There, reflecting on the raſhneſs of his proceedings, he wrote to the parliament, informing them that he deſiſted from proſecuting the accuſed members; and aſſured them, that upon all occaſions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his life or his crown. Thus, as his former violence begat hatred, his preſent ſubmiſſion rendered him contemptible.

The commons having nearly ſtripped the king of almoſt all his privileges, now determined to get poſſeſſion of the ſword. The power of appointing governors, generals, and levying armies, was an hereditary prerogative of the crown. Having, therefore, firſt magnified their terrors of popery, they proceeded to petition that the Tower might be put into their hands, and that Hull, Portſmouth, and the fleet, ſhould be intruſted to perſons of their chooſing. Theſe were requeſts, the complying with which would level all that remained of the ancient conſtitution: yet ſuch was the neceſſity of the times, that they were at firſt conteſted, and then granted. At length, the commons deſired to have a militia raiſed, and governed by ſuch officers and commanders as they ſhould nominate, under pretence of ſecuring them from the Iriſh papiſts, of whom they affected to be under great apprehenſions. It was here that Charles firſt ventured to put a ſtop to his conceſſions; and that not by a refuſal, but a delay. He was at that time at Dover, attending the queen, and the princeſs of Orange, who had thought it prudent to leave the kingdom. He replied to the petition of the commons, that he had not leiſure to conſider a matter of ſuch importance, and therefore would defer an anſwer till his return. But the commons ſeemed well aware that delays might be fatal to their views: they alleged that the dangers of the nation were ſuch as could endure no neglect; and unleſs the king ſpeedily complied with their demands, they ſhould be obliged, both for his ſafety and that of the kingdom, to diſpoſe of the militia by the authority of parliament, and were reſolved to do it accordingly. In a remonſtrance to the king, they deſired to be permitted to command the army for a limited time; which ſo exaſperated the monarch, that he exclaimed, "No, not for one hour!" This peremptory refuſal broke off all further treaty; and both ſides now reſolved to have recourſe to arms.

Charles, taking the prince of Wales with him, retired to York, where he found the people more loyal, and leſs infected with the puritanical phrenſy of the times. He found his cauſe there backed by a more numerous party than he had expected among the people. The queen, who was in Holland, was making levies of men and ammunition, by ſelling the crown jewels. Yet, before war was openly declared, the ſhadow of a negociation was carried on, rather to ſerve as a pretence to the people, than with any real deſign of reconciliation. The king offered propoſals to the commons, which he knew they would not accept; and they, in return, ſubmitted nineteen propoſitions to his conſideration, which, if complied with, would indeed have rendered him the maſter puppet of their ſcheme of tyranny. The import was, that the privy-council, the principal officers of ſtate, the governors of the king's children, the commanders of the forts, his fleet and army, ſhould be all appointed by, and put under the controul of, parliament; that papiſts ſhould be puniſhed by their authority; that the church and liturgy ſhould be reformed at their diſcretion; and that ſuch members as had been diſplaced by the king ſhould be reſtored. Theſe propoſals, had they been complied with, would have moulded the government into an ariſtocracy; but, happily for poſterity, they were rejected by the king. "Should I grant theſe demands (ſaid he) I might be waited on bare-headed; I might have my hand kiſſed, the title of majeſty continued, and the king's authority ſignified by both houſes of parliament; I might have ſwords and maces carried before me, and pleaſe myſelf with the toys of a crown and ſceptre; but, as to true and real power, I ſhould remain but the picture, the ſign, the ſymbol, of a king." War at any rate was therefore to be preferred to peace, on ſuch conditions. Thus the king and his parliament mutually reproached each other as the cauſe of a ſcene of ſlaughter, in which both perhaps were equally culpable.

No period, ſince England had a name, could furniſh ſo many inſtances of courage, abilities, and virtue, as the fatal oppoſition called forth into action, A. D. 1642. Both ſides, equally confident of the juſtice of their cauſe, appealed to God to judge of the rectitude of their intentions. The parliament was convinced that it fought for heaven, by aſſerting its regards for a peculiar mode of worſhip; and the king was not leſs convinced that his claims were ſacred, as he had ever been taught to conſider them as of divine original. Thus paſſion and enthuſiaſm on each ſide animated the combatants; and courage, rather than conduct, among theſe undiſciplined troops, decided the fortune of the day. Never was conteſt more unequal than appeared at firſt between the contending parties; the king being entirely deſtitute of almoſt every advantage. His revenue had been ſeized by parliament; all the ſea-port towns were in their hands, except Newcaſtle; the fleet was at their diſpoſal; all magazines of arms and ammunition were ſeized for their uſe; and they had the good wiſhes of the bulk of the people. To oppoſe this, the king had conſtantly that acknowledged reverence due to royalty, to give ſanction to his cauſe. The greater part of the nobility adhered to him, as their diſtinctions muſt riſe or fall with the fountain of honour. Moſt men of education alſo, and the ancient families, ſtill conſidered loyalty as a virtue, and armed their tenants and ſervants in his cauſe. With theſe followers, Charles reſolved to take the field; and he erected the royal ſtandard at Nottingham.

Manifeſtos on both ſides were now diſperſed throughout the kingdom; and the people were inveterately divided

vided between the two factions of *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. The king, to bind himself by the most solemn engagements to his subjects, made the following protestation before his whole army. "I do promise, in the presence of Almighty God, and as I hope for his blessing and protection, that I will, to the utmost of my power, defend and maintain the true reformed protestant religion, established in the church of England; and, by the grace of God, in the same will live and die. I desire that the laws may be ever the measure of my government, and that the liberty and property of the subject may be preserved by them with the same care as my own just rights. And if it please God, by his blessing on this army raised for my necessary defence, to preserve me from the present rebellion, I do solemnly and faithfully promise, in the sight of God, to maintain the just privileges and freedom of parliament, and to govern, to the utmost of my power, by the known statutes and customs of the kingdom; and particularly to observe inviolably the laws to which I have given my consent this parliament. Meanwhile, if this emergency, and the great necessity to which I am driven, beget any violation of law, I hope it shall be imputed by God and man to the authors of this war, not to me, who have so earnestly laboured to preserve the peace of the kingdom. When I willingly fail in these particulars, I shall expect no aid or relief from man, nor any protection from above. But in this resolution I hope for the cheerful assistance of all good men, and am confident of the blessing of heaven." The sincerity with which this speech was delivered, and the manifest justice of its contents, served to strengthen the king's cause. He was soon gradually reinforced from all quarters; but not being yet in a condition to face his enemies, he thought it prudent to retire by slow marches to Derby, and thence to Shrewsbury, in order to countenance the levies which his friends were making in those quarters.

In the mean time, the parliament were not remiss in preparations on their side. They had a magazine of arms at Hull, and sir John Hotham was appointed governor of that place by parliament. Charles had some time before presented himself before that town, but was refused admission: and from this they drew their principal resources. The forces also, which had been every where raised on pretence of the service of Ireland, were now more openly enlisted by the parliament for their own purposes; and the command given to the earl of Essex, a bold man, but who rather desired to see monarchy abridged than destroyed. In London, no less than four thousand men were enlisted in one day; and the parliament voted a test, which they compelled every soldier to subscribe, that they would live and die with their general. Orders were also issued out for loans of money and plate, "to defend the king, and both houses of parliament;"—for they still preserved this style. This brought immense quantities of plate to the treasury; and so great was the public ardour in the cause, that there was more than they could find room for. Sixteen thousand men were soon ready to take the field, and the earl of Essex led them towards Northampton against the king.

The army of the royalists was not so numerous as that of Essex; however, it was supposed to be better disciplined and better conducted. The two sons of the unfortunate elector palatine, prince Rupert and prince Maurice, offered their services to the king, which were accepted. A slight advantage gained by prince Rupert over colonel Sandys, in a skirmish, gave great hopes of his future activity, and inspired the army with resolution to hazard a battle. So little were both armies skilled in the policy of war, that they were within six miles of each other before they were acquainted with their mutual approach; and, what is more remarkable, they had been ten days within twenty miles of each other, without knowing it.

Edge-hill was the first place where the two armies faced each other, and the fatal spot first drenched in civil slaughter. It was a shocking sight to see above thirty thousand of the bravest men in the world, instead of employing their courage against their common enemy, turning their arms against each other, while the dearest friends, and the nearest kinsmen, embraced opposite sides, and prepared to bury their private regards in factious hatred. In the beginning of the battle, sir Faithful Fortescue, who had levied a troop for the Irish war, and had been forced to serve in the parliamentary army, deserted to the royalists, and so intimidated the parliamentary forces, that the cavalry fled. The right wing of their army soon followed their example; but, the victors too eagerly pursuing, Essex's reserve wheeled upon the rear of the pursuers, and made great havoc among them. After the royalists had a little recovered, they made a vigorous stand; and both sides, as if petrified at the reflection of this unnatural bloodshed, stood gazing at each other, without courage or ability to renew the attack. All night they lay under arms, and next morning found themselves still gazing at each other. Perhaps this was the favourable season when the king should have struck a decisive blow, or melted down his opponents by a gracious pardon: but he lost the opportunity; and both sides separated with apparent dread and apprehension. Five thousand men are said to have fallen that day.

It would be tedious to recount the marchings and countermarchings of these armies: war was a new trade to the English, as they had not seen an hostile engagement in the island for near a century before. The queen came to reinforce the royal party; she had brought soldiers and ammunition from Holland, and immediately departed to furnish more. But the parliament, who knew its own strength, appeared no way discouraged. Their demands seemed to increase in proportion to their losses; and, as they were repressed in the field, they grew more haughty in the cabinet; even all such governors as gave up their fortresses to the king were attainted of high treason. It was now too late for the king to remain inactive, by tendering proposals to the parliament; for though his desire of stopping the further effusion of blood was laudable as a Christian, yet his long negociations at Oxford were faulty as a warrior. He wasted that time in altercation and treaty, which he should have employed in vigorous exertions in the field.

However, this first campaign, upon the whole, wore a favourable aspect. One victory followed after another; Cornwall was reduced to peace and obedience under the king: a victory was gained over the parliament forces at Stratton Hill, in Devonshire; another at Roundaway Down, two miles from the Devizes; and a third in Chalgrave Field. Bristol was besieged and taken; Gloucester was invested; the battle of Newbury was favourable to the royal cause; and great hopes of success were expected from an army in the north, raised by the marquis of Newcastle. But in this campaign, the two bravest generals on each side were killed; these were John Hampden, and Lucius Cary lord Faulkland.

The king, that he might make more extensive preparations during the winter for the ensuing campaign, and to oppose the designs of the Westminster parliament, called one to meet at Oxford; and this was the first time that England saw two parliaments sitting at the same time. His house of peers was pretty full; but his house of commons consisted of only an hundred and forty, which amounted to not above half of the other house of commons. From this parliament he received some supplies; after which it was prorogued, and never after assembled. In the mean time, the long parliament were equally active on their side. They passed an ordinance, commanding all the inhabitants of London and its neighbourhood to retrench a meal a weak, and to pay the value of it for the support of the public cause. But what was much more effectual, the Scots, who considered their grievances as similar, led a strong army to their assistance.

They alſo levied fourteen thouſand men in the eaſt, under the earl of Mancheſter; they had an army of ten thouſand men under Eſſex, and another of nearly the ſame number under ſir William Waller. Theſe were ſuperior to any force the king could bring into the field, and were well appointed, and amply ſupplied with ammunition, proviſions, and pay.

Hoſtilities, which, even during the winter ſeaſon, had never been wholly diſcontinued, were renewed in the ſpring of 1644, with redoubled fury, and ſerved to deſolate the kingdom, without deciding the victory. Each county joined that ſide to which it was addicted from motives of conviction, intereſt, or fear, though ſome obſerved a perfect neutrality. There were ſeveral petitions for peace; and all the wife and good united in the cry. What particularly deſerves remark, was an attempt of the women of London, who, to the number of two or three thouſand, went in a body to the houſe of commons, earneſtly demanding a peace. "Give us thoſe traitors (ſaid they) that are againſt a peace; give them, that we may tear them in pieces." The guards found ſome difficulty in quelling this inſurrection; and one or two women loſt their lives in the fray.

The battle of Marſton-moor wore the firſt feature of the king's diſgrace. The Scotch and parliament armies had joined, and were beſieging York, when prince Rupert, joined by the marquis of Newcaſtle, determined to raiſe the ſiege. Both armies drew up on Marſton-moor, to the number of fifty thouſand, and the victory ſeemed long wavering between them. Rupert, who commanded the right wing of the royaliſts, was oppoſed by Oliver Cromwell, who now firſt came into notice, at the head of a body of troops whom he had himſelf taken care to levy and diſcipline. Cromwell was victorious: he puſhed his opponents off the field, followed the vanquiſhed, returned to a ſecond engagement, and a ſecond victory; the prince's whole train of artillery was taken; and the royaliſts never after recovered the blow.

While the king was thus beaten in the field, he was not more ſucceſsful in negociation. A treaty was begun at Uxbridge; but which, like all others, came to nothing. The puritans demanded a total abolition of the epiſcopacy, and all church ceremonies; and this Charles would not permit. He had all along adhered to the epiſcopal juriſdiction, not only becauſe it was favourable to monarchy, but becauſe all his adherents were devoted to it. He eſteemed biſhops as eſſential to the Chriſtian church; and thought himſelf bound, not only by temporal but ſacred, ties to defend them. The parliament was as obſtinately bent upon removing this order; and, to ſhew their reſolution, began with the foremoſt of the number. William Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, as we have ſeen, had been impriſoned in the Tower at the ſame time with Strafford; and he had patiently endured this long confinement, without being brought to trial. He was now, therefore, accuſed of high treaſon, in endeavouring to ſubvert the fundamental laws, and of other high crimes and miſdemeanors. The groundleſs charge of popery, which his life and afterwards his death belied, was urged againſt him. In his defence, he ſpoke ſeveral hours, with that courage which is ever the reſult of innocence and integrity. The lords, who were his judges, appeared willing to acquit him; but the commons, his accuſers, finding how his trial was likely to go, paſſed an ordinance for his execution, and terrified the lords into a conſent. Seven peers alone voted in this important queſtion; all the reſt, either from ſhame or fear, ſeceded from their duty. When brought to the ſcaffold, this venerable prelate, without any terror, but in the uſual tone of his exhortations from the pulpit, made a long ſpeech. He told them that he had examined his heart; and thanked God that he found no ſins there which deſerved the death he was going to ſuffer. The king, he ſaid, had been traduced by ſome, as labouring to introduce popery; but he believed him as ſound a proteſtant as any man in the kingdom; and as for parliaments, though he diſliked the conduct of one or two, yet he never deſigned to change the laws of his country, or the proteſtant religion. After he had prayed for a few minutes, the executioner ſevered his head at a blow, A. D. 1644.

The death of Laud was followed by a total alteration of the ceremonies of the church. The liturgy was, by a public act, aboliſhed the day he died, as if he had been the only obſtacle to its formal removal. The church of England was in all reſpects brought to a conformity with the puritanical eſtabliſhment; while the citizens of London, and the Scotch army, gave public thanks for ſo happy an alteration. Yet from the moment the puritans began to be apparently united, and ranked under one common denomination of Preſbyterians, they began again to divide into freſh ſects, each profeſſing different views and intereſts. One part of the houſe was compoſed of Preſbyterians, ſtrictly ſo called; the other, though a minority, of Independents, a new ſect that had lately been introduced, and rapidly gained ground among the vulgar.

The difference between theſe two ſects would be hardly worth mentioning, had not their religious opinions influenced their political conduct. The church of England, as we have ſeen, had appointed biſhops of clerical ordination, and a book of common prayer. The preſbyterians exclaimed againſt both; they were for having the church governed by clergymen elected by the people, and prayers made without premeditation. The independents went farther; they excluded all the clergy; they maintained that every man might pray in public, exhort his audience, and explain the ſcriptures. Their political ſyſtem kept pace with their religious. Not content with reducing the king to a firſt magiſtrate, which was the aim of the preſbyterians, this ſect aſpired at the abolition not only of all monarchy, but of all ſubordination. They maintained, and they perhaps maintained right, that all men were born equal; but they alleged alſo, that no accidental or artificial inſtitutions could deſtroy this equality; and there they were deceived. Could ſuch a plan of government as theirs be practicable, it would, no doubt, remove all the cauſes of envy and jealouſy among men; but this were impoſſible: the wiſe and induſtrious muſt in every country prevail over the weak and idle; and the bad ſucceſs of the independent ſcheme ſoon ſhewed how ill adapted ſuch ſpeculative ideas were to human infirmity. Poſſeſſed, however, with a high notion of their own rectitude both in religion and politics, they gave way to a ſurly pride, which is ever the reſult of narrow manners and an obſtinate diſpoſition.

The royaliſts endeavoured to throw a ridicule on this fanaticiſm, without being ſenſible how much they had to apprehend from its conſequences. The forces of the king were united by much feebler ties; and licence among them, which had been introduced by the want of pay, had riſen to a dangerous height, rendering them as formidable to their friends as their enemies. To increaſe this unpopularity, the king, finding the parliament of Scotland as well as that of England, declaring againſt him, he thought proper to make a truce with the papiſts of Ireland, in order to bring over the Engliſh forces who ſerved in that kingdom. With theſe troops he alſo received ſome of the native Iriſh into his ſervice, who ſtill retained their fierceneſs and their barbarity. This gave the parliament a plauſible opportunity of upbraiding him with taking papiſts into his ſervice, and gave a colour to the ancient calumny of his having excited them to rebel. Unfortunately, too, they rather increaſed the hatred of his ſubjects, than added to the ſtrength of his army. They were routed in the firſt battle by Fairfax; and though they threw down their arms, they were ſlaughtered in cool blood without mercy.

Theſe misfortunes were ſoon ſucceeded by a greater. Charles, who had retired to Oxford, began to find himſelf at the head of a turbulent army, who, from wanting pay,

pay, were ſcarcely ſubject to controul; while, on the other hand, the parliament army continued to be well ſupplied and paid, and held together from principle. The parliament, to ſet them an example of diſintereſtedneſs in their own conduct, paſſed an act, called the *ſelf-denying ordinance*. They reſolved, leſt it ſhould be ſuggeſted that their intent was to make themſelves maſters, that no member of their houſe ſhould have a command in the army. The former generals were therefore changed; the earls of Eſſex, Denbigh, and Mancheſter, gave up their commiſſions; while Fairfax was appointed general with Cromwell, who found means to keep at once his ſeat and his commiſſion.

Never was a more ſingular army aſſembled than that which now drew the ſword in the parliamentary cauſe. The officers exerciſed the function of chaplains; and, during the intervals of action, inſtructed their troops by ſermons, prayers, and exhortations. Rapturous extaſies ſupplied the place of cool reflection; and, while they kindled a freſh flame as they ſpoke, they aſcribed their zeal to a deſcent of the holy ſpirit from heaven. The private ſoldiers, ſeized with the ſame fanaticiſm, employed their vacant hours in prayer, in peruſing the holy ſcriptures, in ghoſtly conferences, &c. When marching to the field of battle, the hymn and the ejaculation mixed their notes with thoſe of the trumpet. An army, thus actuated, became invincible.

The well-diſputed battle, which decided the fate of Charles, was fought at Naſeby, a village in Yorkſhire, June 4, 1645. The main body of the royal army was commanded by lord Aſtley; prince Rupert led the right wing, ſir Marmaduke Langdale the left; and the king himſelf headed the body of reſerve. On the oppoſite ſide, Fairfax and Skippon commanded the main body; Cromwell led on the right wing, and Ireton, his ſon-in-law, the left. Prince Rupert attacked the left wing with his uſual impetuoſity and ſucceſs: they were broken and purſued as far as the village; but he loſt time in attempting to make himſelf maſter of their artillery. Cromwell, in the mean time, was equally ſucceſsful on his ſide, and broke through the enemies' horſe, after a very obſtinate reſiſtance. While theſe intrepid movements were made on the wings, the main body on both ſides ſupported the conflict with equal ardour; and, in ſpite of the efforts of Fairfax and Skippon, their battalions began to give way. But it was now that Cromwell returned with his victorious forces, and charged the king's infantry in flank with ſuch vigour, that a total rout began to enſue. By this time prince Rupert had rejoined the king and the ſmall body of reſerve; but his troops, though victorious, could not be brought to a ſecond charge. They were at all times licentious and ungovernable; but they were now intimidated; for the parliament forces, having recovered from the firſt ſhock, ſtood collected in order of battle to receive them. The king was deſirous of making a charge in perſon at the head of his reſerve, which would have given new courage to his troops, and perhaps won the day; but the earl of Carnwarth, who rode by his majeſty's ſide, ſeizing the bridle of his horſe, turned him round, ſaying, with a loud oath, "Will you go upon your death in an inſtant?" The troops, ſeeing this motion, wheeled to the right, and rode off in ſuch confuſion, that they could not be rallied again during the reſt of the day. The king, thus perceiving the battle loſt, was obliged to abandon the field to his enemies, who took all his cannon, baggage, and above five thouſand priſoners.

This fatal blow the king never recovered; his army was diſperſed, and the conquerors made as many captives as they thought proper. Among the other ſpoils taken on this occaſion, the king's cabinet of letters was ſeized, in which was contained all his private correſpondence with the queen. Theſe were ſhortly after publiſhed by command of the parliament, who took a brutal pleaſure in ridiculing thoſe tender effuſions of confidential regard which were unfitted to meet the public eye.

The battle of Naſeby put the parliament in poſſeſſion of almoſt all the ſtrong cities of the kingdom, Briſtol, Bridgewater, Cheſter, Sherborn, and Bath. Exeter was beſieged; and all the king's troops in the weſtern counties being entirely diſperſed, Fairfax preſſed the place, and it ſurrendered at diſcretion. The king's intereſts now went to ruin on every quarter. The Scottiſh army, having made themſelves maſters of Carliſle, marched ſouth, and laid ſiege to Hereford. Another engagement followed between the king's troops and the parliament army, in which his forces were put to the rout by Colonel Jones, a thouſand of his men made priſoners, and five hundred ſlain. Thus haraſſed on every ſide, the oppreſſed king retreated to Oxford, which in all conditions of his fortune held ſteady to his cauſe; and there he reſolved to offer new terms to his relentleſs purſuers. Nothing could be more affecting than the king's diſtreſſed ſituation in that city. Saddened by his late melancholy diſaſters; impreſſed with the apprehenſions of the fate which hung over him; haraſſed by the murmurs of thoſe who had followed his cauſe, and ſtung with his incapacity to relieve them; he was now willing to grant the parliament their own terms, and at any rate to procure a reconciliation. He therefore ſent repeated meſſages to this purpoſe; but they never deigned to make him the leaſt reply. At laſt, after reproaching him with the blood ſpilt during the war, they told him that they were preparing ſome bills, to which if he would conſent, they ſhould be able to judge of his pacific inclinations.

In the mean time Fairfax, with a powerful army, was marching to lay ſiege to Oxford. To be taken captive, and led in triumph by his inſolent ſubjects, was what Charles dreaded and abhorred. In this deſperate extremity, he embraced a meaſure which, in any other ſituation, might juſtly lie under the imputation of the higheſt imprudence and indiſcretion. He reſolved to give himſelf up to the Scots' army, and truſt to their loyalty for protection. That he might the better conceal his deſign from the people of Oxford, orders were given at every gate of the city for allowing three perſons to paſs. In the night, the king, accompanied by doctor Hudſon and Mr. Aſhburnham, took the road towards London, travelling as Aſhburnham's ſervant. He, in fact, came ſo near London, that he once entertained thoughts of entering that city, and of throwing himſelf on the mercy of the parliament. At laſt, after paſſing through many croſs-roads and by-ways, he arrived at the Scots' camp before Newark, Jan. 30, 1646, and diſcovered himſelf to lord Leven, the Scottiſh general.

The Scots, though ſaid to have given the king ſome general aſſurances of fidelity and protection, ſeemed greatly ſurpriſed at his arrival. Inſtead of beſtowing a thought on his intereſts, they inſtantly entered into a conſultation upon their own. The commiſſioners of their army ſent to the parliament an immediate account of the king's ſurrender; and declared that his coming among them was altogether uninvited and unexpected. In the mean time, they prevailed upon the king to give directions for ſurrendering all his garriſons to the parliament, with which he complied. In return for this condeſcenſion, they treated him in a manner very different from reſpect. The Scots had, from their firſt entrance into England, been allowed pay by the parliament, in order to prevent their plundering the country; much of this, however, remained unpaid, from the unavoidable neceſſities of the times; and much more was claimed by the Scots than was really due. They therefore conſidered this as a favourable opportunity for inſiſting on their arrears; and they reſolved to make the king the inſtrument by which this money was to be obtained. After various debates between them and the parliament, it was ſtipulated, that upon payment of four hundred thouſand

pounds,

pounds, they would deliver up the king to his enemies. This ſpecies of barter may be palliated, but can never be defended upon any principle of rectitude, honour, or humanity. Like free-booters they divided the ſpoil; and the Scots returned home, laden with plunder, and the reproaches of all good men.

The king, being thus delivered over by the Scots to the parliamentary commiſſioners, was conducted to Holmby caſtle, in Northamptonſhire. They treated him in confinement with the moſt rigorous ſeverity, diſmiſſing all his ancient ſervants, debarring him from all viſits, and cutting off all communication with his friends and his family. The civil war was now over; the king had abſolved his followers from their allegiance, and the parliament had no enemy to fear, except thoſe very troops by which they had extended their overgrown authority. But in proportion as the terror of the king's power diminiſhed, the diviſion between the independents and the preſbyterians became more manifeſt. The majority in the houſe were of the preſbyterian ſect; but the majority of the army were independents. At the head of this ſect was Cromwell, who ſecretly directed its operations, and invigorated all its meaſures.

After the retreat of the Scots, the preſbyterian party, ſeeing things reduced to obedience, propoſed to diſmiſs a conſiderable part of the army, and ſend the reſt to Ireland. But the army were as unwilling to diſband, as to be led over into a country as yet uncivilized and barbarous. Cromwell alſo took care to inſpire them againſt both: they regarded him for his bravery and religious zeal, and ſtill more for his pretended affection towards them. Inſtead, therefore, of preparing to diſband, they reſolved to petition; and they began by deſiring an indemnity, ratified by the king's ſignature, for any illegal action which they might have committed during the war. This the commons treated with great ſeverity; they voted, that this petition tended to introduce mutiny, to put conditions upon the parliament, to obſtruct the relief of the kingdom of Ireland; and they threatened to proceed againſt the promoters of it as enemies to the ſtate, and diſturbers of the public peace.

The army now began to conſider themſelves as a body diſtinct from the parliament, and complained, that they had ſecured the general tranquillity, while they were to be deprived of the privileges of Engliſhmen. In oppoſition, therefore, to the parliament at Weſtminſter, a military parliament was formed, compoſed of the officers and common ſoldiers of each regiment. The principal officers formed a council to repreſent the body of peers; the ſoldiers elected two men out of each company to repreſent the houſe of commons; and theſe were called the *Agitators* of the army. Cromwell took care to be one of the number, and thus contrived an eaſy method of conducting and promoting the ſedition of the army. This fierce aſſembly, having debated for a ſhort time, declared that they had many grievances to be redreſſed; and began by ſpecifying ſuch as they wiſhed to be moſt ſpeedily removed. The ſame conduct which had formerly been uſed by the parliament againſt their ſovereign, was now put in practice by the army againſt the parliament. In proportion as the commons granted their requeſts, the agitators roſe in their demands; theſe accuſed the army of mutiny and ſedition; the army retorted the charge, and alleged, that the king had been depoſed only to make way for their uſurpations.

The wretched Charles, in the mean time, continued a priſoner at Holmby caſtle; and as his countenance might add ſome authority to that ſide which ſhould obtain it, Cromwell, who ſecretly conducted all the meaſures of the army, reſolved to ſeize the king's perſon. Accordingly a party of five hundred horſe appeared at Holmby caſtle, under the command of Joyce, who had been originally a tailor, but who, in the preſent confuſion of affairs, was advanced to the rank of cornet. Without any oppoſition, he entered the king's apartment, armed with piſtols, and told him he muſt prepare and go with him. "Whither?" ſaid the king. "To the army," replied Joice. "By what warrant?" aſked the king. Joice pointed to his followers. "Your warrant," replied Charles, "is wrote in fair characters." And without further delay, he went into his coach, and was ſafely conducted to the army, who were haſtening to their rendezvous at Triplo-heath, near Cambridge. The next day Cromwell arrived among them, where he was received with acclamations of joy, and inveſted with the ſupreme command.

It was now that the commons perceived a ſettled deſign in the army to preſcribe laws to the parliament; and they did not fail to ſpread the alarm through the city of London. But it was too late to reſiſt; the army, with Cromwell at their head, advanced with precipitation, and arrived in a few days at St. Alban's; ſo that the commons now began to think of temporiſing. The declaration, by which they had voted the military petitioners enemies to the ſtate, was recalled, and eraſed from their journals. But all ſubmiſſion was vain; the army now claimed a right of modelling the whole government, and of ſettling the nation. But as too precipitate an aſſumption of authority might appear invidious, Cromwell began by accuſing eleven members of the houſe as guilty of high treaſon, and enemies to the army. The members accuſed were the leaders of the preſbyterian party, the very men who had preſcribed ſuch rigorous meaſures to the king, and who now, in turn, were threatened with ſimilar ſeverity. As they were the leading men in the houſe, the commons were reſolved to protect them; but the army inſiſting on their diſmiſſion, they voluntarily left the houſe, rather than breed contention.

At laſt the citizens of London began to open their eyes, and to perceive that the conſtitution was totally overturned. They ſaw an oppreſſive parliament now ſubjected to a more oppreſſive army; they found their religion aboliſhed, their king a captive, and no hopes of redreſs but from another ſcene of ſlaughter. In this exigency, therefore, the common-council aſſembled the militia of the city; the works were manned, and a manifeſto publiſhed, aggravating the hoſtile conduct of the army. Finding that the houſe of commons, in compliance with the requeſt of the army, had voted that the city militia ſhould be diſbanded, the multitude roſe, beſieged the door of the houſe, and obliged them to reverſe that vote which they had ſo lately paſſed. In this dilemma the houſe was rent into two parties; the one ſiding with the ſeditious citizens, while the other, with the two ſpeakers at their head, were for encouraging the army. In this confuſion a ſeparation of the parties took place: the two ſpeakers, with ſixty-two members, ſecretly retired from the houſe, and threw themſelves on the protection of the army, then encamped on Hounſlow-heath. They were received with ſhouts and acclamations; their integrity was extolled; and the whole body of the ſoldiery, a formidable force of twenty thouſand men, now moved forward, to re-inſtate them in their former ſeats and ſtations.

In the mean time, that part of the houſe that was left ſitting, reſolved to act with vigour, and reſiſt the encroachments of the army. They choſe new ſpeakers; they gave orders for enliſting troops; they ordered the train-bands to man the lines; and the whole city boldly reſolved to reſiſt the invaſion. But this reſolution only held while the enemy was thought at a diſtance; for when the formidable force of Cromwell came in ſight, all was obedience and ſubmiſſion; the gates were opened to the general, who attended the two ſpeakers, and the reſt of the members, peaceably to their habitations. The eleven impeached members being expelled, retired to the continent. The mayor, ſheriff, and three aldermen, were ſent to the Tower; ſeveral citizens, and officers of militia,

litia, were committed to priſon, and the lines about the city were razed to the ground.

It now only remained to diſpoſe of the king, who had been ſent by the army a priſoner to Hampton-court. The independent army, at the head of whom was Cromwell, and the preſbyterians, in the name of the parliament, began ſeparate treaties with him in private. He had at one time well-founded hopes, that, in theſe ſtruggles for power, he might have been choſen mediator in the diſpute; and he expected that the kingdom, at laſt ſenſible of the miſeries of anarchy, would, like a froward child, ſettle into its former tranquil conſtitution. But theſe flattering expectations too ſoon ſubſided. As the army had gained a complete victory over the houſe of commons, the independents began to abate of their expreſſions of duty and reſpect. The king, therefore, was now more ſtrictly guarded, and ſpies were placed about his perſon, to mark all his words and actions. Charles, alarmed for his ſafety, determined to make his eſcape. Early in the evening he retired to his chamber, on pretence of being indiſpoſed; and about an hour after midnight, he went down the back-ſtairs, attended by Aſhburnham and Legge, both gentlemen of his bed-chamber. Sir John Berkeley waited for him at the garden-gate with horſes, which they inſtantly mounted, and, travelling all night, arrived at Tichfield, in Hampſhire, the ſeat of the earl of Southampton. Here he deliberated with his friends, upon his next excurſion, and they adviſed him to croſs over to the Iſle of Wight, where Hammond was governor; who, though a creature of Cromwell's, was yet a nephew of Dr. Hammond, the king's chaplain. To this inauſpicious protector it was reſolved to have recourſe; Aſhburnham and Berkeley were ſent before to exact a promiſe from the governor, that if he would not protect the king, he would not detain him. Hammond ſeemed ſurpriſed at their demand; expreſſed his inclination to ſerve his majeſty, but at the ſame time alleged his duty to his employers. He therefore attended the king's gentlemen to Tichfield, with a guard of ſoldiers, and ſtaid in a lower apartment, while Aſhburnham went up to the king's chamber. Charles no ſooner underſtood that Hammond was in the houſe with a body of troops, than he exclaimed, "O Jack! thou haſt undone me!" Aſhburnham ſhed a flood of tears, and offered to go down and diſpatch the governor, but the king repreſſed his ardour. When Hammond came into his preſence, he repeated his profeſſions of cool regard. The king ſubmitted to his fate; and, without further delay, attended him to Cariſbrook caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, where for ſome time he found himſelf treated with marks of duty and reſpect.

While the king continued in this inſulated ſituation, the parliament, new modelled as it was by the army, was every day growing more feeble and factious. Cromwell, on the other hand, was ſtrengthening the army, and taking every precaution to mould it to his views, and to have it in momentary readineſs to ſupport his meaſures.

Among the independents, who were for having no eccleſiaſtical ſubordination, a ſet of men ſprung up, called *Levellers*, who diſallowed all ſubordination whatſoever, and declared that they would have no other chaplain, king, or general, but Chriſt himſelf. They declared that all men were equal; that all degrees and ranks ſhould be levelled, and an exact partition of property eſtabliſhed through the nation. This ferment even reached the army; and as it was a doctrine well ſuited to the poverty of the ſoldiers, it promiſed every day to become more dangerous and fatal.

Cromwell now ſaw that he was upon the point of loſing the fruits of all his former ſchemes and dangers, and began to dread this new faction the more, as they turned his puritanical principles againſt himſelf. Thus finding all at ſtake, he determined, by one reſolute blow, either to diſperſe the faction, or periſh in the attempt. Having intimation that the levellers were to meet at a certain place, he unexpectedly appeared in the aſſembly, at the head of his red regiment, which had been hitherto called invincible. He demanded, in the name of God, what theſe meetings and murmurings meant; he expoſtulated with them upon the dangerous conſequences of their precipitate ſchemes, and deſired them peaceably to depart. But inſtead of obeying, they returned an inſolent anſwer; wherefore, ruſhing on them in a violent fury, he laid, with his own hands, two of them dead at his feet. His guards, ſeizing and diſperſing the reſt, he cauſed ſeveral of them to be hanged upon the ſpot; and thus diſſipated a faction, no otherwiſe criminal, than having, in part, followed his own example.

This event ſerved ſtill more to increaſe the power of Cromwell in the camp and in the parliament; and while Fairfax was nominally general of the troops, he was inveſted with all the power. But his authority ſoon became irreſiſtible, in conſequence of a new and unexpected addition to his ſucceſſes. The Scots, perhaps, aſhamed of the reproach of having, like Judas, ſold their king, and ſtimulated further by the independents, who took occaſion to mortify them, raiſed an army in his favour, and the chief command was given to the duke of Hamilton; while Langdale, who profeſſed himſelf at the head of the more bigoted party, and had taken the covenant, marched at the head of his ſeparate body, to invade the north of England. Their two armies amounted to about twenty thouſand men. But Cromwell, at the head of only eight thouſand of his well-trained veterans, feared not to give them battle; he attacked the Scottiſh armies one after the other, routed and diſperſed them, took Hamilton priſoner, and, following his blow, entered Scotland, where he ſettled the government entirely to his ſatisfaction. Meanwhile an inſurrection in Kent was quelled by Fairfax with the ſame eaſe; and ſucceſs every where attended this uſurper's arms.

During theſe ſanguinary contentions, the king, who was kept a priſoner in Cariſbrook caſtle, continued to negociate with the parliament for ſettling the unſpeakable calamities of the nation. The parliament ſaw no other method of deſtroying military power, but to depreſs it by the reſtoration of the king. Frequent propoſals for an accommodation paſſed between the captive king and the commons; but the great obſtacle which had all along ſtood in the way, ſtill kept them apart. This was the king's refuſing to aboliſh epiſcopacy, though he conſented to deſtroy the liturgy of the church. However, the treaty went on with vigour, as the parliament had more to apprehend from the deſigns of their generals, than from the attempts of the king; and, for the firſt time, they were now in earneſt to conclude their negociations. But it was too late; the implacable army was returned from the deſtruction of their enemies in the north; and, with intemperate zeal, demanded vengeance on the king. They advanced to Windſor; and ſending an officer to ſeize the king's perſon, they conveyed him to Hurſt caſtle, near Lymington, in Hampſhire. It was in vain that the parliament complained of this harſh proceeding; it was in vain that they began to iſſue ordinances to reſtrain the army; they received a peremptory meſſage from Cromwell, that he intended paying them a viſit the next day, and, in the mean time, ordered them to raiſe him forty thouſand pounds, by a tax upon the city of London.

The commons, however, though deſtitute of power, had ſtill courage to reſiſt, and attempted, in the face of the whole army, to cloſe their treaty with the king. They had taken into conſideration the whole of the royal conceſſions; and though they had formerly voted them unſatisfactory, they now regarded them in a different point of view. After a debate, which had laſted three days, it was carried in the king's favour by a majority of a hundred and twenty-nine againſt eighty-three, that his majeſty's conceſſions were a foundation for parliament to proceed upon, in the ſettlement of the king's affairs. This was the laſt ſtruggle for the preſervation of the king; for the next day colonel Pride, at the head of two regi-

regiments, blockaded the houſe, and ſeized forty-one members of the preſbyterian party. Above a hundred and ſixty members more were excluded; and none were allowed to enter but the moſt furious and determined of the independents, in all not exceeding ſixty. This atrocious invaſion of the parliamentry rights, commonly paſſed by the name of Pride's purge, and the remaining members were called the Rump. Theſe ſoon voted, that the tranſactions of the houſe a few days before were entirely illegal, and that the conduct of the army was juſt and neceſſary.

Nothing now remained, after the conſtitution had been deſtroyed, after the parliament had been ejected, after the religion of the country had been aboliſhed, after the braveſt and the beſt of its ſubjects had been ſlain, but to murder the king! This vile parliament, if it could deſerve the name, was compoſed of a medley of the moſt obſcure citizens, mixed with the officers of the army. In this aſſembly, a committee was appointed to prepare a charge againſt the king; and, on their report, a vote paſſed, declaring it treaſon in a king to levy war againſt his parliament. It was therefore reſolved that an high court of juſtice ſhould be appointed to try his majeſty for this new-fangled treaſon. For form ſake, they deſired the concurrence of the few remaining lords in the other houſe; but they had virtue enough to reject the propoſal. This, however, was no obſtacle; the commons voted that the concurrence of the lords was unneceſſary, as the people were the origin of all juſt power.

Colonel Harriſon, the ſon of a butcher, was commanded to conduct the king from Hurſt-caſtle to Windſor, and from thence to London. From the ſixth to the twentieth of January, A. D. 1649, was ſpent in making preparations for this extraordinary trial. The court, which ſat in Weſtminſter-hall, conſiſted of a hundred and thirty-three perſons named by the commons; but of theſe never more than ſeventy attended. They were chiefly compoſed of officers of the army, ſome members of the lower houſe, and a few citizens of London. Bradſhaw, a lawyer, was choſen preſident; Coke was appointed ſolicitor for the people of England; Doriſlaus, Steele, and Aſke, were named aſſiſtants. The king was now removed from Windſor to St. James's, and the next day was brought before this ſelf-created court. He was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long haraſſed as a priſoner, and now produced as a criminal, Charles ſtill maintained the dignity of a king; he ſurveyed the members of the court with an intrepid air; and, without moving his hat, ſat down, while the members alſo were covered. His charge was then read by the ſolicitor, accuſing him of having been the cauſe of all the bloodſhed which followed ſince the commencement of the war; at that part of the charge he could not ſuppreſs a ſmile of contempt and indignation. After the charge was finiſhed, Bradſhaw directed his diſcourſe to the king, and told him that the court expected to hear his defence.

The king, with great propriety, pointed out the illegality of the court, as unfounded, and unknown to the juriſprudence of England, or to any ſyſtem of laws, human or divine. He repreſented, that having been engaged in a treaty with his two houſes of parliament, and having finiſhed almoſt every article, he expected a very different treatment from that which he now experienced. He perceived, he ſaid, no appearance of an upper houſe, which was neceſſary to conſtitute a juſt tribunal, even for inferior objects. That he was himſelf the king, and the fountain of the law, and conſequently could not be tried by any formula to which he had never given his aſſent; that having been intruſted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them, by recogniſing a power founded in uſurpation; that he was willing before a proper tribunal to enter into the particulars of his defence; but that before them he muſt decline any apology for his innocence, leſt he ſhould be conſidered as a betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the conſtitution.

Bradſhaw, to give ſome colour to the authority of their juriſdiction, inſiſted that their power was derived from the people, the ſource of all right. He therefore conjured the king not to call in queſtion the legality of the court, leſt it ſhould conſtitute an additional charge againſt him. In this manner was the king three times produced before the court, and as often perſiſted in denying its authority. The fourth and laſt time of his being conducted to this ſelf-created tribunal, he was inſulted by the ſoldiers and the mob, who were inſtructed to exclaim, "Juſtice! juſtice! execution! execution!" but the king continued undaunted. His judges having now examined ſome witneſſes, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms againſt the forces commiſſioned by parliament, they pronounced ſentence of death againſt him. He ſeemed very anxious at this time to be admitted to a conference with the two houſes; and it was ſuppoſed that he intended to reſign the crown to his ſon; but the court refuſed compliance, and called his requeſt an artifice to ſubvert the operation of juſtice.

The conduct of the king under all theſe bitter perſecutions, was truly magnanimous and collected. On his return to Whitehall, he deſired the permiſſion of the houſe to ſee his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by Dr. Juxon, late biſhop of London. Theſe requeſts were granted, and alſo three days to prepare for his decapitation. All that remained of his family now in England, were the princeſs Elizabeth, and the duke of Glouceſter, a child about three years old; between whom and the condemned king a moſt tender and affecting ſcene took place. Every night, during the ſhort interval between his ſentence and execution, the noiſe of the workmen employed in framing the ſcaffold, continually reſounded in his ears. The fatal morning being arrived, he roſe early, and calling his attendants, he bade them employ more than uſual care in dreſſing him for ſo great a ſolemnity. The ſpot facing Whitehall was the place deſtined for his execution, with a view to increaſe the poignancy of his ſufferings. He was led through the banqueting-houſe to the ſcaffold adjoining to that edifice, attended by biſhop Juxon, a man endowed with the ſame mild and ſteady virtues with his royal maſter. The ſcaffold, which was covered with black, was guarded by ſoldiers, under the command of colonel Tomlinſon, and on it ſtood two executioners in maſks. The concourſe of people was immenſe. The king ſurveyed the ſolemn preparations with calm compoſure; and, as he could not expect to be heard by ſo numerous an audience, who were alſo kept at a diſtance, he addreſſed himſelf to the few perſons who ſtood round him. He there juſtified his innocence with reſpect to the late ſanguinary wars; and obſerved, that he had not taken arms till after the parliament had ſet the example; that he had no other object in his warlike preparations, than to preſerve that authority entire, which had been tranſmitted to him by his anceſtors, and firſt violated by his perſecutors; but, though innocent of any crime towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker. He owned that he was juſtly puniſhed for having conſented to the execution of the innocent earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies, exhorted the parliament to return to their obedience, and acknowledge his ſon as his ſucceſſor; and ſignified his attachment to the proteſtant religion, as profeſſed in the church of England. So ſtrong was the impreſſion his dying words made upon the few who heard him, that colonel Tomlinſon himſelf, to whoſe care he had been committed, acknowledged himſelf ſatisfied of his innocence.

Charles, having taken off his cloak, delivered his George to biſhop Juxon, pronouncing the word, *Remember*. Then he laid his neck on the block, and ſtretching out his hand as a ſignal, one of the executioners ſevered his head from his body at a blow, while the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor!" The ſpectators teſtified their horror and indignation in ſighs, tears, and execrations; the tide of duty and affection began

gan to return, and each accuſed himſelf of ſhameful diſloyalty to his king, or a paſſive compliance with the malice of his deſtroyers. The very pulpits, that before reſounded with inſolence and ſedition, were now bedewed with tears of repentance; and all united in their deteſtation of thoſe diabolical hypocrites, who, to gratify their ambition and malevolence, had involved the parliament in the guilt of treaſon.

As the ſpirit of party ran ſo high during this reign, it is difficult to arrive at a preciſe knowledge of all the occurrences which led to ſo important a cataſtrophe as the overthrow and execution of the ſovereign; almoſt every narrative receives a colour from the prejudices of the writer; and the judicious reader muſt be careful not to give implicit credit either to the ſtudied and excluſive panegyric of Hume, or to the violent repreſentations of Macauley. In whatever point of view we contemplate the fate of Charles, his delinquency was far from being of that magnitude which could juſtify the ſeverity exerciſed againſt him; and, if he had been guilty of the moſt nefarious acts of oppreſſion and cruelty, no authority leſs than the ſupreme will of the nation, ſignified by a free and full convention, could juſtly have proceeded to his trial. That rule, however, was not adopted in the proceedings againſt this injured prince; and, if his fate had been committed to the deciſion of ſuch a council, he would have been reſtored to the throne on certain limitations, not have been brought to the block. Even of that imperfect parliamentary aſſembly which, after his adherents had been driven from the legiſlature, proſecuted the war againſt him with ſuch acrimony, a majority voted his conceſſions to be ſufficient grounds for a reconciliation with him: how great, then, would have been the appearance in favour of his reſtoration, had the two houſes remained on a conſtitutional baſis! But the leaders of the independents, finding it impracticable to obtain the national concurrence in their bloody ſchemes, reſolved to content themſelves with the ſanction of their own partiſans, and of a mercenary army, a ſmall and contemptible part of the nation. They therefore reduced the lower houſe, by the terrors of the ſword, to a very diminutive proportion; treated the peers as mere ciphers, who had no right to interfere in the government; and thus, by the moſt iniquitous uſurpation, aſſumed the whole power of the ſtate. A court of judicature, erected by thoſe who had no ſhadow of right by which they could juſtify their proceedings, would have acted in defiance of all law and juſtice, by preſuming to arraign and condemn the meaneſt individual; and ſuch unwarrantable judgment cannot fairly be deemed, even by the moſt zealous enemies of the monarchy, leſs criminal, when applied to a ſovereign. Hence it muſt be allowed, even by ſuch as are of opinion that Charles deſerved exemplary puniſhment, that his death was, in fact, a murder; being decreed and enforced by thoſe who had no authority for the act, and who, in the whole proceeding, groſsly ſhocked the public feelings, and teſtified a contemptuous diſregard of the general ſentiments of the people, in each of thoſe three kingdoms which had an equal intereſt in the fate of this oppreſſed monarch. His death, therefore, was not, as ſome have termed it, a national crime; for the turpitude and diſgrace of it reſt only on the memories of thoſe ambitious traitors and crafty incendiaries, who compoſed the majority of the independent faction. On a temperate view of all the moſt prominent tranſactions leading to this fatal event, the preceding concluſions appear to be founded in truth and reaſon: and we flatter ourſelves that every penetrating and candid reader will be diſpoſed to chuſe the middle courſe, avoiding, on either hand, the ſhoals of exceſſive partiality, and of panygeric, the common infirmity of our nature.

Charles was executed, January 30, 1649, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign; and his remains were interred at Windſor. He was of middling ſtature, robuſt, and well-proportioned. His viſage was pleaſing, but inclined to melancholy; and it is probable that the unceaſing troubles in which he was involved, might have given that turn to his countenance. The accompliſhments which this monarch poſſeſſed were numerous and reſpectable. He had a competent acquaintance with the belles lettres; was converſant in many of the ſciences; was a good judge of the polite arts; was far from being deficient in the knowledge of the principal mechanic arts; excelled in argument and diſputation; had a talent for literary compoſition; and, in ſhort, was qualified, by his abilities and attainments, to adorn and ennoble ſociety. His taſte for poetry has been noticed by ſome of his biographers; and if the *Icon Baſilike* was his own production, his talent for proſe-writing was far beyond mediocrity. His private virtues, likewiſe, were eminently conſpicuous. He was chaſte, temperate, economical, devout, mild, friendly, modeſt, and humane. With reſpect to his ſincerity and honour, ſtrong doubts have ariſen. His enemies have repreſented him as one in whoſe moſt ſolemn engagements no confidence could be placed: but this cenſure is palpably overcharged, though we have ſufficient grounds for affirming that he did not always ſcrupulouſly adhere to the dictates of good faith. Had he moved in a private ſphere, he would probably, from his general regularity and ſtrictneſs of deportment, have been diſtinguiſhed by an adherence to his promiſes and declarations; but his monarchial prejudices ſometimes perverted the integrity of his nature; and he ſeemed to think that the rules of policy, and the oppoſition which he met with from his parliamentary ſubjects, furniſhed ſome excuſe for his occaſional violation of his profeſſions and agreements. Theſe, however, are not the ſentiments of a man of unblemiſhed honour; and, as his repeated infractions of the petition of right, which he had ſo ſolemnly confirmed, are ſufficient proofs of the aſſertion, without the mention of other caſes which might be adduced, an eaſy refutation may be given to a remark of one of the panegyriſts of Charles, importing, that, for reproaching this prince with a diſregard of good faith, "the moſt malignant ſcrutiny of his conduct affords not any reaſonable foundation."

His political maxims were too favourable to the ideas of thoſe romantic and ſuperſtitious notions of the royal prerogative, which his father was ſo fond of inculcating, and which were not only abſurd in themſelves, but were particularly diſguſting to that bold and liberal ſpirit which animated a great part of the nation at the time of his acceſſion. Finding that the principles of liberty were ſo ſtrongly prevalent, he would, if his ſagacity and prudence had been unallayed by prejudice, have ſtudiouſly avoided all encroachments on the privileges of his ſubjects; and, by thus entrenching himſelf within the boundaries of lawful prerogative, he would have had a better opportunity of repreſſing the licentiouſneſs of the advocates of freedom, than by indulging himſelf in thoſe exertions of power which inflamed the indignation of the public, and ſtimulated the demagogues to a wider range of deſign, and a greater boldneſs of enterprize. But, being confirmed in his high monarchial notions, by the inſinuations of ambitious ſtateſmen and eccleſiaſtic adulators, and, perhaps, by the ſuggeſtions of a catholic queen, to whoſe counſels he was too obſequious, he neglected the rules of diſcretion; and, by incautious meaſures, opened the way to thoſe popular commotions which produced an inteſtine war, and terminated in the deſtruction of his own perſon, and the ſubverſion of the monarchy. In the adoption of political meaſures, he was, ſometimes, timid and indeciſive; at other times, by the prevalence of importunate advice, he was eager and precipitate. When he had given way to a raſh ſtep, he was quickly deſirous of retracting it; and, even where he had not deviated into a haſty imprudence, but had reſolved on meaſures in which ſpirit was requiſite, he had not a ſufficient degree

of firmneſs and vigour to prevent him from yielding to the pertinacity of faction, or the clamours of the multitude. He was alſo deficient in that inſinuating addreſs and conciliating deportment which might have been uſefully employed in ſoothing the rage of party, and in allaying the ardour of popular zeal.

King Charles had by his queen Henrietta ſix children: Charles, born the 29th of May, 1630, who ſucceeded him on the throne; James, born Oct. 13, 1633, who ſucceeded his brother; Henry duke of Glouceſter, who died in 1660; Mary, married to William II. prince of Orange, died in 1660; (her ſon became William III. king of England); Elizabeth died, in 1650; and Henrietta, married to Philip duke of Orleans, died in 1670.

That interregnum, in the Engliſh hiſtory called the COMMONWEALTH, now followed, A. D. 1649.—Cromwell, who had ſecretly ſolicited and undoubtedly contrived the king's death, began to feel ſenſations to which he had been hitherto a ſtranger. His proſpects widening as he roſe, his firſt principles of liberty were loſt in the unbounded expanſe of power that lay before him. When the peers met on the day appointed in their adjournment, they entered cautiouſly upon buſineſs, and ſent down ſome votes to the commons, but of which they deigned not to take the ſmalleſt notice. In a few days after, the commons, determined to be ſupreme, voted that the houſe of lords was uſeleſs and dangerous, and therefore was, from that time, aboliſhed. They voted it high treaſon to acknowledge Charles Stewart, ſon of the late king, as ſucceſſor to the throne. A great ſeal was made, on one ſide of which were engraven the arms of England and Ireland, with this inſcription: "The great ſeal of England." On the reverſe was repreſented the houſe of commons ſitting, with this motto: "On the firſt year of freedom, by God's bleſſing reſtored, 1648." The forms of all public documents were changed from the king's name to that of the keepers of the liberties of England. The next day they alſo proceeded to try thoſe gallant men, whoſe attachment to their ſovereign had been unſhaken. The duke of Hamilton and lord Capel were condemned and executed; the earl of Holland loſt his life by a like ſentence; the earl of Norwich and ſir John Owen were condemned, but afterwards pardoned by the commons.

The Scots, who in the beginning had ſhewn themſelves ſo inimical to the royal family, now determined to acknowledge prince Charles for their king. But at the ſame time that they reſolved upon raiſing him to the throne, they abridged his power, and propoſed a teſt, which his father had refuſed. Charles, however, finding no proſpect of aſſiſtance from any other quarter, was glad to accept of theſe conditions. It is remarkable, that while the Scots were thus inviting the young king over, they were cruelly puniſhing thoſe who had adhered to his father. Among others, the earl of Montroſe, one of the braveſt, and moſt benevolent characters of that age, was tried as an adherent to the royal cauſe, and hanged on a gibbet thirty feet high, then quartered, and expoſed in the principal towns. Yet prince Charles ventured into Scotland, and had the mortification to enter the gate of Edinburgh, while the limbs of that faithful adherent to his family hung over his head. Being now entirely at the mercy of theſe auſtere zealots, he ſoon found out that he had exchanged exile for impriſonment. He was ſurrounded and inceſſantly importuned by the fanatical clergy, who having brought loyalty under their feet, were reſolved to make it ſtill ſubſervient to their future proſpects. Charles for a while pretended to be highly edified by their inſtructions; but anxiouſly watched an opportunity of making his eſcape.

In the mean time Cromwell, who had got himſelf appointed to the chief command in Ireland, proſecuted the war with his uſual ſucceſs. He had to combat the royaliſts, commanded by the duke of Ormond, and the native Iriſh, led on by O'Neal. On his arrival at Dublin, he haſtened to Drogheda, where Ormond had planted a ſtrong garriſon; but inſtead of forming a languid ſiege, and knowing the importance of diſpatch, he aſſaulted and took the town ſword in hand, and made a cruel ſlaughter of the garriſon. Cromwell, by this ſeverity, pretended to retaliate the inhumanity of the Iriſh maſſacre; and certainly his barbarous policy had the deſired effect. Every town before which he preſented himſelf, now opened its gates; and the Engliſh had nothing to fear, except from fatigue, and the advanced ſeaſon. Fluxes and contagious diſorders carried off numbers of them; and had not the Engliſh garriſons of Cork, Kinſale, and other important places, deſerted to him, he would have found it difficult to maintain his ground. The ſucceſs of Cromwell, however, put an end to Ormond's authority: he left the iſland, and delegated his power to earl Clanricarde, who found affairs too deſperate to admit of any remedy. Above forty thouſand Iriſh paſſed into foreign ſervice, and left the Engliſh general at liberty to complete his conqueſt.

Meanwhile Charles, being informed that the Scottiſh parliament had, A. D. 1650, reſolved to proclaim him king, was prevailed on, though reluctantly, to ſubmit to the hard conditions on which he was to receive the crown. He ſoon found himſelf conſidered as a pageant of ſtate; and as his facility in yielding to their demands gave ſome doubts of his ſincerity, it was propoſed that he ſhould paſs through a public humiliation, inſtead of being crowned as he expected. From this diſgrace, Charles was now ſaved by the advance of the Engliſh army under Cromwell, who having left Ireton in Ireland, had been inveſted with the principal command in Scotland, which Fairfax had declined from motives of religious feeling.

The Scots, in the mean time, had given the command of their army to general Leſlie, who had formed a proper plan for its defence. This prudent commander knew, that though ſuperior in numbers, his army was much inferior in diſcipline to the Engliſh; and he therefore kept cloſe within his entrenchments. After ſome uſeleſs movements, Cromwell began to ſee the deep generalſhip of Leſlie; and while he had choſen a diſadvantageous poſt near Dunbar, his antagoniſt was waiting deliberately to take advantage of his ſituation. But the zeal and fanaticiſm of the Scottiſh clergy, who conſtantly attended their army, urged Leſlie to march from his entrenchments to give the Engliſh battle, when the intrepid Cromwell obtained a deciſive victory. Prince Charles now put himſelf at the head of the remnant of the Scottiſh army, which he ſtrengthened by the royaliſts, who had determined to ſupport his cauſe. Cromwell, however, ſtill followed his blow, puſhed the royaliſts towards Perth, and, cutting off the proviſion of the Scottiſh army, made it impoſſible for Charles to maintain his ground in that country any longer.

In this exigency Charles embraced a reſolution worthy a prince who was willing to hazard all on the point of the ſword. Obſerving that the way was open to England, he reſolved immediately to march into that country, where he expected to be reinforced by all the royaliſts on that ſide of the kingdom. His generals were perſuaded to enter into the ſame views; and with one conſent the Scottiſh army, to the number of fourteen thouſand men, entered the frontiers, and made their way to the city of Worceſter. Here Cromwell overtook them with haſty ſtrides, ſupported by an army of forty thouſand men. He aſſailed the town in every direction, the ſtreets were filled with ſlaughter, the whole Scottiſh army were either killed or taken priſoners, and Charles himſelf, having given many proofs of perſonal valour, with difficulty made his eſcape.

Imagination can ſcarcely conceive adventures more romantic, or diſtreſſes more ſevere, than thoſe which followed the young prince's fortunes after the ſcene of ſlaughter. His hair was cut off, the better to diſguiſe his perſon; and he worked for ſome days in the habit of a peaſant, cutting faggots in a wood. He next made an attempt to retire into Wales, under the conduct of Pendrel,

drel, a poor farmer, who was ſincerely attached to his cauſe. In this attempt, however, he was diſappointed, every paſs being vigilantly guarded to prevent his eſcape. Being obliged to return, he accidentally met with colonel Careleſs, who, like himſelf, had eſcaped the carnage at Worceſter; and in his company he climbed the ſpreading oak at Boſcobel in Shropſhire, among the thick branches of which they paſſed the day together, while they perceived the ſoldiers of the enemy in purſuit of them below. From thence he paſſed, with imminent danger, under all the extremities of famine, fatigue, and pain, till he arrived at the houſe of colonel Lane, a zealous royaliſt in Staffordſhire. There he deliberated about the means of eſcaping into France; and Briſtol being ſuppoſed the propereſt port, it was agreed that he ſhould ride thither, before this gentleman's ſiſter, on a viſit to Mrs. Norton, who lived in the neighbourhood of that city. During this journey he every day met with faces he knew; and at one time paſſed through a whole regiment of Cromwell's army.

When they arrived at Briſtol, no ſhip being found that would for a month ſet ſail, either for France or Spain, the king was obliged to ſeek elſewhere for a paſſage. He therefore repaired to the houſe of colonel Wyndham, in Dorſetſhire, where he was cordially received. Purſuing from thence his journey to the ſea-ſide, he once more had a very providential eſcape from a little inn, where he had meant to ſtay the night. At length he reached Shoreham in Suſſex, where a veſſel was at laſt found, in which he embarked. He was known to ſo many perſons, that if he had not ſet ſail in that critical moment, it had been impoſſible for him to eſcape. After one and forty days' concealment, he arrived ſafely at Feſchamp in Normandy. No leſs than forty men and women had, at different times, been aſſiſtants to his eſcape.

In the mean time, Cromwell returned in triumph to London, where he was met by the ſpeaker of the houſe, accompanied by the lord mayor of London, and the magiſtrates, in all their formalities. An act was now paſſed for aboliſhing royalty in Scotland, and annexing that kingdom, as a conquered province, to the Engliſh commonwealth. It was impowered, however, to ſend ſome members to the Engliſh parliament. Judges were appointed over the different diſtricts; and the people of that country, now freed from the tyranny of the eccleſiaſtics, were not much diſſatisfied with their new government. The prudent conduct of general Monk, who was left by Cromwell to complete their ſubjugation, ſerved much to reconcile the minds of the people, haraſſed with diſſenſions, of which they never well underſtood the cauſe.

In this manner Cromwell eventually ſpread uncontrouled authority over all the Britiſh dominions. Ireland was ſubdued by Ireton and Ludlow. All the ſettlements in America, that had declared for the royal cauſe, were obliged to ſubmit; Jerſey, Guernſey, Scilly, and the iſle of Man, were brought under ſubjection. Thus mankind ſaw, with aſtoniſhment, a parliament, compoſed of ſixty or ſeventy obſcure and illiterate members, with Cromwell at their head, governing a powerful empire, with unanimity and ſucceſs.

The parliament, having thus reduced the Britiſh dominions to obedience, A. D. 1652, reſolved to chaſtiſe the Dutch, who had given them but a ſlight offence. It happened that doctor Doriſlaus, who was of the number of the late king's judges, being ſent by the parliament as their envoy to Holland, was aſſaſſinated by one of the royal party who had taken refuge there; and Mr. St. John, another ambaſſador to that court, was inſulted by the friends of the prince of Orange. Theſe were cauſes ſufficient to induce the commonwealth of England to declare war. The parliament's chief dependance lay in the activity and courage of admiral Blake, who ſurpaſſed all that went before him in courage and dexterity. The Dutch oppoſed to him their famous admiral, Van Tromp, to whom they have never ſince produced an equal. Many were the deſperate engagements between theſe celebrated admirals, and various were their ſucceſſes; the principal of which are recorded under BLAKE, vol. iii. p. 85. The Dutch, who felt great diſadvantages by the loſs of their trade, and by the total ſuſpenſion of their fiſheries, were ſoon anxious to treat for a peace.

In the mean time, the diſputes between the parliament and the army had ariſen to an alarming height. The army preſented a petition for the payment of arrears, and a redreſs of grievances; in which the officers admoniſhed the parliament to conſider how many years they had ſat, and what profeſſions they had formerly made of their intentions to new-model the houſe, and eſtabliſh freedom on a broader baſis. They alleged that it was now full time to give place to others; and, however meritorious their labours might have been, yet the reſt of the nation had ſome right in turn to ſhew their patriotiſm in the ſervice of their country. The houſe was highly offended at this preſumption of the army. They appointed a committee to prepare an act, declaring all perſons who ſhould preſent ſuch petitions in future, guilty of high treaſon. To this the officers made a ſpirited remonſtrance; and the parliament an angry reply; while the breach between them every moment grew wider. This was all under the deep management of Cromwell. He was ſitting in council with his officers, when informed of the violent debates in parliament concerning the army; upon which he roſe up in a ſeeming fury, and turning to major Vernon, cried out, "That he was compelled to do a thing which made the very hair of his head ſtand on end." Then haſtening to the houſe with three hundred ſoldiers, with the moſt indignant countenance he took his place; and, when the queſtion was about to be put, he ſuddenly ſtarted up, and branded the parliament with the vileſt reproaches for their tyranny, ambition, and oppreſſion of the public. Upon which, ſtamping with his foot, the ſignal for the ſoldiers to enter, the houſe was immediately filled with armed men. Then addreſſing himſelf to the members, "It is you (continued he) that have forced me upon this." Then pointing to the mace, "Take away (cried he) that bauble." After which, turning out all the members, and clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked; and, putting the keys in his pocket, returned to Whitehall.

Thus, by one bold exertion, the new republic was aboliſhed, and the whole government, civil and military, centered in Cromwell only. The people, who were ſpectators in ſilent wonder of all theſe precipitate tranſactions, expreſſed no diſapprobation at the diſſolution of a parliament that had overturned the conſtitution, and deſtroyed the king. On the contrary, the uſurper received congratulatory addreſſes from the fleet, the corporations, and the army, for having diſmiſſed a parliament that had ſubjected the nation to the moſt cruel impoſitions. But Cromwell was too cautious to be ſeduced by their praiſe, or driven on by their exhortations. Unwilling to put forth all his power at once, he reſolved ſtill to amuſe the people with the form of a commonwealth, which it was the deluſion of the times to admire, and to give them a parliament that would be entirely ſubſervient to his own commands. For this purpoſe, conſulting with ſome of his principal officers, it was decreed, that the ſovereign power ſhould be veſted in one hundred and forty-four perſons, under the denomination of a parliament; and he undertook himſelf to make the choice.

The perſons choſen for exerciſing this important truſt, were the loweſt, meaneſt, and moſt ignorant, among the citizens, and the very dregs of the fanatics. He was well appriſed, that during the adminiſtration of ſuch a group, he alone muſt govern; or, that they muſt ſoon throw up the reins of a government, which they were unqualified to guide. Accordingly, their practice juſtified his expectations. To go further than others into the abſurdities of fanaticiſm was the chief qualification which each of theſe legiſlators valued himſelf upon. One of them

particularly, who was called "Praiſe God Barebone," a canting leather-ſeller, gave his name to this odd aſſembly, and it was called Barebone's parliament. To this hopeful aſſembly was committed the treaty of peace with the Dutch; but the ambaſſadors from that nation, though themſelves preſbyterians, were quite carnal minded to theſe. They were regarded by the new parliament as worldly men, intent on commerce and worldly gain, and therefore not to be treated with. They inſiſted that the man of ſin ſhould be put away, and a new birth obtained by prayer and meditation. The ambaſſadors, finding themſelves unable to converſe with them, gave up the treaty as hopeleſs. The moſt vulgar of the populace now began to exclaim againſt this mock legiſlature, and it was diſſolved.

The officers of the army now came forward, and declared Cromwell "*Protector of the Commonwealth of England.*" The lord mayor and aldermen of London were ſent for to give ſolemnity to his appointment; and he was inſtituted into this high office at Weſtminſter, in the fifty-third year of his age, Dec. 16, 1653; and was immediately put in poſſeſſion of Whitehall, the palace of the kings of England. A council was appointed, which was not to exceed twenty-one, nor to be under thirteen perſons. Theſe were to enjoy their offices for life, or during good behaviour; and, in caſe of a vacancy, the remaining members named three, of whom the protector choſe one. The protector was appointed the ſupreme magiſtrate of the commonwealth, with ſuch privileges as the kings formerly poſſeſſed. The power of the ſword was veſted in him jointly with the parliament when ſitting, or with the council during its receſs. He was obliged to ſummon a parliament every three years, and to allow them to ſit five months without adjournment. A ſtanding army was eſtabliſhed of twenty thouſand foot, and ten thouſand horſe, and funds were aſſigned for their ſupport. The protector enjoyed his office during life; and on his death the place was immediately to be ſupplied by the council. Of all theſe proviſions the ſtanding army was alone ſufficient for Cromwell's purpoſe; for while poſſeſſed of that inſtrument, he could mould the conſtitution at all times to his will and pleaſure.

His management of foreign affairs generally correſponded with his determined character, and were attended with ſucceſs. The Dutch having been humbled by repeated defeats, and totally abridged in their commercial concerns, were made to ſue for peace, which he gave them upon his own terms. He inſiſted upon their paying obedience to the Britiſh flag. He compelled them to abandon the intereſts of the king, and to pay eighty-five thouſand pounds as an indemnification for former expences; and to reſtore the Engliſh Eaſt-India company a part of thoſe dominions of which they had been diſpoſſeſſed by the Dutch during the former reign. He was not leſs ſucceſsful in his negociations with France. Cardinal Mazarine, by whom the affairs of that kingdom were conducted, deemed it neceſſary to pay deference to the protector; and deſirous rather to prevail by dexterity than violence, ſubmitted to Cromwell's imperious character, and thus procured ends equally beneficial to both. The court of Spain was not leſs aſſiduous in its endeavours to gain his friendſhip, but was not ſo ſucceſsful. This haughty monarchy, which but a few years before had threatened the liberties of Europe, was now hardly able to defend itſelf. Cromwell, however, who knew nothing of foreign politics, ſtill continued to regard its power with a jealous eye, and came into confederacy with France to depreſs it more. He lent that court a body of ſix thouſand men to attack the Spaniſh dominions in the Netherlands; and, upon their obtaining a ſignal victory by his aſſiſtance at Dunes, the French put Dunkirk, which they had juſt taken from the Spaniards; into his hands, as a reward for his attachment. But it was by ſea that he humbled the power of Spain with the moſt effectual ſucceſs; as ſtated under the article BLAKE, above referred to.

At the ſame time that Blake's expeditions were going forward, there was another carried on under the command of Penn and Venables, with about four thouſand land forces, deſtined to attack the iſland of Hiſpaniola. Failing, however, in this enterpriſe, and being driven off the place by the Spaniards, they ſteered to Jamaica, which was ſurrendered to them at diſcretion, May 11, 1654; ever ſince which time it has continued under the dominion of England. But ſo little was the importance of this conqueſt then conſidered, that, upon the return of the expedition, Penn and Venables were ſent to the Tower, for their failure in the principal object of their expedition againſt St. Domingo.

All theſe ſucceſſes might rather be aſcribed to the ſpirit of the times, than to the ſuperior policy of Cromwell. He was poſſeſſed of but two arts in perfection, that of managing the army, by which he ruled; and diſcovering the ſecrets of his enemies, by which he defeated all their ſchemes againſt him. For the firſt, his valour and diſſimulation were ſufficient; for the latter, it is ſaid, he paid ſixty thouſand pounds a-year to his ſpies. But he took care to make the nation refund thoſe extraordinary expences. Theſe conſpiracies, entered into by the royaliſts, ſerved him as a pretext to lay a heavy tax upon that party, of a tenth penny on all their poſſeſſions. In order to ſecure the payment, ten major-generals were inſtituted, who divided the kingdom into ſo many military juriſdictions. Theſe men had power to ſubject whom they pleaſed to a payment of this tax, and to impriſon thoſe who refuſed. Under colour of theſe powers, they exerciſed the moſt arbitrary authority; the people had no protection againſt their exactions; the very maſk of liberty was thrown off, and all property was at the diſpoſal of a military tribunal. It was in vain that the nation cried out for a free parliament; Cromwell aſſembled one, in conſequence of their clamours; but as ſpeedily diſſolved it, when he found it refractory to his commands.

The whole nation now began ſilently to deteſt his adminiſtration; and all domeſtic conſolations forſook him. Fleetwood, his ſon-in-law, deteſted a character which could barter religious zeal for the purpoſes of temporal advancement. His eldeſt daughter, who married Fleetwood, had adopted republican principles ſo vehemently, that ſhe could not bear to ſee even her own father inveſted with uncontroulable power. His other daughters were ſanguine in favour of the royal cauſe; but, above all, Mrs. Claypole, his favourite daughter, who, upon her death-bed, upbraided him with all thoſe wicked and abominable projects which had led him to trample on the crown. Every hour added ſome new diſquietude to his mind. Lord Fairfax, ſir William Waller, and many leaders of the preſbyterians, had ſecretly entered into an engagement to deſtroy him. His adminiſtration, ſo expenſive both at home and abroad, had exhauſted his revenue, and he was left conſiderably in debt. One conſpiracy followed upon the ruins of another; and, to increaſe his calamity, he was now taught, upon reaſoning principles, that his death was not only deſirable, but his aſſaſſination would be meritorious. A book was publiſhed by colonel Titus, a man who had formerly been attached to his cauſe, entitled, Killing no Murder. Of all the pamphlets that came forth at that time, or perhaps of thoſe that have ſince appeared, this was the moſt eloquent and maſterly. "Shall we (ſaid this popular declaimer) who would not ſuffer the lion to invade us, tamely ſtand to be devoured by the wolf?" Cromwell read this ſpirited performance, and was never ſeen to ſmile more.

All conſolation appeared now baniſhed from his mind. He found that the grandeur to which he had aſpired was only an inlet to dangers and inquietudes. The fears of aſſaſſination haunted him in all his walks, and was ever preſent to his imagination. His aſpect was clouded by a

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ſettled gloom; and he regarded every ſtranger with ſuſpicion. A tertian ague kindly intervened, to deliver him from this life of horror and anxiety. For the ſpace of a week no dangerous ſymptoms appeared; and, in the intervals of the fits, he was able to walk abroad. But notwithſtanding theſe favourable aſſurances, the fatal ſymptoms increaſed; and the phyſicians were at laſt obliged to declare that he could not ſurvive the next fit. The council came to know his laſt commands concerning the ſucceſſion; but his ſenſes were confuſed: his departing ſoul was on the wing, and he had but juſt time to anſwer *yes* to their demand, whether his ſon Richard ſhould be appointed to ſucceed him. He died on the third of September, 1658, the very day which he had always conſidered as the moſt fortunate of his life; he was then fifty-nine years old, and had uſurped the government nine years.—For the moſt intereſting particulars of his private life, perſonal acquirements, family, and character, ſee the article CROMWELL, vol. v. p. 378, &c.

After the death of the uſurper, the influence of his name was ſtill ſufficient to get Richard, his ſon, proclaimed "Protector of England;" but it was probably owing to the numerous parties that were formed in the kingdom, and their mutual hatred of each other, that Richard owed his peaceable advancement to this high ſtation. It was found neceſſary, upon his firſt advancement, to call a parliament to furniſh the ſupplies to carry on the ordinary operations of government. But it was not on the parliament that the army choſe to rely. A great number of the principal malcontents of the army eſtabliſhed a meeting at general Fleetwood's, which, as he dwelt in Wallingford-houſe, was called the Cabal of Wallingford. The reſult of their deliberations was a remonſtrance, that the command of the army ſhould be intruſted to ſome perſon in whom they might all confide; and it was plainly given to underſtand that the young protector was not the perſon they meant.

A propoſal ſo daring and dangerous did not fail to alarm Richard; he applied to his council, and they referred it to the parliament. Both agreed to conſider it as an audacious attempt, and a vote was paſſed that there ſhould be no meeting, or general council of officers, without the protector's permiſſion. This brought affairs to an open rupture. The palace of the protector was the next day ſurrounded by a body of officers; and one Deſborow, a man of a brutal diſpoſition, penetrating into his apartment with an armed retinue, threatened his life if he refuſed to ſubmit to the army. Richard wanted reſolution to defend what had been conferred upon him; he diſſolved the parliament, and ſoon after ſigned his own abdication. Henry Cromwell, his younger brother, who was appointed to the command in Ireland, followed the protector's example, and reſigned his commiſſion, without ſtriking a blow. Richard lived ſeveral years after his reſignation, at firſt on the continent, and afterwards upon his paternal eſtate at Hurſley in Hampſhire. He was thought by the ignorant to be unworthy of his exaltation to the dignity of protector; but he knew by his tranquillity in private life, that he had made a moſt deſirable exchange.—See a biographical account of him, vol. v. p. 385.

The officers, being thus left to themſelves, determined to replace the remnant of the old parliament, which had beheaded the king, and which Cromwell had ſo diſgracefully turned out of the houſe. This was called *the good old cauſe*, from their attachment to republican principles; and to the members of this the cabal of officers for a while delivered up their own authority. The members, who had been ſecluded by colonel Pride's purge, as it was called, attempted, in vain, to reſume their ſeats among them. This was called the *Rump Parliament*; and, although reinſtated by the army, was yet very vigorous in its attempts to leſſen the power by which it was replaced. They began their deſign of humbling the army, by new-modelling part of the forces, caſhiering ſuch of the officers as were moſt obnoxious, and appointing others on whom they could more implicitly rely.

In this exigency, the officers held ſeveral conferences, with a deſign to oppoſe the parliament; and they came to a reſolution to diſſolve that aſſembly. Accordingly, Lambert, one of the generals, drew up a choſen body of troops; and placing them in the ſtreets which led to Weſtminſter-hall, when the ſpeaker, Lenthal, proceeded in his carriage to the houſe, he ordered the horſes to be turned, and ſent him home, under a military eſcort. The other members were likewiſe intercepted, and driven back; and the army returned to their quarters to obſerve a ſolemn faſt, which generally either preceded, or followed, their outrages. The officers, having thus reſumed the power they had delegated to the rump parliament, reſolved to part with it no more; but, in order to keep up the appearance of a government, they elected a council of twenty-three perſons, called *a Committee of Safety*, which they inveſted with a nominal ſupremacy. Throughout the three kingdoms there now prevailed nothing but melancholy fears of the bloody maſſacre of the nobility and gentry, and of perpetual ſervitude to the reſt of the people.

But amidſt theſe moſt gloomy proſpects, Providence was preparing a way for the legitimate ſovereign to mount in peace the throne of his anceſtors. General George Monk, to whoſe prudence and loyalty the reſtoration of the monarchy is chiefly to be aſcribed, had fought in Scotland; and, on the reduction of that kingdom, was left with the ſupreme command. In this capacity, he conducted himſelf equally to the ſatisfaction of the nation and the ſoldiery; and, foreſeeing that the goodwill of the army might eventually be of ſervice to him, he cultivated their friendſhip with aſſiduity and ſucceſs. Hearing that Lambert was advancing northward, Monk affected to treat with the committee of ſafety; but his object ſeems to have been to gain time. In fact, the nation was falling into anarchy. While Lambert's forces were aſſembling at Newcaſtle, Hazelrig and Morley took poſſeſſion of Portſmouth for the parliament, and admiral Lawſon entering the river, declared on the ſame ſide. The city of London had eſtabliſhed a kind of ſeparate government within itſelf; and thus every thing ſeemed running into croſs purpoſes. The parliament now aſſembled, and took courage to revoke Lambert's commiſſion; who, finding himſelf menaced by Monk in front, and in danger of being deſerted by his own ſoldiers, ſuffered himſelf to be arreſted, and committed to the Tower.

Monk, who had now paſſed the Tweed, though informed of the reſtoration of parliament, continued to advance at the head of about ſix thouſand men. During his march, he received various addreſſes, requeſting he would aſſiſt in ſettling the nation; but he affected to pay little regard to them. At length, having taken up his quarters in Weſtminſter, without oppoſition, he was introduced into the houſe, and thanked for his ſervices. His anſwer was couched in terms of great reſerve. He ſaid, he had only performed his duty; and that it remained with them to render ſtill more important ſervices to the nation, by ſummoning a full and free parliament, in order to effect a ſettlement, which all men ſeemed anxious to procure, after ſo many convulſions. He hinted, that application had been made to him for that purpoſe; but that he had referred the petitioners to parliament, who were the beſt judges of theſe meaſures.

In a ſhort time, however, the common council of London having declared that they would pay no more taxes, till a free parliament was called, the rump parliament gave orders to Monk to march into the city, and ſeize ſome of thoſe who were moſt inimical to its ſway. This order he heſitated not to execute; but, reflecting that by this meaſure he had broke through the general benevolence of his character, and made himſelf the tool of a parliament which he deteſted, he wrote a letter to the houſe, requiring them, in the name of the citizens, ſol-

diers, and the whole commonwealth, to iſſue writs within a week for the filling of their aſſembly, and to fix the time for their own diſſolution. He then marched with his army into the city, and having requeſted the mayor to ſummon a common council, he apologiſed for his late meaſures, and deſired that the city and army might mutually plight their faith for a ſtrict union, in every thing that might conduce to the ſettlement of the national affairs. He then excited the ſecluded members to enter the houſe, by which means a majority was formed favourable to his views, and writs were iſſued for the immediate aſſembling of a new parliament.

Monk now diſpatched ſir John Granville to deliver a verbal meſſage to the king, who had been ſome time in Spain, but had lately retired into Holland, informing him of their plan for his reſtoration. The elections for the new parliament, by the union of the preſbyterians and the royaliſts, went on every where in favour of the king; and the ſame diſpoſition prevailed in Ireland. When the parliament met, ſir Harbottle Grimſtone was choſen ſpeaker; and the general, having ſounded the inclinations of the aſſembly, informed them that ſir John Granville was now at the door with a letter for the commons, from their too long perſecuted ſovereign. He was inſtantly ordered to be admitted; and, without one diſſenting voice, a committee was appointed to prepare an anſwer.

The king's declaration, which was publiſhed and diſperſed, by order of parliament, was well calculated to augment the ſatisfaction, which the conduct of Monk had inſpired. It offered a general amneſty, with ſuch exceptions only as ſhould be made by the parliament; it promiſed liberty of conſcience; and aſſured the ſoldiers of all their arrears, with a continuance of the ſame pay. The lords, perceiving the ſpirit with which the kingdom, as well as the commons, were actuated, haſtened to reinſtate themſelves in their ancient authority; and, both houſes attending, the king was proclaimed with great ſolemnity in Palace-yard, at Whitehall, and at Temple-bar. The commons voted a handſome gratuity to Granville, and a preſent of fifty thouſand pounds to his majeſty, with inferior ſums for the dukes of York and Glouceſter. A committee of lords and commons was diſpatched, to invite the king to return, and aſſume his crown. His majeſty, accordingly embarking at Scheveling, landed at Dover, and, on the memorable 29th of May, 1660, which was alſo his birth-day, he entered London, amidſt the joyful congratulations of his people.

When Charles II. aſcended the throne, he was thirty years of age; and no prince ever received a crown with the more cordial approbation of his people. In the choice of his miniſters, he gave great ſatisfaction to the nation. Sir Edward Hyde, created earl of Clarendon, was chancellor and prime miniſter; the duke of Ormond, was ſteward of the houſhold; the earl of Southampton, high treaſurer; and ſir Edward Nicholas, ſecretary of ſtate. Admiral Montagu, who had carried a fleet to receive his majeſty, without waiting for the ſanction of parliament, was created earl of Sandwich; and general Monk, duke of Albemarle. No reward, indeed, could be too great for the ſervices of the latter, who, without bloodſhed and without confuſion, had, by prudence and caution alone, effected ſo deſirable a revolution. Into the king's council, were admitted the moſt eminent men of the nation, without regard to their former diſtinctions; the preſbyterians equally with the royaliſts. All judicial proceedings during the interregnum were ratified by a new law; and the act of indemnity, paſſing with little oppoſition, received the royal aſſent. The next buſineſs was to ſettle the king's revenue. They granted him one hundred thouſand pounds a year, in lieu of the tenures of wards and liveries, and voted, that the revenue of the crown for all charges, ſhould amount to the annual ſum of one million two hundred thouſand pounds; but, ſtill jealous of liberty, they ſcarcely aſſigned ſufficient funds for two-thirds of that ſum; and thus left the care of fulfilling their engagements to the future conſideration of parliament.

The trial and condemnation of the regicides, who had been moſt active in the death of his father, now came on. Harriſon, Scot, Carew, Clement, Jones, Scrope, Axtel, Hacker, Coke, and Hugh Peters, ſuffered with the confidence of martyrs: Lenthal, the ſpeaker of the rump parliament, and the reſt of the king's judges, were, with unexampled lenity, reprieved, or eſcaped arraignment. The king then diſſolved the parliament, with a ſpeech full of the moſt gracious expreſſions; and, by the urgent advice of Clarendon, conſented to diſband the army, except about one thouſand horſe, and four thouſand foot. This was the firſt appearance of a regular ſtanding army, under the monarchy, in this iſland.

Clarendon, now nearly allied to the royal family by the marriage of his eldeſt daughter, Anne Hyde, to the duke of York, by his wiſdom, his juſtice, and his prudence, equally promoted the intereſts of the prince and the people; but, in his attachment to the religion of the eſtabliſhment, he ſeems, in ſome meaſure, to have forgot the compact by which his maſter had been recalled. Charles having ſaid that preſbyterianiſm was not a religion for a gentleman, it was reſolved to reſtore prelacy in Scotland; and Sharp, who had been commiſſioned by the preſbyterians in Scotland, to manage their intereſts with the king, was perſuaded to abandon his party; and, as a reward for his tergiverſation, was created archbiſhop of St. Andrew's. This excited much diſcontent in Scotland; and the humiliation of that ſect in the north, was ſoon followed by the perſecution of their brethren in the ſouth. An ineffectual conference had been held at the Savoy, A. D. 1662, in order to bring about an accommodation between thoſe of the eſtabliſhed church and the followers of preſbytery; and the new parliament, which met about this time, laying hold of the prejudices which prevailed among the preſbyterian ſect, to eject them from their livings, required, that every clergyman who had not received epiſcopal ordination, ſhould be reordained; ſhould declare his aſſent to every thing contained in the book of common prayer; ſhould abjure the ſolemn league and covenant; and ſhould renounce the principle of taking arms againſt the king, on any pretence whatſoever. This act, and others which paſſed about the ſame time, have been the beſt ſupports of the ſtate, by cloſely linking it with the church, and ſecuring eccleſiaſtical ſubordination.

But, by theſe regulations, the king's promiſes of toleration and indulgence to tender conſciences, were broken or eluded; though it is probable that the catholics, rather than the preſbyterians, were the perſons principally aimed at by Clarendon and the church party among the commons. About two thouſand ſectaries, however, in one day, relinquiſhed their cures, and ſacrificed their intereſts to their principles. Soon after, the king was married to the princeſs Catharine of Portugal, with whom he received five hundred thouſand pounds, and the two fortreſſes of Tangier in Africa, and Bombay in the Eaſt Indies, by way of dowry. This match was far from proving auſpicious; for the queen never poſſeſſed the affections of her huſband. Amidſt theſe tranſactions, the pecuniary wants of the king daily increaſed; and, in order to raiſe money, as well as to ſave expences, Dunkirk was ſold to France for four hundred thouſand pounds. In this ſcheme Clarendon concurred; and ſo little aware was the French king of the value of his acquiſition, that he thought he had made a hard bargain.

About this time, A. D. 1663, Charles iſſued a declaration, under pretence of mitigating the rigours contained in the act of uniformity, to which he ſeemed to be induced by his prejudices in favour of popery. Parliament, however, had wiſdom enough to oppoſe all new ſources of religious diſſenſion; and, in order to deprive the catholics of any ſuch views, the two houſes concurred in a remonſtrance againſt them. Charles, on this, not only

only dropped his project of indulgence, but iſſued a proclamation againſt prieſts and jeſuits; and, in return for this compliance, he preſſed the commons for a ſupply, who voted him four ſubſidies—the laſt time that taxes were levied in that manner.

Though the nation had gone from the extreme of fanaticiſm into a culpable degree of neglect to religion, it could not regard with indifference the king's irregular pleaſures, and the little reſpect he paid to decency in his public miſtreſſes. But what was moſt injurious to the king's reputation, was his ſuffering his own adherents, and thoſe of his father and family, to remain in poverty and diſtreſs, aggravated by the cruel diſappointment of their ſanguine hopes; and by ſeeing favour and preferment beſtowed on their moſt inveterate foes. The act of indemnity and oblivion was conſtrued, and, in many caſes, too juſtly, as an act of indemnity to the king's enemies, and of oblivion to his friends.

The loyalty of the parliament now induced them to repeal the triennial act, and to content themſelves with a clauſe, that parliaments ſhould not be diſcontinued above three years at moſt. The commons likewiſe paſſed a vote, that the indignities offered to the Engliſh, by the ſubjects of the United States of Holland, were the greateſt obſtructions to our foreign trade. This, in 1664, paved the way to a Dutch war. Sir Robert Holmes was ſecretly diſpatched with a ſquadron of twenty-two ſhips to the coaſt of Africa, where he expelled the Dutch from cape Corſe, and ſeized their ſettlements at cape Verde and Goree. Then ſailing to America, he poſſeſſed himſelf of Nova Belgia, ſince called New York, which had been granted by patent to the earl of Stirling, in the reign of James I. but had never been planted, except by the Hollanders. When the Dutch complained of theſe hoſtile meaſures, the king pretended to deny that Holmes had any authority for his proceedings; but this evaſion not ſatisfying the ſtates, they diſpatched De Ruyter with a fleet, to retaliate on the Engliſh. This admiral, in 1665, not only recovered what had been loſt, but took ſome of the old ſettlements belonging to the Engliſh.

After this, the Dutch in vain attempted to avert the horrors of war by negociation. John de Witt, who then directed their meaſures by his conduct and capacity, cauſed a fleet to be equipped, ſurpaſſing any that had ever ſailed from the ports of Holland. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of one hundred and fourteen ſail, and was commanded by the duke of York, and under him by prince Rupert, and the earl of Sandwich. Obdam, the Dutch admiral, had nearly an equal force; and, on meeting, he declined not the combat. In the heat of action, when engaged in cloſe fight with the duke of York, Obdam's ſhip blew up. This accident diſconcerted the Dutch, and they fled towards their own coaſt, the ſon of the famous admiral Tromp gallantly protecting the rear of the flying ſquadron. The vanquiſhed had nineteen ſhips ſunk or taken; the victors loſt only one. In this action, the duke of York behaved with great bravery; the earl of Falmouth, lord Muſkerry, and Mr. Boyle, were killed at his ſide. The declining courage of the Dutch was again revived by De Witt, who ſoon remedied all the diſorders occaſioned by the late misfortune; but his chief reliance was on the king of France, who, in conformity to treaty, was reſolved to ſupport the ſtates in this unequal conteſt. The Engliſh, however, had now a more dreadful calamity than war to contend with. The plague had carried off ninety thouſand perſons in London; and the king, to eſcape this awful viſitation, was obliged to call a parliament at Oxford, A. D. 1666.

The king of France having ordered his admiral, the duke of Beaufort, to proceed with forty ſail to the ſupport of his allies, that ſquadron was now ſuppoſed to be entering the channel. The Dutch fleet, under the command of De Ruyter, to the number of ſeventy-ſix ſail, was at ſea, in order to join the French. The duke of Albemarle and prince Rupert commanded the Engliſh fleet, which did not exceed ſeventy-four ſail. Albemarle, conſulting only his courage, diſpatched prince Rupert with twenty ſhips, to oppoſe the duke of Beaufort; and with the remainder he ſet ſail to give battle to the Dutch. Never did a more memorable engagement take place; whether we conſider its long duration, or the deſperate courage with which it was fought. On the firſt day the loſs was nearly equal, and night parted the combatants; vice admiral ſir William Berkeley fell on the ſide of the Engliſh, and admiral Evertz on that of the Dutch. On the ſecond day, during the action, the Dutch were joined by ſixteen freſh ſhips, while the Engliſh had not more than twenty-eight in a ſituation for fighting. This induced Albemarle to draw towards the Engliſh coaſt, which he did with an undaunted countenance, proteſting to the earl of Oſſory, ſon of the duke of Ormond, that he would ſooner blow up his ſhip than ſtrike. Juſt as the Dutch had come up with the Engliſh, and were about to renew the engagement, the ſquadron of prince Rupert hove in ſight, ſteering to the aſſiſtance of Albemarle. The battle now began afreſh, and continued with great violence till ſuſpended by a miſt; when the Engliſh retired firſt, into their own harbours. De Ruyter now poſted himſelf at the mouth of the Thames; but it was not long before Rupert and Albemarle approached to attack him. The engagement was again fierce and obſtinate, and three Dutch admirals fell; but De Ruyter, though preſſed on all ſides, retained his ſtation, till night ended the engagement.

After this ſignal defeat, De Ruyter, finding the Dutch fleet ſcattered, was obliged to retreat, which yet he conducted with ſo much ſkill, as to render it truly honourable. "My God! (exclaimed he) what a wretch I am! among ſo many thouſand bullets, is there not one to put an end to my miſerable life?" The Dutch, by the greateſt exertions, were ſaved in their harbours; and the Engliſh triumphantly ſcoured the ſeas, without controul. But the joy ariſing from this great victory was of ſhort duration. The plague had no ſooner ſubſided, than a moſt dreadful fire broke out in London, which ſpreading, in ſpite of every endeavour to check its deſtructive progreſs, conſumed four hundred ſtreets, and thirteen thouſand houſes. The popular prejudice aſcribed this calamity to the catholics; but no proof appeared to ſupport ſuch a calumny, though it is ſanctioned by the inſcription ſtill remaining on the monument that records the conflagration.

The Dutch, ſtill continuing to make the moſt vigorous reſiſtance, Charles began to be ſenſible that all the ends for which the war had been undertaken, were likely to prove abortive. This induced him to make overtures of accommodation, which were readily liſtened to; and ſo nearly was the treaty concluded, that he imprudently diſcontinued his preparations. The penetrating mind of De Witt now ſaw the opportunity for retrieving the honour of his country, and he embraced it. The Dutch fleet under De Ruyter appeared in the Thames, and burſting the chain which had been drawn acroſs the Medway, advanced as far as Upnore caſtle. Sheerneſs was taken, and ſeveral ſhips burnt. They next attempted Portſmouth, inſulted Harwich; and, had they been ſupported by the French, as they ought, the moſt ſerious conſequences might have enſued. The ſigning of the treaty of Breda, however, ſaved England from this danger; and the acquiſition of New York was the principal advantage which this country reaped from the war.

Some ſacrifice ſeemed neceſſary to appeaſe the people for their diſappointments; and the chancellor became the victim. His ſale of Dunkirk roſe up in judgment againſt him; and, as he had engaged in building beyond what his oſtenſible finances would allow, he was expoſed to public reproach, as if he had acquired riches by corruption, though nothing of the kind was ever proved againſt him. The king, indeed, who had always revered rather than loved him, was glad to be freed from a mi-

niſter who would not permit his maſter's licentious pleaſures to paſs without reprehenſion. The great ſeal was given to ſir Orlando Bridgman. The duke of York in vain exerted his intereſt in behalf of his father-in-law. An impeachment was voted againſt him by the commons, and Clarendon, finding that neither his innocence nor his paſt ſervices were ſufficient to protect him, withdrew to the continent, where he lived ſix years after his baniſhment was decreed; and there employed his leiſure in reducing to order the hiſtory of the civil war, for which he had before collected materials. This performance will for ever do honour to his memory.

A confederacy of great importance, which goes by the name of the *Triple Alliance*, was formed by Charles, ſoon after the fall of this great ſtateſman, as if to ſhow that he could ſtill ſupply his place. It was conducted by ſir William Temple, one of the great ornaments of Engliſh literature, who united the philoſopher and the ſtateſman, and was equally great in both. This alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden, to prevent the French king, Louis XIV. from completing his conqueſts in the Netherlands. That monarch had already ſubdued the greater part of that delightful country; when he was unexpectedly checked in the midſt of his career by this league, in which it was agreed by the contracting powers, that they would conſtitute themſelves arbiters of the differences between France and Spain, and put an end to a conteſt founded in ambition and injuſtice, and which had deluged the continent with human blood.

To this foreign confederacy ſucceeded one of a domeſtic nature, but which did not promiſe ſuch beneficial effects. The king had long been fluctuating between his pride and his pleaſures; the one urged him to extend his prerogative, the other to enjoy quietly the good things that fortune threw in his way. He was excited, by the active ſpirit of his brother, to riſe above humble ſolicitations to his parliament; but he was beſet by ſome evil counſellors, who adviſed him to aſſert his own independence. The principal of theſe were Clifford, Aſhley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, a junto diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the CABAL, a word containing the initial letters of their names. Never was there a more dangerous miniſtry in England, nor one more fitted to deſtroy the fabric which liberty had been eſtabliſhing for ages. Sir Thomas Clifford was a man of a daring and impetuous ſpirit, rendered more dangerous by eloquence and intrigue. Lord Aſhley, ſoon after made earl of Shafteſbury, was the moſt extraordinary man of his age; he had been a member of the long parliament, and had great influence among the preſbyterians; he was a favourite of Cromwell, and always changed his party as it ſuited his convenience. The duke of Buckingham was gay, capricious, of ſome wit, and great vivacity. Arlington was a man of ſubtle temper, but mean abilities. The duke of Lauderdale, who was not defective either in natural or acquired talents, was ambitious, obſtinate, inſolent, and ſullen. Theſe were the men to whom Charles gave up the conduct of his affairs, and who plunged the remaining part of his reign into difficulties, which produced many dangerous ſymptoms.

An unnatural alliance with France, and a rupture with Holland, were the firſt conſequences of their advice. The Engliſh and French combined fleets, commanded by the duke of York, and the mareſchal d'Etrées, ſoon after met the Dutch fleet, to the number of ninety ſail, commanded by admiral De Ruyter; and a furious battle enſued. In this engagement, the gallant lord Sandwich, who commanded the Engliſh van, drove his ſhip into the midſt of the enemy, beat off the admiral that ventured to attack him, ſunk another ſhip that attempted to board him, and ſunk three fire-ſhips that endeavoured to grapple with him. Though his veſſel was torn with ſhot, and out of a thouſand men there only remained four hundred, he ſtill continued to thunder in the midſt of the engagement. At laſt a fire-ſhip, more fatal than the former, having laid hold of his veſſel, her deſtruction was inevitable. Sandwich, however, refuſed to quit his ſhip, though warned by ſir Edward Haddock his captain; he periſhed in the flames, while the engagement continued to rage all around him. Night parted the combatants; the Dutch retired, and were not followed by the Engliſh. The loſs ſuſtained by the two maritime powers was nearly equal; but the French ſuffered very little, having kept aloof during the greater part of the engagement. It was even ſuppoſed that they had private orders to ſpare their own ſhips, while the Dutch and Engliſh weakened themſelves by their obſtinate fighting.

The combined powers were completely ſucceſsful againſt the Dutch by land. Louis conquered all before him, croſſed the Rhine, took all their frontier towns, and threatened the new republic with a final diſſolution. But the murmurs of the Engliſh, at ſeeing this brave and induſtrious people, the great ſupporters of the proteſtant cauſe, totally ſunk, and on the brink of deſtruction, were too loud not to impreſs the king. He was obliged to call a parliament, A. D. 1673, to take the ſenſe of the nation upon this event, as well as to obtain ſupplies for carrying on the war.

The king's late declaration of indulgence to all ſectaries was firſt taken into conſideration, and a remonſtrance drawn up againſt the exerciſe of the prerogative. The commons perſiſted in their oppoſition to it; and repreſented that ſuch a practice, if admitted, might tend to interrupt the free courſe of the laws, and alter the legiſlative power, which had always been acknowledged to reſide in the king and the two houſes. Charles, therefore, found himſelf obliged to retract his declaration; but, that he might do it with a better grace, he referred to the houſe of peers, who adviſed him to comply. The commons expreſſed the utmoſt ſatisfaction with this meaſure, and the moſt entire duty to the king. He, on his part, aſſured them, that he would willingly paſs any law which might tend to give them ſatisfaction in all their juſt grievances. A law now paſſed, entitled the Teſt Act, impoſing an oath on all who ſhould enjoy any public office. Beſides the taking the oaths of allegiance, and the king's ſupremacy, they were obliged to receive the ſacrament once a year in the eſtabliſhed church, and to abjure all belief in the doctrine of tranſubſtantiation. As the diſſenters had alſo ſeconded the efforts of the commons againſt the king's declaration for indulgence, a bill was paſſed for their eaſe and relief, which, however, went with ſome difficulty through the houſe of peers.

But ſtill the great object of their meeting remained to be inquired into; for the war againſt the Dutch went on with great animoſity. Several ſea-engagements had ſucceeded each other, without any deciſive action; both parties claiming the victory after every battle. The commons, therefore, weary of the war, and diſtruſtful even of ſucceſs, reſolved that the ſtanding army was a grievance. They next declared, that they would grant no more ſupplies to carry on the Dutch war, unleſs it appeared that the enemy refuſed reaſonable terms of peace. To cut ſhort theſe altercations, the king reſolved to prorogue the parliament; and, with that intention went unexpectedly to the houſe of peers, and ſent the uſher of the black rod to ſummon the houſe of commons to attend. It happened that the ſpeaker and the uſher met at the door of the houſe; but the ſpeaker being within, ſome of the members ſuddenly ſhut the door againſt the uſher, and cried, "To the chair!" Upon which the following motions were inſtantly made in a tumultuous manner: That the alliance with France was a grievance; that the evil counſellors of the king were a grievance; that the duke of Lauderdale was a grievance: and then the houſe roſe in great confuſion. The king now ſaw that he could expect no ſupply from the commons for carrying on the war; he reſolved, therefore, to make a ſeparate peace with the Dutch, on terms which

which they had propoſed through the channel of the Spaniſh ambaſſador. For form ſake, he aſked the advice of his parliament, who concurring heartily in the meaſure, a peace was ſoon concluded.

In the mean time, A. D. 1674, the war between the Dutch and the French went on with vigour. The Dutch forces were commanded by the prince of Orange, who was poſſeſſed of courage, activity, vigilance, and patience; but he was inferior in genius to thoſe conſummate generals, Condé, Turenne, &c. oppoſed to him. He was, therefore, always unſucceſsful; but ſtill found means to keep the field againſt his victorious enemies. Theſe ſtruggles for the preſervation of freedom intereſted the Engliſh ſtrongly in his favour; ſo that, from being his oppoſers, they now wiſhed to lend him aſſiſtance. They conſidered their alliance with France as tending to the ſubverſion of the proteſtant religion, and therefore ought to be abandoned. The commons therefore addreſſed the king, repreſenting the danger to which the kingdom was expoſed from the increaſing power of France; and they aſſured him, in caſe of a war, that they would not be backward in ſupplies. Charles was not diſpleaſed with the latter part of their addreſs, ſince money was ſo neceſſary to his voluptuous pleaſures. He therefore told them, that unleſs they granted him ſix hundred thouſand pounds, it would be impoſſible for him to equip an army fit to look the French in the face. The commons refuſed to furniſh the ſum; and the king reproved them for their diffidence, and immediately ordered them to adjourn. The marriage of the duke of York's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Mary, heir-apparent to the crown, with the prince of Orange A. D. 1677, was a meaſure that gave great ſatisfaction to the proteſtant intereſt in England. The negociation was brought about by the king's own deſire; and the proteſtants now ſaw a happy proſpect before them of a ſucceſſion that would be favourable to the reformation. A negociation for peace between the French and the Dutch was ſet on foot; but the mutual animoſities of theſe ſtates not being ſufficiently quelled, the war was continued for ſome time longer. The king, therefore, to ſatisfy his parliament, who declared loudly againſt the French, ſent over an army of three thouſand men, under the command of the duke of Monmouth, to ſecure Oſtend. A fleet alſo was fitted out, and a quadruple alliance was now projected between England, Holland, Spain, and the emperor. Theſe vigorous meaſures brought about the famous treaty of Nimeguen, A. D. 1678, which gave a general peace to Europe.

The bleſſings of peace, however, were tranſitory in this kingdom, by giving place to anarchy and religious perſecution. One Kirby, a chemiſt, informed the king, as he was walking in the park, that there was a deſign againſt his life; that two men, called Grove and Pickering, had engaged to ſhoot him; and ſir George Wakeman, the queen's phyſician, had undertook to poiſon him. This intelligence, he ſaid, came from Dr. Tongue, a divine, who, being examined, declared to the treaſurer, lord Danby, that the papers expoſing the conſpiracy, had been thruſt under his door. This wild and incoherent ſtory would probably have been conſigned to oblivion, had not the duke of York inſiſted on a regular enquiry being inſtituted. It was now found that Kirby and Tongue lived in ſtrict intimacy with a perſon named Titus Oates, who pretended to know more of the matter, and who judged it proper to give evidence before ſir Edmundſbury Godfrey, an active magiſtrate, in hopes that his declaration would obtain more notoriety, and entitle him to a greater reward. The intelligence of Oates tended to ſhew, that the pope, having aſſumed the ſovereignty of England and Ireland, on account of the hereſy of the prince and people, had delegated his authority to the jeſuits, whoſe general had ſupplied by commiſſions all the chief offices, both civil and military, appertaining to both kingdoms.

It would be abſurd to enter into all the details of this pretended plot; ſuffice it to ſay, that Oates the informer was one of the moſt infamous of mankind; and that, before the council, he betrayed his impoſtures in ſuch a manner, as would have diſcredited the moſt conſiſtent ſtory, and the moſt reputable evidence. Yet, notwithſtanding this, the plot very ſoon became the ſource of terror to the people; and Danby, out of oppoſition to the French intereſt, rather encouraged the impoſture; and by his ſuggeſtions one Coleman, who had been ſecretary to the late ducheſs of York, was implicated in this affair, and ordered to be arreſted. Among his papers were found ſome very free remarks relative to the ſentiments and principles of the king; and people taking this for a confirmation of the truth of Oates's ſtory, confounded a buſineſs, which had no relation to it, with a freſh idea of the conſpiracy. The murder of ſir Edmundſbury Godfrey, which never had been accounted for, completed the general deluſion, and rendered the prejudices of the nation abſolutely incurable. The funeral of this magiſtrate, who was found lying in a ditch near Primroſe-hill, with his ſword ſticking in his body, like the exhibition of Cæſar's wounds, ſerved to inflame the people againſt the catholics, who were ſuſpected to have been guilty of this atrocity in order to ſtifle evidence, to a degree of dangerous fury.

While the nation was in this ferment, the parliament was aſſembled. The king, in his ſpeech, ſcarcely adverted to the plot about which ſo much had been ſaid; but Danby, who courted popularity, laid open the matter to the houſe of peers. Charles, incenſed at his folly, obſerved, "Though you do not believe it, you will find that you have given the parliament a handle to ruin yourſelf, and to diſturb all my affairs: you will ſurely live to repent it." Danby had afterwards ſufficient reaſon to applaud the ſagacity of his maſter. The cry of the plot was echoed from one houſe to the other; a ſolemn faſt was voted; and addreſſes paſſed for the removal of the popiſh recuſants from London. Lords Powis, Straſford, Arundel, Peters, and Bellaſis, were impeached for high treaſon; and both houſes, after hearing the evidence of Oates, voted, "That the lords and commons are of opinion, that there hath been, and ſtill is, a damnable plot contrived and carried on by the popiſh recuſants, for aſſaſſinating the king, for ſubverting the conſtitution, and for rooting out and deſtroying the proteſtant religion."

Oates was applauded and careſſed, and encouraged by a penſion of twelve hundred pounds a-year. Such bounty called forth new witneſſes. William Bedloe, a man, if poſſible, more infamous than Oates, appeared next on the ſtage. At firſt he confined his intelligence to Godfrey's murder, which, he ſaid, had been perpetrated in Somerſet-houſe, where the queen lived, by the papiſts. He ſoon after enlarged his information, by accuſing ſeveral perſons of conſequence, of having joined in a popiſh plot; and, though he groſsly contradicted himſelf, the nation was determined to believe every thing he advanced. Charles ſaw the torrent was too ſtrong to be reſiſted. A bill had been brought into parliament for a new teſt, in which popery was denominated idolatry; and all the members of both houſes, who refuſed this teſt, were to be excluded. The duke of York, in the moſt pathetic manner, moved, that an exception might be admitted in his favour; proteſting, that whatever his religion might be, it ſhould only be a private thing between God and his own ſoul, and never ſhould appear in his public conduct. Notwithſtanding this appeal, he prevailed only by two voices. The ferment both in and out of parliament was ſoon increaſed by the treachery of Montague, who had been ambaſſador at Paris. He preſented to the houſe of commons, of which he was a member, a letter from the treaſurer Danby, counter-ſigned by the king, in which the moſt palpable proofs of Charles's diſgraceful intrigues with the French court were laid open. Danby was immediately impeached by the commons; but the peers refuſed to commit him; and the quarrel roſe to ſuch a height

height between the two houſes, that the king thought it adviſeable to diſſolve them.

The want of money compelled Charles to ſummon a new parliament, A. D. 1679; but being ſoon alarmed at their refractory diſpoſition, in order to appeaſe his people, he deſired the duke of York to withdraw beyond ſea, that no further ſuſpicion of popiſh counſels might remain. The duke readily complied, on obtaining an order for this purpoſe from the king, leſt it ſhould be ſuppoſed he fled from fear, and a promiſe that he would ſatisfy him, as well as the public, in regard to the illegitimacy of the duke of Monmouth, a natural ſon of the king's by Lucy Walters, and born about ten years before the reſtoration. This nobleman poſſeſſed all the qualities that could engage the affections of the people; and in proportion as the duke of York was the object of hatred on account of his religion, his nephew became more and more beloved; nor were there wanting officious friends, who encouraged him to hope that a contract of marriage had paſſed between the king and his mother, and that, in conſequence, he had ſtrong pretenſions to the crown. Charles, however, to put an end to all intrigues of this kind, as well as to remove the duke of York's apprehenſions, in full council made a declaration of Monmouth's illegitimacy, on which the duke of York cheerfully complied with the king's deſire, and retired to Bruſſels.

Parliament, however, ſtill choſe to be jealous and diſſatisfied. The impeachment of Danby was revived, and the king, in order to ſcreen his miniſter, granted him a full pardon; but it was pretended that no pardon of the crown could be pleaded in bar of an impeachment, and ſo reſolute was the parliament in ſupport of its pretenſions, that Danby was committed a cloſe priſoner to the Tower. To prevent a bill of excluſion againſt the duke his brother, which was projected, Charles concerted ſome limitations, which deprived the ſucceſſor, if a papiſt, of the chief branches of royalty; but theſe conceſſions were rejected by the influence of Shafteſbury, who had united himſelf to the popular party; and a bill was brought in, declaring that the ſovereignty of theſe kingdoms, upon the king's death or reſignation, ſhould devolve to the perſon next in ſucceſſion after the duke; and that all who ſupported his title ſhould be deemed rebels and traitors. This important bill paſſed the lower houſe by a majority of ſeventy-nine votes. At the ſame time the ſtanding army, and the king's guards, were voted by the commons to be illegal; and that bulwark of perſonal and national liberty, the habeas corpus act, which provided againſt arbitrary impriſonment, paſſed into a law the ſame ſeſſion.

Meanwhile the impeachment of the five catholic lords, and the earl of Danby, was carried on with vigour; but a diſpute ariſing between the two houſes about allowing the biſhops to vote on the trial of Danby, furniſhed the king with a pretext of diſſolving the parliament. This vigorous meaſure diſappointed all the projects of the malcontents; but even the receſs of parliament afforded no interruption to the proſecution of the catholics accuſed of the plot. On the moſt incoherent and doubtful evidence, Whitebread, provincial of the jeſuits, Fenwic, Gavan, Turner, and Harcourt, were condemned and executed; and it was not till the trial of ſir George Wakeman, the queen's phyſician, that the informers received a check. This gentleman was acquitted; and an indelible ſtain was fixed on Oates, Bedloe, and their abettors.

The diſcontents in England were communicated to Scotland; and an incident there rouſed the Scottiſh covenanters from their inactivity. A company of the latter had waylaid, with an intention to kill, one Carmichael, an officer of the archbiſhop of St. Andrew's, who had rendered himſelf obnoxious by his ſeverity. At the inſtant they were looking for their prey, the archbiſhop himſelf paſſed by in his coach; and, interpreting this incident as a declaration of the ſecret purpoſe of Providence againſt him, without further deliberation they dragged him from his coach, and piercing him with many wounds, left him dead on the ſpot, and diſperſed. This atrocious action gave riſe to a violent perſecution againſt the covenanters; who now, inflamed by oppreſſion, met to celebrate their worſhip with arms in their hands; and having gained ſome partial ſucceſſes, they made themſelves maſters of Glaſgow, diſpoſſeſſed the eſtabliſhed clergy, and iſſued proclamations, declaring that they fought againſt the king's ſupremacy, againſt popery and prelacy, and againſt a popiſh ſucceſſor. The king, apprehenſive of the conſequences of this inſurrection, diſpatched Monmouth into Scotland, with a ſmall body of Engliſh cavalry. That nobleman being joined by ſome native troops, marched with celerity againſt the enemy, who had taken poſt near Bothwell-caſtle. Their numbers never exceeded eight thouſand, and being without officers and experience, they were ſpeedily routed, with the loſs of ſeven hundred killed, and twelve hundred taken priſoners. Monmouth treated theſe with great humanity, and an act of indemnity was ſoon after paſſed.

When theſe popular diſcontents had ſpent themſelves, Charles, by his amiable manners and addreſs, found means to ſtrengthen his party; and happening to fall ill at Windſor, ſuch an affectionate regard was ſhewn him, that, to uſe an expreſſion of ſir William Temple, "the king's death was regarded as the end of the world." The duke of York had been privately ſent for; but when he arrived, the king was out of danger. The journey, however, was attended with important conſequences. He prevailed on the king to diſgrace Monmouth, whoſe machinations were now known and avowed; and he obtained leave himſelf to retire into Scotland, on pretence of quieting the apprehenſions of the Engliſh, but in reality with a view of ſecuring his intereſt in that kingdom. About this time, alſo, ſeveral new changes took place in the cabinet; for the king was equally unſteady with regard to men and meaſures. Hyde, Sunderland, and Godolphin, ſeemed at preſent to poſſeſs his chief confidence.

From the encouragement which had been given to informers, the nation had got into a vein of credulity; and one Dangerfield, a fellow of infamous character, was the author of a new plot, called the *meal-tub plot*, from the place in which ſome papers relative to it were found. This affair is equally as myſterious as thoſe which preceded it. It only appears, that Dangerfield, under pretence of betraying the conſpiracies of the preſbyterians, had been countenanced by ſome catholics of condition, and had even gained admiſſion to the duke of York. Which ſide he originally intended to cheat is uncertain; but, finding the nation more inclined to believe in a popiſh than a preſbyterian plot, he fell in with the prevailing humour. The duke of Monmouth, juſt then returning without leave, ſerved to renew the fermentation. The crown was now, A.D. 1680, attacked by tumultuous petitions: thoſe who ſupported the throne were called *abhorrers*, from expreſſing their deepeſt *abhorrence* of popular encroachments; and the oppoſite party was denominated *petitioners*. This is the epoch too of the epithets, *whig* and *tory*. The court party reproached their antagoniſts with reſembling the fanatical conventiclers in Scotland, who had obtained the appellation of *whigs*; and the country party, on the other hand, found a reſemblance between the courtiers and the popiſh banditti in Ireland, to whom the term of *tory* was affixed. Hence the origin of thoſe two proſtituted words.

Charles finding the nation inveterate againſt popery, affected great zeal the ſame way; but his artifice did not wholly ſucceed. The city of London took the lead, in oppoſition to the court; and Shafteſbury, who by turns was a whig and a tory, as it beſt ſuited his views, appearing in Weſtminſter hall, attended by ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, preſented to the grand jury of Middleſex reaſons for indicting the duke of York as a popiſh recuſant. This buſineſs, however, was quaſhed; but Shafteſbury obtained the end for which he had undertaken this bold meaſure: he proved to his followers that there

could be no future accommodation or compoſition with the duke, after ſuch a ſtep. Theſe proceedings determined the king to aſſemble the parliament. In his ſpeech he ſtrongly urged the advantages of unanimity; and concluded with an aſſurance, that if any diſputes aroſe, the world ſhould have no reaſon to ſay that the fault was with him. All theſe mollifying expreſſions had no effect on the commons, who proceeded in their former career, and ſeemed bent on renewing the bill for excluding the duke of York from the ſucceſſion; while a party hoped by this ſtep to advance the intereſt of the duke of Monmouth. But Charles was determined to preſerve the right of ſucceſſion inviolable; and though the bill had paſſed the commons by a great majority, the influence of the court being exerted in the houſe of peers againſt it, the courtiers prevailed, after a long and violent debate; and it was thrown out.

Fruſtrated in their object, the commons vented their ſpleen, by reſuming the proſecution againſt the catholics. The impeachments began with that of viſcount Staffordſ, who, from age and infirmities, being leaſt able to defend himſelf, became the firſt victim. In his laſt moments he proteſted, that the only treaſon of which he had ever been guilty, had been entering into ſchemes for procuring a mitigation of the penal laws againſt his religion. The populace, who had exulted at his trial and condemnation, were melted into tears at the fortitude he diſplayed on the ſcaffold. This was the laſt blood they ſhamefully ſpilt on account of religion; but the commons ſtill found new occaſions to exerciſe their talents againſt the court. The king, ſeeing that no conceſſions, ſhort of giving his aſſent to the excluſion bill, would ſatisfy them, came to a reſolution of proroguing the parliament; but the houſe, having got intelligence of his deſign a few minutes before it was put in execution, in the moſt tumultuous manner paſſed a ſtring of votes, which vitally attacked the legal and undoubted prerogatives of a king of England.

Soon after this ſeſſion was cloſed, Charles ſummoned a new parliament; and in order to avoid thoſe tumults which attended their aſſembling at Weſtminſter, he directed them to meet at Oxford. Againſt this, Monmouth and fifteen peers proteſted, on the pretence that the perſons of the members would be in danger there, from the papiſts and their adherents. Theſe inſinuations inflamed the people ſtill more; and the aſſembly at Oxford, from the number of ſervants and retainers which each of the popular leaders brought with him, reſembled more a military congreſs than an Engliſh parliament. The commons, conſiſting nearly of the ſame individuals as before, fell inſtantly into the ſame meaſures. The impeachment of Danby, the perſecution of the catholics, and the bill of excluſion, were renewed with greater acrimony than ever. So violent were they on this laſt article, that no expedient, however plauſible, would ſatisfy them. One of the king's miniſters had even propoſed that the duke ſhould be baniſhed five hundred miles from England, and, on the king's demiſe, the next heir ſhould be conſtituted regent with regal power; but, though this would have left the duke of York the bare title of a king, it failed to ſatisfy the oppoſition. Charles, ſeeing it impoſſible to manage the parliament without ſacrificing his brother, now reſolved to depend on economy and retrenchments, inſtead of aſking for freſh ſupplies.

The wiſdom and moderation of the duke of Ormond had for ſome years kept Ireland in tranquillity; but England and Scotland were ſtill agitated to the centre. The tools that had been employed by Shafteſbury, now turned againſt him; and he was accuſed by Tuberville and others of high treaſon. The draught of an aſſociation againſt popery and the duke was found in his cabinet; and dangerous inferences might be drawn from many clauſes of that paper; but it did not appear that Shafteſbury either framed it, or approved of it. The grand jury, therefore, weighing all circumſtances, rejected the indictment; and the populace were loud in their expreſſions of joy at his deliverance. In Scotland, however, a nobleman, far leſs obnoxious, became the victim of oppreſſion. The earl of Argyle, who, from his youth, had been diſtinguiſhed for his loyalty, and had met with ſeveral marks of the king's favour, being called upon to take the teſt which aſſerted the king's ſupremacy, added, "as far as it is conſiſtent with itſelf, and the proteſtant religion." For this ſalvo, a warrant was iſſued for committing him to priſon; and, innocent as the words were, for them he was condemned for high treaſon, leaſing-making, and perjury. The execution of the ſentence, however, was ſuſpended; but all his eſtates were confiſcated, and with difficulty he eſcaped to the continent with his life.

As Charles, A. D. 1682, was determined to do without a parliament, he no longer dreaded the clamours of the country party; and permitted his brother to pay him a viſit in England. The ſhip in which the duke embarked with his family and attendants from Scotland, having ſtruck on a ſand bank, was loſt; but he eſcaped, with a few of his party, in the barge. The king now began to manifeſt his love of arbitrary authority. By an unwarrantable ſtretch of power, two ſheriffs were choſen in the city of London, on account of their devotion to the court; but, as the conteſt might be renewed annually, Charles determined to make himſelf maſter at once, not only of the city, but of all the corporations in England. A writ of *quo warranto* was iſſued, and the charter of London revoked, on account of ſome irregularities in its proceedings ſeveral years before; and ſentence of forfeiture of all their immunities was pronounced againſt the citizens. The king, on petition, however, agreed to reſtore the charter; but, in return, they were obliged to ſubmit to the ſubſequent regulations: That no mayor, ſheriff, recorder, common ſergeant, town clerk, or coroner, ſhould be admitted to the exerciſe of his office, without his majeſty's approbation: that if the king diſapprove twice of the mayor or ſheriffs elected, he may, by commiſſion, appoint thoſe magiſtrates himſelf: that the mayor and court of aldermen may, with his majeſty's leave, diſplace any magiſtrate: and that an alderman, in caſe of a vacancy, ſhall be elected without the conſent of the court of aldermen, who, if they diſapprove twice of the choice, may fill the vacancy. All the corporations in England, from this precedent, ſaw how ineffectual it would be to contend; and therefore moſt of them were induced to ſurrender their charters into the king's hands, A. D. 1683. Conſiderable ſums were exacted for reſtoring the charters; and all offices of power or profit, by the reſtrictions introduced, were now left at the diſpoſal of the crown. This was one of the moſt violent infractions of liberty that had ever taken place; and will remain an everlaſting monument of the arbitrary principles of Charles II. Moſt of the charters then re-granted ſtill remain in force.

At this juncture, however, a plan of reſiſtance was ſeriouſly ſet on foot. The duke of Monmouth, lord Ruſſel, and lord Gray, ſolicited not only the capital, but the nobility and gentry of ſeveral counties, to riſe in arms, and oppoſe the ſucceſſion of the duke of York. The whole train was ready to take fire; but was prevented by the caution of lord Ruſſel, who, in oppoſition to Shafteſbury, the prime mover, induced Monmouth to delay the enterpriſe. Shafteſbury could ill brook timid counſels; and, deſpairing of ſucceſs, withdrew to Holland, where he ſoon after paid the debt of nature, little regretted by his friends, or noticed by his enemies. At laſt, a regular project of inſurrection was formed. The council conſiſted of Monmouth, Ruſſel, Eſſex, Howard, Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandſon to the great parliamentary leader. Theſe men had entered into a negociation with Argyle and the Scottiſh malcontents, who engaged to bring the covenanters into the field. The conſpirators, however, differed widely in their views. Sid-

ney and Eſſex were for a republic; Monmouth had a deſign on the crown for himſelf; and Ruſſel and Hampden, attached to the ancient conſtitution, wiſhed only a redreſs of grievances, and the excluſion of the catholic duke of York from the ſucceſſion. Howard was a man ready to embrace any principle; but, diſcordant as they ſeemed in their aims, all united in a common hatred againſt the heir apparent.

While theſe ſchemes were concerting among the leaders, an inferior plot was carried on by a number of conſpirators, none of whom had any acceſs to Monmouth and the cabal of ſix, except colonel Rumſey, an old republican officer, and a perſon of the name of Ferguſon. Theſe perſons indulged in the moſt criminal diſcourſe; and, among other plans, propoſed to aſſaſſinate Charles in his way from Newmarket; but the houſe in which the king lived there, happening to take fire, obliged him to leave that place earlier than he intended; and thus the execution of the deſign was prevented. At length, Keiling, one of the conſpirators, being under a criminal proſecution, in hopes of ſaving his life betrayed his aſſociates to ſecretary Jenkins. Search being made after the conſpirators, colonel Rumſey, and Weſt, a lawyer, finding the dangers to which they were expoſed, ſurrendered themſelves, and turned evidence. The links of the conſpiracy were now traced to the nobles, who had engaged in a different ſcheme: Monmouth abſconded; Ruſſel was ſent to the Tower; Gray was arreſted, but eſcaped; and Howard, a profligate man, being taken, in hopes of pardon and reward revealed the whole plot. Eſſex, Sidney, and Hampden, were immediately apprehended; and ſome of the inferior conſpirators, being convicted, paid the forfeit of their lives.

The trial of lord Ruſſel, a nobleman illuſtrious for his virtues, and highly popular, now commenced, againſt whom Rumſey, Sheppard, and lord Howard, appeared. It was proved that an inſurrection had been reſolved on, and the ſurpriſal of the king's guards taken into conſideration by the priſoner: but ſtill with regard to law, there remained an important difficulty. By an act paſſed after the reſtoration, it was indeed declared treaſon to conſult on a rebellion during Charles's life-time; but then it was required, that proſecution ſhould be commenced within ſix months of the commiſſion of the crime. The facts ſworn to by Rumſey and Sheppard were beyond that period; and to the other circumſtances, Howard was the only witneſs, though the law of Edward III. provided, that there ſhould be two in trials for treaſon. Ruſſel perceived this irregularity, and deſired to have the point argued by counſel; but the artificial confounding of two ſpecies of treaſon prevented him from gaining any thing by this plea. His veracity would not allow him to deny the conſpiracy for an inſurrection; but he ſolemnly proteſted that he had never entertained any deſign againſt the life of the king. The jury, however, brought him in guilty. The ſtrongeſt applications, with the moſt liberal offers of money to court favourites, were made by his father, the earl of Bedford, to ſave his life; but the king was inexorable.

Lady Ruſſel, daughter and heir of the earl of Southampton, a woman of the moſt exalted character, threw herſelf at the king's feet, and pleaded the ſervices of her father as an atonement for the error of her huſband. Her tears and entreaties too being neglected, ſhe ſummoned up all the fortitude of her ſoul, and even endeavoured by her example to ſtrengthen the reſolution of her unfortunate lord. With a tender and decent compoſure, they took leave of each other on the day of his execution. "The bitterneſs of death is now paſt," ſaid he, as he turned from her. Lord Cavendiſh, who was ſtrongly attached to Ruſſel, deſerted not his friend on this trying occaſion; he even offered to manage his eſcape by changing clothes with him, and running all hazards in his place. Monmouth too, by a meſſage, declared his readineſs to ſurrender himſelf, if that was likely to avail his unfortunate aſſociate. "It will be no advantage to me (ſaid Ruſſel) to have my friends die with me." To the laſt, he maintained the ſame dignified deportment—the ſame equanimity and mild compoſure which had diſtinguiſhed him through life; and, as he was the moſt popular among his own party, and moſt admired for his virtues even by the oppoſite faction, his melancholy fate united every heart ſenſible of humanity, in a tear of tender compaſſion for him.

Sir Algernon Sidney was next brought to trial. He had been deeply implicated in the civil wars; but a republic was his idol, and a king or a protector was equally the object of his averſion. Charles, however, had pardoned him for the part he took againſt his father; but now, having engaged in a new conſpiracy, he was condemned to die, perhaps not unjuſtly, but certainly illegally. Howard was again the only witneſs againſt him; but, as the law required two, a ſingular expedient was found to ſupply the deficiency. Among the priſoner's papers were found ſome diſcourſes on government, in which he maintained principles favourable indeed to liberty, but ſuch as could not have infringed any poſitive law, even had they been publiſhed. Theſe papers, however, were ſaid to be equivalent to a ſecond witneſs; and the violent and inhuman judge Jefferies eaſily prevailed on a prejudiced jury to give a verdict againſt Sidney. He died glorying in the "good old cauſe," in which, from his youth, he ſaid, he had enliſted himſelf.

As not even the ſhadow of a ſecond witneſs could be found againſt Hampden, he was only indicted for a miſdemeanour, and the exorbitant fine of forty thouſand pounds impoſed on him. On the day that lord Ruſſel was tried, Eſſex, a man eminent for virtue and abilities, was found in the Tower with his throat cut. Whether he fell by his own hands, or otherwiſe, has never been clearly aſcertained.

On the detection of this conſpiracy, A. D. 1684, loyal addreſſes arrived from all parts of the kingdom; and, in order to increaſe his preſent popularity, Charles judged it proper to give his niece, the lady Anne, in marriage to prince George of Denmark. But though Charles had thus recovered his former popularity, and was enabled to govern without a parliament, it is certain he was neither happy nor ſatisfied. The violent temper of the duke gave him conſtant apprehenſion and uneaſineſs. In oppoſing ſome of the duke's raſh counſels, he was heard one day to ſay, "Brother, I am too old to go again on my travels: you may, if you chooſe it."

It was evident the king had ſome important changes in contemplation; and it was ſtrongly believed that he intended to ſend the duke of York back to Scotland, to recal Monmouth, to aſſemble his parliament, and to diſmiſs his obnoxious miniſters; but amidſt theſe wiſe and virtuous deſigns, he was ſeized with an apoplectic fit, and after languiſhing a few days, he expired, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Having always enjoyed a good conſtitution, his death begat the ſuſpicion of poiſon; but there does not appear to be any juſt grounds for ſuch a charge. On his death-bed, he ſhewed a total indifference to the devotions and exhortations of the clergy of the eſtabliſhed church, but readily received the ſacrament from the hands of catholic prieſts, and certainly died in the communion of Rome, though he appears to have ſupported the moſt voluptuous court in Europe, with little ſenſe of any religion whatever.

The character of Charles II. like the tranſactions of his reign, has aſſumed various appearances, in proportion to the paſſions and prejudices of different writers. To affirm that he was a great and good king, would be as unjuſt as to allege that he was deſtitute of all virtue, and a bloody and inhuman tyrant. The indolence of his diſpoſition, and the diſſipation occaſioned by his pleaſures, as they were at firſt the ſource of his misfortunes, became afterwards the ſafety of the nation. Had he joined the ambition

ambition of power, and the perſeverance and attention of his brother, to his own inſinuating and engaging addreſs, he might have ſecured his reputation with writers, by enſlaving them with the nation. In his perſon he was tall, and well made. His complexion was dark, the lines of his face ſtrong and harſh, when ſingly traced: but when his features were comprehended in one view, they appeared dignified and even pleaſing. In the motions of his perſon he was eaſy, graceful, and firm. His conſtitution was ſtrong, and communicated an active vigour to all his limbs. Though a lover of eaſe of mind, he was fond of bodily exercife. He roſe early, he walked much, he mixed with the meaneſt of his ſubjects, and joined in their converſation, without diminiſhing his own dignity, or raiſing their preſumption. He was acquainted with many perſons in the lower ſtations of life. He captivated them with ſprightly terms of humour, and with a kind of good-natured wit, which rendered them pleaſed with themſelves. His guards only attended him on public occaſions. He took the air frequently in company with a ſingle friend; and though crowds followed him, it was more from a wiſh to attract his notice, than from an idle curioſity. When evident deſigns againſt his life were daily exhibited before the courts of juſtice, he changed not his manner of appearing in public. It was ſoon after the Rye-houſe plot was diſcovered, he is ſaid to have been ſevere on his brother's character, when he exhibited a ſtriking feature of his own. The duke returning from hunting with his guards, found the king one day in Hyde Park. He expreſſed his ſurpriſe how his majeſty could venture his perſon alone at ſuch a perilous time. "James, (replied the king,) take you care of yourſelf, and I am ſafe. No man in England will kill me, to make you king."

When he was oppoſed with moſt violence in parliament, he continued the moſt popular man in the kingdom. His good-breeding, as a gentleman, overcame the opinion conceived of his faults as a king. His affability, his eaſy addreſs, his attention to the very prejudices of his people, rendered him independent of all the arts of his enemies to inflame the vulgar. He is ſaid, with reaſon, to have died opportunely for his country. Had his life extended to the number of years which the ſtrength of his conſtitution ſeemed to promiſe, the nation would have loſt all memory of their liberties; for the reſolution he finally made of conducting the government without the aid of parliament, was nothing leſs than to ſap the foundation of the conſtitution, which he had ſo ſacredly bound himſelf to maintain.

Charles II. had no iſſue by his queen; but his illegitimate offſpring was numerous. At the head of theſe was the duke of Monmouth, who made an unſucceſsful effort for the crown.

The duke of York, notwithſtanding all the ſtruggles of the whig party to prevent his ſucceſſion, aſcended the throne of his brother, A. D. 1685, by the title of king James II. His reign began with acts of imprudence. All the cuſtoms, and the greater part of the exciſe, that had been voted to the late king for his life only, were levied by James, without a new act for that purpoſe. He likewiſe went openly to maſs with all the enſigns of his dignity, and diſpatched Caryl to Rome, to make ſubmiſſions to the pope, and to pave the way for the re-admiſſion of England into the boſom of the catholic church. He had, long before the beginning of his reign, had an intrigue with Mrs. Sedley, whom he afterwards created counteſs of Dorcheſter; but being now told that, as he was to convert his people, the ſanctity of his manners ought to correſpond with his profeſſions, Mrs. Sedley was diſcarded, and he reſigned himſelf to the advice of the queen, who was as much governed by prieſts as himſelf. One day, when the Spaniſh ambaſſador ventured to adviſe his majeſty againſt placing too much confidence in ſuch kind of people,—"Is it not the cuſtom in Spain (ſaid James) for the king to conſult with his confeſſor?" "Yes (anſwered the ambaſſador), and that is the reaſon our affairs ſucceed ſo very ill." His firſt parliament, which was moſtly compoſed of zealous tories, were ſtrongly biaſſed to comply with the meaſures of the crown. They voted unanimouſly that they would ſettle on the preſent king, all the revenue enjoyed by his father. For this favour, James aſſured them of his reſolution to ſecure them in the full enjoyment of their laws; but no anſwer could be extorted from him with regard to the eſtabliſhed religion, he having always declared himſelf a catholic.

To pave the way for his intended converſion of the kingdom, it was neceſſary to undeceive the people with regard to the late rumour of a popiſh plot; and Oates, the contriver, was the firſt object of royal indignation. He was tried and convicted of perjury on two indictments. His ſentence was to pay a fine of two thouſand marks; to be whipped, on two different days, from Aldgate to Newgate, and from Newgate to Tyburn; to be impriſoned during life, and to be pillored five times every year. Oates, long accuſtomed to a life of infamy and ſtruggle, ſupported himſelf under every puniſhment that juſtice could inflict. Though the whipping was ſo cruel, that it appeared evidently the intention of the court to put him to death by that dreadful puniſhment, yet he ſurvived it all, and lived to king William's reign, when he had a ſettled penſion of four hundred pounds a year. Thus the memory of Oates caſts a ſtain upon the times in every part of his conduct. It is a ſtain that he was firſt believed—it is a ſtain that he was careſſed—that he was tyrannically puniſhed—and that he was afterwards rewarded for his infamy.

The duke of Monmouth, after the late conſpiracy, had retired to Holland. Being diſmiſſed from thence by the prince of Orange upon James's acceſſion, he went to Bruſſels, where, finding himſelf ſtill purſued by the king's ſeverity, he reſolved to retaliate, and make an attempt upon the kingdom. He had ever been regarded by the people; and ſome averred that Charles had married his mother, and owned Monmouth's legitimacy at his death. The duke of Argyle ſeconded his views in Scotland, and they formed the ſcheme of a double inſurrection; ſo that, while Monmouth ſhould attempt to make a ſtand in the weſt, Argyle was to try his ſtrength in the north. Argyle was the firſt who publiſhed his manifeſtoes, put himſelf at the head of two thouſand five hundred men, and ſtrove to influence the Scottiſh people in his cauſe. But a formidable body of the king's forces coming againſt him, his army fell away, and he himſelf, after being wounded in attempting to eſcape, was taken priſoner by a peaſant, who found him ſtanding up to his neck in a pool of water. He was from thence carried to Edinburgh, where, after enduring many indignities with a noble ſpirit, he was publicly executed. The fate of Argyle was but poor encouragement to the unfortunate Monmouth, who was by this time landed in Dorſetſhire, with ſcarcely a hundred followers. His name, however, was ſo popular, and ſo great was the hatred of the people both for the perſon and religion of James, that in four days he aſſembled a body of above two thouſand men. They were indeed all of them the loweſt of the people; and his declarations were ſuited entirely to their prejudices. He called the king the duke of York, and denominated him a traitor, a tyrant, a murderer, and a popiſh uſurper. He imputed to him the fire of London, the murder of Godfrey and Eſſex, and even the poiſoning the late king.

The parliament was no ſooner informed of Monmouth's landing, than they preſented an addreſs to the king, aſſuring him of their loyalty, zeal, and aſſiſtance. The duke of Albemarle, raiſing a body of four thouſand militia, advanced to block him up in Lyme; but finding his ſoldiers diſaffected to the king, he retreated with precipitation. In the mean time, the duke of Monmouth advanced to Taunton, where he was reinforced by conſiderable numbers. Twenty young maids of ſome rank preſented

preſented him with a pair of colours, accompanied with a copy of the Bible. There he aſſumed the title of king, and was proclaimed with great ſolemnity. His numbers had now increaſed to ſix thouſand men; and he was obliged every day, for want of arms, to diſmiſs many of thoſe who crowded to his ſtandard. He entered Bridgewater, Wells, and Frome, and was proclaimed in all thoſe places; but he loſt the ſeaſon of action, by receiving and claiming theſe empty honours.

The king was not a little alarmed at his invaſion; but ſtill more at the ſucceſs which appeared to attend him. Six regiments of Britiſh troops were called over from Holland, and a body of regulars, to the number of three thouſand men, were ſent, under the command of the earl of Feverſham, to check the progreſs of the rebels. They took poſt at Sedgemore, a village in the neighbourhood of Bridgewater, and were joined by the militia of the country in conſiderable numbers. It was there that Monmouth reſolved, by a deſperate effort, to loſe his life, or gain the kingdom. The negligent diſpoſition made by Feverſham invited him to the attack; and his faithful followers ſhewed what courage and principle could do againſt diſcipline and ſuperior numbers. They drove the royal infantry from their ground, and were upon the point of gaining the victory, when the miſconduct of Monmouth, and the cowardice of lord Gray, who commanded the horſe, brought all to ruin. This nobleman fled ſoon after the firſt onſet; and the rebels, being charged in flank by the king's army, gave way, after three hours' conteſt. About three hundred were killed in the engagement, and a thouſand in the purſuit; and thus ended an enterpriſe raſhly begun, and indolently conducted.

Monmouth rode from the field of battle till his horſe ſunk under him; he then exchanged clothes with a ſhepherd, fled on foot, attended by a German count, who had accompanied him from Holland. Being quite exhauſted with hunger and fatigue, they both lay down in a field, and covered themſelves with fern. The ſhepherd being found in Monmouth's clothes by the purſuers, increaſed the diligence of the ſearch: and, by the means of blood-hounds, he was traced to his miſerable ſituation, with raw peaſe in his pocket, which he had gathered in the fields to ſuſtain life. He burſt into tears when ſeized by his enemies, and petitioned, with abject ſubmiſſion, for life. He wrote the moſt ſubmiſſive letters to the king; and that monarch, willing to feaſt his eyes with the miſeries of a fallen enemy, gave him audience. At this interview the duke fell upon his knees, and begged his life in the moſt pathetic terms. He even ſigned a paper, offered him by the king, declaring his own illegitimacy; and then the ſtern tyrant aſſured him, that his crime was of ſuch a nature as could not be pardoned. The duke, perceiving that he had nothing to hope from the clemency of his uncle, recollected his ſpirits, roſe up, and retired with an air of diſdain. He was followed to the ſcaffold with great compaſſion from the populace. He warned the executioner not to fall into the ſame error which he had committed in beheading lord Ruſſel, where it had been neceſſary to redouble the blow. But this only increaſed the ſeverity of his puniſhment; the man was ſeized with an univerſal trepidation, and he ſtruck a feeble blow; upon which the duke raiſed his head from the block, as if to reproach him: he gently laid down his head a ſecond time, and the executioner ſtruck again and again to no purpoſe. He at laſt threw down the axe; but the ſheriff compelled him to reſume the attempt, and at two blows more the head was ſevered from the body. Such was the unfortunate end of James duke of Monmouth. He was brave, ſincere, and good-natured, open to flattery, and conſequently ſeduced into an enterpriſe which exceeded his capacity.

But it had been well for the cauſe of humanity, if the blood thus ſhed had been thought a ſufficient expiation for the late offence. The victorious army behaved with the moſt ſavage cruelty to the priſoners taken after the battle. Feverſham immediately hung up above twenty priſoners; and was proceeding in his executions, when the biſhop of Bath and Wells warned him that theſe unhappy men were by law entitled to a trial, and that their execution would be deemed a real murder. Nineteen were put to death in the ſame manner at Bridgewater, by colonel Kirke, a man of a ſavage and bloody diſpoſition. This vile fellow, practiſed in the arts of ſlaughter at Tangier, where he ſerved in garriſon, took a pleaſure in committing every kind of wanton barbarity. He ordered a certain number of the priſoners to be put to death, while he and his company were drinking the king's health. Obſerving their feet to ſhake in the agonies of death, he cried that they ſhould have muſic to their dancing, and ordered the trumpets to ſound. He ravaged the whole country, without making any diſtinction between friend or foe. His own regiment, for their peculiar barbarity, went by the name of Kirke's Lambs. A ſtory is told of his offering a young woman the life of her brother, in caſe ſhe conſented to his deſires, which, when ſhe had done, he took her to the window, and ſhewed her her brother hanging!

Yet theſe infamous ſeverities of the military were trivial, when compared with the ſlaughters committed by judge Jefferies, who was ſent down to try the delinquents. The natural brutality of this man's temper was inflamed by continual intoxication. He told the priſoners, that if they would ſave him the trouble of trying them, they might expect ſome favour, otherwiſe he would execute the law upon them with the utmoſt ſeverity. Many poor wretches were thus allured into a confeſſion, and found that it only haſtened their deſtruction. No leſs than eighty were executed at Dorcheſter; and, on the whole, at Exeter, Taunton, and Wells, two hundred and fifty-one are computed to have fallen by the hand of this inhuman judge. Women were not exempted from the general ſeverity, but ſuffered for harbouring their neareſt kindred. Lady Liſle, though the widow of a regicide, was herſelf a loyaliſt. She was apprehended for having ſheltered in her houſe two fugitives from the battle of Sedgemore. She proved that ſhe was ignorant of their crime when ſhe had given them protection, and the jury ſeemed inclined to compaſſion: they twice brought in a favourable verdict; but they were as often ſent back by Jefferies, with menaces and reproaches, and at laſt were conſtrained to give a verdict againſt the priſoner. But the fate of Mrs. Gaunt was ſtill more terrible. Mrs. Gaunt was noted for her beneficence, which ſhe had extended to perſons of all profeſſions and perſuaſions. One of the rebels, knowing her humane character, had recourſe to her in his diſtreſs, and was concealed by her. The abandoned villain, hearing that a reward and indemnity was offered to ſuch as informed againſt criminals, came in, and betrayed his protectreſs. His evidence was inconteſtable; the proofs were ſtrong againſt her; he was pardoned for his treachery, and ſhe burned alive for her benevolence! Jefferies, on his return from this bloody inquiſition, was created a peer, and inveſted with the dignity of chancellor.

The next ſtep, A. D. 1686, was to ſecure a catholic intereſt in the privy council. Accordingly, four catholic lords were admitted; Powis, Arundel, Bellaſis, and Dover. The king made no ſecret of his deſires to have his courtiers converted to his own religion. In theſe ſchemes, James was entirely governed by the counſels of the queen and of his confeſſor, father Peters, a jeſuit, whom he created a privy-counſeller. Even in Ireland, where the duke of Ormond had long ſupported the royal cauſe, this nobleman was diſplaced, as being a proteſtant; and lord Tyrconnel, a violent Roman-catholic, was appointed in his ſtead. The king, in his zeal to convert his ſubjects, ſtooped ſo low as to aſk colonel Kirke; but this daring ſoldier told him that he was pre-engaged; for he had promiſed the king of Morocco, when he was quartered at Tangiers, that, if he ever changed his religion, he would turn Mahometan.

It

It could not be expected that the favour thus ſhewn by James to the catholics, would be tamely borne by the members of the Engliſh church. Among thoſe who firſt came forward on this occaſion, was Dr. Sharpe, a clergyman of London, who declaimed with great ſeverity againſt thoſe who had changed their religion for the ſake of earthly preferment. This, being ſuppoſed to reflect upon the king, gave great offence at court; and poſitive orders were given to the biſhop of London to ſuſpend Sharpe, till his majeſty's pleaſure ſhould be further known. The biſhop refuſed to comply; and the king reſolved to puniſh him for diſobedience. To effect his purpoſe, he determined to revive the high-commiſſion court, which had given the nation ſo much diſguſt in the times of his father, and which had been for ever aboliſhed by act of parliament. But this was no obſtacle to James. An eccleſiaſtical commiſſion was iſſued, by which ſeven commiſſioners were inveſted with an unlimited authority over the whole church of England. Before this tribunal, the biſhop and Sharpe being ſummoned, they were both ſuſpended.

Theſe ſevere meaſures had ſufficiently diſguſted every part of the Britiſh empire; but to complete the work, James now ſent the earl of Caſtlemain ambaſſador-extraordinary to Rome, to expreſs his obedience to the pope, and to reconcile his kingdoms to the catholic communion. This failed not to add to the general diſcontent; and the people ſuppoſed that he could never be ſo raſh as, contrary to expreſs act of parliament, to admit of a communication with the pope. But what was their ſurpriſe, when they ſaw the nuncio make his public and ſolemn entry into Windſor: and becauſe the duke of Somerſet refuſed to attend the ceremony, he was diſmiſſed from his employment of one of the lords of the bedchamber. The jeſuits were now permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom; they exerciſed the catholic worſhip in the moſt public manner; and four catholic biſhops, conſecrated in the king's chapel, were ſent through the kingdom to exerciſe their epiſcopal functions, under the title of apoſtolic vicars. The monks appeared at court in the habits of their orders, and a great number of prieſts and friars arrived in England. Every great office the crown had to beſtow was gradually transferred from the proteſtants; Rocheſter and Clarendon, the king's brothers in law, though they had been for ever faithful to his intereſts, were, becauſe proteſtants, diſmiſſed from their employments. Nothing now remained but to open the doors of the church and the univerſities to the intruſion of the catholics, and this effort was ſoon after begun.

Father Francis, a Benedictine monk, was recommended by the king to the univerſity of Cambridge, for the degree of maſter of arts. But his religion was a ſtumbling-block which the univerſity could not get over; and they preſented a petition, beſeeching the king to recal his mandate. Their petition was diſregarded, their deputies denied a hearing: the vice-chancellor himſelf was ſummoned to appear before the high-commiſſion court, and deprived of his office; yet the univerſity perſiſted, and father Francis was refuſed. The king, thus foiled, thought proper at that time to drop his pretenſions; but he carried on his attempts upon the univerſity of Oxford with ſtill greater vigour. The place of preſident of Magdalen-college, one of the richeſt foundations in Europe, being vacant, the king ſent a mandate in favour of one Farmer, a new convert, and a man of a bad character in other reſpects. The fellows of the college made very ſubmiſſive applications to the king for recalling his mandate; but before they received an anſwer, the day came on which, by their ſtatutes, they were required to proceed to an election. They therefore choſe doctor Hough, a man of learning, integrity, and reſolution. The king was incenſed at their preſumption; and, in order to puniſh them, an inferior eccleſiaſtical court was ſent down, who, finding Farmer a man of ſcandalous character, iſſued a mandate for a new election. The perſon now recommended by the king was doctor Parker, lately created biſhop of Oxford, for his willingneſs to embrace the catholic religion. The fellows refuſed to comply with this injunction; which ſo incenſed the king, that he went in perſon to Oxford, and ordered the fellows to be brought before him. He reproached them with their inſolence and diſobedience in the moſt imperious terms; and commanded them to chooſe Parker without delay. Another refuſal on their ſide ſerved ſtill more to exaſperate him; and finding them reſolute in the defence of their privileges, he ejected them all, except two, from their benefices, and Parker was put in poſſeſſion of the place. Upon this the college was filled with catholics; and Charnock, who was one of the two that remained, was made vice-preſident.

Every invaſion of the eccleſiaſtical and civil privileges of the nation only ſeemed to increaſe the king's ardour for more. A freſh declaration for liberty of conſcience was publiſhed, A. D. 1688; and it was required that all divines ſhould read it after ſervice in their churches. As he thus put it in the power of thouſands to refuſe, he armed againſt himſelf the whole body of the nation. The clergy were known univerſally to diſapprove of the ſuſpending power; and they were now reſolved to diſobey an order dictated by the moſt bigoted motives. They were determined to truſt their cauſe to the favour of the people, and that univerſal jealouſy which prevailed againſt the encroachments of the crown. The firſt champions in this ſervice were, Lloyde biſhop of St. Aſaph, Ken of Bath and Wells, Turner of Ely, Lake of Chicheſter, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Briſtol; theſe, together with Sancroft the primate, concerted an addreſs, in the form of a petition, to the king; which, with the warmeſt expreſſions of zeal and ſubmiſſion, remonſtrated that they could not read his declaration conſiſtently with their conſciences, or the reſpect they owed the proteſtant religion. This modeſt addreſs, however, ſerved to inflame the king's reſentment. He received their petition with marks of ſurpriſe and diſpleaſure. He ſaid he did not expect ſuch an addreſs from the Engliſh church, particularly from ſome among them, and perſiſted in their obeying his mandate. The biſhops left his preſence under ſome apprehenſions from his fury, but ſecure in the favour of the people, and the rectitude of their intentions.

As the petition was delivered in private, the king ſummoned the biſhops before the council, and there queſtioned them whether they would acknowledge it? They for ſome time declined giving an anſwer; but being urged by the chancellor, they at laſt owned the petition. On their refuſing to give bail, an order was immediately drawn for their commitment to the Tower; and the crown-lawyers received directions to proſecute them for a ſeditious libel. The twenty-ninth of June was the day fixed for their trial. Twenty-nine peers, a great number of gentlemen, and an immenſe crowd of people, waited upon them to Weſtminſter hall. The cauſe was looked upon as involving the fate of the nation; and future freedom, or future ſlavery, awaited the deciſion. The diſpute was learnedly managed by the lawyers on both ſides. Holloway and Powel, two of the judges, declared themſelves in favour of the biſhops. The jury withdrew into a chamber, where they paſſed the whole night, but next morning they returned into court, and pronounced the biſhops "Not guilty." Weſtminſter hall inſtantly rang with loud acclamations, which were communicated to the whole extent of the city. They even reached the camp at Hounſlow, where the king was at dinner in lord Feverſham's tent. His majeſty demanding the cauſe of thoſe rejoicings, and being informed that it was nothing but the ſoldiers ſhouting at the delivery of the biſhops; "Call you that nothing? (cried he;) but ſo much the worſe for them."

James now ſtruck off the judges Powel and Holloway

from the liſt, becauſe they had favoured the biſhops. He iſſued orders to proſecute all thoſe clergymen who had not read his declaration; and all had refuſed it except two hundred. He ſent a mandate to the new fellows, whom he had obtruded on Magdalen college, to elect for preſident, in the room of Parker, lately deceaſed, one Gifford, a doctor of the Sorbonne, and titular biſhop of Madura. A circumſtance of rejoicing now alſo happened in his family: the queen was brought to bed of a ſon, who was baptiſed by the name of James. But ſo great was the public animoſity againſt the king, that a ſtory was propagated that the child was ſuppoſititious, and brought to the queen's apartment in a warming-pan; a calumny which James never thought worthy of a ſerious refutation.

William, prince of Orange, had married Mary, the eldeſt daughter of the preſent king. This princeſs had been bred a proteſtant; and, as ſhe was for a long time heir-apparent to the crown of England, the people tamely bore the encroachments of the king, in hopes that his proteſtant ſucceſſor would rectify thoſe meaſures he had taken towards the eſtabliſhment of popery, and his extenſion of the prerogatives of the crown. For this reaſon, the prince had been accuſtomed to give the king not only advice, but aſſiſtance in all emergencies, and had actually ſupplied him with ſix thouſand troops upon Monmouth's invaſion. But now, when a prince was born, that entirely excluded his hopes by ſucceſſion, he lent more attention to the complaints of the nation, and began to foment thoſe diſcontents which before he had endeavoured to ſuppreſs. This politic prince, finding that James had really incurred the moſt violent hatred of his ſubjects, diſpatched Dykevelt, his envoy, to England, A. D. 1688, with inſtructions to apply ſecretly in his name to every ſect and denomination in the kingdom. Dykevelt executed his commiſſion with ſuch dexterity, that all orders of men caſt their eyes towards Holland, and expected from thence a deliverance from thoſe dangers with which they were threatened at home. The prince thus found that every rank was ripe for defection, and received invitations from ſome of the moſt conſiderable perſons in the kingdom. Admirals Herbert and Ruſſel aſſured him in perſon of their own and the national attachment. Henry Sidney, brother to Algernon, and uncle to the earl of Sunderland, came over to him with aſſurances of an univerſal combination againſt the king. Lord Dumblaine, ſon of the earl of Danby, being maſter of a frigate, made ſeveral voyages to Holland, and carried from many of the nobility tenders of duty, and of conſiderable ſums of money. The biſhop of London, the earls of Danby, Nottingham, Devonſhire, Dorſet, with ſeveral other lords, gentlemen, and prineipal citizens, united in their addreſſes to him, and entreated his ſpeedy deſcent. The people of England, though long divided between whig and tory, were unanimous in their meaſures againſt the king. The whigs hated him upon principles of liberty, the tories upon principles of religion. The former had ever ſhewn themſelves tenacious of their political rights; the latter were equally obſtinate in defence of their religious tenets. James had invaded both; ſo that for a time all factions were laid aſleep, except the general one of driving the tyrant from a throne, which upon every account he was ſo ill qualified to fill. William determined to accept the invitations of the kingdom; and ſtill more readily embarked in the cauſe, as he ſaw that the malcontents had conducted their meaſures with prudence and ſecrecy.

The time when the prince entered upon his enterpriſe was juſt when the people were in a flame from the recent inſult offered to their biſhops. He had before this made conſiderable augmentations to the Dutch fleet, and the ſhips were then ready in the harbour. Some additional troops were alſo levied, and monies raiſed for other purpoſes were converted to the advancement of this expedition. The Dutch had always repoſed an entire confidence in him; and many of the neighbouring princes regarded him as their guardian and protector. He was ſure of the aſſiſtance of his native government; and the troops of ſome of the German powers were actually marched down to Holland to join him. Every place was in motion; all Europe ſaw and expected the deſcent, except the unfortunate James himſelf, who, ſecure in the piety of his intentions, thought nothing could obſtruct his ſchemes, calculated to promote the cauſe of heaven.

The king of France was the firſt who appriſed him of his danger, and offered to aſſiſt him in repelling it. He was willing to join a ſquadron of French ſhips to the Engliſh fleet, and to ſend over any number of troops which he ſhould deem requiſite for his ſecurity. James, however, could not be convinced that his ſon-in-law intended an invaſion; he therefore rejected the French king's propoſal, unwilling perhaps to call in foreign aid, when he had an army which he thought ſufficient at home. Still Louis was unwilling to abandon a friend and ally, whoſe intereſt he regarded as cloſely connected with his own. He ventured to remonſtrate with the Dutch againſt the preparations they were making to invade England. The Dutch conſidered his remonſtrance as an officious impertinence, and James himſelf declined his mediation.

James, having thus rejected the aſſiſtance of his friends, and being left to face the danger alone, was aſtoniſhed with advice from his miniſter in Holland, that an invaſion of England was not only projected, but really carrying into execution. When he firſt read the information, he grew pale, and the letter dropt from his hand. He ſaw the gulf into which he was fallen, and he knew not where to ſeek for protection. His only reſource was in retreating from thoſe various precipitate meaſures into which he had plunged himſelf. He replaced in all the counties the deputy-lieutenants and juſtices, who had been deprived of their commiſſions for their adherence to the teſt and penal laws. He reſtored the charters of ſuch corporations as he had violently taken away; he annulled the high commiſſion court; he reinſtated the expelled preſident and fellows of Magdalen-college; and he was even reduced to careſs thoſe biſhops whom he had ſo lately perſecuted and inſulted. But it was now too late. Theſe conceſſions were regarded as the ſymptoms of fear, and not of repentance; as the cowardice of guilt, and not the conviction of error. Indeed, he ſoon proved to the people the inſincerity of his engagements; for, hearing that the Dutch fleet was diſperſed, he recalled thoſe conceſſions which he had made in favour of Magdalen-college; and to ſhew his attachment to the Romiſh church, at the baptiſm of his new-born ſon, he appointed the pope one of the ſponſors.

In the mean time the declaration of the prince of Orange was induſtriouſly diſperſed throughout England. In this he enumerated all the grievances of which the nation complained; he promiſed his aſſiſtance in redreſſing them; he aſſured the nation that his only aim was to procure the laſting eſtabliſhment of their liberty and their religion; and that the only motive of his coming over was to learn the ſenſe of the people in a full and free parliament. This declaration was quickly followed by preparations for a vigorous invaſion. So well concerted were his meaſures, that in three days above four hundred tranſports were hired, the army tell down the rivers and canals from Nimeguen, with all neceſſary ſtores; and the prince ſet ſail from Helvoetſluys with a fleet of near five hundred veſſels, and an army of above fourteen thouſand men. Fortune ſeemed at firſt every way unfavourable to his views. He encountered a dreadful ſtorm, which put him back; but he ſoon refitted his fleet, and once more ventured to the Engliſh ſhore. It was given out that this invaſion was intended for the coaſts of France; and many of the Engliſh who ſaw the fleet paſs along their coaſts, little expected to ſee it land. It happened that the ſame wind which ſent them to their deſtined port, detained

detained the Engliſh fleet in the river; ſo that the Dutch paſſed the ſtreights of Dover without moleſtation. Thus, after a voyage of two days, the prince landed his army at Torbay, on the fifth of November, 1688, the anniverſary of the gunpowder-plot.

But though the invitation from the Engliſh was very general, the prince for ſome time had the mortification to find himſelf joined by very few. He marched firſt to Exeter, where the country people had been ſo lately terrified with the executions which had enſued on Monmouth's rebellion, that they continued to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality. But ſlight repulſes were not able to intimidate a general who had, from his early youth, been taught to encounter difficulties. The firſt perſon who joined the prince was major Burrington, and he was quickly followed by the principal people of the counties of Devon and Somerſet. Sir Edward Seymour made propoſals for an aſſociation, which every one ſigned. By degrees the earl of Abingdon, Mr. Ruſſel, ſon to the earl of Bedford, Mr. Wharton, Godfrey, Howe, all came to Exeter. England was in commotion. Lord Delamere took up arms in Cheſhire; the earl of Danby ſeized York; the earl of Bath, governor of Plymouth, declared for the prince; the earl of Devonſhire made a like declaration in Derby; the nobility of Nottingham embraced the ſame cauſe; and every day gave new ſtrength to that univerſal combination into which the nation had entered againſt the meaſures of the king.

But the moſt dangerous ſyſtem was the diſaffection of the army, which ſeemed univerſally tinctured with the ſpirit of the times. Lord Colcheſter, ſon of the earl of Rivers, was the firſt officer who deſerted to the prince. Lord Lovelace was taken in the like attempt by the militia, under the duke of Beaufort. Lord Cornbury, ſon to the earl of Clarendon, carried off the greateſt part of three regiments of cavalry to the prince. Several officers of diſtinction informed Feverſham, the general, that they could not in conſcience fight againſt the prince of Orange. The defection of the officers was followed by that of the king's own ſervants and creatures. Lord Churchill had been raiſed from the rank of a page, and had been inveſted with a high command in the army; had been created a peer, and owed his whole fortune to the king's bounty; even he deſerted among the reſt, and carried with him the duke of Grafton, natural ſon to the late king, colonel Berkeley, and ſome others.

In this general defection the unfortunate James, not knowing where to turn, nor on whom to rely, began to think of requeſting aſſiſtance from France, when it was too late. He wrote to Leopold, emperor of Germany, but in vain. That monarch only returned for anſwer, that what he had foreſeen, had happened. James had ſome dependence on his fleet; but they were entirely diſaffected. In a word, his intereſts were deſerted by all; for he had long deſerted them himſelf. James, however, marched to Saliſbury, at the head of twenty thouſand men. It is poſſible that, had he led theſe to the combat, without granting them time for deliberation, they might have fought in his favour, and ſecured him on the throne. But he was involved in a maze of fears and ſuſpicions; the defection of thoſe he moſt confided in took away his confidence in all, and deprived him even of the power of fortitude or courage. It was no ſmall addition to his preſent diſtreſs, that the prince of Denmark, and Anne, his favourite daughter, perceiving the deſperation of his circumſtances, reſolved to leave him, and take part with the prevailing ſide. When he was told that the prince and princeſs had followed the reſt of his favourites, he was ſtung with the moſt bitter anguiſh: "God help me, (cried he, in the extremity of his feelings;) my own children have forſaken me!" In this perplexity he embraced a ſudden reſolution of drawing off his army, and retiring to London; a meaſure which could only ſerve to betray his fears, and encourage further defection. He now aſſembled the few noblemen who adhered to his intereſt, formed a council, and demanded the advice of thoſe he moſt confided in. Addreſſing himſelf to the earl of Bedford, father to lord Ruſſel, who had been executed in the former reign by the intrigues of James, "My lord, (ſaid the king,) you are an honeſt man, and can do me ſignal ſervice."—"Ah, ſir! (replied the earl,) I am old and feeble; I can do you but little ſervice. I had indeed a ſon!" James was ſo ſtruck with this reply, that he could not ſpeak for ſome minutes. The king's fortune now expoſed him to the contempt of his enemies; and his behaviour was ſuch as could not procure him the eſteem of his adherents. He was naturally timid: and ſome counſellors about him, either ſharing his fears, or ſecretly attached to the prince, contributed to increaſe his apprehenſions. They reminded him of the fate of his father, and aggravated the turbulence and inconſtancy of the people. They at length perſuaded him to fly from a nation he could no longer govern, and ſeek for refuge at the court of France, where he was ſure of aſſiſtance and protection.

The prince of Orange was no leſs deſirous of the king's retiring to France than his moſt zealous counſellors could be. He was therefore determined to uſe every expedient to intimidate James, and drive him out of the kingdom. He declined a perſonal conference with the king's commiſſioners, but ſent the earls of Clarendon and Oxford to treat with them. The terms which he propoſed implied almoſt a preſent participation of the ſovereignty; and to urge his meaſures, he ſtopped not a moment in his march towards London. The king, alarmed every day more and more with the proſpect of a general diſaffection, was reſolved to hearken to thoſe who adviſed his quitting the kingdom. To prepare for this he firſt ſent away the queen, who arrived ſafely at Calais, under the conduct of count Lauzun. He himſelf diſappeared in the night, attended only by ſir Edward Hales; and, diſguiſing himſelf in a plain dreſs, went down to Feverſham, where he embarked on-board a ſmall veſſel for France. But his misfortunes ſeemed to purſue him. The veſſel in which he had embarked was detained by the populace, who not knowing the perſon of the king, robbed, inſulted, and abuſed him. He was now perſuaded by the earl of Winchelſea to return to London; where the mob, moved by his diſtreſſes, and guided by their natural levity, received him, contrary to his expectations, with ſhouts and acclamations.

Nothing could more completely diſconcert the prince of Orange, than to hear that James was brought back triumphantly to his capital. He had before taken meaſures to ſeize upon that authority which the king's dereliction had put into his hands. The biſhops and peers, who were now the only authoriſed magiſtrates in the ſtate, gave directions, in the preſent diſſolution of government, for keeping the peace of the city. They iſſued orders, which were readily obeyed, to the fleet, the garriſons, and the army. They made applications to the prince, whoſe enterpriſe they highly applauded, and whoſe ſucceſs they joyfully congratulated. It was not, therefore, without extreme mortification, that he found the king returned to embarraſs his proſpects. The prince of Orange, however, determined to diſſemble, and received the news of his return with a haughty air. His aim from the beginning was to puſh him by threats and ſeverities to relinquiſh the throne; and his proceedings manifeſted the refined politician. The king having ſent lord Feverſham on a civil meſſage to the prince, deſiring a conference previous to the ſettlement of the throne, that nobleman was put under an arreſt, on pretence of his wanting a paſſport. The Dutch guards were ordered to take poſſeſſion of Whitehall, where the king then lodged, and to diſplace the Engliſh. The king was ſoon after commanded by a meſſage, which he received in bed at midnight, to leave his palace next morning, and to depart for Ham, a ſeat of the ducheſs of Lauderdale's. He deſired permiſſion to retire to Rocheſter, a town not far from the ſea-coaſt,

and oppofite France. This was readily granted him; and it was now perceived that the harfh meafures of the prince had taken effect, and that James was meditating an efcape from the kingdom.

The king, while he continued at Rocheſter, ſtill hoped to receive invitations to reſume the crown; but at length finding himſelf entirely neglected by his ſubjects, and oppreſſed by his ſon-in-law, he reſolved to ſeek ſafety from the king of France, the only friend he had remaining. He ſet off, attended by his natural ſon, the duke of Berwick, to Dover, where he embarked for the continent. He arrived in ſafety at Ambleteuſe in Picardy, from whence he haſtened to the court of Francc, where he ſtill enjoyed the empty title of a king, and the appellation of a ſaint, which flattered him more.

Thus ended the reign of James II. a prince who in his early years poſſeſſed courage and activity, and who, had he not been the ſlave of ſuperſtition, might have ſhone with glory in the annals of this country. In domeſtic life he was reſpectable, if not irreproachable; and even while he was ſacrificing every thing to the advancement of popery, his frugality of the public money, and his attention to the national honour, were highly commendable. But he wanted qualities for which no compenſation could be made: he diſregarded the eſtabliſhed religion and the conſtitution of his country; in principle he was a deſpot and a bigot, and his abdication of the throne, and conſequent excluſion, have proved the happineſs of Great Britain.

Thus, with very little effuſion of blood, the prince of Orange was left without a rival; but a difficult taſk ſtill remained, to obtain for himſelf the crown which had fallen from the head of his father-in-law. It would have been deſtructive to the principles of liberty which he profeſſed to eſtabliſh, had he claimed it by right of conqueſt. His good ſenſe, therefore, determined him to leave the ſettlement of this important affair to the guidance and direction of the nation. All the members who had ſitten in the houſe of commons during any part of the reign of Charles II. were invited to meet, and to them were added the mayor, aldermen, and fifty of the common-council of London. Theſe unanimouſly concurred with the lords in ſummoning a convention, and the prince, thus ſupported, iſſued a proclamation to the counties and corporations of England. In regard to Scotland, he adopted the ſame wiſe and prudent maxims; and the convention aſſembled in that kingdom, by a bold and deciſive vote, declared that James had forfeited all title to the crown, and made a tender of the royal dignity to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

In the Engliſh convention, which aſſembled A.D. 1689, it was evident that the whig party prevailed, and the commons ſent up a vote to the peers couched in theſe words, "That king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between the king and the people; and having, by the advice of jeſuits and other wicked perſons, violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himſelf out of the kingdom, has ABDICATED the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant."

This vote, however, met with conſiderable oppoſition in the upper houſe, and the whigs and tories canvaſſed every expreſſion with that logical acumen which ſuch a weighty ſubject demanded. At laſt the tories prevailed ſo far as to carry the omiſſion of the laſt clauſe, which declared the throne vacant; but the commons ſtill inſiſted on their original vote, and ſome peers deſerting to the whig intereſt, it was ultimately eſtabliſhed by both houſes. During theſe debates the prince had maintained a reſpectful ſilence; but at laſt, finding that ſome were for appointing a regent, and that others propoſed to place the crown on the head of Mary alone, he took an opportunity of declaring, that though he would not interfere in their deliberations, it was neceſſary to appriſe them that he was determined not to be regent, nor would he accept a crown which muſt depend on the life or will of another; and therefore, if they were inclined to either of theſe two plans, it would be wholly out of his power to give them any further aſſiſtance.

The moderation of the princeſs ſeconded the views of her huſband, and the princeſs Anne agreeing to be poſtponed in the ſucceſſion till after the death of both, facilitated the public ſettlement. The principal parties concerned being thus agreed, the convention paſſed a bill, ſettling the crown on the prince and princeſs of Orange, the ſole adminiſtration to remain in the former, and that the princeſs Anne and her iſſue, in caſe they ſhould have none, ſhould ſucceed in order, after the demiſe of both. To this ſettlement the convention annexed a declaration of rights, in which the powers of royal prerogative were more narrowly circumſcribed, and more exactly defined, than at any former period, and which may be juſtly regarded as the charter of Engliſh liberty, and forms a remarkable epoch in its political hiſtory.

James II. died in France in 1710, aged ſixty-eight. He wrote Memoirs of his own life and campaigns to the reſtoration; the original of which was preſerved in the Scotch college at Paris. This piece is printed at the end of Ramſay's life of Marſhal Turenne. 2. Memoirs of the Engliſh Affairs, chiefly naval, from the year 1660 to 1673. 3. The Royal Sufferer, King James II. conſiſting of meditations, ſoliloquies, vows, &c. ſaid to be compoſed by his majeſty at St. Germain's. 4. Three Letters; publiſhed by Fuller, in 1702, with other papers relating to the court of St. Germain's, and are ſaid in the title page to be printed by command. James II. left iſſue by Anne Hyde, daughter of the earl of Clarendon, eight children, of whom only two ſurvived: Mary, who with William III. ſucceeded him on the throne; Anne, who ſucceeded as queen of England on the death of William. Anne Hyde died March 31, 1671; and James, in 1673, married Mary of Modena, by whom he had a daughter, Louiſa, born in France in 1692, who died in 1712. He had four natural children: James Fitz-James, commonly called the duke of Berwick; he became a grandee of Spain and marſhal of France; Henry Fitz-James, commonly called the grand prior, born in 1673, became lieutenant-general and admiral of the French galleys, and died in France, Dec. 7, 1702; Henrietta, who married lord Waldegrave: and Catharine Darnley, who became ducheſs of Buckingham.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF NASSAU TO THE DEATH OF QUEEN ANNE.

William III. ſon of William, prince of Orange, of the illuſtrious houſe of Naſſau, mentioned by Cæſar in his Commentaries, aſcended the throne of England, February 13, 1689. As his ſucceſſion to the crown originated from the choice of the people, they of courſe made whatever ſtipulations they thought requiſite for their ſecurity. His power was limited on every ſide; and the jealouſy which his new ſubjects entertained of foreigners, further obſtructed the full exerciſe of his authority. The repreſentatives of the nation made a formal claim of rights in behalf of their conſtituents, which, previous to his coronation, William was obliged to confirm. This declaration of rights maintained that the ſuſpending and diſpenſing powers, as exerciſed by king James, were unconſtitutional; that all courts of eccleſiaſtical commiſſion, the levying money, or maintaining a ſtanding army in times of peace, without conſent of parliament; that grants of fines and forfeitures before conviction, and juries of perſons not qualified, or not fairly choſen, and in trials for treaſon, who were not freeholders, were all unlawful. It aſſerted the freedom of election to parliament, the freedom of ſpeech in parliament, and the right of the ſubject to bear arms, and to petition his ſovereign. It provided, that exceſſive bails ſhould not be required, nor exceſſive fines be impoſed, nor cruel and unuſual puniſhments be inflicted; and it concluded with an injunction

that

that parliaments ſhould be frequently aſſembled. Such was the bill of rights, calculated to ſecure the liberties of the people; but having been drawn up in a ferment, it bears all the marks of haſte, inſufficiency, and inattention.

William was no ſooner elected to the throne, than he began to experience the difficulty of governing a people who were more ready to examine the commands of their ſuperiors than to obey them. His reign commenced with an attempt ſimilar to that which had been the principal cauſe of all the late diſturbances, and which had excluded James from the throne. William was a Calviniſt, and conſequently averſe to perſecution; he, therefore, began by attempting to repeal thoſe laws that enjoined uniformity of worſhip; and though he could not entirely ſucceed in his deſign, a toleration was granted to ſuch diſſenters as ſhould take the oaths of allegiance, and hold no private conventicles. The papiſts themſelves, who had every thing to fear, experienced the lenity of his government; and though the laws againſt them were unrepealed, yet they were ſeldom put into rigorous execution. Thus, what was criminal in James became virtuous in his ſucceſſor; and while James wanted to introduce perſecution, by pretending to diſown it, William had no other deſign but to make religious freedom the teſt of civil ſecurity.

While William was acknowledged king in England, Scotland and Ireland remained ſtill undecided. The revolution in England had been brought about by a coalition of whigs and tories; but in Scotland it was effected by the whigs alone. They ſoon came to a reſolution, that king James had, to uſe their own expreſſion, *forfaulted* his right to the crown, a term which, in the law-language of that country, excluded not only him, but all his poſterity. They, therefore, recogniſed the authority of king William, A.D. 1689, and took that opportunity to aboliſh epiſcopacy, which had long been offenſive to that nation. Nothing now remained to the depoſed king, of all his former poſſeſſions, but Ireland; and he had ſome hopes of maintaining his ground there, by the aſſiſtance of France. Louis XIV. had long been at variance with William, and took every opportunity to form confederacies againſt him, and to obſtruct his government. On the preſent occaſion he granted the depoſed monarch a fleet and ſome troops, to aſſert his pretenſions in Ireland. In the mean time William was not backward in warding off the blow. The parliament, though divided in all things elſe, was unanimous in conſpiring with him in this; and war was forthwith declared againſt France.

On the ſeventh of May, 1689, James embarked at Breſt, and on the twenty-ſecond arrived at Kinſale; and ſoon after made his public entry into Dublin, amidſt the acclamations of the Iriſh. He found the appearances of things in that country equal to his moſt ſanguine expectations. Tyrconnel, the lord-lieutenant, was devoted to his intereſts; and his whole army amounted to near forty thouſand men. The proteſtants over the greateſt part of Ireland were diſarmed; the province of Ulſter alone denied his authority; while the papiſts, confident of ſucceſs, received him with ſhouts of joy and ſuperſtitious gratulation.

James, however, continued for ſome time irreſolute; but as ſoon as the ſpring opened, he went to lay ſiege to Londonderry, a place of ſmall importance in itſelf, but rendered famous by the ſtand which it made on this occaſion. Colonel Lundie had been appointed governor of the town by king William, but was ſecretly attached to James; and at a council of war, he prevailed upon the officers and townſmen to ſend meſſengers to the beſiegers, with an offer of capitulation. But the inhabitants, appriſed of his apoſtacy, and crying out that they were betrayed, roſe tumultuouſly againſt the governor and council, ſhot one of the officers whom they ſuſpected, and boldly reſolved to defend the town, though deſtitute of leaders. The works of the beſiegers were ſoon brought to play upon the town with great fury; and ſeveral aſſaults were made, but always repulſed with reſolution. They were ſo cloſely inveſted, however, and ſo deſtitute of proviſions, that they ſupported life by eating horſes, dogs, and all kinds of vermin, until even this loathſome food began to fail them. At length, a ſmall ſquadron from England with proviſions and ſupplies, arriving juſt in time to afford them relief, the army of James were ſo diſpirited by the unconquerable obſtinacy of the garriſon, that they abandoned the ſiege in the night, and retired with precipitation, after having loſt above nine thouſand men before the place.

The inhabitants of Inniſkilling were no leſs remarkable for the valour and perſeverance with which they eſpouſed the cauſe of William; but indeed the cruelty of the papiſts were ſufficient to excite the moſt determined oppoſition. The proteſtants, by an act of the Iriſh parliament under James, were diveſted of thoſe lands which they had been poſſeſſed of ſince the Iriſh rebellion. Three thouſand of thoſe unfortunate men were found guilty of treaſon, and attainted. Soldiers were permitted to live upon free quarters; the people were plundered; the ſhops and the kitchens of all people were pillaged, to ſupply a quantity of braſs, which was coined, and ordered to paſs, by royal mandate, for above forty times its value. Brigadier Sarsfield commanded all proteſtants of certain diſtricts to retire to the diſtance of ten miles from their habitations, on pain of death; and many periſhed with hunger, or from being forced from their homes during the ſevereſt inclemencies of the ſeaſon.

But their ſufferings were ſhortly to have an end. William at length perceived that his neglect of Ireland had been an error that required more than unuſual diligence to redreſs. He was afraid to ſend the old army to fight againſt James; and therefore ordered twenty-three new regiments to be raiſed for that purpoſe. Theſe, with two Dutch battalions, and four of French refugees, together with the Inniſkilling invincible regiment, were appointed for the reduction of Ireland; and next to king William himſelf, the celebrated Schomberg was appointed to command. King William landed at Carrickfergus, A.D. 1690, where he found himſelf at the head of an army of ſix and thirty thouſand effective men, which was more than a match for the forces of James, although they were ſaid to amount to near fifty thouſand. William having juſt received the alarming news, that a French fleet had ſailed for the coaſt of England, reſolved, by meaſures of ſpeed and vigour, to prevent the impreſſion which that circumſtance might make upon the minds of his ſoldiers; and therefore haſtened to advance againſt James, who had quitted Dublin, and ſtationed his army at Ardee and Dundalk.

All the meaſures taken by king William appeared to be dictated by prudence and valour; while thoſe purſued by his opponents ſeemed the reſult of obſtinacy and infatuation. They neglected the advantageous opportunity of haraſſing their enemy in his difficult march from the north; they neglected to oppoſe him at the ſtrong paſs at Newry. As he advanced, they fell back, firſt from Dundalk, and then from Ardee; and, at laſt, upon the 29th of June, they fixed their camp in a ſtrong ſtation, on the banks of the Boyne. It was on the oppoſite ſide of this river, that both armies came in ſight of each other, inflamed with all the animoſities ariſing from religion, oppoſite intereſt, and revenge. The river Boyne at this place was not ſo deep but that men might wade over on foot; however, the banks were rugged, and rendered dangerous by old houſes and ditches, which ſerved as ambuſcades for the enemy. William had no ſooner arrived, than he rode along the ſide of the river, in ſight of both armies, to reconnoitre the face of the country; but, being perceived by the enemy, a cannon was pointed againſt him with wonderful dexterity. The ſhot killed ſeveral of his followers, and he himſelf was wounded in

the ſhoulder. A report of his being ſlain was inſtantly propagated through the Iriſh camp, and was even ſent off expreſs to Paris; but William, as ſoon as his wound was dreſſed, rode through the camp, and encouraged his army.

Upon retiring to his tent, he continued in meditation till nine at night, when he ſummoned a council of war, in which he declared his reſolution to force a paſſage over the river the next morning. The duke of Schomberg attempted at firſt to expoſtulate with him upon the danger of the enterpriſe; but finding the king inflexible, he retired to his tent with a diſconſolate aſpect, as if he had a preſcience of his own fate. In the morning, at ſix o'clock, king William gave orders to paſs the river. This the army undertook in three different places; and, after a furious cannonading, the battle began with uncommon vigour. The Iriſh, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, fled with precipitation, leaving the French and Swiſs regiments to make the beſt retreat they could. William led on his cavalry in perſon, and contributed, by his activity and vigilance, to ſecure the victory. James was not in the battle, but ſtood aloof, during the action, on the hill of Dunmore, ſurrounded with ſome ſquadrons of horſe; and at intervals was heard moſt generouſly to exclaim, when he ſaw his own troops repulſing thoſe of the enemy, "O ſpare my Engliſh ſubjects!" The Iriſh loſt about fifteen hundred men, and the proteſtants about one-third of that number. The victory was deciſive; but the death of the duke of Schomberg, who fell in the action, ſeemed to outweigh the whole loſs ſuſtained by the enemy. This veteran ſoldier had fought under almoſt every power in Europe. His ſkill in war was unparalleled, and his fidelity equal to his courage. See his hiſtory under SCHOMBERG.

This defeat totally depreſſed the hopes of James. He fled to Dublin, adviſed the magiſtrates to obtain the beſt terms they could for themſelves, and then ſet out for Waterford, where he embarked for France. His friends, however, were ſtill determined to follow up thoſe intereſts which he himſelf had abandoned. Limerick, a ſtrong city in the province of Munſter, ſtill held out, and braved all the attempts of William's army to reduce it. Sarsfield, an experienced general, put himſelf at the head of the army that had been routed at the Boyne, and haſtened to the banks of the Shannon, where he reſolved to diſpute the further progreſs of the enemy. But James appointed St. Ruth, a French general, to command over Sarsfield, which gave the Iriſh great diſcontent, as it ſeemed to imply that the king could neither rely on their ſkill nor their fidelity. General Ginckle, who was appointed to command the Engliſh army in the abſence of William, who had returned to England, advanced with his forces towards the Shannon, and inveſted the town of Athlone, built on both ſides the river. That part of the town on the hither ſide was quickly taken ſword in hand by the Engliſh; but the part on the oppoſite bank being defended with ſtrong ramparts, was thought impregnable. At length it was reſolved that a choſen troop ſhould ford the river in the face of the enemy; which deſperate attempt was performed with great reſolution; the enemy were driven from their works, and the town furrendered at diſcretion. St. Ruth now marched his army to give Sarsfield relief, but too late; for when he approached the walls, their own guns were turned againſt him. He then took poſt at Aughrim, ten miles off, where he determined to wait for the Engliſh army, and decide the fate of Ireland by one reſiſtleſs blow.

Ginckle, having put Athlone in a poſture of defence, paſſed the Shannon, and marched towards the enemy, determined to give them battle, though his force did not exceed eighteen thouſand men, while that of St. Ruth was above twenty-five thouſand. The Iriſh were poſted in an advantageous ſituation, upon a riſing ground, before which lay a deep bog, that to appearance was paſſable only in two places. Their right was fortified by entrenchments, and their left fecured by the caſtle of Aughrim. Ginckle, having reconnoitred their ſituation, gave the neceſſary orders for the attack; and, after a furious cannonading, the Engliſh army, about twelve o'clock, began to force the two paſſages of the bog, in order to poſſeſs the ground on the other ſide. The enemy fought with ſurpriſing fury, and the horſe were ſeveral times repulſed; but at length the troops on the right, by the help of ſome field-pieces, carried their point. At ſix o'clock in the evening the left wing of the Engliſh was advanced to the right of the Iriſh, and obliged it to give ground. In the mean time, a more general attack was made upon the centre; the Engliſh wading through the middle of the bog up to the waiſt in mud, and forming with ſome difficulty on the firm ground on the other ſide, renewed the combat with great fury. St. Ruth being at this critical moment killed by a cannon-ball, ſo diſpirited his troops, that they gave way on all ſides, and retreated to Limerick, after having loſt above five thouſand of the flower of their army. Limerick was the laſt retreat of the Iriſh forces. Ginckle advanced with his victorious troops to the bridge foot, and prepared for a general aſſault, when the Iriſh offered to capitulate; a negotiation was immediately begun, and hoſtilities ceaſed on both ſides, A.D. 1691. The Roman catholics by this capitulation were reſtored to the free exerciſe of their religion, and all perſons were indulged with leave to remove with their families and effects to any other country, except England and Scotland. In conſequence of this regulation, about fourteen thouſand of thoſe who had fought for James went over to France, where they entered into the ſervice of Louis XIV.

The chief hopes of King James now lay in a conſpiracy among his Engliſh adherents, and in the ſuccours which were promiſed him by the French king. The ſucceſs of the conſpiracy was thought unqueſtionable, having been ſet on foot by ſome diſcontented whigs, united with the tory intereſt. They aſſembled together; and the reſult of their deliberations was, that the reſtoration of James ſhould be entirely effected by foreign forces; that he ſhould ſail for Scotland, and be there joined by five thouſand Swedes, who, becauſe they were of the proteſtant religion, it was thought would remove a part of the odium which attended an invaſion by foreigners; that aſſiſtance ſhould at the ſame time be ſent from France, and that full liberty of conſcience ſhould be proclaimed throughout the kingdom. It was reſolved to ſend over two truſty perſons to France to conſult with the baniſhed monarch; and lord Preſton and Mr. Aſhton were the perſons appointed for this embaſſy. Information, however, had been given of their intentions; and lord Carmarthen had them ſeized and brought to trial. They were both condemned; Aſhton was executed, without making any confeſſion; but lord Preſton had not the ſame reſolution. Upon an offer of pardon, he diſcovered a great number of aſſociates; among whom the duke of Ormond, lord Dartmouth, and lord Clarendon, were foremoſt.

A formidable deſcent upon the coaſt of England was now decided upon by the conſpirators. In purſuance of this ſcheme, the French king ſupplied James with an army conſiſting of a large body of French troops, ſome Engliſh and Scots refugees, and the Iriſh regiments which had been tranſported from Limerick. This army was aſſembled between Cherbourg and La Hogue, and was commanded by king James in perſon. More than three hundred tranſports were provided for landing it on the Engliſh coaſt; and Tourville, the French admiral, at the head of ſixty-three ſhips of the line, was appointed to cover the deſcent. His orders were, at all events, to attack the Engliſh fleet, in caſe they dared to oppoſe him; that the tranſports, during the action, might land the troops without oppoſition. Theſe plans and preparations were ſoon known at the Engliſh court, and every precaution taken for a vigorous defence. All the ſecret machinations of the baniſhed king's adherents were diſcovered to the Engliſh miniſtry by ſpies; and by theſe they found,

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with ſome mortification, that the tories were more faithful than many of the whigs, who had placed king William on the throne. The duke of Marlborough, lord Godolphin, and even the princeſs Anne herſelf, were violently ſuſpected of diſaffection. However, preparations were made to reſiſt the impending ſtorm with great tranquillity and reſolution. Admiral Ruſſel was ordered to put to ſea with all poſſible expedition; and he ſoon appeared with ninety-nine ſhips of the line, beſides frigates and fire-ſhips; an immenſe force, ſuch as Europe had never ſeen till that time. At the head of this formidable ſquadron he ſet ſail for the coaſt of France, and at laſt near La Hogue, he came up with the enemy, under admiral Tourville, who inſtantly prepared to give him battle. This memorable engagement, which began early in the morning of May 19, 1692, laſted ten hours, and all James's hopes were fruſtrated by the event. After a moſt dreadful conflict, victory declared on the ſide of the Engliſh; the French fled for Conquet Road, having loſt four ſhips in the firſt day's action. The purſuit continued for two days following; three French ſhips of the line were deſtroyed the next day, and eighteen more burnt by ſir George Rooke, which had taken refuge in the bay of La Hogue. From that time forward France ſeemed to relinquiſh all claims to the ſovereignty of the ocean.

James was now reduced to the loweſt ebb of deſpondence; his deſigns upon England were fruſtrated; and no other conſolation could be offered, but that of aſſaſſinating the monarch on the throne. Theſe baſe attempts were not entirely diſagreeable to the temper of James. It is ſaid he promoted and encouraged them; but they all ended in the deſtruction of the undertakers. From that time till his death, about ſeven years after, he continued to reſide at St. Germain's, a penſioner on the bounty of the French king.

The defeat at La Hogue confirmed king William on the throne of England. The jacobites were ever feeble, but they were now a diſunited faction; new parties ſprung up among thoſe who had been friends to the revolution; and the want of a common enemy produced diſſenſions among themſelves. William now began to find as much oppoſition and uneaſineſs from his parliament at home, as from the enemy in the field. His chief motive for accepting the crown was to engage England more deeply in the concerns of Europe. It had ever been the object of his wiſh, and the ſcope of his ambition, to humble the French, whom he conſidered as the moſt formidable enemy of the liberties of mankind; and all his politics conſiſted in forming alliances againſt them. Many of the Engliſh, on the other hand, had neither the ſame animoſity againſt the French, nor the ſame dread of their increaſing power. Theſe, therefore, conſidered the intereſt of the nation as ſacrificed to foreign connections; and complained that the war on the continent fell moſt heavily on them, though they had the leaſt intereſt in its ſucceſs. To theſe motives of diſcontent were added the king's partiality to his own countrymen, in prejudice of his Engliſh ſubjects, together with his great reſerve and ſullen ſilence, ſo unlike the behaviour of their former kings. William little regarded theſe diſcontents, which he knew muſt be conſequent on all government; accuſtomed to oppoſition, he heard them with the moſt phlegmatic indifference, and employed all his attention only on the balance of power, and the intereſts of Europe. Thus, while he watched over the ambitious ſtrides of contending kings and nations, he was unmindful of the cultivation of internal policy; and as he formed alliances abroad, increaſed the influence of party at home. Patriotiſm began to be ridiculed as an ideal virtue; the practice of bribing a majority in parliament became univerſal; the bad example of the great was eagerly caught by the vulgar; principle, and even decency, was gradually baniſhed; talents lay uncultivated, and the ignorant and profligate were received into favour.

Upon accepting of the Britiſh crown, William was reſolved to preſerve, as much as poſſible, that ſhare of prerogative which was ſtill left him. He was as yet unacquainted with the nature of a limited monarchy, which was not at that time thoroughly underſtood in any part of Europe, except England. He therefore often controverted the views of his parliament, and ſuffered himſelf to be directed by weak and arbitrary counſels. One of the firſt inſtances of this error was in the oppoſition he gave to a bill for limiting the duration of parliaments to the ſpace of three years. This bill had paſſed the two houſes, and was ſent up to receive the royal aſſent; but the nation was ſurpriſed to find the king refuſe his aſſent to an act, which was then conſidered as beneficial to the government. Both houſes took the alarm; the commons came to a reſolution, that whoever adviſed the king to this meaſure, was an enemy to his country; and the people were taught to echo their reſentment. The bill thus rejected, lay dormant for another ſeaſon; but, being again brought in, the king found himſelf obliged to comply. A ſimilar oppoſition, and a ſimilar conſequence, tended a bill for regulating trials in caſes of high-treaſon, by which the accuſed was allowed a copy of his indictment, and a liſt of the names of his jury, two days before his trial, together with council to plead in his defence. It was ſtill further enacted, that no perſon ſhould be indicted but upon the oaths of two credible witneſſes; a law that gave the ſubject a perfect ſecurity from the terrors of the throne.

It was in the midſt of theſe contentions that the jacobites ſtill conceived hopes of reſtoring their fallen monarch; and, being uneaſy themſelves, ſuppoſed the whole kingdom ſhared their diſquietudes. While one party proceeded againſt William, by attempting to excite an inſurrection, another formed a ſcheme of aſſaſſination. Sir George Barclay, a native of Scotland, who had ſerved as an officer in James's army, a man of undaunted courage, undertook the bold taſk of aſſaſſinating the king. This deſign he imparted to Harriſon, Charnock, Porter, and ſir William Perkins, by whom it was approved; and, after various conſultations, it was reſolved to attack the king on his return from Richmond, where he commonly took the diverſion of hunting on Saturdays; and the ſcene of their ambuſcade was a narrow lane between Brentford and Turnham Green. To ſecure ſucceſs, it was agreed that their number ſhould be increaſed to forty horſemen, with a relay of retainers to aſſiſt in this ſanguinary enterpriſe. When their number was complete, they waited with impatience for the hour of action; but ſome of the retainers, ſeized with remorſe, reſolved to prevent the murder by a timely diſcovery. One Pendergaſt, an Iriſh officer, gave the firſt information; but it was diſregarded, until La Rue a Frenchman, and the haſty flight of ſir George Barclay, confirmed the fact. A great number of the conſpirators were now apprehended, and the whole diſcovery was communicated to the privy council. Pendergaſt became an evidence for the crown, and the conſpirators were brought to trial. Robert Charnock, one of the two fellows of Magdalen-college, who, in the reign of James, had renounced the proteſtant religion, lieutenant King, and Thomas Keys, were found guilty of high-treaſon, and ſuffered at Tyburn. Sir John Friend and ſir William Perkins, were next arraigned; and although they made a very able defence, before lord chief-juſtice Holt, yet they were alſo found guilty, and ſuffered at Tyburn; denying the charge to the laſt, and teſtifying their abhorrence of the aſſaſſination. Rookwood, Cranbourne, and Lowic, were next apprehended, and tried by a ſpecial commiſſion as conſpirators; and, being found guilty, ſhared the fate of the former. But the caſe of ſir John Fenwick excited the greateſt animadverſion. He was apprehended in his way to France, and attainted of high-treaſon in the houſe of commons. There were two witneſſes againſt him; but of theſe lady Fenwick contrived to ſecrete one, ſo that, contrary to the late act, the commons proceeded to

trial

trial upon the evidence of a ſingle witneſs only. He was, however, furniſhed with a copy of the indictment, allowed counſel at the bar of the houſe, and the counſel for the crown was called upon to open the evidence. After much diſputation the bill was committed, and ſent up to the houſe of lords, where ſir John Fenwick was found guilty, by a majority only of ſeven voices. The priſoner ſolicited the mediation of the lords, while his friends implored the royal mercy. The lords gave him to underſtand, that his pardon would depend on the fullneſs of his diſcoveries. He heſitated ſome time between the fears of infamy and the terrors of death. At laſt he choſe death as the moſt preferable, and was beheaded on Tower-hill. His death certainly proved the inſufficiency of the ſtatutes to protect the ſubject, when a majority of the powerful ſhall think proper to diſpenſe with them.

William, at length tired of oppoſing the laws, gave up the conteſt. He admitted every reſtraint upon his prerogative in England, upon condition of being ſupplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War, and the balance of power in Europe, were ſtill the objects which lay neareſt his heart. Provided the parliament would furniſh him with ſupplies for theſe purpoſes, he permitted them to rule the internal policy at their pleaſure. For the proſecution of the French war, the ſums of money granted him were incredible. The nation, not content with furniſhing ſuch ſums as they were capable of raiſing by the taxes of the current year, mortgaged thoſe taxes, and involved themſelves in debts which they have never ſince been able to diſcharge, and thus laid the foundation of an irredeemable national debt.

The Engliſh, however, with the allies, under king William, had gained immortal honour in the wars of the Netherlands; and it was in a great meaſure owing to their invincible courage in leading up to, and mounting the breach, in order to ſtorm the caſtle, that Namur was taken, in 1695. This was a noble achievement of king William, to compel the ſurrender of Namur, where the gallant Boufflers commanded, and in the face of a French army under Villeroy, conſiſting of 100,000 men, which Louis had ſent to raiſe the ſiege. The town capitulated, and marched out with the honours of war, on the 5th of September. About ten o'clock in the morning, the garriſon, which from fourteen thouſand was reduced to five thouſand five hundred and thirty-eight men, began their march. The marſhal de Boufflers's guard du corps went out firſt; then his domeſtics, and next himſelf, with Guiſcard, the governor, at the head of the dragoons. King William was in a coach, attended by the elector of Bavaria, the landgrave of Heſſe, and the chief officers of the army, on horſeback, to ſee them paſs within two hundred paces of the breach, and were ſaluted by the French marſhal and count with their ſwords. This civility was hardly over, when general Dyckvelt accoſted Boufflers, with a meſſage from the king, which diſcompoſed his countenance; and, as they were riding up to the top of the hill, de l'Etang, brigadier-general of the brigade, made up boldly to the marſhal, with about twelve of the gentlemen of the life-guard, and arreſted him in king William's name, by way of repriſal for the garriſons of Dixmuyde and Deynſe, which were detained and ill treated by the French, contrary to the cartel. His confinement was not long: for upon the return of the captain of his guard, whom he ſent to give the king of France an account of what had happened, and the marſhal engaging his word of honour that the garriſons of Dixmuyde and Deynſe ſhould be ſent back as ſoon as he himſelf ſhould be ſet at liberty, the king ordered the governor of Maeſtricht to releaſe him, and give him a guard to conduct him ſafe to Dinant.

The French war had continued during the greateſt part of this king's reign; but at length the treaty of Ryſwick, A.D. 1697, put an end to thoſe contentions, in which England had engaged without policy, and came off without advantage. In the general pacification, her intereſts ſeemed entirely abandoned; and for all the treaſures ſhe had laviſhed on the continent, and for all the blood ſhe had ſpilt, the only equivalent was an acknowledgment of king William's title, from the king of France. Yet William, from having ſo early and ſo ſtrongly imbibed continental politics, was weak enough to inſiſt on keeping up a large ſtanding army, even during the continuance of a profound peace. But what was his mortification to find the commons paſs a vote, that all the forces in Engliſh pay, excepting ſeven thouſand men, ſhould be forthwith diſbanded, and that thoſe retained ſhould be the natural-born ſubjects of England. A monarch bred up in camps, and who knew no other pleaſure but that of reviewing troops and dictating to generals, could not think of laying down at once all his power and all his amuſements. He profeſſed himſelf, therefore, highly diſpleaſed with the vote of the commons; and his indignation was kindled to ſuch a pitch, that he actually conceived a deſign of abandoning the government. His miniſters, however, diverted him from this reſolution, and perſuaded him, at length, to paſs the bill. But theſe altercations continued more or leſs during the remainder of his reign. William conſidered the commons as a claſs of men deſirous of power themſelves, and conſequently bent upon obſtructing all his projects to ſecure the liberties of Europe. He ſeemed but little attached to any particular party in the houſe, all of whom he found at times either oppoſed or deſerted him. He therefore veered about to whigs and tories indiſcriminately, as intereſt or the immediate exigence urged him. He was taught to conſider England as a nation of labour, anxiety, and altercation. If he had any time for amuſement or relaxation, he retired to Loo in Holland, where, among a few friends, he gave a looſe to thoſe martial feſtivities, which alone he was capable of reliſhing. It was there he planned the different ſucceſſion of the princes of Europe, and laboured to undermine the ſchemes and the power of Louis XIV. his rival in politics and in fame.

The opening of a new parliament, A.D. 1700, promiſed more cordiality between the three branches of the conſtituted government. The commons aſſured the king that they would co-operate with him in whatever might beſt conduce to the intereſt and ſafety of England, the preſervation of the proteſtant religion, and the general peace of Europe. They likewiſe ſettled ſucceſſion, in caſe the princeſs Anne ſhould die without iſſue, on Sophia of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I. and, having thus provided againſt the reſtoration of the exiled family, they turned their thoughts to foreign tranſactions, demanding, that all treaties concluded or renewed within the laſt three years ſhould be laid before parliament.

On the concluſion of the peace of Ryſwick, William had entered into a ſecret treaty with the court of France, for the diviſion of the Spaniſh dominions, on the death of the reigning ſovereign. Among the competitors for that crown, the dauphin, who had married the king of Spain's daughter, was to be allowed to poſſeſs the greateſt part of Italy; and other allotments were made, which tended to leſſen the danger of one prince ſucceeding to a too powerful and extenſive dominion. Though few were privy to this agreement, which was called *the partition treaty*, it reached the ears of the king of Spain, who made the ſtrongeſt remonſtrances againſt it by his ambaſſador, and pledged himſelf to expoſe the indignity that was offered him, to the parliament of England. William, who was then at Loo, in Holland, felt this appeal ſo forcibly, that he ordered the Spaniſh ambaſſador to quit the kingdom, which the court of Madrid retaliated.

Meanwhile, the king of Spain, in order to fruſtrate the objects of the confederacy, by will nominated the duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon of the dauphin, heir to all his dominions; by which means he detached the French monarch from the union that had been formed; and dying ſoon after, William, whoſe grand concern was to preſerve the barrier of Flanders in the hands of the Dutch,

Dutch, now determined to ſeek occaſion to quarrel with France. To effect his purpoſes, he filled the vacant offices of the ſtate with ſeveral of the high-church party, and affecting openneſs and condeſcenſion to the parliament, informed them that his foreign negociations for the preſervation of peace and ſecurity, were likely to prove ineffectual.

Parliament, however, obſerving that the protection of the ſeven united provinces was the principal object William had in view, requeſted his majeſty to continue his negociations; and, to evince their reſentment at the clandeſtine partition treaty he had entered into, ordered an impeachment againſt the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Portland, and lord Somers, for the part they had taken in this meaſure. Meanwhile, a petition favourable to the king's views was preſented by the freeholders of Kent; and the clamours of the people, reinforced by a powerful party William had formed in the houſe of lords, ſoon taught him that he had nothing to fear from the averſion of the commons, to enter into any treaties he might judge expedient. Accordingly, after proroguing parliament, he again retired to Loo, and there entered into a league with the emperor and the ſtates-general, the principal objects of which were the recovery of Flanders as a barrier for Holland, and of Milan as a ſecurity for the emperor.

Moſt fortunately and opportunely for William, about this time died the royal exile James II. to whom, on his death-bed, Louis had promiſed that his ſon ſhould be acknowledged heir to all the Britiſh dominions. In his laſt agonies, James lifted himſelf up in his bed to thank his benefactor, and died, it is ſaid, in a tranſport of joy for ſuch an unexpected aſſurance. The young prince James accordingly was proclaimed, by order of Louis, king of Great Britain and Ireland; but, inſtead of forwarding his cauſe, it only united the nation in oppoſition to his claims, and in indignation againſt France. In the new parliament the whig intereſt was found to preponderate; and William, availing himſelf of all theſe favourable circumſtances, eaſily obtained a large ſupply, which was followed by a vote, that no peace ſhould be concluded with France, till reparation ſhould be made to the king and nation for owning and declaring the pretended prince of Wales king of England; and it was reſolved, that the proportion of land forces, to act in conjunction with the allies, ſhould be forty thouſand effective men; and forty thouſand ſeamen were voted for the ſervice of the enſuing year.

Thus every thing went on according to the king's utmoſt wiſhes; and he now ſeemed to have obtained a complete triumph over the weakneſs of faction, when he was ſnatched away by the unrelenting arm of death. His health had been declining for above a year, which, inſtead of abating his reſolution, urged him on to redouble his efforts to engage England in the ſchemes he had projected. This object made him conceal the inroads which he felt were making in his conſtitution; and, though in a weak and languiſhing ſtate, he ſtill continued the exerciſe of hunting. But while engaged in the ſport, his collar bone was broken by a fall from his horſe, and this haſtened his diſſolution. He died at Kenſington, without iſſue, on Sunday the 8th of March, 1702, of an aſthma and fever, in the thirteenth year of his reign. His amiable conſort, Mary, had fallen a victim to the ſmall pox a few years before.

The character of William III. having been either diſtorted by prejudice, or too highly exalted by partiality, becomes the more difficult to appreciate. He was in his perſon of middle ſize, ill ſhaped in his limbs, ſomewhat round in his ſhoulders, light-brown in the colour of his hair, and in his complexion. The lines of his face were hard, and his noſe aquiline; but a fine penetrating eye threw a glow on his countenance, which tempered its ſeverity, and rendered his features in ſome meaſure agreeable. Though his conſtitution was weak, delicate, and infirm, he loved the manly exerciſes, and often indulged himſelf in the pleaſures, and even ſometimes in the exceſſes, of the table. In his private character he was frequently ſevere with regard to trifles; but when the ſubject roſe equal to his mind, and in the tumult of battle, he was dignified, cool, and collected. Though he was apt to form bad impreſſions, which were not eaſily removed, he was neither vindictive in his diſpoſition, nor obſtinate in his reſentment. Neglected in his education, and perhaps deſtitute by nature of an elegance of mind, he had no taſte for literature, none for the ſciences, none for the beautiful arts. He paid no attention to muſic, he underſtood no poetry; he diſregarded learning; he encouraged no men of letters, no artiſts of any kind. In fortification and the mathematics he had a conſiderable degree of knowledge. He thoroughly underſtood military operations by land; but he neither poſſeſſed nor pretended to any ſkill in maritime affairs. In the diſtribution of favours he was cold and injudicious. In the puniſhment of crimes, often too eaſy, and ſometimes too ſevere. He was parſimonious where he ſhould have been liberal; where he ought to be ſparing, frequently profuſe. In his temper he was ſilent and reſerved, in his addreſs ungraceful; and though not deſtitute of diſſimulation, and qualified for intrigue, leſs apt to conceal his paſſions than his deſigns: theſe defects, rather than vices, of the mind, combining with an indifference about humouring mankind through their ruling paſſions, rendered him extremely unfit for gaining the affections of the Engliſh nation. His reign, therefore, was crowded with mortifications of various kinds; the diſcontented parties among his ſubjects found no difficulty in eſtranging the minds of the people from a prince poſſeſſed of ſo few talents to make him popular. He was truſted, perhaps, leſs than he deſerved, by the moſt obſequious of his parliaments; but it ſeems upon the whole apparent, that the nation adhered to his government, more from a fear of the return of his predeceſſor, than from any attachment to his own perſon, or reſpect for his right to the throne.

Mary, his conſort, was in her perſon tall and well proportioned, with an oval viſage, lively eyes, agreeable features, a mild aſpect, and an air of dignity. Her apprehenſion was clear, her memory tenacious, and her judgment ſolid. She was a zealous proteſtant, ſcrupulouſly exact in all the duties of devotion, of an even temper, of a calm and mild converſation; ſhe was ruffled by no paſſion, and ſeems to have been a ſtranger to the emotions of natural affection; for ſhe aſcended the throne from which her father had been depoſed, and treated her ſiſter as an alien to her blood. In a word, Mary ſeems to have imbibed the cold diſpoſition of her huſband, and to have centered all her ambition in deſerving the epithet of an humble and obedient wife. She died on the 28th of December, 1694, aged 33.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, ſiſter to queen Mary, and daughter of James II. aſcended the throne on the death of William III. A. D. 1702, with the general approbation of all parties. She was now in the thirty-eighth year of her age, and by her huſband, George prince of Denmark, had brought a numerous offſpring; but they all died in infancy, except the duke of Glouceſter, who reached the age of eleven, and was juſt beginning to give high promiſes of future worth, when he alſo died a premature death.

The late king, whoſe whole life had been ſpent in one continued oppoſition to the king of France, and to all whoſe politics conſiſted in forming alliances againſt him, died at the eve of a war with that monarch. The preſent queen, who generally took the advice of her miniſtry in every important tranſaction, was upon this occaſion urged by oppoſing counſels; a part of her miniſtry were for war, while another part as earneſtly declared for peace. The counſel and opinion of the former, however, preponderated; the queen reſolved to follow their advice, and communicated her intention to the houſe of

commons, by whom it was alſo approved, and war was declared accordingly.

In the queen's declaration of war, Louis XIV. was charged with having taken poſſeſſion of a great part of the Spaniſh dominions, in order to ſubvert the liberties of Europe, and obſtruct the freedom of navigation and commerce; beſides having offered an unpardonable inſult to the Engliſh nation, by acknowledging the title of the pretender. He was alſo accuſed of attempting to unite the crown of Spain to his own dominions, by placing his grandſon upon the throne of that kingdom, and thus endeavouring to deſtroy the equanimity of power which cemented the ſtates of Europe. This declaration on the part of the Engliſh, was ſeconded by ſimilar declarations of war on the ſame day, by the Dutch and Germans. The French monarch could not ſuppreſs his anger at ſuch a combination; but his chief reſentment fell upon the Dutch. He declared, with great emotion, "that as for thoſe gentlemen pedlars, they ſhould one day repent their inſolence and preſumption, in declaring war againſt one whoſe power they had formerly felt and dreaded." However, the affairs of the allies were no way impeded by his threats. The earl of Marlborough was appointed general of the Engliſh forces; and he was ſtill further flattered by the Dutch, who, though the earl of Athlone had a right to ſhare the command, appointed Marlborough generaliſſimo of the allied army. And it muſt be confeſſed, that few men ſhone more, either in debate or action, than he; ſerene in the midſt of danger, and indefatigable in the cabinet: ſo that he became the moſt formidable enemy to France that England had ever produced ſince the battles of Creſſy and of Agincourt.

The earl of Marlborough had learned the firſt rudiments of the art of war under the famous marſhal Turenne, having been a volunteer in his army. He was, at firſt, rather more remarkable for the beauty of his perſon than the greatneſs of his talents; and he went in the French camp by the name of the handſome Engliſhman; but Turenne, who ſaw deeper into mankind, perceived the ſuperiority of his talents, and prognoſticated his future greatneſs. See a biographical ſketch of his life under CHURCHILL, vol. iv. p. 580—585. The firſt attempt that Marlborough made to deviate from the general practices of the army, which were founded in error, was to advance the ſubaltern officers, whoſe merit had hitherto been neglected. Regardleſs of ſeniority, wherever he found abilities, he was ſure to promote them; and thus he had all the upper ranks of commanders rather remarkable for their ſkill and talents, than for their age and experience. In his firſt campaign, the beginning of July, 1702, he repaired to the camp at Nimeguen, where he took the command at the head of an army of ſixty thouſand men. He was oppoſed, on the ſide of France, by the duke of Burgundy, grandſon to the king, a youth more qualified to grace a court than to conduct an army; but the real acting general was the marſhal Boufflers, who commanded under him, an officer of great courage and activity. But wherever Marlborough advanced, the French were obliged to retire before him, leaving all Spaniſh Guelderland at his diſcretion. The duke of Burgundy, finding himſelf obliged to retreat before the allied army, rather than expoſe himſelf longer to ſuch a mortifying indignity, returned to Verſailles, leaving the duke de Boufflers to command alone. Boufflers, confounded at the rapidity of the enemy's progreſs, retired towards Brabant, where Marlborough had no deſign to purſue; contented with ending the campaign by taking the city of Liege, in which was found an immenſe ſum of money, and a great number of priſoners. By the ſucceſs of this campaign, Marlborough eſtabliſhed his military character, acquired the admiration and eſteem of the army, and confirmed himſelf in the confidence of the allies.

Upon his return to London, he was received with the moſt flattering teſtimonies of public approbation. He was honoured with the public thanks of the houſe of commons, and was created a duke by the queen. His ſuperior ſucceſs ſeemed to conſole the nation for ſome unſucceſsful expeditions at ſea. Sir John Munden had permitted a French ſquadron of fourteen ſhips to eſcape him, by taking ſhelter in the harbour of Corunna, for which he was diſmiſſed the ſervice by prince George. An attempt was alſo made upon Cadiz by ſea and land, ſir George Rooke commanding the navy, and the duke of Ormond the land forces; but this alſo miſcarried. But the Engliſh arms were crowned with ſucceſs at Vigo, where the duke of Ormond landed his army at the diſtance of ſix miles from the city; while the fleet forcing their way into the harbour, the French ſhips that had taken refuge there were burnt by the enemy, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Engliſh. Nevertheleſs ten ſhips of war were taken, together with eleven galleons, and above a million of money in ſilver. The advantage acquired by this expedition, was damped by the baſe conduct of ſome officers in the Weſt Indies. Admiral Benbow, a bold and ſpirited ſeaman, had been ſtationed in that part of the world with ten ſhips, to diſtreſs the enemy's trade. Being informed that Du Caſſe, the French admiral, was in thoſe ſeas with a force equal to his own, he reſolved to attack him; and ſoon after diſcovered the enemy's ſquadron near St. Martha, ſteering under ſhore. He quickly threw out the ſignal for action, formed the line, and the engagement began. He found, however, that ſome officers of the fleet had taken diſguſt at his conduct; and that they permitted him, almoſt alone, to ſuſtain the whole fire of the enemy. Nevertheleſs the engagement continued till night, and he determined to renew it the next morning, but had the mortification to perceive that all the reſt of the ſhips had fallen aſtern, except one, who joined with him in urging the purſuit of the enemy. For four days did this intrepid ſeaman, aſſiſted only by one ſhip, purſue and engage the enemy, while his daſtardly officers remained in the back ground, ſpectators of his gallantry. His laſt day's battle was more furious than all the former; alone, and unſuſtained by the reſt, he engaged the whole French ſquadron, when his leg was ſhattered by a cannon ball. He then ordered that they ſhould place him in a cradle upon the quarter-deck; and there he continued to give orders as before, till at laſt his ſhip became quite diſabled, and could continue the chaſe no longer. He ſoon after died of his wounds; and his cowardly officers, Kirby and Wade, were tried by a court martial, and ſhot at Plymouth. Hudſon died before his trial. Conſtable, Vincent, and Fog, came off with ſlighter puniſhment. The parliament was highly pleaſed with the brilliant ſucceſs which had attended the Engliſh arms on the continent. They voted forty thouſand ſeamen, and fifty thouſand land forces, to act in conjunction with thoſe of the allies, in the enſuing campaign.

The duke of Marlborough croſſed the channel in the beginning of April, 1706; and, aſſembling the allied army, reſolved to ſhew that his former ſucceſſes were only the prelude to greater triumphs. He opened the campaign with the ſiege of Bonne, the reſidence of the elector of Cologne. This held out but a ſhort time againſt the ſucceſſive attacks of the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel, the celebrated Coehorn, and general Fagel. He next re-took Huy, the garriſon of which, after a vigorous defence, ſurrendered priſoners of war. The ſiege of Limburg being then undertaken, the place ſurrendered in two days; and, by the conqueſt of this garriſon, the allies ſecured the country of Liege, and the electorate of Cologne, from the further deſigns of the enemy. Such was the ſucceſs of the campaign in the Netherlands; and which, in all probability, would have produced events of greater importance, had not the duke of Marlborough been reſtrained by the Dutch, who began to be influenced by the Loveſtein faction, ever averſe to a war with France.

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The duke, in his next campaign, was, for this reaſon, determined to act more offenſively; and, furniſhed with proper authority from queen Anne, he informed the Dutch that it was his intention to march to the relief of the empire that had been for ſome time oppreſſed by the French forces. The ſtates-general, either willing to ſecond his efforts, or fearing to weaken the alliance by diſtruſt, gave him full power to march wherever he thought proper, with aſſurances of their aſſiſtance in all his endeavours. The French king now appointed marſhal Villeroy to lead his army; the brave and gallant Boufflers being no longer thought an equal match for the enterpriſing duke of Marlborough. See the enterpriſing character of BOUFFLERS, vol. iii. p. 307.

Villeroy was brave, generous, and polite, but unequal to the great taſk of commanding an army; and ſtill more ſo, when oppoſed to ſuch a rival. Marlborough, therefore, who was famous for ſtudying the diſpoſition and abilities of the general he was to oppoſe, having no apprehenſions from his preſent antagoniſt, inſtead of going forward to meet him, he haſtened to the ſuccour of the emperor, as had been agreed at the commencement of the campaign. The Engliſh general, who was reſolved to ſtrike a vigorous blow for his relief, took with him about thirteen thouſand Engliſh troops, traverſed extenſive countries by forced marches, arrived unexpectedly on the banks of the Danube, defeated a body of French and Bavarians ſtationed at Donavert, then paſſed the Danube with his triumphant army, and laid the dukedom of Bavaria, which had ſided with the enemy, under contribution. Villeroy, who affected to hang upon his rear, ſeemed all at once to have loſt ſight of his enemy; nor was he ſure of his route, till informed of his ſucceſſes. Marſhal Tallard, in his turn, prepared to obſtruct the duke of Marlborough's retreat; and being joined by the duke of Bavaria's forces, the French army in that part of the continent amounted to ſixty thouſand men, commanded by two of the beſt generals in the French ſervice. Tallard had eſtabliſhed his reputation by many former victories; he was active and penetrating, and had riſen by his merits alone to the firſt ſtation in the army. The duke of Bavaria was equally experienced in the field, and had ſtill ſtronger motives for his activity. His country was ravaged and pillaged before his eyes; and nothing remained of his poſſeſſions but the army he commanded. To oppoſe theſe powerful generals, Marlborough was joined by a body of thirty thouſand men, under prince Eugene, whoſe troops were well diſciplined, but ſtill more formidable by the conduct and fame of their general. Prince Eugene had been bred from his infancy in camps; he was almoſt equal to Marlborough in diſcernment, and his ſuperior in the art of war. Their talents were of a ſimilar kind; and, inſtead of any mean rivalſhip or jealouſy, they concurred in the ſame deſigns; and the ſame good ſenſe determined them always to the ſame object.

This allied army, at the head of which Eugene and Marlborough commanded, amounted to about fifty-two thouſand men, troops which had been accuſtomed to conquer, and that had ſeen the French, the Turks, and the Ruſſians, fly before them. The French, as already obſerved, amounted to ſixty thouſand, who had ſhared in the conqueſts of their great monarch, Louis XIV. and had been familiar with victory. Both armies, after many marchings and countermarchings, approached each other. The French were poſted on a hill near the town of Hochſtet; their right covered by the Danube and the village of Blenheim, their left by the village of Lutzengen, and their front by a rivulet, the banks of which were ſteep, and the bottom marſhy. In this advantageous poſition, the French awaited the aſſault of the enemy; and the allied army heſitated not to attack them. The right wing of the French was commanded by marſhal Tallard; their left by the duke of Bavaria, and under him general Marſin, an experienced Frenchman. Marlborough and Eugene were ſtimulated haſtily to engage, from an intercepted letter from Villeroy, intimating that he was preparing to cut off all communication between the Rhine and the allied army. The diſpoſitions being therefore made for the attack, the allied forces advanced into the plain, and were ranged in order of battle. The cannonading began about nine in the morning, and continued to about half after twelve. Then the troops advanced forward; the right under the direction of prince Eugene, the left headed by Marlborough, and oppoſed to marſhal Tallard. The duke of Marlborough, at the head of the Engliſh, having paſſed the rivulet, attacked the cavalry of Tallard with great bravery. Prince Eugene, on the left, had not yet engaged the forces of the elector; and it was near an hour before he could bring up his troops to their line. Tallard ſupported the action with wonderful intrepidity: his cavalry were thrice driven back, and rallied as often. He had poſted a large body of forces in the village of Blenheim; and he now made an attempt to bring them to the charge; but they were attacked by a detachment of Marlborough's forces ſo vigorouſly, that, inſtead of aſſiſting Tallard, they could hardly maintain their ground. The French cavalry being now attacked in flank, were ſoon defeated. The Engliſh army, thus half victorious, penetrated between the two bodies of the French commanded by the marſhal and the elector, while at the ſame time the forces in the village of Blenheim were ſeparated by another detachment. In this awkward ſituation, Tallard endeavoured to rally ſome flying ſquadrons; but, from his ſhort-ſightedneſs, miſtaking a detachment of the enemy for his own, he was taken priſoner by the Heſſian troops. In the mean time prince Eugene, after having been thrice driven back, at laſt put the enemy into confuſion. The rout then became general, and the carnage dreadful. The conſternation was ſuch, that the French ſoldiers threw themſelves into the Danube, without knowing where they fled. The allies now ſurrounded the village of Blenheim, where thirteen thouſand men ſtill kept their ground; but ſeeing themſelves cut off from all communication with the reſt of the army, they threw down their arms, and ſurrendered priſoners of war. Thus ended the famous battle of Blenheim, one of the moſt complete victories that was ever obtained. Twelve thouſand French and Bavarians were ſlain in the field, or drowned in the Danube, and thirteen thouſand were made priſoners of war. Of the allies, about five thouſand were killed, and eight thouſand wounded. The loſs of the battle was imputed to two capital errors committed by marſhal Tallard; namely, his weakening the centre by placing ſo large a body of troops in the village of Blenheim, and his ſuffering the Engliſh to croſs the rivulet, and form on the other ſide, without once attempting to obſtruct them.

The next day, when the duke of Marlborough viſited his priſoner the marſhal Tallard, he condeſcendingly took him by the hand, when Tallard remarked, truly characteriſtic of a Frenchman, "Sir, you have overcome an army of the beſt ſoldiers in the world."—"I hope, ſir," (replied the duke of Marlborough,) you will except thoſe by whom they have been beaten." A country of a hundred leagues in extent fell by this defeat into the hands of the victors; and the duke, ſoon after the finiſhing of the campaign, repaired to Berlin, where he procured a reinforcement of eight thouſand Pruſſians, to ſerve under prince Eugene in Italy. Thence he proceeded to negociate for further ſupplies at the court of Hanover, and ſoon after returned to England, where he was received with open arms, as his ſervices juſtly merited.

In the mean time, the arms of England were not leſs fortunate by ſea. The French having been employed in equipping a ſtrong ſquadron at Breſt, ſir Cloudeſley Shovel and ſir George Rooke were ſent to watch their motions. Sir George, however, had further orders to convoy a body of forces to Barcelona, where a fruitleſs attack was made by the prince of Heſſe. Finding no hopes from this expedition,

pedition, the troops were reimbarked; and ſir George Rooke, joined by ſir Cloudeſley, called a council of war, and reſolved to make an attempt upon Gibraltar, then belonging to Spain. The prince of Heſſe landed his troops, to the number of eighteen hundred, on the neck of land adjoining, and ſummoned the garriſon to ſurrender, but without effect. Next day the admiral gave orders for cannonading the town; and perceiving that the enemy were driven from the fortifications at the South Mole, captain Whitaker was ordered to arm all the boats, and aſſault that quarter. Thoſe officers who happened to be neareſt the Mole, immediately manned their boats without orders, and entered the fortifications ſword in hand. But the Spaniards ſprung a mine, by which two lieutenants, and about a hundred men, were killed and wounded. Nevertheleſs, the two captains, Hicks and Jumper, took poſſeſſion of a platform, and kept their ground, until they were ſuſtained by captain Whitaker and the reſt of the ſeamen, who took a redoubt between the Mole and the town by ſtorm. Then the governor capitulated, and the prince of Heſſe entered the garriſon, amazed at the ſucceſs of the attempt, conſidering the ſtrength of the fortifications. Gibraltar has ever ſince remained in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and continues of the utmoſt uſe for ſheltering our fleets, or refitting any part of the navy deſtined to annoy an enemy, or protect our trade, in the Mediterranean.

Soon after the taking this important garriſon, the Engliſh fleet, conſiſting of fifty-three ſhips of the line, came up with a French fleet, to the number of fifty-two, commanded by the count de Thouloufe, off the coaſt of Malaga. A little after ten in the morning the engagement began with equal fury on both ſides, and continued with doubtful ſucceſs till two in the afternoon, when the van of the French gave way. For two ſucceſſive days the Engliſh admiral endeavoured to renew the engagement, which the French fleet as cautiouſly declined, and at laſt diſappeared totally. Both nations claimed the honour of the victory upon this occaſion; but the Engliſh rode triumphantly on the ocean. In the mean time, Philip king of Spain, alarmed at the reduction of Gibraltar, diſpatched the marquis of Villadurias with a large army to retake it. France alſo ſent a fleet of thirteen ſhips of the line; but a part of this was diſperſed by a tempeſt, and part was taken by the Engliſh. Nor was the land army more ſucceſsful. The ſiege continued for four months, during which the prince of Heſſe, who commanded the garriſon for the Engliſh, exhibited many proofs of valour. At length the Spaniards, having attempted to ſcale the rock in vain, and finding no hopes of re-taking the place, abandoned the enterpriſe.

While the Engliſh were thus victorious by land and ſea, a new ſcene of contention was opened on the ſide of Spain, where the ambition of the European princes exerted itſelf with the ſame fury that had filled the reſt of the continent. Philip, the fourth grandſon of Louis XIV. had been placed upon the throne of Spain, and had been received with the joyful concurrence of the people. He had alſo been nominated ſucceſſor to the crown by the late king of Spain's will. But in a former treaty among the powers of Europe, Charles, ſon of the emperor of Germany, was appointed heir to that crown; and this treaty had been guaranteed by France herſelf, though ſhe now reſolved to reverſe that conſent in favour of a deſcendant of the houſe of Bourbon. Charles was further led to put in his claim for the crown of Spain by the invitation of the Catalonians, who declared in his favour, and by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh and the Portugueſe, who promiſed to arm in his cauſe. Upon his way to Spain, he landed in England, where he was received by the dukes of Somerſet and Marlborough, who conducted him to Windſor. The queen's deportment to him was equally noble and obliging, while, on his ſide, he gave general ſatisfaction, by the politeneſs and affability of his conduct. He was furniſhed with two hundred tranſports, thirty ſhips of war, and nine thouſand men, for the conqueſt of that extenſive empire. The earl of Peterborough, a man of romantic bravery, offered to conduct them; and his ſingle ſervice was thought equivalent to armies.

The earl of Peterborough was one of the moſt ſingular and extraordinary men of the age in which he lived. At the early age of fifteen he fought againſt the Moors in Africa; at twenty he aſſiſted in compaſſing the revolution; and he now carried on the war in Spain almoſt at his own expence; his friendſhip for Charles being one of his chief inducements to this great undertaking. He was deformed in his perſon; but poſſeſſed a mind the moſt generous, honourable, and active. His firſt object upon landing in Spain, was to reduce Barcelona, a ſtrong city, with a garriſon of five thouſand men, while his own army amounted to little more than nine thouſand. The operations were begun upon Fort Monjuic, ſtrongly ſituated on a hill that commanded the city. The out-works were taken by ſtorm; and a ſhell chancing to fall into the body of the fort, the powder magazine blew up. This ſtruck the garriſon with ſuch conſternation, that they ſurrendered without further reſiſtance. During the interval which was taken up in ſigning the negociations, a body of Germans and Catalonians belonging to the Engliſh army entered the town, and were plundering all before them. The governor, who was treating with the Engliſh general, thought himſelf betrayed; upon which, lord Peterborough, ſtruck with the ſuddenneſs of the tranſaction, left the writings unfiniſhed, and, flying among the plunderers, drove them from their prey, and returned calmly back, and ſigned the capitulation. The Spaniards were equally amazed at the generoſity of the Engliſh, and the baſeneſs of their own countrymen, the Catalonians, who had led on to the ſpoil. The conqueſt of all Valencia ſucceeded to the taking of this important place.

The Engliſh, however, thought very little of theſe victories; for their whole attention was taken up by the ſplendour of their conqueſts in Flanders; and the duke of Marlborough took care ſtill to engroſs their admiration and regard. He had early in the ſpring opened the campaign, and brought an army of eighty thouſand men into the field. But ſtill he expected further reinforcements from Denmark and Pruſſia; and the court of France very prudently reſolved to attack him before this junction. Villeroy, who ſtill commanded the French army, conſiſting of eighty thouſand men, had orders to act upon the defenſive; but, whenever he ſaw an advantage, to hazard an engagement. The duke, in the mean time, had received a ſlight repulſe by the defection of prince Louis of Baden; and he reſolved to retrieve his credit by ſome ſignal action. Villeroy had drawn up his forces in a ſtrong camp; his right was flanked by the river Mehaigne, his left defended by a deep marſh, and the village of Ramillies lay in the centre. Marlborough, who contemplated this diſpoſition, drew up his army accordingly. He knew that the left wing of the enemy could not paſs the marſh to attack him but at a great diſadvantage; he therefore weakened his force in that quarter, and attacked the centre with ſuperior numbers. The enemy's line was ſoon put into diſorder by this judicious movement, and gave way on all ſides. The horſe, abandoning their foot, were ſo cloſely purſued, or unexpectedly oppoſed in their retreat, that almoſt all of them were cut to pieces. Six thouſand were taken priſoners, and about eight thouſand were killed and wounded. This victory was almoſt as ſignal as that of Blenheim; Bavaria and Cologne were the fruits of the one, and all Brabant was gained by the other. The French troops were diſpirited; the city of Paris was in confuſion. Louis, who had long been flattered with conqueſt, was now humbled, and almoſt excited the compaſſion of his enemies. He entreated for peace, but as yet in vain; the allies carried all before them, and his very capital trembled to the center at the expected approach of the conquerors.

querors. What neither his power, his armies, nor his politics, could effect, was brought about by diſſenſions in England.

The councils of queen Anne had hitherto been governed by a whig miniſtry; for though the duke of Marlborough had ſtarted in the tory intereſt, he ſoon joined the oppoſite faction, becauſe he found them moſt ſincere in their deſires to curb the inſolence of France. The whigs ſtill purſued the policy of the late king; and, impreſſed with a ſpirit of liberty, ſtrove to annihilate deſpotiſm in every part of Europe. In a government where the reaſoning faculty of a few individuals can operate upon the minds of thoſe in command, the politics of the miniſtry muſt alter as the people happen to change. The people in fact were beginning to change. The queen's perſonal virtues, her ſucceſſes, her deference for the clergy, and, in turn, their great veneration for her, began to have a prevailing influence over the whole nation. The people of every rank, in conſequence of her victories, would ſtoop to defend the moſt ſervile tenets, when they tended to flatter or increaſe the power of the ſovereign. They argued in favour of ſtrict hereditary ſucceſſion, divine right, and non-reſiſtance to the regal power. The ſpirit of toryiſm began again to prevail; and the whigs, who had raiſed the queen to the deſerved admiration and dread of all Europe, were the firſt that were likely to fall by the ſervices they had performed. The tories, though affecting to join in vigorous meaſures againſt France, were never ſeriouſly their enemies; they rather hated the Dutch, as of principles very oppoſite to their own; and therefore longed for an opportunity of withdrawing from the compact. They began to meditate ſchemes of oppoſition to the duke of Marlborough. They were taught to regard him as a ſelf-intereſted man, who ſacrificed the real advantages of the nation, in protracting a ruinous war, for his own private emolument and glory. They ſaw their country oppreſſed by an increaſing load of taxes, which, by a continuance of the war, muſt inevitably become an intolerable burthen. Their ſecret diſcontents began to ſpread; and they wanted only a few determined leaders to aſſiſt them in removing the whig miniſtry.

In the mean time, a ſucceſſion of loſſes began to diſſipate the conquering phrenſy which had ſeized the nation, and induced them to wiſh for peace. The army under Charles in Spain was then commanded by lord Galway. This nobleman having received intelligence that the enemy, under the command of the duke of Berwick, was poſted near the town of Almanza, advanced thither to give him battle. The conflict began about two in the afternoon, and the whole front of each army was equally engaged. The centre, conſiſting chiefly of battalions from Great Britain and Holland, ſeemed at firſt victorious; but the Portugueſe horſe, by whom they were ſupported, betaking themſelves to flight, the Engliſh troops were flanked and ſurrounded on every ſide. In this emergency they formed the ſolid ſquare, and retired to an eminence; where, being ignorant of the country, and deſtitute of all ſupplies, they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war, to the number of ten thouſand men. This victory was complete and deciſive; and all Spain, except the province of Catalonia, returned to their allegiance under Philip, their native ſovereign.

An attempt was made upon Toulon, by the duke of Savoy and prince Eugene, ſupported by an Engliſh fleet. The prince, with a body of thirty thouſand men, took poſſeſſion of the eminences that commanded the city, while the fleet attacked and reduced two forts at the entrance of the mole. But the French king ſending an army to the relief of the place, and the duke of Savoy perceiving no hopes of compelling the city to a ſpeedy ſurrender, reſolved to abandon his enterpriſe; and, having embarked his artillery, he retreated by night without any moleſtation. The fleet under ſir Cloudeſley Shovel was alſo unfortunate. Having ſet ſail for England, and being in ſoundings, on the 22d of October, about eight at night, a violent ſtorm ariſing, his ſhip was caſt away upon the rocks of Scilly, and every ſoul on-board periſhed. The like fate befel three ſhips more, while three or four others were ſaved with the utmoſt difficulty. The admiral's body being caſt aſhore, was buried in the ſand; but it was dug up again, and very properly interred in Weſtminſter-abbey.

Nor were the allies more proſperous on the Upper Rhine in Germany. Marſhal Villars, the French general, carried all before him, and was upon the point of reſtoring the elector of Bavaria. The only hopes of the people lay in the activity and conduct of the duke of Marlborough, who opened the campaign at Underluch, near Bruſſels, about the middle of May. But even here they were diſappointed, as in all the reſt. That general, either really willing to protract the war, or receiving intelligence that the French army was ſuperior in numbers, declined an engagement, and rather endeavoured to ſecure himſelf than annoy the enemy. Thus, after ſeveral marchings and counter-marchings, which it would be tedious to relate, both armies retired into winter quarters, at the latter end of October. The French made preparations for the next campaign with recruited vigour. The duke of Marlborough returned to England, to meet with a reception which he did not at all expect.

Previous to the diſgrace of the whig miniſtry, whoſe fall was now at hand, a meaſure of the greateſt importance took place in parliament; a meaſure that had been wiſhed by many, but thought too difficult for execution. This was the union between the two kingdoms of England and Scotland. This great political taſk was reſerved for queen Anne to accompliſh, at a time when both nations were on the moſt friendly footing, and the queen's title and adminiſtration approved by all. Accordingly, the queen having appointed commiſſioners on both ſides, they met at Whitehall, where the lord-keeper Cowper propoſed, "that the two kingdoms of England and Scotland ſhould be for ever united into one, and thence forward called by the name of GREAT BRITAIN; that it ſhould be repreſented by one and the ſame parliament, and governed by the ſame hereditary monarch." The Scottiſh commiſſioners, on their ſide, propoſed, "that the ſubjects of Scotland ſhould for ever enjoy the ſame rights and privileges with thoſe of England; and that all ſtatutes, contrary to the tenor of theſe privileges in either kingdom, ſhould be repealed." Theſe articles were unanimouſly agreed upon by the commiſſioners, and laid before the parliament.

In this treaty it was ſtipulated, that the ſucceſſion to the united kingdoms ſhould be veſted in the houſe of Hanover, being proteſtants; that the united kingdoms ſhould be repreſented by one and the ſame parliament; that all the ſubjects of Great Britain ſhould enjoy a communication of privileges and advantages; that they ſhould have the ſame allowances and privileges with reſpect to commerce and cuſtoms; that the laws concerning public right, civil government and policy, ſhould be the ſame throughout the two united kingdoms; but that no alteration ſhould be made in laws which concerned private right, except for the evident benefit of the ſubjects of Scotland; that the courts of ſeſſion, and all other courts of judicature in Scotland, ſhould remain, as then conſtituted by the laws of that kingdom, with the ſame authority and privileges as before the union; that Scotland ſhould be repreſented in the parliament of Great Britain, by ſixteen peers, and forty-five commoners; that all peers of Scotland ſhould be conſidered as peers of Great Britain, and rank immediately after the Engliſh peers of the like degree at the time of the union, and before ſuch as ſhould be created after it; that all laws and ſtatutes in either kingdom, ſo far as they might be inconſiſtent with the terms of theſe articles, ſhould ceaſe, and be declared for ever void.

In the mean time Mr. Harley, ſecretary of ſtate, who had

had contrived to infinuate himſelf into the queen's good opinion, determined to ſap the credit of the duke of Marlborough, and of lord Godolphin, his ſon-in-law, who was at the head of the treaſury. His aim was to unite the tory intereſt, and expel the whigs. Harley, better known afterwards as lord Oxford, was a man of uncommon erudition, great knowledge, and equal perſeverance. He choſe for his coadjutor Henry St. John, afterwards the famous lord Bolingbroke, a man of great eloquence, and of ſome wit, but little principle. This ſtateſman was at firſt extremely ſubſervient to Oxford's deſigns: but when he came to underſtand the full extent of his own influence, he had the ambition to aim at being premier, and aſpired to depreſs his original patron. To this junto was added ſir Simon Harcourt, a lawyer of conſiderable abilities. Theſe uniting, exerted their endeavours to reconcile the ſcattered body of the tories; and diffuſed aſſurances among their partizans, that the queen would no longer bear the tyranny of a whig miniſtry. She had ever been, they ſaid, a friend in her heart to the high-church party, by which appellation the tory faction now came to be diſtinguiſhed; and to convince the world of the truth of their aſſertions, the queen ſhortly after beſtowed two biſhoprics on clergymen who had openly condemned the revolution.

At length the whig party in the miniſtry opened their eyes to the intrigues of their adverſaries; and the duke of Marlborough had no other means of ſupporting his credit but by openly oppoſing lord Oxford, whom he was determined to diſplace. The ſecretary had lately incurred ſome ſuſpicions, from the ſecret correſpondence which one Gregg, an under-clerk in his office, kept up with the court of France. Gregg was executed, and the duke of Marlborough was willing to take advantage of this opportunity to remove lord Oxford. He accordingly wrote to the queen, that he and lord Godolphin could ſerve her majeſty no longer, ſhould the preſent ſecretary be continued in his place. The queen diſregarding the ſecret intrigues of her miniſters, was willing to keep them all in friendſhip, and endeavoured to appeaſe the duke's reſentment by every art of diſſimulation. But he was too confident of his own power, and continued obſtinate in his refuſal. The earl of Godolphin and the duke went ſo far as to retire from court, and the queen ſaw herſelf in danger of being deſerted by her miniſtry. A ſullen ſilence prevailed through the cabinet, and ſome were even heard to ſay, "that no deliberations could be purſued in the abſence of the duke and the lord-treaſurer." The queen, therefore, ſent for the duke of Marlborough, and told him that Harley ſhould immediately reſign his office; and it was accordingly conferred on Mr. Henry Boyle, chancellor of the exchequer.

The firſt efforts of the tory party being thus fruſtrated, Bolingbroke was reſolved to ſhare in his friend Harley's diſgrace; as were alſo ſir Simon Harcourt, attorney-general, and ſir Thomas Manſell, comptroller of the houſehold, who relinquiſhed their employments. Bolingbroke, as ſecretary at war, was ſucceeded by Robert Walpole, who made ſo conſiderable a figure in the two ſucceeding reigns. The duke thus ſeemed to triumph in his reſentment; after which he returned to proſecute his victories on the continent, where a new harveſt of glory attended him. By his abſence, however, Harley was enabled to throw off the maſk, and to take more vigorous meaſures for proſecuting his deſigns. In him the queen repoſed all her truſt, notwithſtanding he had no viſible concern in the adminiſtration. The firſt triumph of the tories, in which the queen diſcovered an open partiality in their favour, was ſeen in the following tranſaction;—of no great importance in itſelf, indeed, but remarkable only from the conſequences it produced.

Henry Sacheverel, a clergyman bred at Oxford, had for ſome time diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his adherence to the tories or high-church men, and by conſtantly inveighing againſt the diſſenters. At the ſummer aſſizes at Derby, he held forth in that ſame ſtrain before the judges. On the fifth of November following, he declaimed violently in St. Paul's church, defended the doctrine of non-reſiſtance, inveighed againſt the toleration of diſſenters, declared the church in danger from its enemies, and neglected by its friends. Sir Samuel Gerrard, lord-mayor of London, countenanced this harangue, which, though very weak both in the matter and ſtyle, was publiſhed under his protection, and extolled by the tories. Theſe ſermons owed all their celebrity to the complexion of the times, and are now deſervedly neglected. Mr. Dolben, ſon to the archbiſhop of York, laid a complaint before the houſe of commons againſt theſe inſidious rhapſodies, and thus gave force to what would have ſoon been forgotten. The moſt obnoxious paragraphs were read; upon which the ſermons were voted ſeditious libels. Sacheverel was brought to the bar of the houſe; where he openly avowed himſelf as the author, and gloried in what he had done. Being ordered to withdraw, it was reſolved to impeach him of high crimes and miſdemeanors at the bar of the houſe of lords; and Mr. Dolben was directed to conduct the proſecution, in the name of the commons of all England. A committee was appointed to draw up articles of impeachment; Sacheverel was taken into cuſtody, and a day appointed for his trial in Weſtminſter-hall.

The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this very extraordinary trial, which laſted three weeks; and the queen was every day preſent as a private ſpectator. The managers for the commons were ſir Joſeph Jekyl, Mr. Eyre, ſolicitor-general, ſir Peter King, recorder, general Stanhope, ſir Thomas Parker, and Mr. Walpole. The doctor was defended by ſir Simon Harcourt, Mr. Phipps, Dr. Atterbury, Dr. Smallridge, and Dr. Freind. While the trial continued, nothing could exceed the outrage of the populace. They ſurrounded the queen's ſedan, exclaiming, "God bleſs your majeſty and the church! we hope your majeſty is for doctor Sacheverel." They deſtroyed ſeveral meeting-houſes, plundered the dwellings of many eminent diſſenters, and even propoſed to attack the Bank. The queen, in compliance with the requeſt of the commons, publiſhed a proclamation for ſuppreſſing the tumults; and ſeveral perſons being apprehended, were tried for high treaſon. Two were convicted, and ſentenced to die; but were pardoned.

Thoſe who are removed from the intereſts of that period, will wonder at ſo great a conteſt from ſo ſlight a cauſe; but, in fact, the ſpirit of contention had been previouſly laid in the nation, and this declaimer only happened to ſet fire to the train. The lords, when they retired to conſult upon his ſentence, were divided, and continued undetermined for ſome time. At length, after much obſtinate diſpute and altercation, Sacheverel was found guilty by a majority of ſeventeen voices; but no leſs than thirty-four peers entered a proteſt againſt the verdict. He was prohibited from preaching for three years; and his two ſermons were ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. Yet Sacheverel was ſoon after preſented to a benefice in North Wales, where he was received with every mark of public approbation.

The duke of Marlborough, in the mean time, was leading forward the armies of England and her allies in Flanders, to many new and important victories. The French were now diſpirited, and kept upon the defenſive; but ſtill, when forced to engage, they fought with great obſtinacy, and diſputed every inch of ground. Peace had more than once been ſolicited, and treaties entered upon, and fruſtrated. The duke was therefore reſolved to puſh his good fortune. At the head of a numerous army he approached the village of Oudenarde, where the French, in equal numbers, were poſted. A furious engagement enſued, in which the French were as uſual obliged to retire, and took the advantage of the night to ſecure their retreat. Three thouſand were left dead on the field of battle, and ſeven thouſand taken priſoners. In conſequence of this victory,

victory, Liſle, the ſtrongeſt garriſon in Flanders, was taken, after an obſtinate ſiege. Ghent followed; while Bruges, and the other leſſer towns in French Flanders, were abandoned by their defenders. Thus the campaign ended with ſecuring a barrier to the Dutch, the principal cauſe of the war; and the next object of the invincible Marlborough was to invade the enemy's country.

Tournay, one of the ſtrongeſt cities in French Flanders, was the firſt object of the operations of the allied army, which now amounted to one hundred and ten thouſand fighting men. Though the garriſon did not exceed twelve thouſand, yet the place was thought to be impregnable. The beſieging army proceeded by ſapping; and their troops that were conducting the mines frequently met with thoſe of the enemy under ground, purſuing the ſame plan of deſtruction, and furiouſly engaged in ſubterranean conflicts. At length, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, the city ſurrendered by capitulation.

The bloody battle of Malplaquet next followed. The French army, under the conduct of the celebrated marſhal Villars, amounting to a hundred and twenty thouſand men, were poſted behind the woods of La Merte and Taniers, in the vicinity of Malplaquet. They had fortified their poſition in ſuch a manner with lines, ravines, and trees laid acroſs, that it ſeemed to be quite impregnable. What were the duke's motives for attacking the enemy under ſuch a diſadvantage, have never been explained; but certainly this was the moſt daring of all his exploits. On the eleventh of September, 1709, early in the morning, the allied army, favoured by a thick fog, began the attack. The chief fury of their impreſſion was made upon the left of the enemy, and with ſuch ſucceſs, that, notwithſtanding their impregnable barricadoes, the French were in leſs than an hour driven from their entrenchments. On the enemy's right, the combat was ſuſtained with much greater obſtinacy. The Dutch, who made the attack, drove them from their firſt line, but were repulſed from the ſecond, with great ſlaughter. The prince of Orange, who led the Dutch, rallied his men, and perſiſted in his efforts with incredible perſeverance, though two horſes had been killed under him, and the greater part of his officers ſlain or diſabled. At laſt, the French were obliged to yield to ſuperior proweſs. Villars being dangerouſly wounded, his army made an excellent retreat under the conduct of marſhal Boufflers, and took poſt near Queſnoy and Valenciennes. The victors took poſſeſſion of the field of battle, on which above twenty thouſand veteran troops of each army lay in promiſcuous ſlaughter. The city of Mons fell in conſequence of this ſignal victory, which concluded the campaign.

In the mean time the queen, who was now wholly directed by the counſels of Harley, made an entire change in the adminiſtration. She began by transferring the poſt of lord-chamberlain from the duke of Kent to the duke of Shrewſbury. Soon after the earl of Sunderland, ſecretary of ſtate, and ſon-in-law to the duke of Marlborough, was diſplaced, and the earl of Dartmouth put in his room. The earl of Godolphin was diveſted of his office, and the treaſury put in commiſſion, ſubjected to the direction of Harley, who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and under-treaſurer. The earl of Rocheſter was declared preſident of the council, in the room of lord Somers. The ſtaff of lord-ſteward being taken from the duke of Devonſhire, was given to the duke of Buckingham; and Mr. Boyle was removed from the ſecretary's office, to make way for Mr. Henry St. John. The lord-chancellor having reſigned the great ſeal, it was firſt put in commiſſion, and then given to ſir Simon Harcourt. The earl of Wharton ſurrendered his commiſſion of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and that employment was conferred upon the duke of Ormond. Mr. George Grenville was appointed ſecretary of war, in the room of Mr. Robert Walpole; and, in a word, there was not one of the whig party left in the office of the ſtate, except the duke of Marlborough.

It now only remained to remove and diſgrace the man who had ſo long and ſo nobly ſtood forth as the champion of his country and its allies. But here a new difficulty ſtarted, and the ungrateful ſtep could not be taken without giving offence to the Dutch, who placed every confidence in the victorious and illuſtrious Marlborough. His enemies at home were therefore obliged to wait a more favourable opportunity for his diſgrace. In the mean time, the duke led on his forces againſt marſhal Villars, who ſeemed reſolved to open the new campaign with the total overthrow of the allied armies. But the duke of Marlborough is ſaid to have riſen higher in military tactics and martial renown, during this campaign, than he had ever done before; and in the field to have excelled every former exploit. The capture of Bouchain was the final reſult, which capitulated after a ſiege of twenty days; and this was the laſt ſervice the duke of Marlborough ever performed. At the time this heroic and unparalleled general was invidiouſly called off from his career of glory, he left the allies in poſſeſſion of a vaſt tract of country, which might be truly ſaid to have been of his own conquering. He had ſubjected to their command Spaniſh Guelderland, Limbourg, Brabant, Flanders, and Hainault; he had made them maſters of the Scarpe; and the capture of Bouchain had opened to them a way into the very heart of France. Upon his return from this campaign, his ungrateful country requited him with various unfounded and ridiculous charges of avarice and peculation; and the ungenerous queen of England thought proper to diſmiſs him from all his employments!

For ſome time before the diſmiſſion of Marlborough, a negociation for peace had been ſecretly carried on between the court of France, and the new miniſtry. They had a double aim in bringing this deſirable end about. It would ſerve to mortify the whigs, and it would free the country from an expenſive war. In order, therefore, to accompliſh the end in view, the earl of Jerſey, who acted in concert with lord Oxford, ſent a private meſſage to the court of France, meanly importing the queen's earneſt deſire for peace, and her wiſh for a conference, and ceſſation of hoſtilities. This intimation was delivered by Gualtier, a-time-ſerving prieſt, who was chaplain to the imperial ambaſſador, and a ſpy for the French court. The meſſage was received with uncommon joy at the French court, and an anſwer was returned, ardently and cordially profeſſing the ſame inclinations. This led the way to a reply, and ſoon after to a more definitive memorial from the court of France, which was immediately tranſmitted to the Dutch by the queen, for their approbation.

The miniſtry having got thus far, the great difficulty ſtill exiſted of making the terms of peace palatable to all the confederates. The earl of Stafford, who had been recalled from the Hague, was now ſent back to Holland, with orders to communicate to the penſionary Heinſius theſe preliminary propoſals, to ſignify the queen's approbation of them, and to propoſe a place where the plenipotentiaries ſhould form a congreſs. The Dutch, upon the inſpection of the preliminaries, were extremely averſe to the conference. They ſent over an envoy purpoſely to turn the queen from ſo degrading a ſubmiſſion; but finding their efforts vain, they fixed upon Utrecht as the place of general conference, and they granted paſſports to the French miniſters accordingly.

Before we mention the reſult of this celebrated congreſs, it may be neceſſary to appriſe the reader, that many of the motives which firſt incited each party to take up arms, were now no more. Charles of Auſtria, in whoſe cauſe England had ſpent ſo much blood and treaſure, was, by the death of his elder brother, the emperor Joſeph, placed on the Imperial throne. There was, therefore, every reaſon for not ſupporting his pretenſions to the Spaniſh monarchy; and the ſame political jealouſy which formerly made it deſirable to place him on the throne of that kingdom, was now neceſſary to be exerted

exerted in keeping him out of it. The elector of Bavaria, who had been intimately connected with the French, was now detached from them; and the Dutch, who had trembled for their barrier, were by this time encroaching upon that of the enemy. Thus accident, and a fortuitous concatenation of events, gave almoſt to every power, except to England and France, all that war could ever give. Yet it was the intereſt of England that her allies ſhould be reinſtated in their rights, but not rendered too powerful.

The conferences began at Utrecht, under the conduct of Robinſon biſhop of Briſtol, lord privy-ſeal, and the earl of Stafford, on the ſide of the Engliſh; of Buys and Vanderduſſen, on the part of the Dutch; and of the marſhal d'Uxelles, the cardinal Polignac, and M. Menager, in behalf of France. The miniſters of the emperor and of Savoy aſſiſted, and the other allies ſent alſo plenipotentiaries, though with great reluctance. As England and France were the only powers ſeriouſly inclined to peace, it may be ſuppoſed that all the other deputies ſerved rather to retard than advance its progreſs. The emperor inſiſted obſtinately upon his claim to the Spaniſh monarchy, refuſing to give up the leaſt tittle of his pretenſions; and the Dutch adhered to their old preliminaries, which Louis had conſtantly rejected. The Engliſh miniſters, finding ſo many obſtructions from their allies, ſet on foot a private negociation with France. They ſtipulated certain advantages for the ſubjects of Great-Britain, in a concerted plan of peace. They reſolved to enter into ſuch mutual confidence with the French, as would anticipate all clandeſtine tranſactions to the prejudice of the coalition. Theſe articles were privately regulated between the two courts; but being the reſult of pique and neceſſity, they were not ſo favourable to the Engliſh intereſts, as the nation, after ſo many ſignal victories, had a right to expect. The Engliſh, willing to include their allies, if poſſible, in the treaty, departed from ſome of their juſt claims, in order to gratify the Dutch with the poſſeſſion of ſome towns in Flanders. But even this was not found ſatisfactory. The queen, therefore, finding the confederates averſe to the propoſitions ſhe had made for a general peace, gave them to underſtand, that ſhe looked upon herſelf as releaſed from all her former engagements.

Upon the diſmiſſion of the duke of Marlborough, the duke of Ormond had been inveſted with the ſupreme command of the Britiſh forces; but with particular directions that he ſhould not hazard an engagement. However, he joined prince Eugene at Tournay, who, not being let into the ſecret, adviſed the attacking of the French under Villars; but he ſoon found how affairs ſtood with his coadjutor. Ormond ſeemed extremely uneaſy at his ſituation; and, in a letter to the ſecretary in England, deſired permiſſion to return. But the confederates were loud in their complaints; they expoſtulated with the miniſters at Utrecht upon ſo perfidious a conduct with great ſeverity. The Dutch, indeed, did not reſt here. They had a powerful party in the houſe of lords, and there they reſolved to arraign the conduct of the new miniſtry. Lord Halifax deſcanted on the ill conſequences of the duke of Ormond's refuſing to cooperate with prince Eugene, and moved for an addreſs to her majeſty to looſen the hands of the Engliſh general. It was urged that nothing could be more diſgraceful to the duke himſelf than being thus ſet at the head of an army without a power of acting. But earl Pawlet replied, that though none could doubt of the duke of Ormond's courage, yet he was not like a certain general who led troops to the ſlaughter, in hopes that a great number of officers might be knocked on the head, that he might increaſe his treaſures by diſpoſing of their commiſſions. The duke of Marlborough, who was preſent, was ſo deeply incenſed at this malicious inſinuation, that he ſent the earl a challenge the next day; but the queen interfered, and prevented bloodſhed.

In the mean time the allies, ſupported by the queen of England, ſtill continued the war againſt the French. They had the utmoſt confidence in prince Eugene, their juſtly celebrated general; but after the recal and diſmiſſion of the duke of Marlborough, as if Providence had ſo ordained it to puniſh the ſin of ingratitude, there was a total end of their victories. Villars, the French general, attacked a large body of the allied troops encamped at Denain, under the command of the earl of Albemarle. Their intrenchments were forced, and ſeventeen battalions were either deſtroyed or taken. The earl himſelf, and all the ſurviving officers, were made priſoners of war. Theſe ſucceſſes of Villars gave a favourable turn to the affairs of France, and ſerved to haſten the treaty of Utrecht. The only obſtacle which ſeemed now to retard the buſineſs, was the ſettling the ſucceſſion to the kingdoms of France and Spain. The danger that threatened the intereſts of Europe was, leſt both kingdoms ſhould be united under one ſovereign; and Philip, who was now king of Spain, ſtood next in ſucceſſion to the crown of France, except with the interpoſition of one ſickly child, afterwards Louis XV. Philip, however, at laſt waved his pretenſions to the French monarchy, and the treaty went forward with rapidity and ſucceſs.

In the beginning of Auguſt 1712, ſecretary St. John, then created lord viſcount Bolingbroke, was ſent to the court of Verſailles to remove all obſtructions to the ſeparate treaty. He was accompanied by Prior the poet, and the abbé Gualtier, who were treated with the moſt diſtinguiſhed marks of reſpect. The duke of Marlborough, now neglected by the queen, and contemptuouſly treated by her tory adminiſtration, retired with his family to the continent; and his retreat was compared to that of Scipio from Rome, after he had ſaved his country.

The treaty of peace and commerce between England and France being at length agreed on, and ratified by the queen, ſhe informed her parliament of the ſteps ſhe had taken. She left it to the commons to determine what forces, and what ſupplies, might be neceſſary for the ſafety of the kingdom. "Make yourſelves ſafe, ſaid ſhe, and I ſhall be ſatisfied. The affection of my people, and the providence of Heaven, are the only guards I aſk for my protection." Both houſes returned warm addreſſes; and the ratifications of the treaty being exchanged, which had been ſigned on the 31ſt of March, 1713, peace was proclaimed in England on the fifth of May, to the inexpreſſible joy of the majority of the nation.

The articles of this famous peace were longer canvaſſed, and more warmly debated, than thoſe of any other treaty we read of in hiſtory. The firſt ſtipulation was, that Philip king of Spain, renounced for ever his claim to the crown of France; the union of two ſuch powerful kingdoms being thought dangerous to the liberties of Europe. It was agreed that the duke of Berry, Philip's brother, ſhould alſo renounce his claim to the crown of Spain, in caſe he ever became king of France. It was ſtipulated that the duke of Savoy ſhould poſſeſs the iſland of Sicily, with the title of king, together with Feneſtrelles, and other places on the continent; which increaſe of dominion was, in ſome meaſure, made out of the ſpoils of the French monarchy. The Dutch had that barrier granted them which they ſo long fought after; and if the crown of France was deprived of ſome dominions to enrich the duke of Savoy, on the other hand the houſe of Auſtria was taxed to ſupply the neceſſities of the Hollanders, who were put in poſſeſſion of the ſtrongeſt towns in Flanders. With regard to England, its glory and its intereſts were ſecured. The fortifications of Dunkirk, which were thought dangerous to their trade in time of war, were ordered to be demoliſhed, and its port deſtroyed. Spain gave up Gibraltar and the iſland of Minorca. France reſigned her pretenſions to Hudſon's Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland; but they were left in poſſeſſion of Cape Breton, with the liberty of drying their fiſh upon

upon the ſhore. In behalf of the emperor it was ſtipulated, that he ſhould poſſeſs the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spaniſh Netherlands. The king of Pruſſia was to have Upper Guelder; and a time was fixed for the emperor's acceding to theſe articles, which he had for ſome time obſtinately refuſed. Thus Europe ſeemed to be formed into one great republic, the different members of which were cantoned out to different governors, and the ambition of any one ſtate amenable to the tribunal of all.

The Engliſh having thus given peace to Europe, had full leiſure to indulge their domeſtic diſſenſions. The whig and tory parties never contended with greater animoſity towards each other. Whether it was at this time the wiſh of the miniſters to alter the ſucceſſion of the crown from the houſe of Hanover to the pretender, has never been clearly aſcertained; but true it is that the whigs believed it as certain, and the tories but faintly denied the charge. The ſuſpicions which fell upon that party became every day ſtronger, particularly when the whigs came to be removed from all places of truſt and confidence throughout the kingdom. The whigs were now every where in commotion, either apprehending, or affecting to apprehend, a deſign in favour of the pretender; nay, their reports went ſo far as to aſſert that he was actually concealed in London, and that he had held ſeveral conferences with the miniſters of ſtate. The houſe of lords ſeemed to ſhare in the general apprehenſion. The queen was addreſſed to know what ſteps had been taken for removing the pretender from the dominions of the duke of Lorrain. Mr. Steele, afterwards known as the celebrated ſir Richard Steele, in a pamphlet written by him, bitterly exclaimed againſt the miniſtry, and the immediate danger of their bringing in the pretender. The houſe of commons conſidered this performance as a ſcandalous and ſeditious libel; and Steele was in conſequence expelled from the houſe.

The two principal leaders of the adminiſtration, Bolingbroke and lord Oxford, becoming jealous of each others views, now quarelled, and began to divide the tory intereſt. Oxford, it is thought, was entirely for the Hanoverian ſucceſſion; Bolingbroke had ſome hopes of bringing in the pretender. It was a mortifying proſpect to the queen, to perceive her favourite miniſtry ſplitting into oppoſite factions, while her own ill health kept pace with their contentions. Her conſtitution was broken; and what completed the ruin of her health, was the anxiety of her mind. The council-chamber exhibited for ſome time a ſcene of obſtinate diſpute and bitter altercation. Even in the queen's preſence, the treaſurer and ſecretary did not abſtain from mutual obloquy and reproach. At length, their animoſities coming to a height, Oxford wrote a letter to the queen, calculated to expoſe the turbulent and ambitious ſpirit of his colleague. On the other hand, Bolingbroke charged the treaſurer with having invited the duke of Marlborough to return from his voluntary exile, and of maintaining a private correſpondence with the houſe of Hanover. In conſequence of this charge, Oxford was removed from his employments, and Bolingbroke remained triumphant in his place. But the queen's declining health ſoon gave him a proſpect of what was ſhortly to follow. As no plan had been adopted for ſupplying the vacancy of treaſurer, the queen was perplexed on whom to fix her choice; and it really had ſo violent an effect upon her ſpirits, that ſhe ſunk into a ſtate of lethargic deſpondency. Notwithſtanding the beſt aid of her phyſicians, they deſpaired of her life, and the privy-council was aſſembled on the occaſion. The dukes of Somerſet and Argyle, being informed of the deſperate ſtate in which ſhe lay, entered the council-chamber without being ſummoned not a little to the ſurpriſe of the tory members, who expected not the interference of the body of the peers. The duke of Shrewſbury thanked them for their aſſiſtance at ſo critical a juncture. The phyſicians having declared that the queen was ſtill in her ſenſes, the council unanimouſly agreed that the duke of Shrewſbury was the fitteſt perſon to be appointed to the vacant office of treaſurer. Thus Bolingbroke's ambition was defeated juſt at the moment of his higheſt elevation.

All the peers and members of the privy-council, without diſtinction, being now ſummoned from the different parts of the kingdom, began to provide for the ſafety of the conſtitution. They ſent to the elector of Hanover, informing him of the queen's approaching diſſolution, deſiring him to repair to Holland, where he would be attended by a Britiſh ſquadron to convey him to England. At the ſame time they diſpatched inſtructions to the earl of Stafford at the Hague, to deſire the ſtates-general to be ready to perform the guarantee of the proteſtant ſucceſſion. Precautions were taken to ſecure the ſea-ports; and the command of the fleet was beſtowed upon the earl of Berkeley, a profeſſed whig. Theſe meaſures, which were all dictated by that party, anſwered a double purpoſe. They ſerved to manifeſt their own alacrity in the cauſe of the proteſtant ſucceſſion, and ſeemed to imply a danger to the ſtate from the diſaffection of the oppoſite intereſt.

On the thirtieth of July, the queen ſeemed ſomewhat relieved by medicines, roſe from her bed about eight o'clock, and walked a little; but ſhe was ſoon after ſeized with a fit of apoplexy, from which, however, ſhe was ſomewhat recovered by the aſſiſtance of Dr. Mead; yet ſhe continued all night in a ſtate of inſenſibility. She gave ſome languid ſigns of life between twelve and one; and expired about ſeven o'clock in the morning, Auguſt 1, 1714, in the forty-ninth year of her age, after a proſperous reign of more than twelve years.

This princeſs was rather amiable than great, rather pleaſing than beautiful. In her ended the line of the Stuarts; a family, perhaps, whoſe misfortunes and miſconducts are not to be paralleled in hiſtory.—For the character and iſſue of this illuſtrious ſovereign by her huſband George prince of Denmark, ſee vol. i. p. 732.

From the ACCESSION of the HOUSE of GUELPHS, to the PEACE of AMIENS, in 1801.

Purſuant to the act of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed in the reign of William and Mary, George, ſon of Erneſt-Auguſtus Guelphs, firſt elector of Brunſwick, and the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter to James I. aſcended the throne of Great Britain, by the title of George I. He was deſcended from Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony and Bavaria, who married Maude, eldeſt daughter of Henry II. of England; hence he was the legitimate iſſue of one of our early monarchs, in whom had been united the royal Anglo-Saxon and Norman blood, and who was alſo the founder of the noble family of Brunſwick. His mature age, being fifty-four years old, his ſagacity and experience, his numerous alliances, and the general tranquillity of Europe, all contributed to promiſe him a peaceable and happy reign. His virtues, though not ſhining, were ſolid; he was of a very different diſpoſition from the Stuart family, whom he ſucceeded. Theſe were proverbially diſtinguiſhed for leaving their friends in extremity; George, on the contrary, ſoon after his coronation, was heard to ſay, "My maxim is, never to abandon my friends; to do juſtice to all the world, and to fear no man." To theſe excellent qualifications he joined great application to buſineſs. However, one fault, with reſpect to England, muſt be admitted as the natural bias of humanity; he ſtudied more the intereſts of thoſe ſubjects he had left, than of thoſe he came to govern.

The king firſt landed at Greenwich; and two days after, he made his public entry into London, and was crowned on the 11th of October, 1714. The hopes and fears of the tories, who were now called *Jacobites*, and of the whigs, who were called *Hanoverians*, ran very high on the acceſſion of George I. but his majeſty ſoon relieved them from their ſtate of anxiety, by an inſtantaneous and total

change in all the important offices under government. The duke of Marlborough, who had juſt returned from a voluntary exile, was reſtored to his former poſts, with ſeveral new appointments; the earl of Nottingham was declared preſident of the council, the great ſeal was given to lord Cowper, the privy ſeal to the earl of Wharton, and the viceroyalty of Ireland to the earl of Sunderland. At the ſame time, lord Townſhend and Mr. Stanhope were appointed ſecretaries of ſtate, Mr. Pulteney ſecretary at war, and Mr. Walpole was made paymaſter to the army. The poſt of ſecretary for Scotland was beſtowed on the duke of Montroſe, and the duke of Argyle was made commander in chief of the forces in that country.

Thus the whig intereſt obtained an aſcendancy, both in and out of parliament; and they now proceeded to impeach the tory adminiſtration, on account of the peace they had made with France. The earl of Oxford, the duke of Ormond, the earl of Strafford, and viſcount St. John lord Bolingbroke, were the firſt called to account for the parts they had acted in this affair. Ormond and St. John fled; but though Oxford, Prior, and ſome others, were excepted out of the act of grace, they all eſcaped puniſhment. The changes in the adminiſtration had been effected without any direct oppoſition; but when the firſt emotions of fear or of duty had ſubſided, the malcontents of the jacobite faction broke out into various acts of ſedition and riot in the metropolis. From London the infection gradually ſpread to the more diſtant parts of the kingdom, where inſurrections became general, though fortunately without much devaſtation. But the commons, dreading the riſing ſpirit of revolt, addreſſed his majeſty to take vigorous meaſures for ſuppreſſing the rioters; the habeas corpus act was ſuſpended, and a new act was paſſed, by which it was now firſt decreed, that if any perſons, to the number of twelve, unlawfully aſſembled, ſhould continue together one hour after having been required to diſperſe by a juſtice of the peace, and had heard the proclamation againſt riots read in public, they ſhould be deemed guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

From England the prevailing diſcontents ſpeedily paſſed into Scotland, where the union had hitherto remained unpopular, and was not yet reliſhed by the diſaffected. The Engliſh jacobites fomented their averſion; and a correſpondence being eſtabliſhed between the jacobites of both kingdoms, prince James, called the *pretender*, and who had aſſumed the title of chevalier de St. George, was flattered with the hopes of ſeeing a majority in both nations declare in favour of his right to the crown. But the ſudden death of Louis XIV. was no ſmall diſappointment to the pretender. He had privately ſupplied the chevalier with the means of fitting out an armament in the port of Havre; but the duke of Orleans, on whom the regency of the kingdom now devolved, adopted a new ſyſtem of politics, and entered into the ſtricteſt alliance with the king of Great Britain.

The partizans of the pretender, however, had gone too far to recede; and an open rebellion firſt began in Scotland. The earl of Mar aſſembled three hundred of his own vaſſals on the Highlands, proclaimed the pretender at Caſtletown, on September 6, 1715, and ſet up his ſtandard at Brae Mar, aſſuming the title of lieutenant-general of the pretender's forces. To ſecond their attempts, two veſſels arrived in Scotland from the pretender, with arms, ammunition, and a number of officers, together with aſſurances to the earl, that he himſelf would ſhortly come over to lead his forces. The earl, in conſequence of this declaration, ſoon found himſelf at the head of ten thouſand men, well armed and provided. He ſecured the paſs of the Tay at Perth, where his head-quarters were eſtabliſhed, and made himſelf maſter of the fruitful province of Fife, and all the ſea-coaſt on that ſide of the Frith of Edinburgh. He marched from thence to Dumblaine, as if he had intended to croſs the Forth at Stirling-bridge; but there he was informed of the preparations the duke of Argyle was making, who was raiſing forces to give him battle. This nobleman, whoſe family had ſuffered ſo much under the Stuarts, ſtill poſſeſſed his hereditary hatred; and upon this occaſion he was appointed commander in chief of the forces in North Britain. The earl of Sutherland alſo went into Scotland to raiſe forces for the ſervice of government; and many other Scottiſh peers followed the example. The earl of Mar being informed that the duke was advancing againſt him from Stirling, he at firſt thought it wiſeſt to retreat. But being joined by ſome of the clans under the earl of Seaforth, and others under general Gordon, an experienced officer, he reſolved to riſk a battle.

The duke of Argyle, appriſed of his intentions, and willing to prove his attachment to the proteſtant ſucceſſion, would not ſhrink from the conteſt, though his forces did not amount to half the number of the rebels. In the morning, he drew up his army, conſiſting only of three thouſand five hundred men, in the vicinity of Dumblaine; but he ſoon found himſelf greatly outflanked by the enemy. The duke perceiving the earl's intention to ſurround him, was obliged to alter his poſition; but on account of the deficiency of general officers, this was not done ſo expeditiouſly as to be completed before the rebels began the attack. The left wing, therefore, of the duke's army, received the whole centre of the enemy, and ſupported the firſt charge without ſhrinking. It ſeemed even for a while victorious, as the earl of Clanronald, who commanded, was killed on the ſpot. But Glengary, who was ſecond in command, undertook to inſpire his intimidated forces; and, waving his bonnet, cried out ſeveral times, "Revenge!" This animated the rebel troops to ſuch bravery, that they followed cloſe to the points of the enemy's bayonets, and got within their guard. A total rout began to enſue of that wing of the royal army; and general Wetham, their commander, riding full ſpeed to Stirling, gave out that all was loſt, and that the rebels were completely victorious. In the mean time, the duke of Argyle, who commanded on the right, attacked the left of the enemy, and drove them before him two miles, though they often faced about, and attempted to rally. Having thus entirely broken that wing, and driven them over the river Allan, he returned to the field of battle, where, to his great mortification, he found the enemy victorious, and patiently waiting his return. However, inſtead of renewing the engagement, both armies continued inactive, neither of them caring to renew the attack. In the evening, both ſides drew off, and both claimed the victory. Though the poſſeſſion of the field was kept by the rebels, yet certainly all the honour, and all the advantages of the day, belonged only to the duke of Argyle. It was ſufficient for him to have interrupted the progreſs of the enemy; for, in their circumſtances, delay was defeat. In fact, the earl of Mar ſoon found his diſappointments and his loſſes increaſe. The caſtle of Inverneſs, of which he had been in poſſeſſion, was delivered up to the king by lord Lovat, who had till now profeſſed to act in the intereſt of the pretender. The marquis of Tullibardine forſook the earl, in order to defend his own part of the country; and many of the Scottiſh clans, ſeeing no likelihood of ſucceſs, returned quietly home.

From the time the pretender had undertaken this wild ſcheme at Paris, in which the duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke were engaged, lord Stair, the Engliſh ambaſſador at the French court, had penetrated all his deſigns, and ſent faithful accounts of all his meaſures, and adherents, to the miniſtry at home. Upon the firſt rumour, therefore, of an inſurrection, the Britiſh miniſtry impriſoned ſeveral lords and gentlemen, of whom they had a ſuſpicion. The earls of Hume, Wigtown, Kinnoul, and other ſuſpected perſons, were committed to the caſtle of Edinburgh. Sir William Wyndham, ſir John Packington, Harvey, Combe, and others, with the lords Lanſdown and Duplin, were taken into cuſtody in England; but all theſe precautions were

were not able to ſtop the inſurrection in the weſtern counties, where it was already begun. However, their preparations were weak and ill conducted; every meaſure was betrayed to government as ſoon as projected, and many revolts repreſſed in the very outſet. The univerſity of Oxford was treated with great ſeverity on this occaſion. Major-general Pepper, with a ſtrong detachment of dragoons, took poſſeſſion of the city at day-break, declaring he would inſtantly ſhoot any of the ſtudents who ſhould preſume to appear without the limits of their reſpective colleges. The inſurrection of the northern counties came to greater maturity. In October, 1715, the earl of Derwentwater, and Mr. Foſter, took the field with a body of horſe, and, being joined by ſome gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the pretender. Their firſt attempt was to ſeize upon Newcaſtle, in which they had many friends; but they found the gates ſhut againſt them, and were obliged to retire to Hexham. To oppoſe theſe, general Carpenter was detached by government with a body of nine hundred men, and an engagement was hourly expected. But the rebels took the rout to Jedburgh, where they hoped to leave Carpenter behind them, and penetrate into England by the weſtern border. This was an effectual means to cut themſelves off both from retreat or aſſiſtance. A party of Highlanders, who had joined the rebels, refuſed to accompany them in this deſperate irruption, and one-half of them actually returned to their own country. At Brampton, Foſter opened his commiſſion, which had been ſent him from the earl of Mar, and there he proclaimed the pretender king. They continued their march to Penrith, where the militia that was aſſembled to oppoſe them, fled at their appearance. From Penrith they proceeded, by the way of Kendal and Lancaſter, to Preſton, of which place they took poſſeſſion without any reſiſtance. But this was the laſt ſtage of their ill-adviſed incurſion; for general Wills, at the head of ſeven thouſand men, came up to the town to attack them, and his activity allowed them no time to eſcape. They now, therefore, began to put the place in a poſture of defence, and repulſed the firſt attack of the royal army. Next day, however, Wills was reinforced by Carpenter, and the town was inveſted on all ſides. In this helpleſs ſituation, Foſter hoped to capitulate with the general, and ſent colonel Oxburgh, who had been taken priſoner, to propoſe terms. But Wills refuſed to treat with rebels; and ſaid that the only favour they had to expect, was to be ſpared from immediate ſlaughter. Theſe were hard terms; but no better could be obtained. They accordingly laid down their arms, and were put under a ſtrong guard; all the noblemen and leaders were ſecured, and a few of their officers tried for deſerting from the royal army, and ſhot by ſentence of a court-martial. The common ſoldiers were impriſoned at Cheſter and Liverpool; the noblemen and officers were eſcorted to London, and led through the ſtreets, pinioned and bound together, to intimidate their party.

Thus ended the two firſt expeditions ſet on foot in favour of the pretender; in neither of which appear the ſmalleſt traces of conduct, ſagacity, or deſign. But the direction of affairs on the continent, and at the court of Paris, was infinitely worſe. Bolingbroke had there been made his ſecretary, and Ormond his prime-miniſter. But theſe ſtateſmen quickly found that nothing could be done in favour of his cauſe. Louis XIV. who had ever during his life eſpouſed the intereſt of the abdicated family, commended prince James to the care of his brother the duke of Orleans, who ſucceeded in the government of the kingdom; but he denied the pretender any aſſiſtance. His party was compoſed of the loweſt and the moſt ignorant exiles from the Britiſh dominions; the ſecrets of his cabinet, and all his intended meaſures, were bandied about in coffee-houſes by perſons of the loweſt rank; ſubaltern officers were elevated to the rank of generals; and even proſtitutes were intruſted to manage his negociations. The pride of the regent duke of Orleans, therefore, independent of his ſuperior policy, could never have ſuffered him to foul his integrity by connecting himſelf with ſuch a motley tribe. The pretender, thus deſerted in France, reſolved to hazard his perſon among his friends in Scotland. Paſſing through France in diſguiſe, and embarking in a ſmall veſſel at Dunkirk, he arrived, after a voyage of a few days, on the coaſt of Scotland, with only ſix gentlemen in his train. He paſſed unknown through Aberdeen to Feteroſſe, where he was met by the earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen in his intereſt. There he was ſolemnly proclaimed. His declaration, dated at Commercy, was printed and diſperſed. He went from thence to Dundee, where he made a public entry, and in two days more he arrived at Scone, where he intended to have the ceremony of his coronation performed. He ordered thankſgivings to be made for his ſafe arrival; he enjoined the clergy to pray for him in their churches; and, without the ſmalleſt ſhare of power, went through the ceremonies of royalty, which threw an air of ridicule on all his conduct. Having ſpent ſome time in unimportant parade, he reſolved to abandon the enterpriſe with the ſame levity with which it was undertaken. Having made a ſpeech to his council, he informed them of his want of money, arms, and ammunition, for undertaking a campaign, and therefore deplored that he was compelled to leave them. He embarked in the harbour of Montroſe, accompanied with ſeveral lords, his adherents, and in five days arrived at Gravelines. General Gordon, with the aſſiſtance of the earl mareſchal, proceeded at their head to Aberdeen, where he ſecured three veſſels, which took on-board ſuch perſons as wiſhed to make their eſcape to the continent. He then continued his march through the Highlands, and diſmiſſed his forces as he went forward. His retreat was made with ſuch expedition, that the duke of Argyle, with all his activity, could never overtake his rear, which conſiſted of a thouſand horſe.

In this manner terminated a rebellion founded in imbecility, and conducted in raſhneſs and folly. The law was now put in force with all its terrors; and the priſons were crowded with the deluded inſurgents. The earls of Derwentwater, Nithiſdale, Carnwath, and Wigtown, the lords Widrington, Kenmuir, and Nairne, were impeached, and, upon pleading guilty, all but lord Wigtown, received ſentence of death. No entreaties could ſoften the miniſtry to ſpare theſe unhappy men. The houſe of lords even preſented an addreſs to the throne for mercy, but without effect; the king anſwered, that on this, as well as on all other occaſions, he would act as he thought moſt conſiſtent with the dignity of the crown, and the ſafety of his people. Several others of the principals in the pretender's intereſt, were alſo puniſhed with death, ſome of whom were drawn and quartered. Upwards of a thouſand of the lower orders experienced the king's mercy, and were ſent to people the Britiſh colonies in North America, which thus gained ſtrength and importance from the diſaffections in England.

The rebellion thus extinguiſhed, ſerved to confirm the authority of thoſe in power. The parliament had ſhewn itſelf eager to ſecond the views of the miniſtry; and the pretended danger of the ſtate was made a pretext for continuing the parliament beyond the legal term of its exiſtence. An act, therefore, was made by themſelves, repealing that by which they were to be diſſolved every third year, and the term of the duration was extended to ſeven years, A. D. 1716. This was the origin of ſeptennial parliaments. If it could be right to extend their ſelf-elected duration to ſeven years, they might by the ſame parity of reaſoning perpetuate their authority, and thus deſtroy the balance of the conſtitution. On the introduction of the ſeptennial bill, Mr. Shippen, in his memorable ſpeech againſt it, remarked as follows: "I humbly conceive we have it not in our power to conſent to this bill; for I cannot diſcover by what rule of reaſon or law, we, who are only repreſentatives, can

enlarge,

enlarge, to our own advantage, the authority delegated to us—or that by virtue of ſuch delegated authority, we can deſtroy the fundamental rights of our conſtitution. This houſe has certainly no legiſlative authority but what it derives from the people. The members of this aſſembly were choſen under the triennial act. Our truſt is therefore a triennial truſt; and if we extend it beyond the ſtrict legal duration, we ceaſe from that inſtant to be the truſtees of the people, and are our own electors. From that inſtant, we act by an unwarrantable aſſumption of power, and take upon us to create a new conſtitution. For though it is a received maxim in civil ſcience, that the ſupreme legiſlature cannot be bound, yet an exception is neceſſarily implied, that it is reſtrained from ſubverting the foundation on which it ſtands." This famous bill, however, paſſed both houſes, and all objections to it were conſidered as the reſult of diſaffection.

Theſe important concerns being adjuſted, the king began to turn his thoughts to his Hanoverian dominions, and reſolved upon a voyage to the continent. He foreſaw a ſtorm gathering on the ſide of Sweden. As Charles XII. the heroic monarch of that country, was highly provoked againſt him for having entered into a confederacy with the Ruſſians and Danes, and for having purchaſed the towns of Bremen and Verden from the king of Denmark, which had conſtituted a part of his dominions; George, therefore, in order to ſecure his German dominions, entered into a new treaty with the Dutch and the regent of France, by which they agreed mutually to aſſiſt each other in caſe of an invaſion. Nor were his fears unfounded; Charles maintained a correſpondence with the diſaffected ſubjects of Great Britain: and a ſcheme was formed for landing a conſiderable body of Swediſh forces, with the king at their head; when it was expected they would be joined by all the malcontents of the kingdom. Count Gyllenburgh, the Swediſh miniſter in London, was principally active in the conſpiracy; but being ſeized, with all his papers, by order of the king, the confederacy was detected, and the parties puniſhed. A bill was immediately paſſed by the commons, prohibiting all commerce or connection with Sweden; and a ſupply of two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds was granted the king, to enable him to ſecure his dominions againſt the threatened invaſion. However, the premature death of Charles ſoon put an end to all diſquietudes from that quarter.

But this ſeems to have been the age of treaties, ſubſidies, and political combinations. At that time, the politicians of the age ſuppoſed that ſuch paper-chains would be ſufficient to ſecure the permanence of dominion; but experience has taught the contrary. Among other treaties concluded with ſuch hopes, was that called the *quadruple alliance*. It was agreed upon between the emperor of Germany, France, England, and Holland, that the emperor ſhould renounce all pretenſions to the crown of Spain, and exchange Sardinia for Sicily with the duke of Savoy; that the ſucceſſions to the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia, ſhould be ſettled on the queen of Spain's eldeſt ſon, in caſe the preſent poſſeſſors ſhould die without male iſſue. However, this treaty was by no means agreeable to the king of Spain, and conſequently it became prejudicial to the Engliſh, as it interrupted the commerce to Great Britain. But the intereſt of England was not the object which this treaty had in view. The diſpleaſure of the king of Spain ſoon broke out into an open rupture with the emperor, whom he conſidered as the chief contriver of this alliance; and a numerous body of Spaniſh troops were ſent into Italy to ſupport Philip's pretenſions in that quarter. It was in vain that the regent of France attempted to diſſuade him; or that the king of England offered his mediation: their interpoſition was rejected as intereſted and unjuſt. War, in the exhauſted ſtate of the Engliſh finances, was a real evil; yet a rupture with Spain was reſolved on. A ſquadron of twenty-two ſhips of the line was equipped with all expedition, the command given to ſir George Byng, and ordered to ſail for Naples, which was then threatened by the Spaniſh army. Sir George was received with great joy by the inhabitants of that city, and was informed that the Spaniards, to the amount of thirty thouſand men, were then actually landed in Sicily. In this exigence, as no aſſiſtance could be given by land, he reſolved to ſail thither, fully determined to purſue the Spaniſh fleet on which they had embarked. Upon coming round cape Faro, he perceived two ſmall Spaniſh veſſels, and following them cloſely, they led him to their main fleet, which, before noon, he diſcovered in line of battle, amounting to twenty-ſeven ſail. However, the Spaniſh fleet, upon perceiving the force of the Engliſh, attempted to bear away, though ſuperior in number. The Engliſh made a running fight, in which the Spaniſh commanders behaved with courage and activity; yet they were all taken except three, which were preſerved by the bravery of Cammoc, their vice-admiral, a native of Ireland. Sir George Byng behaved on this occaſion with ſingular prudence and reſolution; and the king wrote him a letter with his own hand, approving his conduct. This victory produced the reſentment and complaints of the Spaniſh miniſters in all the courts of Europe, and haſtened the declaration of war upon the part of the Engliſh, A. D. 1718, which, from motives of delicacy, had hitherto been delayed.

The war with Spain ſerved once more to raiſe the declining hopes of the pretender and his adherents. It was ſuggeſted, that by the aſſiſtance of Alberoni, the Spaniſh miniſter, a new inſurrection might be excited in England. The duke of Ormond was fixed upon to conduct this affair; and he obtained from the Spaniſh court a fleet of ten ſhips of war and tranſports, having on board ſix thouſand regular troops, with arms for twelve thouſand more. But fortune was ſtill unpropitious. Having proceeded as far as cape Finiſterre, he was overtaken by a violent ſtorm, which diſabled his fleet, and fruſtrated the expedition. This misfortune, added to the bad ſucceſs of the Spaniſh arms in Sicily, and other parts of Europe, induced Philip to wiſh for peace; as a prelude to which he conſented to ſign the quadruple alliance.

King George now returned from the continent, to receive the addreſſes and congratulations of his parliament. From addreſſing they proceeded to an object of much greater importance; which was no leſs than fixing the dependency of the Iriſh parliament upon that of Great Britain. Maurice Anneſly had appealed to the houſe of peers in England, from a decree made by the houſe of peers in Ireland, and this decree they reverſed. The Britiſh peers ordered the barons of the exchequer in Ireland, to put Mr. Anneſly in poſſeſſion of the lands he had loſt by the decree of the lords in that kingdom. The barons of the exchequer obeyed this order; and the Iriſh houſe of peers paſſed a vote againſt them, as having attempted to diminiſh the juſt privileges of the parliament of Ireland; and at the ſame time ordered the barons to be taken under the cuſtody of the black rod. On the other hand, the houſe of lords in England reſolved, that the barons of the exchequer in Ireland had acted with courage and fidelity; and addreſſed the king to ſignify his approbation of their conduct. In conſequence of this addreſs, a bill was prepared, by which the Iriſh houſe of lords was deprived of all right to final juriſdiction. It was oppoſed with great vehemence; but was finally carried, and received the royal aſſent. At this time, A. D. 1720, aroſe that ſingular event, known in our hiſtory by the name of the *South Sea Bubble*; a ſource of impoſition and fraud unparalleled in the tranſactions of man, and which had its riſe from a ſpirit of ſcheming avarice, which then ſeems to have pervaded all ranks of people.—For the particulars of this tranſaction, ſee the article BUBBLE, vol. iii. p. 476—470.

The clamours excited in the nation by the burſting of this monſtrous bubble, appear to have ſuggeſted to the diſaffected jacobins, that it was a proper ſeaſon to introduce

duce once more the claims of the pretender. Early in May, 1721, the king received intelligence from the duke of Orleans, regent of France, of a plot againſt his perſon and government. In conſequence, a camp was immediately formed in Hyde park; the military officers were ordered to repair to their poſts; the ſtates of Holland were deſired to have their auxillary troops in readineſs to be embarked, and many ſuſpected perſons were apprehended in Scotland and England. Among thoſe who were ſuppoſed to be principally implicated in this treaſonable conſpiracy, were Atterbury biſhop of Rocheſter, the earl of Orrery, lords Grey and North, Cochrane and Smith from Scotland, Chriſtopher Layer, a young templar, George Kelly, an Iriſh clergyman, Cotton, Bingley, and Fleetwood, Engliſhmen, and one Naynoe, an Iriſh prieſt.

On the meeting of the new parliament, A. D. 1722, his majeſty, in his ſpeech, developed the nature and extent of the plot, which had only been fruſtrated by the above timely diſcovery. To this formidable repreſentation, Mr. Robert Walpole, the prime miniſter, added ſeveral particulars, which ſhewed the dangerous aims and objects of the jacobites. To corroborate the whole, an original and printed copy of a declaration, ſigned by the pretender at Lucca, was laid before the houſe. In this curious paper, the chevalier de St. George expatiated on the grievances of the nation, and calling upon the people to aſſert their rights, gravely propoſed, "that if king George would relinquiſh the throne, the rightful heir, in return, would beſtow on the ſaid George the title of king in his native dominions, and ſecure his ſucceſſion to the Britiſh ſceptre, whenever, in due courſe, his natural right ſhould take place." By way of puniſhing the friends of the pretender, a bill was prepared by the commons to raiſe one hundred thouſand pounds on the real and perſonal eſtates of papiſts, towards defraying the expences incurred by the late rebellion and diſorders; and all perſons of that faith in Scotland were called upon to regiſter their names and eſtates. Theſe pecuniary mulcts were followed by the trial, conviction, and execution, of Layer. No evidence appeared, or at leaſt was produced, for grounding any proceſs againſt the nobles who had been arreſted; but Atterbury biſhop of Rocheſter, was for ever baniſhed the realm, and all other his majeſty's dominions, and ordered to depart out of the ſame before the 25th of June, 1723.

The trial of Rocheſter was followed by another of a different nature, but in which the intereſts of the nation were more deeply concerned. It had been uſual for the lord-chancellors, upon being appointed to their high office, to nominate the maſters in chancery—places of value and of truſt, though then purchaſed as commiſſions in the army. Some men of bad character having been appointed to this office, and having embezzled the money of orphans and ſuitors lodged in their hands, a complaint was made to government, and this drew down the reſentment of the miniſtry on the lord chancellor. He was made to reſign the ſeals; and the king ordered the whole affair to be laid before parliament. The commons, taking the facts into conſideration, and finding many abuſes had crept into that court, which either impeded juſtice or rendered it venal, they reſolved to impeach Thomas earl of Macclesfield, the late chancellor, at the bar of the houſe of lords, for high crimes and miſdemeanors. This is one of the moſt celebrated trials in the annals of England. A bill was previouſly brought in to indemnify the maſters in chancery from the penalties of the law, upon diſcovering what conſiderations they had paid for their admiſſion to their reſpective offices. The trial laſted twenty days. The earl proved that ſuch ſums had been uſually received by former lords-chancellors; but reaſon ſhewed that ſuch receipts were contrary to law and juſtice. Equity, therefore, prevailed above precedent; the earl was convicted of fraudulent practices, and condemned in a fine of thirty thouſand pounds.

The remainder of the reign of George I. preſents little more than a tedious repetition of intricate and contradictory treaties, moſt of which were inimical to the intereſts of this country. To enable the king to fulfil ſome new engagements with the kings of Pruſſia and Denmark, an additional number of ſeamen and land forces were voted by the commons. Yet on a new alliance taking place between the courts of Spain and Vienna, the king felt again alarmed for the ſafety of his German dominions; and a negociation between Pruſſia, France, and England, took place at Hanover, which ended in a defenſive treaty for fifteen years. The hoſtile deſigns of Spain, in conjunction with the emperor, A. D. 1727, becoming daily more apparent, the naval and military force of the kingdom were put on a reſpectable footing; and, in order to cut off the ſupplies which furniſhed Spain with the means of annoyance, admiral Hoſier was directed to ſail to the Weſt Indies, with the intent of making prize of the galleons, which annually import the treaſures of South America into the mother country. This deſign, however, being divulged before it could be executed, the treaſure, amounting to ſix millions ſterling, was unloaded, and carried back to Panama.

It was now confidently aſſerted in parliament, that the objects of Spain were to place the pretender on the throne of Great Britain, and to recover Gibraltar and Port Mahon. Mutual affronts and recriminations followed between the powers at variance; and the ſeaſon for action was at hand. George, therefore, entered into a more ſtrict alliance with the kings of France and Denmark, ſubſidizing Sweden, formed a convention with Heſſe Caſſel, and determined to ſend a ſtrong fleet into the Baltic to check the Ruſſians, who were ſuſpected of being in the intereſts of Spain and the emperor. Parliament gave its entire ſanction to theſe meaſures, and voted an adequate ſupply. Meanwhile, hoſtilities were commenced againſt the dominions of Great Britain, by the Spaniards inveſting Gibraltar. This place was defended by colonel Clayton; and after the enemy had lain before it ſome months, and loſt ten thouſand men, they found it expedient to raiſe the ſiege. The garriſon did not loſe more than three hundred during the whole time of its inveſtment.

Early in the ſpring ſir Charles Wager had been diſpatched with a reinforcement to the garriſon of Gibraltar, and ſir John Norris ſet ſail for the Baltic, where he was joined by a Daniſh ſquadron. Every where preparations were making for a war, which threatened to embroil all Europe. A ſtop, however, was put to the further effuſion of human blood, by the mediation of the king of France; and at length twelve preliminary articles were ſigned by the reſpective plenipotentiaries, by which it was ſtipulated, "that hoſtilities ſhould immediately ceaſe; that the charter of the Oſtend company ſhould be ſuſpended for ſeven years; and, that a congreſs ſhould, in four months, aſſemble at Aix-la-Chapelle, for adjuſting all differences, and conſolidating the peace of Europe." The king of England did not live to enjoy the agreeable proſpect which his ſucceſsful negociations now opened. Being ſuddenly ſeized with a paralytic diſorder, on the road from Holland to Hanover, he was conveyed in a ſtate of inſenſibility to Oſnaburgh, where he expired on Sunday, the 11th of June, 1727, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. His body was conveyed to Hanover, and interred among his anceſtors.

George I. was of a moderate ſtature; his features regular and manly, and his countenance grave and majeſtic. He was an able and experienced general, and a conſummate politician. Though the rage of party was never ſtronger than during his reign, he was allowed by all to have an honeſt heart; and he was beloved by thoſe who had the beſt opportunity of appreciating his worth. He governed England with great mildneſs; was an enemy to perſecution; and never wiſhed to encroach on the

civil or religious liberties of his people. That he felt a very ſtrong predilection for his native country, Hanover, was no more than natural; but that he ſhewed it too evidently at the expence of Great Britain, is a fact which will not be denied. He had been long ſeparated from the princeſs Sophia, his queen, who never came into England: of courſe the court at St. James's was never brilliant, nor did his majeſty ſeem fond of etiquette. He was married to the princeſs Sophia, daughter and heireſs of the duke of Zell, by whom he had George prince of Wales who ſucceeded him; and a daughter, married to Frederic king of Pruſſia, and mother of Frederic the Great.

George II. did not aſcend the throne until upwards of a month after the demiſe of his father, in conſequence of that event not being known in England. Immediately on the news being communicated to ſir Robert Walpole, that miniſter carried it to the prince and princeſs of Wales at Richmond, who, removing to Leiceſter houſe, a privy council was inſtantly aſſembled, and next day the new king was proclaimed with the uſual ſolemnities. His majeſty took the oath, and ſubſcribed the articles for the ſecurity of the church of Scotland, as required by the act of the union, and declared his firm purpoſe to preſerve entire the conſtitution in church and ſtate. At the ſame time he avowed his intention to adhere to all the treaties which his father had entered into; and he continued all the great officers of ſtate in their places. This prince, in 1704, had married the princeſs Wilhelmina Carolina Dorothea of Brandenburgh Anſpach, and with her was crowned at Weſtminſter, on the 11th of October, 1727, with great magnificence.

In his firſt ſpeech to parliament, the king profeſſed a fixed reſolution to merit the love and affection of his people, by maintaining them in the full enjoyment of their civil and religious rights, and by ſtudying to leſſen the expences of the government in all its departments. Sir Robert Walpole followed up theſe gracious aſſurances, by moving, that eight hundred thouſand pounds a-year ſhould be ſettled on his majeſty during life; and a liberal ſettlement was alſo made for the queen, in caſe ſhe ſhould ſurvive his majeſty. In ſhort, numbers who had been diſſatisfied under the former reign, now expreſſed their confidence in the new king; and, for a time, all parties ſeemed to be united in affection to his perſon, and in attachment to his government.

It had long been maintained by political writers, that exciſes are the moſt proper ways and means of ſupporting government in a long war, becauſe they equalize the burdens, and render them proportionable to the great wants of the public. Agreeably to this idea, though covertly under pretence of preventing frauds, the miniſter, A. D. 1733, propoſed, that a partial exciſe on tobacco ſhould be levied. This meaſure met with a violent oppoſition, not from the conſideration of that train of dependents it would produce, but from the dread of its extenſion to other articles; and the cry of a general exciſe was ſet up by the country-party in parliament, and echoed through the nation. The ferment, in ſhort, became ſo great, that though the miniſter had a triumphant majority of ſixty-one in the houſe of commons, he was obliged to wave the queſtion, and abandon his ſcheme.

In a future ſeſſion of parliament, A. D. 1737, the houſe having reſolved itſelf into a committee to conſider of the national debt, ſir John Barnard moved, "That the king ſhould be enabled to raiſe money, by the ſale of annuities, or by borrowing, at an intereſt not exceeding three per cent.; which ſum, ſo raiſed, ſhould be applied towards redeeming the South-ſea annuities; and, that ſuch of the ſaid annuitants as ſhould be inclined to ſubſcribe their reſpective annuities, ſhould be preferred to all others." The adoption of this meaſure he enforced with unanſwerable arguments; but the miniſtry, unwilling that the merit of the plan ſhould originate with oppoſition, ſet it aſide, without being able to impeach its juſtice and policy. In the courſe of the ſame ſeſſion, an act was paſſed, ſubjecting the ſtage and dramatic writers to certain reſtraints. The number of play-houſes was limited, and all pieces intended for repreſentation were to be ſubmitted to the lord chamberlain, without whoſe licence they could not be acted.

In the following year, A. D. 1738, the jealouſy of the commercial part of the nation had nearly involved the country in war. Loud complaints were made of the encroachments of the French on the Miſſiſſippi, and of the depredations of the Spaniards on the Britiſh merchants trading to the Spaniſh territory. A remonſtrance was in conſequence preſented to the court of Madrid, and a convention was appointed to ſettle the diſpute; and, though the treaty of Seville in 1729 ſeemed to have adjuſted all claims, and provided againſt all differences, this nation, however, eager for war, wiſhed to find occaſion for a rupture.

Walpole was fond of peace, and endeavoured to preſerve it by every means that did not ſtigmatize the honour of the nation. He therefore became unpopular for the very quality that ought to have rendered him reſpected. The Spaniards, probably, availing themſelves of his known diſpoſition for peace, began to inſult and diſtreſs the commerce of Great Britain: they diſputed the right of the Engliſh to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, or to collect ſalt in the iſland of Tortugas. The captains of their guarda coſtas made a practice of boarding and plundering Engliſh veſſels, on pretence of ſearching them for contraband commodities; and various other acts of cruelty and injuſtice were committed. In particular, a Spaniſh commiſſioned captain, having cut off the ear of an Engliſh maſter and commander, named Jenkins, bade him carry the morſel to the Engliſh king, and tell him, that the Spaniards would ſerve him in the ſame manner, ſhould an opportunity preſent itſelf. Theſe outrages were loudly and juſtly complained of by the nation at large; yet every endeavour to prevent a rupture with Spain was ſedulouſly adopted by the miniſtry; and a convention was at laſt, A. D. 1738, concluded and ratified, by which the king of Spain bound himſelf to make reparation to the ſubjects of Great Britain for their loſſes, by certain ſtipulated payments within a limited time. Sir Robert Walpole beſtowed the higheſt eulogium on this convention; but, with all his influence, he could only obtain a majority of twenty-eight, in an addreſs of approbation. In the upper houſe the miniſter was likewiſe very hard puſhed, and it was with difficulty he ſtood his ground. At the head of thoſe who voted againſt an addreſs was the prince of Wales, who, on account of a family miſunderſtanding, had joined the oppoſition with all the intereſt he could command.

In the mean while, the Spaniards, who took advantage of the forbearance of the Engliſh, having violated the terms of the convention, there was no alternative but a vigorous oppoſition. Letters of marque and repriſal were conſequently iſſued againſt Spain; a large fleet was aſſembled at Spithead; the land forces were augmented; and, A. D. 1739, an embargo was laid on all merchant veſſels. Walpole, however, ſtill held out the olive-branch; but his overtures for accommodation being rejected, war was formally declared. Yet, notwithſtanding the arrogance of the Spaniards, they appeared but ill prepared for hoſtilities. Admiral Vernon having aſſerted in the houſe of commons, that he could take Porto Bello with only ſix ſhips, he was diſpatched thither, and actually performed this hazardous ſervice. As the war began thus ſucceſsfully, it inſpired the commons to proſecute it with vigour. The miniſter was granted ſuch ſupplies as enabled him to equip a very powerful navy; and a ſquadron of ſhips was equipped for diſtreſſing the enemy in the South ſeas, the command of which was given to commodore Anſon. This fleet was deſtined to ſail through the ſtraits of Magellan, and ſteering northwards, along the coaſts of Chili and Peru, to co-operate occaſionally with admiral Vernon acroſs the iſthmus of Darien. The

delays

delays and miſtakes of the miniſtry, however, fruſtrated that part of the ſcheme, which was originally well laid. The commodore ſet ſail from Portſmouth in September, 1740, with five ſhips of the line, a frigate, and two ſtore-ſhips, with about fourteen hundred men. Having reached the coaſt of Brazil, he refreſhed his people on the iſland of St. Catharine, a ſpot that enjoys all the fruitfulneſs and verdure of the luxurious tropical climate. From thence he ſteered downward into the tempeſtuous regions of the ſouth; and in about five months after, meeting a terrible tempeſt, he doubled Cape Horn. By this time his fleet was diſperſed, and his crew deplorably diſabled with the ſcurvy; ſo that with much difficulty he gained the iſland of Juan Fernandez. There he was joined by one ſhip, and a veſſel of ſeven guns. From thence, advancing northward, he landed on the coaſt of Chili, and attacked the town of Payta by night. The garriſon and the inhabitants fled on all ſides; and the treaſures of the place were ſeized by the conquerors. This ſmall ſquadron then advanced to Panama, ſituated on the iſthmus of Darien, on the weſtern ſide of the great American continent. The commodore now placed all his hopes in taking one of thoſe valuable Spaniſh ſhips which trade from the Philippine iſlands to Mexico. In hopes of meeting with one of theſe, the commodore traverſed the great Pacific Ocean; but the ſcurvy once more viſiting his crew, ſeveral of his men died, and almoſt all were diſabled. In this exigence, having brought all his men into one veſſel, and ſet fire to the other, he ſteered for the iſland of Tinian till his men had ſomewhat recovered their health, and his ſhip was refitted for ſailing. At length, after various toils and dangers, he diſcovered the Spaniſh galleon he had ſo long been in queſt of. This veſſel was built as well for the purpoſes of war as of merchandize. It mounted ſixty guns, with five hundred men; while the crew of the commodore did not amount to half that number. However, the victory was on the ſide of the Engliſh; and they returned home with their prize, which was eſtimated at three hundred and thirteen thouſand pounds ſterling, while the different captures that had been previouſly made, amounted to as much more. Thus, after a voyage of three years, conducted with uncommon perſeverance and intrepidity, the public ſuſtained the loſs of a ſmall fleet, but gained immortal glory; while a few individuals were rewarded with immenſe riches.

When Anſon ſet out, it was with a deſign of acting a ſubordinate part to a more formidable armament deſigned for the coaſt of New Spain, conſiſting of twenty-nine ſhips of the line, and almoſt an equal number of frigates, furniſhed with all kinds of warlike ſtores, near fifteen thouſand ſeamen, and as many land forces. Never was a fleet more completely equipped, nor never had the nation more ſanguine hopes of ſucceſs. Lord Cathcart was appointed to command the army; but dying on the paſſage, the command devolved upon general Wentworth. The miniſtry, without any viſible reaſon, detained the fleet in England, until the ſeaſon for action in America was nearly loſt. In the country where they were to carry on their operations, periodical rains begin about the end of April, and this change in the climate as ſurely brings on epidemical and contagious diſeaſes. Having at length arrived before the wealthy city of Carthagena, they landed their forces, in order to form the ſiege. This city, which lies within ſixty miles of Panama, ſerves as a magazine for the merchandizes of Spain, which are conveyed from Europe thither, and from thence carried over land to Panama, to be exchanged for the native commodities of the New World. The taking of Carthagena, therefore, would have obſtructed the whole trade between Old and New Spain.

To carry on the ſiege with ſafety, the troops were landed on the iſland Tierra Bomba, near the mouth of the harbour, which had been ſtrongly fortified. The land forces erected a battery on-ſhore, with which they made a breach in the principal fort, while admiral Vernon, who commanded the fleet, ſent a number of ſhips into the harbour, to divide the fire of the enemy, and to co-operate with the land army. The breach being deemed practicable, a body of troops were commanded to ſtorm; but the Spaniards deſerted the works, and retired into the city. Encouraged by this advantage, general Wentworth marched up to the walls, and attempted to ſcale fort St. Lazare, in order to take the place by ſtorm. Nothing could be more unfortunate than this undertaking; the ſcaling ladders were found too ſhort; the enemy made a very brave defence; and the Engliſh were obliged to retreat in confuſion, leaving ſix hundred men dead on the ſpot; among whom was colonel Grant, who commanded the grenadiers. The terrors of the climate ſoon began to be more dreadful than thoſe of war; the rainy ſeaſon ſet in with ſuch violence, that it was impoſſible for the troops to continue in camp; and the mortality of a contagious air began to attack them in all its frightful varieties. Theſe misfortunes led to diſſenſions and mutual recriminations between the commanders; till at laſt they agreed to re-imbark the troops, and to withdraw as quick as poſſible from this ſcene of ſlaughter and contagion. This fatal miſcarriage, which tarniſhed the Britiſh glory, was no ſooner known in England, than the kingdom was filled with murmurs and diſcontent.

To this cauſe of complaint, ſeveral others were added. The inactivity of the Engliſh fleet at home was among the moſt principal. Sir John Norris had twice ſailed to the coaſt of Spain, at the head of a very powerful ſquadron, without taking any effectual ſtep to annoy the enemy. The Spaniſh privateers, which were numerous and enterpriſing, annoyed our commerce with great ſucceſs, having taken four hundred and ſeven ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of Great Britain. The Engliſh, though at an immenſe expence in equipping fleets, ſeemed to lie wholly inactive, and ſuffered one loſs after another without repriſal. Theſe untoward events had a manifeſt influence upon the general election which followed; and the complaints againſt the miniſtry became ſo general, that ſir Robert Walpole began to tremble for his ſafety. The prince of Wales, who continued to live retired from court, concurred in the oppoſition. Obſtinate ſtruggles were maintained in all parts of the kingdom; and ſuch a national ſpirit prevailed, that the country intereſt ſeemed ready to preponderate. In this ſituation, the miniſter finding the ſtrength of the houſe of commons turned againſt him, tried every art to divide that confederacy which he knew he had not ſtrength to oppoſe. His firſt attempt was by endeavouring to diſengage the prince from his party, by promiſes of royal favour, and other emoluments. The biſhop of Oxford was ſent to him, with an offer, that if he would make ſubmiſſion to the king, he ſhould be taken into favour; fifty thouſand pounds ſhould be added to his revenue; two hundred thouſand ſhould be granted him to pay his debts; and ſuitable proviſion made for his followers. This, to a perſon involved in debt, from the ſcantineſs of his penſion, and the neceſſity of keeping up his dignity, was a tempting offer. However, the prince nobly diſdained it, declaring he would accept of no conditions dictated under the influence of a miniſter whoſe meaſures he could not approve.

Walpole now ſaw that his power was at an end; but he ſtill feared more for his perſon. The reſentment of the people had been raiſed againſt him to an extravagant height; and their leaders taught them to expect very ſignal juſtice to the ſuppoſed oppreſſor. But in this they were deceived. The king adjourned both houſes of parliament for a few days; and, in the interim, ſir Robert Walpole was created earl of Orford, and reſigned all his employments. At no time of life did Walpole acquit himſelf with more art than on the preſent occaſion. The country-party conſiſted of tories and diſcontented whigs; the former, implacable in their reſentments, were loud for

for impeachment; the latter, either foured by diſappointment, or incited by ambition, only wiſhed his removal. To the whigs, therefore, Walpole applied, and was willing to grant them that power they aimed at; in return for which he only demanded impunity. The offer was accepted; their tory friends were abandoned; and a breach thus enſuing, nearly the ſame oppoſition continued againſt the new miniſtry that had obtained againſt the old. The place of chancellor of the exchequer was beſtowed on Mr. Sandys; lord Harrington was declared preſident of the council; and lord Carteret became ſecretary of ſtate. Mr. Pulteney was ſworn of the privy council, and afterwards created earl of Bath. A reconciliation between the king and the prince of Wales alſo took place; and the change in the adminiſtration was celebrated all over Great Britain.

The war with Spain had now continued for ſeveral years, but was attended with no great glory nor advantage to England. Some unſucceſsful expeditions had been carried on in the Weſt Indies, under admiral Vernon, commodore Knowles, and others. Theſe had for ſome time diſguſted the nation by their unſkilful operations at ſea, and taught them to wiſh for better fortune on land. The people were ripe for renewing their victories in Flanders, and the king deſired nothing with ſo much ardour. It was reſolved, therefore, to ſend a powerful army into the Netherlands, to decide the quarrels that were beginning on the continent; and immenſe triumphs were expected from ſuch an undertaking, which the king reſolved to conduct in perſon. An army of ſixteen thouſand men was in conſequence tranſported to Flanders; and the war with Spain became but an object of ſecondary conſideration.

The origin of thoſe diſſenſions on the continent had ariſen from the ſelfiſh views or ambition of the belligerent powers. After the duke of Orleans, who had been regent of France, died, cardinal Fleury undertook to ſettle the great confuſion in which that luxurious prince had left the kingdom. His moderation and prudence were equally conſpicuous; and under him France repaired her loſſes, and enriched herſelf by commerce. During the long interval of peace which this miniſter's counſels had procured for Europe, two powers, till now of little importance, began to attract the notice and jealouſy of the neighbouring nations. Peter the Great had already civiliſed Ruſſia; and this newly-created extenſive empire began to influence the councils of other nations, and to give laws to the north. The other power that came into notice was that of the king of Pruſſia, whoſe dominions were populous, and whoſe forces were highly diſciplined and ready for action. The other ſtates were but little prepared for renewing the war. The empire remained under the government of Charles VI. who had been placed upon the throne by the treaty of Utrecht. Sweden continued to languiſh, not being recovered from the deſtructive projects of her hero Charles XII. Denmark was powerful, but inclined to peace; and part of Italy ſtill remained ſubject to thoſe princes who had been impoſed upon it by foreign treaties.

All theſe ſeveral ſtates continued to enjoy a profound peace, until the death of Auguſtus, king of Poland, which kindled a freſh flame in Europe. The emperor, aſſiſted by Ruſſia, declared for the elector of Saxony, ſon of the deceaſed king. On the other hand, France declared for Staniſlaus, who had been nominated king of the Poles by Charles of Sweden, and whoſe daughter the the French king had married. In order to forward his pretenſions, Staniſlaus repaired to Dantzic, where the people gladly received him. But his triumph was ſhort; ten thouſand Ruſſians appearing before the place, the Poliſh nobility diſperſed, and Staniſlaus was cloſely beſieged. But though the city was taken, the king eſcaped by night; and fifteen hundred men which had been ſent to his aſſiſtance, were made priſoners of war. France, however, reſolved to ſupport his cauſe; and this, it was thought would be moſt effectually done by diſtreſſing the Auſtrians. The views of France were ſeconded by Spain and Sardinia, both having hopes to grow more powerful by a diviſion of the ſpoils of Auſtria. A French army, therefore, ſoon over-ran the empire, under the conduct of old marſhal Villars; while the duke of Montemar, the general of Spain, was equally victorious in the kingdom of Naples. Thus the emperor had the mortification to ſee his own dominions ravaged, and a great part of Italy torn from him, only for having attempted to give a king to Poland. Theſe rapid ſucceſſes of France and her allies, ſoon compelled the emperor to ſue for peace. It was accordingly granted him; but Staniſlaus, upon whoſe account the war begun, was neglected in the treaty. It was ſtipulated that he ſhould renounce all claim to the crown of Poland; for which the emperor gratified France with the duchy of Lorraine, and ſome other valuable territories.

The emperor dying in 1740, the French began to think this a favourable opportunity for extending their ambition. Regardleſs of treaties, particularly that called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the reverſion of all the late emperor's dominions was ſettled upon his daughter, they procured the elector of Bavaria to be crowned emperor. Thus the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. ſaw herſelf ſtripped of her inheritance, deſerted by all Europe, and without any hopes of ſuccour. She had ſcarcely cloſed her father's eyes, when ſhe loſt Sileſia, by an irruption of the young king of Pruſſia, who ſeized the opportunity of her defenceleſs ſtate to renew his ancient pretenſions to that province, of which it muſt be owned his anceſtors had been unjuſtly deprived. France, Saxony, and Bavaria, attacked the reſt of her dominions; while England was the only ally that ſeemed likely to eſpouſe her cauſe. Sardinia and Holland ſoon after came to her aſſiſtance, and, laſt of all, Ruſſia acceded to the union in her behalf.

It may be aſked, what reaſon Britain had to intermeddle in theſe continental ſchemes? It can only be anſwered, that the intereſts of Hanover, and the ſecurity of that electorate, depended upon nicely balancing the different powers of the empire; and the Engliſh miniſtry were willing to gratify the king. Lord Carteret, who now held that place in the royal confidence which Walpole had formerly poſſeſſed, by theſe meaſures ſoothed the wiſhes of his maſter, and opened a more extenſive field for his own ambition. He expected to receive honour from victories which he ſeemed certain of obtaining; and was eager to adopt meaſures which would engage the martial ſpirit of the nation. When the parliament met, his majeſty began by informing them of his ſtrict adherence to engagements; and that he had ſent a body of Engliſh forces into the Netherlands, which he had augmented by ſixteen thouſand Hanoverians, to make a diverſion upon the dominions of France, in favour of the queen of Hungary. When the ſupplies came to be conſidered, by which this additional number of Hanoverian troops was to be paid, it produced moſt violent debates in both houſes of parliament. It was conſidered as an impoſition upon the nation, as an attempt to pay foreign troops for fighting their own battles; and the miniſtry were preſſed by their own arguments againſt ſuch meaſures before they came into power. They were not aſhamed, however, boldly to defend the meaſure; and at length, by the ſtrength of numbers, carried their point. But however theſe continental meaſures might have been ſuppoſed to injure the real intereſts of the nation, they ſerved effectually to retrieve the queen of Hungary's affairs. She ſoon began to turn the ſcale of victory on her ſide. The French were driven out of Bohemia. Her general, prince Charles of Lorraine, at the head of a large army, invaded the dominions of Bavaria. Her rival, the nominal emperor, was obliged to fly before her; and, abandoned by his allies, and ſtripped even of his hereditary dominions, retired to Frankfort, where he lived in obſcurity.

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The French, who had begun only as allies, were now obliged to ſuſtain the whole burthen of the war, and accordingly invaded their enemies on every ſide. The troops ſent to the queen's aſſiſtance by England, were commanded by the earl of Stair, an experienced general, who had learnt the art of war under the famous Eugene. The chief object which he had in view was to effect a junction with the queen's army, commanded by prince Charles of Lorraine, and thus to out-number the enemy in the field. The French, to prevent this junction, aſſembled an army of ſixty thouſand men upon the river Maine, A. D. 1743, under the command of marſhal Noailles, who poſted his troops upon the eaſt ſide of that river. The Britiſh forces, to the number of forty thouſand, puſhed forward on the other ſide into a country where they found themſelves entirely deſtitute of proviſions. The king of England arrived at the camp while his army was in this critical ſituation; wherefore he reſolved to penetrate forward, to join twelve thouſand Hanoverians and Heſſians who had reached Hanau. With this view he put his army in motion; but before he had marched three leagues, he found the enemy had ſurrounded him on every ſide, near the village of Dettingen. Nothing now preſented but the moſt mortifying proſpects; if he fought the enemy, it muſt be at the greateſt diſadvantage; if he continued inactive, there was a certainty of being ſtarved; and as for a retreat, that was impoſſible. The impetuoſity of the French troops ſaved his whole army. They paſſed a defile, which they ſhould have been content to defend; and, under the conduct of the duke of Grammont, their horſe charged the Engliſh foot with great fury. They were received, however, with intrepidity and reſolution; ſo that they were obliged to give way, and repaſs the Maine with precipitation, with the loſs of about five thouſand men. The king of England, with great perſonal courage, expoſed himſelf to a ſevere fire of the enemy's cannon, and in the midſt of the engagement encouraged his troops by his preſence and his example. The Engliſh had the honour of the day, but were ſoon obliged to leave the field of battle, which was taken poſſeſſion of by the French, who treated the wounded Engliſh with clemency and care. Though the Engliſh were victorious, yet the earl of Stair, who was commander in chief, did not aſſume any honour from ſuch a victory. He was unwilling to ſhare any glory which was ſo precariouſly obtained, and ſnatched rather from the enemy's miſtake, than gained by his conduct. He therefore ſolicited for leave to reſign; which being granted, the troops were led into quarters, and deſiſted from further operations that campaign.

Meanwhile the French went on with vigour on every ſide. They oppoſed prince Charles of Lorraine, and fruſtrated his attempts to paſs the Rhine. They gained ſome ſucceſſes in Italy; but their chief hopes were placed upon an invaſion of England. Louis XV. from the violence of the parliamentary diſputes, had been perſuaded that England was ripe for a revolution, and only wanted the preſence of the pretender to bring about the change. An invaſion, therefore, was actually projected; and prince Charles-Edward, the ſon of James, the old pretender, haſtily departed from Rome for Paris, where he had a flattering audience of the French king, who undertook to ſupport his exertions to recover the crown of England for his father. The troops deſtined for the expedition amounted to fifteen thouſand men; and preparations were made for embarking them at Dunkirk to ſome of the neareſt ports in England, under the eye of the young pretender. The duke de Roquefeuille, with twenty ſhips of the line, was to ſee them ſafe landed in England; and the famous count Saxe was to command them, when put on-ſhore. But the whole project was diſconcerted by the appearance of ſir John Norris, who, with a ſuperior fleet, made up to attack them. The invading armament was thus obliged to put back; a very hard gale damaged their tranſports; and the French, fruſtrated in their ſcheme of a ſecret invaſion, thought fit openly to declare war.

But though fortune favoured England on this occaſion, yet in other reſpects ſhe was not ſo propitious. A powerful ſquadron had been ſent into the Mediterranean, to overawe thoſe ſtates who might be inclined to lend aſſiſtance to France or Spain; which was conducted by Leſtock; but admiral Matthews, though a younger officer, was ſent out to take the ſuperior command; which produced a miſunderſtanding between the two admirals. An opportunity ſoon offered for theſe officers to diſcover their mutual animoſity, to the manifeſt injury of their country. The combined fleets of France and Spain, to the number of thirty four ſail, were ſeen off Toulon, and a ſignal was made by Matthews to prepare for engaging. It happened that his ſignals were not perfectly exact. This was a ſufficient excuſe to Leſtock for not bringing up into his ſtation; ſo that after ſome vain efforts to attack the enemy in conjunction, Matthews reſolved to engage by himſelf. One ſhip of the line belonging to the Spaniſh ſquadron ſtruck to captain Hawke. The purſuit was continued for three days, at the end of which Leſtock ſeemed to come up with more vigour; but juſt then Matthews gave orders for diſcontinuing the chace; and ſailed away for Port Mahon to repair the damage he had ſuſtained. The Engliſh fleet claimed the victory; and the French and Spaniards were pleaſed with their eſcape. In England, however, this rencounter was conſidered as the moſt mortifying defeat, and the complaints of the people knew no bounds. Both admirals, upon their return, were tried by a court-martial. Matthews, who had fought with intrepidity, was declared for the future incapable of ſerving in his majeſty's navy; while Leſtock, who had kept at a diſtance, was acquitted with honour, for having entrenched himſelf within the punctilios of diſcipline. He barely did his duty; but a man of honour, when his country is at ſtake, *will do more*.

The proceedings in the Netherlands were alſo unfavourable to the Engliſh. The French had aſſembled a formidable army of one hundred and twenty thouſand men, the chief command of which was given to the famous count Saxe, natural ſon to the king of Poland. He had been bred from his youth in camps, and had ſhewn very early inſtances of cool intrepidity. To oppoſe this experienced general, the Engliſh were headed by the duke of Cumberland, who neither poſſeſſed equal talents for war, nor was able to bring ſuch a formidable army into the field. The French, therefore, bore down all before them. They beſieged Fribourg, and in the beginning of the ſucceeding campaign, inveſted the ſtrong city of Tournay. Although the allies were inferior in number, they reſolved, if poſſible, to ſave this city by hazarding a battle. They accordingly marched againſt the enemy, and took poſt in ſight of the French, who were encamped on an eminence, having the village of St. Antoine on the right, a wood on the left, and the town of Fontenoy before them. This advantageous ſituation did not repreſs the ardour of the Engliſh, who began the attack at two o'clock in the morning, and, preſſing forward, bore down all oppoſition. They were for near an hour victorious, and appeared confident of ſucceſs; while marſhal Saxe, who was extremely ill, was carried about to all the poſts in a litter, and aſſured his army that, notwithſtanding all unfavourable appearances, the day was his own. A colemn of the Engliſh, without any command, but by mere mechanical courage, had advanced upon the enemy's lines, which opening, formed an avenue on each ſide to receive them. It was then that the French artillery, on three ſides, began to play upon this forlorn body, which, though they continued for a long time unſhaken, were obliged at laſt to retreat, about three in the afternoon. This was one of the moſt bloody battles fought in the ſeventeenth century; the allies left on the field of battle near twelve thouſand men, and the French bought their victory with an equal number of ſlain. This blow, by which Tournay was taken by the French, gave them ſuch a manifeſt ſuperiority all the reſt of the campaign, that they kept the

fruits of their victory during the whole continuance of the war. The duke of Bavaria, whom they made emperor under the title of Charles VII. was lately dead; but though his pretenſions were the original cauſe of the war, it was by no means diſcontinued at his deceaſe. The grand duke of Tuſcany, huſband to the queen of Hungary, was declared emperor in his room; and though the original cauſe of the quarrel was no more, the diſſenſions ſtill continued as violent as ever.

Notwithſtanding the ill ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh arms by land and ſea, yet theſe being diſtant evils, the Engliſh ſeemed only to complain from honourable motives, and murmured at diſtreſſes of which they had but a very remote idea. The projected invaſion by the pretender was now again at hand, but while it increaſed their perplexities, it only cemented their union. The miniſtry was now changed; the lords Harrington, Cheſterfield, and Mr. Pelham, were at the head of affairs; theſe enjoyed ſome ſhare of popularity, and the operations of war were no longer thwarted by a turbulent oppoſition. The admirals Rowley and Warren had retrieved the honour of the Britiſh flag, and made ſeveral important captures at ſea. The fortreſs of Louiſburg, in the iſland of Cape Breton, had ſurrendered to general Pepperell; while two French Eaſt-Indiamen, and a Spaniſh galleon from Peru, laden with immenſe treaſure were taken. At this period of returning ſucceſs, prince Charles-Edward, made his attempt for gaining the Britiſh crown. He was enterpriſing and ambitious; but, either from inexperience or natural inability, utterly unequal to the bold undertaking in which he had embarked. He was long flattered by the raſh, the ſuperſtitious, and the needy; he was taught to believe that the kingdom was ripe for a revolt, and that it could no longer bear the immenſe load of taxes with which it was burthened.

Being furniſhed with money, and large promiſes from France, he embarked for Scotland on-board a ſmall frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, ſir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other deſperate adventurers. Fortune, which ever perſecuted his family, ſeemed no way more favourable to him; his convoy, a ſhip of ſixty guns, was ſo diſabled in an engagement with an Engliſh man of war, the Lion, that it was obliged to return to Breſt, while he continued his courſe to the weſtern parts of Scotland, and landing on the coaſt of Lochaber, July 27, 1745, was in a little time joined by ſome chiefs of the Highland clans, and their vaſſals. By means of theſe chiefs he ſoon ſaw himſelf at the head of fifteen hundred men, and invited others to join him by his manifeſtoes, which were diſperſed all over Great Britain. The boldneſs of the enterpriſe aſtoniſhed Europe: it awakened the fears of the puſillanimous, the ardour of the brave, and excited the pity of the wiſe. The miniſtry was no ſooner confirmed in the account of his arrival, which at firſt they could be ſcarcely induced to credit, than ſir John Cope was ſent to oppoſe his progreſs. By this time the young pretender was arrived at Perth, where the ceremony was performed of proclaiming his father king of Great Britain. From thence, deſcending with his forces from the Highlands, they ſeemed to gather ſtrength as they went forward; and, advancing to Edinburgh, entered that city without oppoſition. There again the pageantry of proclamation was performed; and there he promiſed to diſſolve the union, which was conſidered as one of the grievances of the country. However, the caſtle of that city ſtill held out, and prince Charles was unprovided with cannon to beſiege it. In the mean time, ſir John Cope, who had purſued the rebels through the Highlands, reſolved to march towards Edinburgh, and give them battle. The young pretender, whoſe forces were ſuperior, though undiſciplined, attacked ſir John near Preſtonpans, a few miles from the capital, and put him and his troops to flight. This victory, by which the king loſt five hundred men, gave the rebels great influence; and had Charles Stuart taken advantage of the general conſternation, and marched directly for England, the conſequences might have been fatal to freedom. But he was amuſed by the promiſe of ſuccours which never came; and was induced to remain in Edinburgh, to enjoy the triumphs of a partial victory, and to be treated as a monarch. By this time his train was compoſed of the earl of Kilmarnock, lord Balmerino, the lords Cromartie, Elcho, Ogilvy, Pittligo, and the eldeſt ſon of lord Lovat, who came in with their clans, and increaſed his army. Lord Lovat himſelf was an enthuſiaſt in the cauſe; but, being without principles, he was unwilling to act openly, afraid of incurring the reſentment of the miniſtry, and the forfeiture of his life. Never was there a man of ſuch unaccountable ambition, or who ever more actively rendered himſelf hateful and ſuſpected by all. He was at firſt outlawed for raviſhing the duke of Argyle's niece; he then offered his ſervice to the old pretender in France, and it was accepted; he next betrayed the forces which were ſent to his aſſiſtance to queen Anne. He a ſecond time invited the pretender over in the reign of George I. and being put in poſſeſſion, by the chevalier, of the caſtle of Stirling, he once more betrayed it into the hands of the enemy. This man, true to neither party, had now, in ſecret, ſent aid to the young pretender, while, in his converſation, he affected to declaim againſt his conduct.

While the thoughtleſs Charles-Edward was trifling away his time at Edinburgh, the miniſtry of Great Britain took every precaution to oppoſe him with ſucceſs. Six thouſand Dutch troops, that had come over to the aſſiſtance of the crown, were diſpatched northward, under the command of general Wade; but it was objected that they could lend no aſſiſtance, being priſoners of France upon parole, and under engagements not to oppoſe that power for the ſpace of one year. However this be, the duke of Cumberland arrived from Flanders, accompanied with a large detachment of dragoons and infantry, well diſciplined, and inured to action, at the head of which he took the field. In the mean while the young pretender, after holding ſeveral councils and conſultations with his followers, came to the reſolution of making an irruption into England. He entered by the weſtern border, and inveſted Carliſle, which ſurrendered in leſs than three days. He there found a conſiderable quantity of arms; and there too he procured his father, the old chevalier de St. George, to be proclaimed king, by the title of James III.

General Wade, being appriſed of his progreſs, haſtily advanced acroſs the country from the oppoſite ſhore; but receiving intelligence that the enemy was full two days' march before him, he retired to his former ſtation. The young pretender, therefore, finding himſelf unoppoſed, reſolved to penetrate farther into the kingdom, after having received aſſurances from France, that a conſiderable body of troops would be landed on the ſouthern coaſt, to make a diverſion in his favour. He was flattered alſo with the hopes of being joined by a conſiderable number of malcontents as he paſſed forward, and that his army would increaſe on the march. Accordingly, leaving a ſmall garriſon in Carliſle, which he ſhould rather have taken with him, he advanced to Penrith, marching on foot in a Highland dreſs, and continuing his irruption till he came to Mancheſter, where he eſtabliſhed his head-quarters. He was there joined by about two hundred Engliſh, who were formed into a regiment under the command of colonel Townly. From thence he purſued his march to Derby, intending to go by the way of Cheſter into Wales, where he hoped to be joined by a great number of followers; but the factions which began to exiſt among his own jealous chiefs, prevented his proceeding to that part of the kingdom. He was now advanced within a hundred miles of London, which was filled with perplexity and conſternation. Had he proceeded with expedition, it is thought he might have made himſelf maſter of the metropolis, where numbers of the diſaffected were ready to join him. In this criſis, the king reſolved immediately to take the field

field in perſon. The volunteers of the city were incorporated into a regiment; the ſtudents of the law, and numerous other claſſes of the people, united into aſſociations for the ſervice of their country. But they were ſoon relieved from their apprehenſions by the anarchy which prevailed in the pretender's army. In fact, he was but the nominal leader of his forces; as his generals, the chiefs of the Highland clans, were, from their education, ignorant, and averſe to ſubordination. They had from the beginning begun to embrace an oppoſite ſyſtem of operation, and to contend with each other for pre-eminence; but they ſeemed now unanimous in returning to their own country. They accordingly retreated to Carliſle, and from thence croſſed the rivers Eden and Solway into Scotland. In theſe marches, however, they preſerved all the rules of war; they abſtained in a great meaſure from plunder; they levied contributions on the towns as they paſſed along; and with unaccountable precaution left a garriſon in Carliſle, which ſhortly after was obliged to ſurrender to the duke of Cumberland at diſcretion, to the number of four hundred men. The pretender, on entering Scotland, proceeded to Glaſgow, where he exacted large contributions. He advanced from thence to Stirling, where he was joined by lord Lewis Gordon, at the head of ſome forces which had been aſſembled in his abſence. Other clans, to the number of two thouſand, came in likewiſe; and from ſome ſupplies of money which he received from Spain, and from ſome ſkirmiſhes in which he was ſucceſsful againſt the royaliſts, his affairs began to put on a more promiſing aſpect. Being joined by lord Drummond, he inveſted Stirling-caſtle, commanded by general Blakeney; but the rebel forces, being unuſed to ſieges, conſumed much time to no purpoſe. It was during this attempt, that general Hawley, who commanded a conſiderable body of forces near Edinburgh, undertook to raiſe the ſiege, and advanced towards the rebels at Falkirk. After two days, the rebels, being ardent to engage, were led on in full ſpirits to attack the king's army. Prince Charles, who was in the front line, gave the ſignal for the onſet; and the firſt fire put Hawley's forces into confuſion. The horſe retreated with precipitation, and fell upon their own infantry; while the rebels, following up their advantage, the greateſt part of the royal army fled in confuſion to Edinburgh, leaving the conquerors in poſſeſſion of their tents, their artillery, and the field of battle.

Thus far the affairs of the rebel army ſeemed not unproſperous; but here was an end of all their triumphs. The duke of Cumberland had now put himſelf at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which conſiſted of about fourteen thouſand men. With theſe he advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by ſeveral of the Scotch nobility attached to the houſe of Hanover; and, having revived the drooping ſpirits of his army, he reſolved to attack the enemy, who retreated at his approach. After refreſhing his troops at Aberdeen, he renewed his march, and in twelve days reached the banks of the Spey. This was the place where the rebels might have had a chance by diſputing his paſſage; but they loſt every advantage for want of diſcipline; they ſeemed devoid of all counſel and ſubordination; without conduct, and without unanimity. After a variety of diſputes among themſelves, they reſolved to await their purſuers upon the plains of Culloden, about nine miles from Inverneſs, emboſomed in hills, except on that ſide which is open to the ſea. There they drew up in order of battle, to the number of eight thouſand men, in three diviſions, ſupplied with a few pieces of artillery, ill manned, and badly ſerved. The battle began about one o'clock in the afternoon, on the 16th of April, 1746. The cannon of the king's army did prodigious execution among the rebels, while theirs was totally unſerviceable. One great error in the pretender's tactics, was ſubjecting wild and undiſciplined troops to the ſtrict forms of artful war, and thus repreſſing their native ardour, from which alone he could hope for ſucceſs. After they had been kept in their ranks and withſtood the Engliſh fire for ſome time, they became impatient for cloſer action, and about five hundred of them made an irruption upon the left wing of the Engliſh, with their accuſtomed fury. The firſt line being diſordered by this onſet, two battalions advanced to ſupport it, and galled the rebels with a cloſe and terrible diſcharge. At the ſame time the dragoons under Hawley, and the Argyleſhire militia, opening a park-wall that guarded the flank of the enemy, and which they had but feebly defended, fell in among them, ſword in hand, with great ſlaughter. In leſs than thirty minutes from the completion of this movement, the rebels were totally routed, and the field covered with their wounded and ſlain, to the number of above three thouſand. The French troops on the left did not fire a ſhot, but ſtood inactive during the engagement, and afterwards ſurrendered priſoners of war. An entire body of the clans marched off the field in order, while the reſt were routed with great ſlaughter, and their leaders obliged with reluctance to retire. The victory was in every reſpect deciſive; and humanity to the conquered would have rendered it glorious. But little mercy was ſhewn; the conquerors refuſed quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceleſs; ſome were wantonly ſlain who were only excited by curioſity to become ſpectators of the battle, and ſoldiers were ſeen baſely to anticipate the employment of the executioner. The duke, immediately after the action, ordered thirty-ſix deſerters to be executed; the conquerors ſpread terror wherever they came; the whole country round was one dreadful ſcene of plunder, ſlaughter, and devaſtation; juſtice was forgotten, and vengeance aſſumed her empire.

Thus were blaſted all the hopes and all the ambition of the young Charles-Edward Stuart; one ſhort hour deprived him of imaginary thrones and ſceptres, and reduced him from the unenviable ſtate of a nominal king to that of a miſerable outcaſt, ſhunned by all mankind, except ſuch as ſought his deſtruction. To the good and the brave, ſubſequent diſtreſs often atones for former guilt; and while reaſon would ſpeak for puniſhment, our hearts plead for mercy. Immediately after the engagement, he fled with a captain of Fitz-james's cavalry; and when their horſes were fatigued, they alighted, and ſeparately ſought for ſafety on foot. The unfortunate fugitive pretender wandered about the wilds of Scotland, a wretched ſpectator of all thoſe horrors which had reſulted from his ill-guided ambition. There is a ſtriking ſimilitude between his diſtreſſes and thoſe of Charles II. upon his eſcape from Worceſter. He ſometimes found refuge in caves and cottages, dependent on the wretched natives, who could pity but not relieve him. Sometimes he hid himſelf in foreſts, with one or two companions of his diſtreſs, continually purſued by the troops of the conqueror, as there was a reward of thirty thouſand pounds offered for taking him, dead or alive. Sheridan, an Iriſh adventurer, was the perſon who kept moſt faithfully by him, and inſpired him with courage to ſupport ſuch incredible hardſhips. He had occaſion, in the courſe of his concealments, to truſt his life to the fidelity of above fifty individuals, whoſe regards prevailed above their avarice. One day, having walked from morning till night, he ventured to enter a houſe, the owner of which he well knew was attached to the oppoſite party. As he entered, he addreſſed the owner in the following manner: "The ſon of your king comes to beg a little bread and a few clothes. I know your attachment to my adverſaries: but I believe you have ſufficient honour not to abuſe my confidence, or to take advantage of my diſtreſſed ſituation. Take theſe rags that have for ſome time been my only covering; you may probably reſtore them to me one day when I ſhall be ſeated on the throne of my anceſtors." The maſter of the houſe was touched with pity at his diſtreſs; he aſſiſted him as far as he was able, and never divulged the ſecret.

In this manner he wandered among the frightful wilds of Glengary, for near ſix months, often hemmed round by

his purſuers, but ſtill preſerved by ſome lucky accident from the impending danger. At length a privateer of St. Malo, hired by his adherents, arrived in Lochnanach, in which he embarked in the moſt wretched attire. He was clad in a ſhort coat of black frize, thread-bare, over which was a common Highland plaid, girt round him by a belt, from which depended a piſtol and a dagger. He had not been ſhifted for many weeks; his eyes were hollow, his viſage wan, and his conſtitution greatly impaired by famine and fatigue. He was accompanied by Sullivan and Sheridan, his two Iriſh adherents, who had ſhared all his calamities, together with Cameron of Lochiel, his brother, and a few other exiles. They ſet ſail for France, and, after having been chaſed by two Engliſh men of war, they arrived in ſafety at Roſeau, near Morlaix in Bretagne. Perhaps he would have found it more difficult to eſcape, had not the vigilance of his purſuers been relaxed by a report that he was already ſlain.

While the pretender thus narrowly eſcaped to France, the ſcaffolds and the gibbets were erected for his adherents. Seventeen officers of the rebel army were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Kennington-common, in the neighbourhood of London. Their conſtancy in death gained more proſelytes to their cauſe than even perhaps their victories would have obtained. Nine were executed in the ſame manner at Carliſle, and eleven at York. A few obtained pardon, and a conſiderable number of the common ſoldiers were tranſported to the plantations of North America. The earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and lord Balmerino, were tried by their peers, and found guilty. Cromartie was pardoned, but the other two were beheaded on Tower-hill. Kilmarnock, either convinced of his errors, or flattered to the laſt with the hopes of pardon, declared a conſciouſneſs of his crimes, and profeſſed his repentance. But very different was the behaviour of Balmerino, who gloried in the cauſe for which he fell. When his fellow-ſufferer was commanded to bid God bleſs king George, which he did with a faint voice, Balmerino ſtill avowed his principles, and cried out aloud, "God bleſs king James!" The unfortunate Radcliffe, brother to the earl of Derwentwater who had been beheaded in the former reign, being taken onboard a ſhip as he was going to reinforce the pretender's army, and his perſon being recognized, he was ſentenced upon a former conviction, and ſuffered the like fate upon Tower-hill. Lord Lovat was alſo tried and found guilty; but his ſufferings did very little honour to the cauſe.

In the mean time, while England was thus in commotion at home, the flames of war continued to rage upon the continent with increaſing violence. The French arms were crowned with repeated ſucceſs; and almoſt the whole Netherlands were reduced under their dominion. The Dutch in their uſual manner negociated, ſupplicated, and evaded the war; but they found themſelves every day ſtripped of ſome of thoſe ſtrong towns which formed a barrier to their dominions, and which they had been put in poſſeſſion of by the victorious Marlborough. They now lay defenceleſs, and ready to receive the laſt terms of their conquerors; their national bravery ſeemed loſt in the ſpirit of traffic and luxury. Two powerful factions, which had ſubſiſted above a century in their republic, ſtill inflamed the people, and divided their councils. The one declared for the prince of Orange and a ſtadtholder; the other oppoſed this election, and deſired rather ſubmiſſive friendſhip than to be at variance with France. The prevalence of either of theſe factions to its utmoſt extent, would have been equally fatal to freedom; for, if a ſtadtholder was elected, the conſtitution became altered from a republic to a kind of limited monarchy; if, on the contrary, the oppoſite party prevailed, the people muſt ſubmit to the weight of a confirmed ariſtocracy, ſupported by French power, and liable to its arbitrary controul. Of the two evils they choſe the former: the people in ſeveral towns, compelled their magiſtrates to declare the prince of Orange ſtadtholder, captain-general, and admiral, of the United Provinces. The vigorous conſequences of this reſolution immediately appeared. All commerce with the French was prohibited; the Dutch army was augmented, the navy put on a reſpectable eſtabliſhment, and orders were iſſued to commence hoſtilities againſt France by ſea and land. Thus the war, which had begun but in a ſingle country, was now diffuſed over all Europe, and, like an epidemic fever, prevailed in different parts of this great political conſtitution, remitting and raging as effects and cauſes intervened.

The king of Sardinia, who had ſome years before joined France againſt England, now changed ſides, and declared againſt the ambitious power of France. Italy felt all the terrors of inteſtine war, or rather looked on, while foreigners were contending with each other for her uſurped dominions. The French and Spaniards on one ſide, and the imperialiſts and the king of Sardinia on the other, ravaged thoſe beautiful territories by turns, and gave laws to that degraded country, which had once ſpread her dominion over the world.

The Engliſh, in the mean while, made an unſucceſsful attack upon Port l'Orient. The French alſo gained a conſiderable victory at Rocroix in Flanders, although it coſt them as many lives as they deſtroyed of the enemy. Another victory, which they obtained at La Feldt, ſerved to depreſs the allied army ſtill more. But the taking of Bergen-op-zoom, the ſtrongeſt garriſon of Brabant, reduced the Dutch to a ſtate of deſperation. Yet theſe victories gained by the French were counterbalanced with as great diſappointments. In Italy, the marſhal Belleiſle's brother, attempting to penetrate, at the head of thirty-four thouſand men, into Piedmont, his army was routed, and himſelf ſlain. An unſucceſsful fleet attempted the recovery of Cape Breton. Two more were fitted out, the one to make a deſcent upon the Britiſh colonies in America, and the other to attack her poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies; but theſe fleets were intercepted by Anſon and Warren, and nine of their ſhips taken. Commodore Fox, alſo, with ſix men of war, took above forty French merchantmen richly laden from St. Domingo; and this loſs was followed by a ſignal defeat which the French fleet ſuſtained from admiral Hawke, A. D. 1747, in which ſeven ſhips of the line, and ſeveral frigates, were taken. In this manner, victory, defeat, negociation, treachery, and rebellion, ſucceeded each other for ſome years, till all ſides began to find themſelves growing more feeble, and gaining no advantage from continual animoſity and bloodſhed.

The Dutch had long endeavoured to ſtop the progreſs of a war, in which they had much to loſe, and nothing to gain. The king of France was ſenſible that a career of victory was the moſt advantageous time in which to offer terms of peace. He therefore expreſſed his deſire of general tranquillity to ſir John Ligonier, when he was taken priſoner at the battle of La Feldt. But now the bad ſucceſs of his admirals at ſea, and of his armies in Italy, the bankruptcies of his merchants, and the election of a ſtadtholder in Holland, who gave ſpirit to the oppoſition, all contributed to make him loath the war, and preſs for an accommodation. This was exactly what the allies wanted. A negociation was therefore reſolved upon; and the belligerent powers agreed to form a congreſs at Aix-la-Chapelle, where the earl of Sandwich, and ſir Thomas Robinſon, aſſiſted as plenipotentiaries from the king of Great Britain.

This treaty, which takes its name from the city wherein it was negociated, opened with the preliminary conditions of reſtoring all conqueſts that were made during the war. Hence great hopes were expected of terms both favourable and honourable to the Engliſh people; but the treaty ſtill remains a laſting mark of their precipitate counſels and voluntary diſgrace. It was agreed that all priſoners ſhould be mutually reſtored, and all conqueſts given up; that the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guaſtalla, ſhould be ceded to don Philip, heir-apparent to the Spaniſh

niſh throne, and to his heirs; but in caſe of his ſucceeding to the crown of Spain, that then theſe dominions ſhould revert to the houſe of Auſtria. It was confirmed that the fortifications of Dunkirk to the ſea ſhould be demoliſhed; that the Engliſh ſhips, annually ſent with ſlaves to the coaſt of New Spain, ſhould have this privilege continued for four years; that the king of Pruſſia ſhould be confirmed in the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, which he had lately conquered; and that the queen of Hungary ſhould be ſecured in her patrimonial dominions. But the degrading part at laſt fell upon poor old England: it was ſtipulated, that the king of Great Britain ſhould, immediately after the ratification of this treaty, ſend two perſons of rank and diſtinction to France as hoſtages, until reſtitution ſhould be made of Cape Breton, and all other conqueſts which England had made during the war!. This was a humiliating clauſe: but to add to the general error of the negociation, no prevention was put to the ſearching the veſſels of England in the American ſeas, upon which the war had originally begun. The limits of their reſpective poſſeſſions in North America were left unaſcertained; nor did the Engliſh receive any equivalent for thoſe forts which they reſtored to the enemy. The treaty of Utrecht had long been a ſubject of reproach to thoſe by whom it was made; but, with all its faults, the treaty now concluded was far more degrading. Yet ſuch was the ſpirit of the times, that the treaty of Utrecht was branded with univerſal contempt, while that of Aix-la-Chapelle was extolled to the heavens. This treaty, which ſome aſſerted would ſerve for a bond of permanent amity, was but a temporary truce; a ceſſation from hoſtilities, which neither England nor France were ſedulous to continue; for, though the war was actually huſhed up in Europe, yet in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies it ſtill went forward, under cover of their reſpective alliances in thoſe regions.

In the mean time, Mr. Pelham, who conducted the buſineſs of the ſtate, and was confeſſedly a man of candour and capacity, laid a ſcheme for lightening the public debt, accumulated during the late war. His plan was, to leſſen the intereſt which had been promiſed on granting the ſupplies, or elſe obliging the lenders to receive the ſums originally granted. Thoſe, for inſtance, who were proprietors of ſtock, and received for the uſe of their money four per cent. were, by an act paſſed for that purpoſe, compelled to accept of three pounds ten ſhillings per cent. the following year, and three per cent. every year enſuing; or, in caſe of refuſal, to receive the principal. This ſcheme was attended with the deſired effect, and was evidently beneficial to the nation. It was about this time alſo that the famous marriage-act, and the reſtrictions and qualifications for killing game, firſt took place.

A ſcheme was now projected, A. D. 1749, which the nation was taught to believe would be extremely advantageous. This was the encouragement held out to thoſe who had been diſcharged from the army and navy, to become ſettlers in a new colony in North America, in the province of Nova Scotia. To this retreat it was thought the waſte of an exuberant nation might well be drained off; and thoſe bold ſpirits kept in employment at a diſtance, who might be dangerous, if ſuffered to continue in idleneſs at home. The new colony was for ſome time maintained at the expence of the government; but in order to decide the claim to this diſtrict, the Engliſh and French revived the war, which ſpread in conſequence over every part of the globe. The native Indians bordering upon the deſerts of Nova Scotia, looked with a jealous eye upon theſe new ſettlers; and they conſidered the vicinity of the Engliſh as an encroachment upon their poſſeſſions. The French, who were their neighbours, fomented theſe ſuſpicions, by repreſenting the Engliſh as an enterpriſing and dangerous people. Commiſſaries were therefore appointed to meet at Paris, to compromiſe theſe diſputes; but the negociation proved abortive. The French had been the firſt cultivators of Nova Scotia, and, by great induſtry and long perſeverance, had rendered the ſoil more fertile, and capable of ſuſtaining nature with occaſional aſſiſtance from Europe. This country, however, had frequently changed its maſters, until at length the Engliſh were ſettled in the poſſeſſion, and acknowledged as the rightful owners, by the treaty of Utrecht.

But another national diſpute began about the ſame time, and in the ſame part of the world. The French, pretending to have firſt diſcovered the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, claimed the whole adjacent country towards New Mexico on the eaſt, to the Apalachian mountains on the weſt. In order to eſtabliſh their claim, as they found ſeveral Engliſh families who had ſettled beyond theſe mountains, they diſpoſſeſſed them of their new ſettlements, and built forts to command the country round about. It was now ſeen that their intention was to ſurround the Engliſh colonies, which lay along the ſhore, by taking poſſeſſion of the internal parts of the country that lay towards the back ſettlements; and thus, being in poſſeſſion already of the northern and ſouthern parts of that great continent, to hem the Engliſh in on every ſide, and ſecure to themſelves all the trade of the internal part of the country. The Engliſh, therefore, juſtly apprehended, that if the French united their northern colonies on the river St. Lawrence, to their ſouthern on the river Miſſiſſippi, that then they muſt in a ſhort time become maſters of all that part of North America.

But it was not in America alone, but in Aſia likewiſe, that the ſeeds of a new war were preparing to be extended. On the coaſts of Malabar, the Engliſh and French had, in fact, never ceaſed from hoſtilities. This immenſe tract of country, which now ſaw the armies of Europe contending for its dominion, comprehends Hindooſtan, or the whole peninſula of India. On the coaſts of this country, the Engliſh, the French, and ſeveral other powers of Europe, had built forts, with the original conſent of the Great Mogul, who was then emperor of the whole tract. The war between the Engliſh and French began in India, by their ſiding reſpectively with two contending princes of the country; in which, from being firſt ſecondaries in the quarrel, they became principals. Thus the war between France and England was kindling up in every part of the world; and the miniſtry reſolved to cut ſhort the knot which they could not unlooſe. Orders were accordingly diſpatched to the American provinces to unite into a confederacy for their mutual ſecurity; and, if poſſible, to bring the Indians over to eſpouſe their quarrel.

To ſupport theſe views, the miniſtry in England began a very vigorous exertion in defence of the colonies. Four operations were undertaken in America at the ſame time, A. D. 1756. Of theſe, one was commanded by colonel Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from their encroachments in the province of Nova Scotia. The ſecond was directed againſt Crown-point, under the command of general Johnſon. The third, under the conduct of general Shirley, was deſtined to Niagara, to ſecure the forts on that river; and the fourth was farther ſouthward, againſt Fort du Queſne, under general Braddock.

In theſe expeditions Monckton was ſucceſsful; Johnſon alſo was victorious, though he failed in taking the fort againſt which he was ſent; Shirley was thought to have loſt the ſeaſon for operation by delay; Braddock was vigorous and active, but was defeated and killed. He went forward with intrepidity, and advanced into the deſerts of Oſwego, where no European had ever trod. But his courage was greater than his caution: regardleſs of the deſigns of the Indians, he took no care previouſly to explore the woods or the thickets. Being at length within ten miles of the fortreſs he was appointed to beſiege, and marching forward through the foreſts with full confidence of ſucceſs, on a ſudden his whole army was ſurpriſed by a general diſcharge of arms, both in front and flank, from an enemy that ſtill remained unſeen. It was now too late to think of retreating; the troops had entered the defile, which the enemy had artfully permitted them to do before they offered to fire. The vanguard of the Engliſh

now fell back in conſternation upon the main body, and the panic ſoon became general. The officers alone diſdained to fly, while Braddock himſelf ſtill continued to command his brave aſſociates, diſcovering at once the greateſt intrepidity and the greateſt imprudence. An enthuſiaſt to the diſcipline of war, he diſdained to quit the field, or to permit his men to leave their ranks, when their only method of treating the Indian army was by a precipitate attack, or by an immediate deſertion of the field of battle. At length Braddock, having received a muſket-ſhot through the lungs, dropped, and a total confuſion enſued. All the artillery, ammunition, and baggage, of the army, were left to the enemy; and the loſs ſuſtained by the Engliſh amounted to ſeven hundred men. The ſhattered remains of the army returned by their former route, and arrived to ſpread the general conſternation among the provincials of Philadelphia.

The general indignation that was raiſed by theſe defeats, drove the Engliſh into a ſpirit of retaliation by ſea, where they were more ſure of ſucceſs. Orders were given to make prize of the French ſhipping wherever found, though no formal declaration of war had yet been made. With this order the naval commanders readily complied; the Engliſh ports were ſoon filled with veſſels taken from the enemy, and kept as an indemnification for thoſe forts of which the French had unjuſtly poſſeſſed themſelves in America. The benefit of this meaſure was much more obvious than its juſtice; it ſtruck ſuch a blow, that the navy of France was unable to recover itſelf during the war, which was now formally declared on both ſides.

The firſt political manœuvre ſet on foot by Louis XV. was that of intimidating England with the threats of a formidable invaſion. Several bodies of their troops occupied the coaſts that lay oppoſite the Britiſh ſhores; and theſe were inſtructed in the diſcipline of embarking and diſembarking from flat-bottomed boats, which were conſtructed in great numbers for that purpoſe. The troops deſtined for this enterpriſe amounted to fifty thouſand: but they diſcovered the utmoſt reluctance to engage in this forlorn hope. Whether theſe preparations were really intended for actual deſcent, or made only to terrify the Engliſh, is uncertain; but it is manifeſt that they anſwered the latter purpoſe entirely. In this exigence the king applied to the Dutch for ſix thouſand men, which they were bound to furniſh by treaty in caſe of invaſion. But the wary Dutch refuſed the ſupply, alleging that their treaty was only to ſend troops in caſe of an *actual*, and not a threatened, invaſion. The king, diſappointed of this aſſiſtance, looked over the continent, to find where ſalvation might be had. A body of Heſſians and Hanoverians, amounting to about ten thouſand men, was to be purchaſed; and theſe were brought over into England, and encamped at Wincheſter, during the ſummer of 1756, to protect about as many millions of Engliſhmen, who were ſuppoſed, like children, incapable of defending themſelves. "But the remedy was worſe than the diſeaſe." The miniſtry was reviled for having reduced the nation to ſuch a diſgraceful condeſcenſion; and the people were loud in demanding a vigorous exertion of their own internal ſtrength, fearing no force that could be led to invade them.

Theſe murmurs and diſſenſions among the Engliſh, gave the French an opportunity of carrying on their deſigns in another quarter; and, while the miniſtry were employed in guarding againſt an invaſion at home, they were attacked in the Mediterranean, where they leaſt expected an enemy. The iſland of Minorca, which had been taken from the Spaniards in the reign of queen Anne, was ſecured to England by repeated treaties. But the miniſtry had neglected its defence; ſo that the garriſon was weak, and no way fitted to ſtand a vigorous ſiege. The French, therefore, landed near the fortification of St. Philip, which was reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt in Europe, and commanded by general Blakeney, who was brave indeed, but ſuperannuated. The miniſtry were no ſooner appriſed of this unexpected attack, than they reſolved to raiſe the ſiege, and ſent out admiral Byng with ten ſhips of war expreſsly for that purpoſe. Upon his approaching the iſland, he ſaw the French banners diſplayed upon the ſhore, and the Engliſh colours ſtill flying on the caſtle of St. Philip. He had been ordered to throw a body of troops into the garriſon; but this he thought too hazardous an undertaking; nor did he even make the attempt. While he was thus deliberating between his fears and his duty, his attention was called off by the appearance of a French fleet, that ſeemed of nearly equal force to his own. Confounded by a variety of meaſures, he ſeemed reſolved to purſue none; and therefore gave orders to form the line of battle, and act upon the defenſive. Byng had been long praiſed for his ſkill in naval tactics; and perhaps, valuing moſt thoſe talents for which he was moſt praiſed, he ſacrificed all claims to courage to an applauſe for naval diſcipline. The French fleet advanced; a part of the Engliſh fleet engaged; the admiral kept aloof, and gave very plauſible reaſons for not coming into action. The French fleet, therefore, ſlowly ſailed away; and no other opportunity ever offered of coming to a cloſer engagement. This caution was carried ſtill further; a council of war was called on-board the admiral's ſhip, which deprived the Engliſh garriſon of all hopes of ſuccour. It was determined to ſail away to Gibraltar, to refit the fleet, it having been previouſly decided that the relief of Minorca was impracticable!

Nothing could exceed the reſentment of the nation upon Byng's conduct; and the news which ſoon arrived of the ſurrender of the garriſon to the French, increaſed the general ferment almoſt to phrenſy. In the mean time, Byng continued at Gibraltar, quite ſatisfied with his own conduct, and little expected the ſtorm that was gathering over his head. Orders were ſent out for putting him under an arreſt, and for bringing him to England. He was ſoon after tried by a court-martial at Portſmouth, found guilty on the twelfth article of war, and ſentenced to be ſhot. His judges, however, recommended him to the king as an object of mercy; ſtating that they conſidered his conduct rather as the effects of error than of cowardice. By this ſentence, they hoped to ſatisfy at once the reſentment of the nation, and yet ſcreen themſelves from conſcious ſeverity. The government was reſolved upon ſhewing him no mercy; the parliament was applied to in the admiral's favour; but they found no circumſtances in his conduct that could invalidate the ſentence. Being thus abandoned to his fate, he maintained to the laſt a degree of fortitude and ſerenity, that no way betrayed either timidity or cowardice. On the day fixed for his execution, which was on-board the Monarque man of war in Portſmouth-harbour, he advanced from the cabin, and after delivering a paper, containing the ſtrongeſt aſſertions of his innocence, he came forward to the place where he was to kneel down, and for ſome time perſiſted in not covering his face; but his friends repreſenting that his looks would poſſibly intimidate the ſoldiers who were to ſhoot him, and prevent their taking proper aim, he had his eyes bound with a handkerchief; and then giving the ſoldiers the ſignal to fire, he was ſhot, on March 14, 1757. There appears ſome ſeverity in Byng's puniſhment; but it certainly had a powerful effect upon the ſubſequent operations of the war.

In the mean time the French, who were now maſters of Minorca, made a public declaration that they would retaliate all injuries which they might ſuſtain in their colonies, upon the king of England's territories in Germany. The court of London, dreading the conſequence, and anxious for the ſafety of Hanover, entered into a treaty with the court of Ruſſia, by which it was ſtipulated, that a body of fifty thouſand Ruſſians, ſhould be ready to act in the Engliſh ſervice, in caſe Hanover ſhould be invaded; and for this the czarina was to receive *a hundred thouſand pounds annually*, to be paid in advance!

This treaty, which was conſidered as a maſter-ſtroke of politics

politics by the miniſtry in England, ſoon appeared to be as nugatory as it was expenſive. The king of Pruſſia, who conſidered himſelf as guardian of the intereſts of Germany, declared that he would not ſuffer any foreign troops to enter the empire, either as auxiliaries or as principals. This conſummate politician had been appriſed of a ſecret negociation between the Ruſſians and the Auſtrians, by which the former were to enter the empire, and ſtrip him of his late conqueſt of Sileſia. Thus England was made the dupe of Ruſſian politics; ſhe paid them a large ſubſidy for entering the empire, which they had already determined to perform without her interference. The king of England, whoſe fears for Hanover were thus increaſed, had again recourſe to treaties, and an embaſſy was now ſent to Pruſſia. All the king of England deſired, was to keep a foreign enemy from invading Germany; and this the king of Pruſſia profeſſed to wiſh for with equal ardour. From this ſimilitude of political views, theſe two monarchs coaleſced; they mutually engaged to unite their armies againſt any power whatſoever, that ſhould attempt to make war upon any part of Germany.

This alliance gave birth to one of an oppoſite nature, that aſtoniſhed all Europe. The queen of Hungary had long meditated deſigns for recovering Sileſia, which the king of Pruſſia had taken from her when ſhe was unable to defend her dominions. Her chief hopes of aſſiſtanee were from Ruſſia; but ſhe now found, by the late treaty, that all her hopes from that quarter were fruſtrated. She therefore applied to France for aſſiſtance; and, to procure the friendſhip of that court, gave up her barrier in the Netherlands, which England had been for ages ſecuring to Auſtria againſt that power. By this extraordinary revolution, the whole political ſyſtem of Europe acquired a new aſpect, and the treaties of a century paſt were at one blow deſtroyed. This treaty between France and Auſtria was no ſooner ratified, than thoſe powers invited the empreſs of Ruſſia to join them; and Catharine, regardleſs of her engagements with England, acceded to the propoſal. But not Ruſſia alone, but Sweden alſo, was brought to co-operate in the intrigues of Franee; and a war between that nation and Pruſſia was forthwith declared.

The forces of the belligerent powers were drawn out in the following manner. England oppoſed France in America, Aſia, and on the ocean. France attaeked Hanover on the continent of Europe. That electorate the king of Pruſſia undertook to protect, while England promiſed him troops and money to aſſiſt his operations. Then again Auſtria had her aims on the dominions of Pruſſia, and drew the elector of Saxony into the ſame deſigns. In theſe views ſhe was ſeconded by France and Sweden, and by Ruſſia, who had hopes of acquiring a ſettlement in the weſt of Europe.

This memorable continental war was commenced by the king of Pruſſia, who entered Saxony with a large army, and, with great civility, demanded from the elector a paſſage through his dominions; diſguiſing his knowledge of the elector having entered iuto the treaty with his enemies, and profeſſing himſelf pleaſed with his neutrality. And to carry on the deception further, he entreated, that as the elector's troops were totally unneceſſary in conſequence of his pacific diſpoſition, that he would diſband them for the preſent, as he could not poſſibly have any occaſion for their ſervices. But this propoſal the elector of Saxony did not expect, and therefore rejected it in a menacing tone. Of this the king of Pruſſia was determined to take advantage. Such was the ſituation of the Saxon camp, that, though a ſmall army could defend it againſt numerous forees, yet great difficulty attended the quitting it. Of this his Pruſſian majeſty was well aware; therefore by blocking up every avenue he cut off the proviſions of the Saxon army; and the whole was ſoon reduced to capitulate. He took care to incorporate the common ſoldiers into his own army; and the officers who refuſed to ſerve under him he made priſoners of war. The king of Pruſſia, thus launched into the midſt of his enemies, was threatened eventually to be ſurrounded by their united armies; yet, with wonderful courage and ſueeeſs he perſevered in oppoſing them; he invades Bohemia, defeats the Auſtrian general at Lowoſentch, retreats, begins his ſecond campaign with another victory near Prague, is upon the point of taking that city, but, by a temerity almoſt unexampled; ſuffers a defeat at Kolin. Still, however, uneonquered, "Fortune, (ſaid he,) has turned her back upon me this day. I ought to have expected it. She is a female, and I am no gallant. Succeſs often occaſions a deſtructive confidence. Another time we will do better." We have inſtances of thouſands who gain battles; but no general ever before him acknowledged his errors, except Cæſar.

What the king ſaid of the inſtability of fortune, ſeemed for a time to purſue him. One diſaſter followed upon the heels of another. The Hanoverians were joined with him, and commanded by the duke of Cumberland; who appeared, from the beginning, ſenſible of the inſufficiency of his troops to face the enemy. He was driven beyond the Weſer, the paſſage of which might have been diſputed with ſome ſucceſs; yet the French were permitted to paſs unmoleſted. The Hanoverian army was now driven from one part of the country to another, till at length it made a ſtand near the village of Haſtenback, where it was hoped the numbers of the enemy would have the leaſt opportunity of coming to a general action. But the weaker army was ſtill obliged to retire, and, after a feeble reſiſtance, left the field of battle to the French, who were not remiſs in urging the purſuit. The Hanoverians retired towards Stade; by whieh means they marched into a country from whence they could neither procure proviſions, nor yet attack the enemy with any proſpect of ſucceſs. Unable, therefore, by their ſituation, to eſcape, or by their ſtrength to advance, they were compelled to ſign a capitulation, by which the whole forces laid down their arms, and were diſperſed into different cantonments. By this humiliating capitulation, whieh was called the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven, Hanover was obliged to ſubmit to France, who now determined to purſue the king of Pruſſia with all her ſtrength.

The ſituation of this monarch was become apparently deſperate; nor could human foreſight diſcover how he was to extrieate himſelf from ſurrounding difficulties. The French forces, now united, invaded his dominions on one ſide, commanded by marſhal Broglio. The Ruſſians, under the conduct of general Apraxin, attacked him in another, marking their way with ſlaughter and cruelty. A large body of Auſtrians entered Sileſia; and, penetrating as far as Breſlau, turned to the ſtrong fortreſs of Schweidnitz, which, after an obſtinate defenee, was obliged to ſurrender. Another Auſtrian army entered Luſatia, made themſelves maſters of Zittau, and, ſtill preſſing forward, laid Berlin, the capital, under contribution. In another quarter, a body of twenty thouſand Swedes pierced into Pruſſian Pomerania, took the towns of Anclam and Demmein, and exacted tribute from the whole country. It was in vain that the king of Pruſſia faced about to every enemy, though they then fled beforc him: while he purſued one body, another penetrated from behind; and even while he was victorious, his territories were every day diminiſhing.

The ſuccours of the Engliſh could be of very little advantage to him, after the Hanoverians were reſtrained from acting in his favour. The Britiſh miniſtry, however, conſcious that ſomething ought to be done, planned an enterpriſe againſt France, which, by cauſing a diverſion in that part of the kingdom, would draw off the attention of the enemy from Pruſſia, and give Frederic time to reſpire. Beſide this intention, England alſo hoped to give a ſevere blow to their marine, by deſtroying ſuch ſhips as were building or were laid up in the harbour of Rochefort,

againſt

againſt which city their operations were principally intended. But this expedition totally failed; and the armament returned to England without attempting any one object of their deſtination.

From this expedition, therefore, the king of Pruſſia received no advantage; and the deſpondence among the Engliſh was ſo great, that the miniſtry had thoughts of giving up his cauſe entirely. It was even ſuppoſed that no military efforts could ſave him; and that the only hope remaining was to make the beſt terms poſſible for him with his enemies. The king of England was actually meditating a negociation of this nature, when Frederic the Great expoſtulated with him to the following purpoſe: "Is it poſſible that your majeſty can have ſo little fortitude and conſtancy, as to be diſpirited by a ſmall reverſe of fortune? Are our affairs ſo ruinous that they cannot be retrieved? Conſider the ſtep you have made me undertake; and remember you are the cauſe of all my misfortunes. I ſhould never have abandoned my former alliances but for your flattering aſſurances. I do not now repent of the treaty concluded between us; but I entreat that you will not ingloriouſly leave me at the mercy of my enemies, after having brought upon me all the powers of Europe." In this arduous ſituation, England reſolved, more from motives of generoſity than of intereſt, to ſupport him; and ſucceſs began to return with double ſplendour.

The war in the Eaſt Indies had, in the mean time, been carried on with doubtful ſucceſs; but at length the affairs of the Engliſh ſeemed to gain the aſcendancy, through the heroic conduct of Mr. Clive. The firſt advantage that was obtained from his activity and courage, was the clearing the province of Arcot. Soon after which the French general was taken priſoner, and the nabob, whom the Engliſh ſupported, was reinſtated in the government, of which he had been deprived. The French, diſcouraged by theſe misfortunes, and ſenſible of their own inferiority in Hindooſtan, ſent over a commiſſary to Europe to reſtore peace. A convention between the two companies was accordingly concluded, importing that the territories taken on either ſide ſince the concluſion of the laſt peace ſhould be mutually reſtored; that the nabobs advanced by the influence of either party ſhould be acknowledged by both; and that for the future neither ſhould interfere in the differences that ſhould ariſe between the princes of the country. This ceſſation, which promiſed laſting tranquillity, was, nevertheleſs, but of ſhort duration. In a few months, both ſides renewed their operations, no longer under the name of auxiliaries, but as rivals in arms, in government, and in commerce. What the motives to this infraction were, are not ſufficiently aſcertained; but wherever there is trade there is avarice; and that is a paſſion which too frequently overleaps the bounds of equity. Certain it is that the prince of the greateſt power in that country declared war againſt the Engliſh from motives of perſonal reſentment, and, levying a numerous army, laid ſiege to Calcutta, one of the principal Britiſh forts in that part of the world. The fort was taken, having been deſerted by the commander; and the garriſon, to the number of an hundred and forty-ſix perſons, were made priſoners; and afterwards ſhut up to expire miſerably in a dungeon, for want of air and reſpiration, on June 18, 1756. See an account of this ſhocking event, under CALCUTTA, vol. iii. p. 610.

The deſtruction of this important fortreſs ſerved to interrupt the ſucceſſes of the Engliſh company. But the fortune of Mr. Clive, backed by the activity of an Engliſh fleet under admiral Watſon, ſtill turned the ſcale in their favour. After depoſing the nabob of Arcot, colonel Clive turned to the humbling of the French, who had long diſputed with us the empire in that part of the world. Chandenagore, a French ſettlement higher up the Ganges than Calcutta, was compelled to ſubmit to the Engliſh arms. The goods and money found in this place were conſiderable; but the chief damage the French ſuſtained was from the ruin of this their ſettlement on the Ganges, by which they engroſſed the commerce of this part of the continent. Thus in one campaign, which was carried on by the activity of Clive, ſeconded by the operations of admirals Watſon and Pococke, the Engliſh became poſſeſſed of a territory ſuperior in wealth, fertility, extent, and the number of its inhabitants, to any empire in Europe. Above two millions ſterling were paid to the company and the ſurvivors of thoſe who were impriſoned at Calcutta; the ſoldiers and ſeamen ſhared ſix hundred thouſand pounds, and the Engliſh ſovereignty became irreſiſtible in that part of the world. See particulars of the Indian wars, and their conſequent events, under HINDOOSTAN; and EAST-INDIA COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 875—883.

In the mean time, while conqueſt ſhined upon England from the eaſt, it was ſtill more ſplendid in the weſtern world. Some alterations in the miniſtry led to thoſe ſucceſſes which had been long wiſhed for by the nation, and were at length obtained. At the head of the newly found miniſtry was the celebrated Mr. Pitt, afterwards lord Chatham, who was made principal ſecretary of ſtate, and his coadjutor, the hon. Mr. Legge, chancellor of the exchequer; from whoſe united vigour the nation formed great expectations; and they were not deceived. The firſt important operations took place in America; to which part of the world three ſeveral commanders were appointed at the head of ſeparate expeditions. General Amherſt commanded that deſigned againſt the iſland of Cape Breton; the other was conſigned to the brave general Abercrombie, againſt Crown Point and Ticonderoga; and the third againſt Fort du Queſne, commanded by brigadier-general Forbes.

Cape Breton, which had been taken from the French during the preceding war, had been reſtored at the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was not till the Engliſh had been put in poſſeſſion of that iſland that they began to perceive its advantageous ſituation, and the convenience of its harbour for annoying the Britiſh trade. It was alſo a convenient port for carrying on their fiſhery, a branch of commerce of the utmoſt benefit to that nation. The wreſting it, therefore, from the hands of the French, was a meaſure ardently deſired by the whole nation. The fortreſs of Louiſbourg, by which it was defended, had been ſtrengthened by the aſſiſtance of art, and was ſtill better defended from the nature of its ſituation. The garriſon alſo was numerous, the commander vigilant, and every precaution taken to oppoſe a landing. But the Engliſh ſurmounted every obſtacle with great intrepidity, and the garriſon ſurrendered to general Amherſt by capitulation. The expedition to Fort du Queſne was equally ſucceſsful; but that againſt Crown Point was once more defeated. This was the ſecond time that the Engliſh had attempted to penetrate the French poſſeſſions in that part of the world. Braddock fell in the firſt attempt, a martyr to his impetuoſity; while too much caution was injurious to his ſucceſſor. Abercrombie ſpent much time in marching to the place of action; and the enemy was thus prepared to give him a ſevere reception. As he approached Ticonderoga, he found the enemy deeply intrenched at the foot of the fort, and ſtill further ſecured by fallen trees, with their branches pointing againſt him. Theſe difficulties the Engliſh veteran attempted to ſurmount; but as the enemy, being ſecure themſelves, took aim at leiſure, a terrible carnage of the aſſailants enſued; and the general, after repeated efforts, was obliged to retreat.

But though in this reſpect the Engliſh arms were unſucceſsful, yet upon the whole the campaign was greatly in their favour. The taking of Fort du Queſne ſerved to remove from their colonies the terror of the incurſions of the Indians, while it interrupted that correſpondence which ran along a chain of forts with which the French had environed the Engliſh ſettlements in America. This, therefore, promiſed a fortunate campaign the next year, and vigorous meaſures were taken to enſure ſucceſs. Accordingly,

cordingly, on the opening of the following year, 1759, the miniſtry again determined to attack three different parts of North America at the ſame time. General Amherſt, the commander in chief, with a body of twelve thouſand men, was to attack Crown-Point, that had hitherto braved the Engliſh army. General Wolfe, at the oppoſite quarter was to enter the river St. Lawrence, and undertake the ſiege of Quebec, the capital of the French dominions in America; while general Prideaux and ſir William Johnſon were to attempt a French fort, near the cataracts of Niagara. This laſt-named expedition was the firſt that ſucceeded. The fort of Niagara was a place of great importance, and ſerved to command all the communication between the northern and weſtern French ſettlements. The ſiege was begun with vigour, and promiſed an eaſy conqueſt; but general Prideaux was killed in the trenches, by the burſting of a mortar; ſo that the whole command devolved upon general Johnſon, who omitted nothing to puſh forward the vigorous operations of his predeceſſor, to which alſo he added his own popularity with the ſoldiers under him. A body of French troops, who were ſenſible of the importance of this fort, attempted to relieve it, but Johnſon attacked them with intrepidity, and in leſs than an hour their whole army was put to the rout, and the garriſon ſurrendered priſoners of war. The ſucceſs of general Amherſt was leſs ſplendid, though not leſs ſerviceable; for upon arriving at the deſtined place, he found the forts both of Crown-Point and Ticonderoga deſerted and deſtroyed.

There now remained but one grand and deciſive blow, to put all North-America into the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; and this was the taking of Quebec, the capital of Canada. Admiral Saunders was appointed to command the naval part of the expedition; the ſiege by land was committed to the conduct of general Wolfe. This young ſoldier, who was not yet thirty-five, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf on many former occaſions, particularly at the ſiege of Louiſbourg; a part of the ſucceſs of which was juſtly aſcribed to him, who, without being indebted to family or connections, had raiſed himſelf by merit to the preſent command. When we conſider the ſituation of the town on the ſide of a great river, the fortifications with which it was ſecured, the natural ſtrength of the country, the great number of veſſels and floating batteries the enemy had provided for the defence of the place, the numerous bodies of ſavages continually hovering round the Engliſh army, we muſt own there was ſuch a combination of difficulties as might diſcourage and perplex the moſt reſolute commander. The general himſelf ſeemed perfectly ſenſible of the difficulty of the undertaking. After ſtating in a letter to the miniſtry, the dangers that preſented, "I know, (ſaid he,) that the affairs of Great Britain require the moſt vigorous meaſures. But then the courage of a handful of brave men ſhould be exerted only where there is ſome hope of a favourable event. At preſent the difficulties are ſo various, that I am at a loſs how to determine." The only proſpect of attempting the town with ſucceſs was by landing a body of troops in the night below the town, who were to climb up the banks of the river, and take poſſeſſion of the ground on the back of the city. This attempt, however, appeared peculiarly diſcouraging. The ſtream was rapid, the ſhore ſhelving, the bank above lined with centinels, the landing-place ſo narrow as to be eaſily miſſed in the dark, and the ſteepneſs of the ground ſuch as hardly to be ſurmounted in the day-time. All theſe difficulties were removed by the conduct of the general, and the bravery of the troops. Colonel Howe, with the light infantry and the Highlanders, aſcended the woody precipices with admirable courage and activity, and diſlodged a body of troops that defended a narrow path-way up the bank; thus a few mounting, the general drew the reſt up as they arrived. General de Montcalm, the French commander, was no ſooner appriſed that the Engliſh had gained theſe heights, which he had confidently deemed inacceſſible, than he reſolved to hazard a battle; and a furious encounter quickly began. This was one of the moſt deſperate engagements fought during the war. The French general was ſlain; the ſecond in command ſhared the ſame fate. General Wolfe was ſtationed on the right, where the attack was moſt warm: as he ſtood conſpicuous in the front line, he had been aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and received a ſhot in the wriſt, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field. Having wrapped a handkerchief round his hand, he continued giving orders without the leaſt emotion, and advanced at the head of the grenadiers with their bayonets fixed; but a ſecond ball pierced his breaſt; ſo that, unable to proceed, he leaned on a ſoldier that was next him. Now ſtruggling in the agonies of death, and juſt expiring, he heard a voice cry, "They run!" upon which he ſeemed for a moment to revive, and aſking who ran, was informed the French. Expreſſing his wonder that they ran ſo ſoon, and unable to gaze any longer, he ſunk on the ſoldier's breaſt, and his laſt words were, "I die happy."

The ſurrender of Quebec was the conſequence of this victory; and with it ſoon after the total ſubjection of all Canada. The French, the following ſeaſon, made a vigorous effort to retake the city; but by the reſolution of governor Murray, and the appearance of an Engliſh fleet under the command of lord Colville, they were forced to abandon the enterpriſe. To theſe conqueſts about the ſame time was added the reduction of the iſland of Guadaloupe, under commodore More and general Hopſon, an acquiſition alſo of great importance.

The ſucceſſes in India and America were deciſive, and achieved at no great expence; while the efforts of the Engliſh in Europe, and the operations of their great ally the king of Pruſſia, were alſo aſtoniſhing, yet produced no ſignal advantage. A defenſive war in Germany was all that could be expected; and the king of Pruſſia maintained himſelf againſt the united powers of the continent with unexampled bravery. The French and Imperialiſts, amidſt the depth of winter, formed the ſiege of Leipſic. The capture of that city would have been fatal to the intereſts of Frederic; therefore, by one of thoſe rapid marches for which he was famous, he ſeemed with his army unexpectedly to riſe up before the town. Such was the terror of his arms, that even vanquiſhed as he ſeemed, the French, though ſuperior in numbers, raiſed the ſiege, and retreated. He was reſolved to purſue, and overtook them at the village of Roſbach, where he gained ſo complete a victory, that night alone ſaved the French army from deſtruction. In the mean time, the Auſtrians in another part of the empire were victorious, and had taken the prince of Bevern, the king of Pruſſia's favourite general, priſoner. The king, therefore, immediately after having gained the battle of Roſbach, again undertook a forced march of two hundred miles, in the depth of winter, and came up with the Auſtrian army near Breſlau. He there diſpoſed his forces with his uſual celerity and judgment, and obtained another ſignal victory, in which he took not leſs than fifteen thouſand priſoners. Breſlau, with a garriſon of ten thouſand men, ſurrendered. Theſe ſucceſſes diſpirited the enemy, and began to give his Hanoverian allies freſh hopes of being able to expel the French from their territories.

Soon after the capitulation of Cloſter Seven, both ſides began to complain that the treaty was not ſtrictly obſerved. The Hanoverians exclaimed againſt the rapacity of the French general, and the brutality of his ſoldiers. The French retorted the charge, accuſed them of inſolence and inſurrection, and reſolved to bind them more ſtrictly to the terms of their agreement. Treaties between nations are ſeldom obſerved any longer than intereſt or fear upholds the union; and among nations that take every advantage, political faith is a term without meaning. The Hanoverians only wanted a pretext to take arms, and a general to head them. Neither were long wanting. The oppreſſions of the French were ſo

ſevere, that the army once more roſe to vindicate their freedom, and Ferdinand, prince of Brunſwick, put himſelf at their head. Nothing could be more fortunate for the intereſts of the king of Pruſſia than this event. He was now enabled to oppoſe the enemy upon more equal terms; he faced them on every ſide, often victorious, ſometimes repulſed, but ever formidable. Never was the ſcience of military tactics carried to ſuch perfection as by Frederic the Great. In this war, Europe ſaw, with aſtoniſhment, campaigns carried on in the midſt of winter, great and bloody battles fought, yet producing no viſible advantage to the victors. At no one time ſince the days of heroiſm were ſuch numbers deſtroyed, ſo many towns taken, ſuch ſtratagems practiſed, or ſuch intrepidity diſcovered. Armies were by the German diſcipline conſidered as compoſing one great machine, organiſed by one commander, and animated by a ſingle will. From the commentary of theſe campaigns, ſucceeding generals will take their leſſons of devaſtation, and improve upon the arts of increaſing human calamity.

England was all this time happily retired from the theatre of war; yet from her natural military ardour ſhe ſeemed deſirous of ſharing thoſe dangers of which ſhe was only a ſpectator. This paſſion for ſharing in a continental war was not leſs pleaſing to the king of England, from his native attachments, than from a deſire of revenge upon the plunderers of his country. As ſoon, therefore, as it was known that prince Ferdinand had put himſelf at the head of the Hanoverians, his Britannic majeſty, in a ſpeech to his parliament, obſerved that the late ſucceſſes of his ally in Germany had given a happy turn to his affairs, which it would be neceſſary to improve. The commons concurred in ſentiments, and liberally granted ſupplies both for the ſervice of the king of Pruſſia, and for enabling the army formed in Hanover to act vigorouſly in conjunction with him. From ſending money into Germany, the nation began to extend their benefits by ſending men. Mr. Pitt, who had at firſt come into popularity by oppoſing ſuch meaſures, was now prevailed on to enter into them with even greater ardour than any of his predeceſſors. The hopes of putting a ſpeedy end to the war by vigorous meaſures, the connections with which he was obliged to co-operate, and perhaps the pleaſure he found in pleaſing the king, all incited him eagerly to puſh forward a continental war. However, he only conſpired with the general inclinations of the people at this time, who, allured by the efforts of their noble ally, were unwilling to ſee him fall a ſacrifice to the united ambition of the continental powers.

In order to indulge this general inclination of aſſiſting the king of Pruſſia, the duke of Marlborough was ſent into Germany with a body of Britiſh forces, to join prince Ferdinand. After ſome ſucceſſes gained by the allied army at Crevelt, the duke of Marlborough dying, his command devolved upon lord George Sackville, who was a great favourite with the Engliſh army. However, a miſunderſtanding aroſe between him and the commander in chief, which too ſoon manifeſted itſelf at the battle of Minden. The cauſe of this ſecret diſguſt on both ſides was never known; it is thought that the extenſive genius and enterpriſing ſpirit of the Engliſh general, were by no means agreeable to prince Ferdinand, who hoped to reap ſome advantages which the other was unwilling to permit. Be that as it may, both armies advancing near the town of Minden, on the firſt of Auguſt, 1758, the French began the attack with great vigour, and a general engagement of the infantry enſued. Lord George, at the head of the Britiſh and Hanoverian horſe, was ſtationed at ſome diſtance on the right of the infantry, from which they were divided by a ſcanty wood that bordered on a heath. The French infantry giving ground, the prince thought that this would be a favourable opportunity to pour down the horſe among them, and accordingly ſent lord George orders to advance. Theſe orders were but ill obeyed; and whether they were unintelligible, or contradictory, ſtill remains a point for poſterity to decide. It is certain that lord George was immediately recalled, tried by a court-martial, found guilty, and declared incapable of ſerving in any military command for the future. The enemy, however, were repulſed with conſiderable loſs, and, at length giving way, were purſued to the very ramparts of Minden. Lord George Sackville being recalled, was now ſucceeded in his command over the Britiſh troops in Germany, by the brave and beloved marquis of Granby, alike the ſoldier's friend, and the enemy's ſcourge in battle, yet the moſt feeling and generous of men to the conquered. His brilliant ſucceſſes during the reſidue of the war gave the higheſt luſtre to the Britiſh arms.

The Britiſh army in Germany now amounted to above thirty thouſand men, and the whole nation was flu ſhed with freſh hopes of conqueſt. But theſe hopes were deluſive. The allies were worſted at Corbach, but retrieved their honour at Exdorf. A victory at Warbourg followed, and another at Zierenberg; but then they ſuffered a defeat at Compen, after which both armies went into winter-quarters. The ſucceſſes on either ſide might be conſidered as a compact by which both engaged to loſe much and gain little; for no advantage whatever followed from victory. The Engliſh at length began to open their eyes to their own intereſt, and found that they were waging unequal war, and loading themſelves with taxes for conqueſts that they could neither preſerve nor enjoy.

Yet the ſucceſsful efforts of the armies of England at this time in every part of the globe were amazing, and the expence of her operations greater than had ever been diſburſed by any nation before. The king of Pruſſia received a ſubſidy; a large body of Engliſh forces commanded the extenſive peninſula of India; another army of twenty thouſand men confirmed their conqueſts in North America; independent of thoſe employed in Germany, and in the different garriſons in various parts of the world; but all theſe were nothing to the force maintained at ſea, which carried victory wherever the Britiſh flag was diſplayed, and almoſt annihilated the French power on the ocean. The courage and the conduct of the Engliſh admirals had ſurpaſſed whatever had been heard of before; neither ſuperior force, nor number, nor even the terrors of ſtorms and tempeſts, could intimidate them. Admiral Hawke gained a complete victory over an equal number of French ſhips, on the coaſt of Bretagne, in Quiberon-bay, in the midſt of a ſtorm, during the darkneſs of the night, and, what a ſeaman fears ſtill more, upon a rocky lee-ſhore.

Such was the luſtre of the Britiſh arms, both by ſea and land, in the memorable year 1759, in every part of the world. But in the midſt of theſe glories, an event happened which conſigned every generous heart in Britain to a ſtate of mourning. On the twenty-fifth of October, 1760, the king, without having complained of any previous diſorder, was found, by his attendants, expiring in his chamber. He had riſen at his uſual hour, and obſerved, that as the weather was fine, he would walk in the gardens of Kenſington, where he then reſided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone, he was heard to fall on the floor. The noiſe inſtantly brought his attendants into the room, who lifted him into bed; when he deſired, with a faint voice, that the princeſs Amelia might be ſent for; but before ſhe could reach the apartment, he expired. An attempt was made to bleed him, but without effect; and upon opening him, it was diſcovered that the right ventricle of the heart was ruptured, and a great quantity of extravaſated blood was found in the aperture.

George II. died encompaſſed with the unfading laurels of many ſplendid victories, in the ſeventy-ſeventh year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign, juſtly lamented by his ſubjects, and by all his allies. He was in his perſon nearly of the middle ſize, well-ſhaped, erect, with eyes remarkably prominent, a high noſe, and fair complexion.

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In his diſpoſition he is ſaid to have been haſty, prone to anger, eſpecially in his youth, yet ſoon appeaſed; but the general caſt of his diſpoſition was complacent, mild, moderate, and humane; in his way of living temperate, regular, and ſo methodical in every branch of private economy, that his attention ſometimes deſcended to objects beneath a king. He was fond of the German taſte for military parade, and was perſonally brave. He loved war as a ſoldier, he ſtudied it as a ſcience, and correſponded on this ſubject with ſome of the greateſt officers whom Germany has produced. The extent of his underſtanding, and the ſplendour of his virtues, we ſhall not preſume to ſettle, or attempt to diſplay; we rather wiſh for opportunities to expatiate on his munificence and liberality; his generous regard to genius and learning; and his encouragement and protection of thoſe arts by which a nation is inſtructed and adorned. With reſpect to his government, it very ſeldom deviated from the inſtitutions of law; or encroached upon private right; or interfered with the common adminiſtration of juſtice. The circumſtances that chiefly marked his public character, were a predilection for his native country, and a cloſe attention to the political intereſts of the Germanic body: points and principles to which he adhered with the moſt invincible fortitude; and if ever the blood and treaſure of Great Britain were ſacrificed to theſe conſiderations, we ought not ſo much to blame the prince, who acted from the dictates of natural affection, as we ſhould the uncontroulable ſpirit of the people for military fame and conqueſts, and the profuſion with which the miniſtry exhauſted the treaſury for the accompliſhment of theſe objects.

George II. had iſſue, 1. Frederic prince of Wales, born 1707, died 1751, during the life-time of his father. 2. Anne, born 1709, married William prince of Orange, 1734, died 1759. 3. Amelia, born 1711, died unmarried 1786. 4. Elizabeth-Caroline, born 1713, died unmarried 1757. 5. George, born 1717, died at three months old. 6. William duke of Cumberland, born 1721, died unmarried 1765. 7. Mary, born 1723, married the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel 1740, died 1771. 8. Louiſa, born 1724, married Frederic V. king of Denmark 1743, died 1751.

Frederic-Lewis, late prince of Wales, was married in 1736 to Auguſta the daughter of Frederic II. duke of Saxe-Gotha; by whom he had iſſue, 1. Auguſta, born 1737, married to the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttel 1746, now living. 2. George-William-Frederic III. his preſent majeſty, born 1738. 3. Edward-Auguſtus duke of York, born 1739, died unmarried at Monacho in Italy 1767. 4. Elizabeth-Caroline, born 1740, died unmarried 1759. 5. William-Henry duke of Glouceſter, born 1743, married the counteſs-dowager Waldegrave in 1766, and now living. 6. Henry-Frederic duke of Cumberland, born 1745, married Mrs. Horton 1771, died 1790. 7. Louiſa-Anne, born 1749, died unmarried 1768. 8. Frederic-William, born 1750, died 1765. 9. Caroline-Matilda, born (after the death of her father) July 11, 1751, married Chriſtian VII. preſent king of Denmark 1766, and died at Zell in 1775.

George III. aſcended the throne of Great Britain under the rich canopy of his grandfather's victorious laurels, and with the advantage of being an Engliſh-born prince. His manners were in the higheſt degree decorous, his morals unblemiſhed, and his perſonal accompliſhments correſponded with the elevation of his rank and ſtation; ſo that the regret which the nation felt at the ſudden demiſe of the good old king, was abſorbed in the tranſports of joy excited by the auſpicious commencement of the reign of the young monarch, who had but juſt attained the age of complete majority; being born June 4, 1738. From his youth upwards, the young prince ſeemed ever to have been diſtinguiſhed by the rectitude of his intentions, and the generoſity and ingenuouſneſs of his conduct. He was deſirous to govern the Engliſh nation upon maxims truly Engliſh, and was fired with the noble ambition of realizing in his own perſon that grand and perfect model of a patriot king, delineated by the happieſt effort of a tranſcendent genius.

The parliament, which, agreeably to the ſalutary proviſions of an act paſſed for that purpoſe, continued to exerciſe its functions for the period of ſix months after the death of the ſovereign, met on the 18th of November, when George III. ſeated on the throne, delivered a ſpeech calculated in the higheſt degree to confirm all the fond and flattering prepoſſeſſions of the public in his favour. After a decent expreſſion of concern for the loſs of the late king, and imploring the bleſſing of heaven on his own endeavours to ſuſtain the weight of government which now devolved upon him, the young monarch, with great propriety and dignity of elocution, proceeded in theſe remarkable words: "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton, and the peculiar happineſs of my life will ever conſiſt in promoting the happineſs of a people whoſe loyalty and warm affection to me I conſider as the greateſt and moſt permanent ſecurity of my throne. The civil and religious rights of my loving ſubjects are equally dear to me with the moſt valuable prerogatives of my crown." After an ample delineation of the flouriſhing circumſtances of the kingdom, he concluded his ſpeech as follows: "In this ſtate I have found things at my acceſſion to the throne of my anceſtors—happy in viewing the proſperous part of it; happier ſtill ſhould I have been had I found my kingdoms, whoſe true intereſt I have entirely at heart, in full peace; but ſince the ambition, injurious encroachments, and dangerous deſigns, of my enemies, rendered the war both juſt and neceſſary, and the generous overture made laſt winter towards a congreſs for a pacification has not yet produced any ſuitable return, I am determined, with your cheerful and powerful aſſiſtance, to proſecute this war with vigour, in order to that deſirable object—a ſafe and honourable peace. The eyes of all Europe are upon you. From you the proteſtant intereſt hopes for protection, as well as all our friends for the preſervation of their independency, and our enemies fear the final diſappointment of their ambitious and deſtructive views. Let theſe hopes and fears be confirmed and augmented by the vigour, unanimity, and diſpatch, of our proceedings. In this expectation I am the more encouraged by a pleaſing circumſtance, which I look upon as one of the moſt auſpicious omens of my reign. That happy extinction of diviſions, and that union and good harmony which continue to prevail amongſt my ſubjects, afford me the moſt agreeable proſpect. The natural diſpoſition and wiſh of my heart are to cement and promote them; and I promiſe myſelf that nothing will ariſe on your part to interrupt or diſturb a ſituation ſo eſſential to the true and laſting felicity of this great people."

In the courſe of the ſummer of 1761, the king declared in council his reſolution to demand in marriage the princeſs Charlotte-Sophia of Mecklenburg Strelitz; and the earl of Harcourt being appointed ambaſſador plenipotentiary to the court of Strelitz, the contract of marriage was ſigned, and the princeſs conducted to Stade, whence ſhe embarked on-board one of the royal yachts, and arrived at the palace of St. James's, September 8, the nuptial ceremony being the ſame evening performed in the Chapel-royal. And on the 22d of September the coronation of their majeſties was celebrated with much pomp and magnificence. The new queen ſoon acquired great popularity by the affability of her manners; and which, by the prudence and propriety of her conduct, ſhe has invariably retained.

The operations of the war were ſtill carried on with vigour and ſucceſs. In the month of June, 1761, the iſland of Dominique, important from its ſituation between the iſlands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, was reduced with little difficulty by an armament commanded by ſir James Douglas, and a body of troops under lord Rollo. A far more hazardous enterpriſe was undertaken about

the ſame time againſt the iſland of Belleiſle, ſituated oppoſite the harbour of Vannes on the coaſt of Bretagne. The iſland was defended by a ſtrong fortreſs, conſtructed by the famous Vauban, near the town of Palais. On the firſt diſembarkment of the troops, they met with a very ſevere repulſe, being compelled precipitately to retreat, with the loſs of near five hundred men. But the Engliſh commanders, ſecure of the zeal and ardour of their troops, determined to make another effort, which was attended with happier ſucceſs; and a body of marines and grenadiers, making good their landing on the craggy point of Lomeria, ſuſtained their poſition with wonderful intrepidity againſt a very ſuperior force, till joined by the remaining troops, amounting to eight or ten thouſand men. M. de St. Croix, the French commander, then recalled his detachments, and prepared for a vigorous defence of the citadel, the avenues to which he had fortified with ſix additional redoubts, which, with much effuſion of blood, were ſucceſſively attacked and carried by the Engliſh, who now urged, with the moſt perſevering ardour, the ſiege of the citadel. On the 7th of June, a practicable breach being made, and a general aſſault apprehended on the part of M. de St. Croix, that officer demanded a capitulation, which was granted on the moſt honourable conditions. Thus, at the expence of two thouſand lives, and an enormous ſum expended in naval and military preparations, the Engliſh achieved the conqueſt of a barren rock, affording no produce excepting the laurels of victory.

At the termination of the ſucceſsful campaign of 1759, overtures had been made, as mentioned in the ſpeech from the throne, by the kings of Great Britain and Pruſſia to the courts of Vienna and Verſailles, for a general accommodation of differences, which did not appear wholly unacceptable; and it was agreed to open a general congreſs at Augſburg. Various cauſes of delay, however, concurred to prevent the execution of this project, and the court of Vienna was not yet prepared to relinquiſh its claim to Sileſia. But the enſuing campaign of 1760 proving very diſaſtrous to France, whoſe finances were reduced to a ſtate of the moſt diſtreſſing derangement, the French ambaſſador reſident at Stockholm delivered a declaration to the Swediſh monarch in February 1761, importing his ſovereign's earneſt deſire to adopt effectual meaſures for reſtoring the peace of Europe; and that in concerting with his allies a general plan of pacification, he was diſpoſed abundantly to diſplay his moderation whenever Great Britain ſhould be inclined to acquieſce in reaſonable terms. In the month of March, a memorial was tranſmitted from the duc de Choiſeul, prime miniſter of France, to Mr. Secretary Pitt, ſignifying the firm determination of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty ſo to act in concert with his allies at the future congreſs, as to demonſtrate his ſincere diſpoſition to promote the intereſts of humanity, and reſtore the peace of Europe. His moſt Chriſtian majeſty expreſſed his deſire "that the particular accommodation between France and England ſhould be united with the general pacification of Europe; but as the objects of the war between theſe two powers were totally foreign to the diſputes in Germany, he thought it would be previouſly neceſſary to agree with his Britannic majeſty upon certain principal points which ſhould form the baſis of their particular negociation." Theſe advances were favourably received, and Mr. Pitt wrote an immediate anſwer to the duc de Choiſeul, expreſſing his Britannic majeſty's ſincere deſire to correſpond with the pacific ſentiments of the moſt Chriſtian king; and propoſing that miniſters duly authoriſed ſhould be immediately appointed at the reſpective courts of Verſailles and London, to enter upon this negociation; and, in the month of May, Mr. Stanley repaired to Paris on the part of the king of England, and M. Buſſy was received in the ſame manner from the court of France, at St. James's. The inſtructions of M. Buſſy were to adhere to the *uti poſſidetis*, as the baſis of the negociation; to demand an explanation of his Britannic majeſty's ſentiments touching the dates or eras at which the propoſal ſhould take place: and in the conferences which enſued, the French miniſter continued to preſs the ſpecification of thoſe dates. But the Engliſh miniſter evaded the diſcuſſion of this point until the ſurrender of the citadel of Belleiſle: and then a declaration was made in explicit terms, that the firſt of July, the firſt of September, and the firſt of November, ſhould be the eſtabliſhed eras in Europe, the Weſt Indies, and the Eaſt Indies; after which all the conqueſts made on either ſide ſhould be mutually reſtored; that the preliminaries agreed upon between the two crowns ſhould be concluſive and obligatory, independent of the negociations of Augſburg for ſettling the peace of Germany. After the interchange of many memorials chiefly reſpecting the compenſations to be made for the deviations propoſed from the original principle or baſis of the *uti poſſidetis*, France profeſſed her willingneſs to cede and guaranty Canada to the crown of England, on condition of her being admitted to a participation, as formerly, of the cod-fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland; and inſiſting alſo upon the reſtitution of the iſland of Cape Breton, as an equivalent for which France conſented to a renewal of the article in the treaties of Utrecht and Aix-la-Chapelle, for the demolition of the harbour and works of Dunkirk; that in lieu of the iſland of Minorca, England ſhould reſtore Guadaloupe and Marigalante; and that in conſideration of the reſtitution of Belleiſle and Senegal, or Goree, France would evacuate her conqueſts in Germany. Touching the captures made by England at ſea previous to the declaration of war, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty declared that "he would gladly ſubmit to the juſtice of the king of England, and the determination of the Engliſh courts of judicature; that ſubjects trading under the faith of treaties, and the protection of the law of nations, ought not to ſuffer from the miſunderſtandings which may ariſe in the cabinets of princes, before thoſe miſunderſtandings are publicly known; that the practice of declaring war was eſtabliſhed by the law of nations as eſſential to the general ſafety; that no ſeizure made or prize taken anterior to ſuch declaration could be deemed legal, without violating the moſt ſacred of human inſtitutions; that no ſort of affinity ſubſiſted between hoſtilities committed on the Ohio and ſhips taken in the Weſt Indies; that ſuch hoſtilities might indeed be alleged as juſt motives for declaring war, but the effects of that declaration ought not to precede the declaration itſelf; and that it would be the height of injuſtice thus to involve innocent individuals, ignorant of the diſputes of monarchs, or the affairs of nations, in the depth of diſtreſs and ruin, by the indiſcriminate confiſcation of their property." Together with this memorial, M. de Buſſy delivered to the Engliſh miniſter another of a very extraordinary nature, importing that the diſputes ſubſiſting between England and Spain gave his moſt Chriſtian majeſty cauſe to apprehend a new war in Europe and America, unleſs they could be now adjuſted; that his Catholic majeſty had communicated to the court of Verſailles the chief points of diſcuſſion, namely, the reſtitution of ſome ſhips taken in the courſe of the war under Spaniſh colours, the liberty claimed by the Spaniſh nation to fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland, and the ſettlements made by the Engliſh on the Spaniſh territories in the bay of Honduras. His moſt Chriſtian majeſty therefore deſired that theſe differences might be amicably terminated, and that the king of Spain ſhould be invited to guaranty the treaty between the two crowns; becauſe, if theſe differences were the means of kindling a new war, the moſt Chriſtian king would be obliged to perform his engagements to his allies.

Theſe memorials were accompanied with a third declaration, ſignifying that the empreſs queen of Auſtria had conſented to a ſeparate peace between England and France, on theſe terms only; that France ſhould for her benefit keep poſſeſſion of the countries conquered in her name, and as her ally, from the king of Pruſſia; and that the

the king of Great Britain ſhould no longer afford aſſiſtance either in money or troops to the king of Pruſſia, in like manner as France ſhould be reſtricted with reſpect to the empreſs queen. The indiſcretion of theſe memorials, containing demands both novel and offenſive, was ſo flagrant, that many perſons ſcrupled not to brand the entire proceedings of the court of Verſailles with the moſt inſidious duplicity, though it appeared ſufficiently evident to the intelligent and impartial, that the impolicy of her conduct aroſe from her extreme anxiety for peace, and a too ſanguine hope that the proſpect of an eventual rupture with Spain would induce Great Britain to relax the rigour of her terms.

The reſentment and indignation of the court of London at this invidious and unexpected interpoſition, ſeemed to know no bounds. Mr. Secretary Pitt declared both verbally, and in writing to M. de Buſſy, that the king of Great Britain would not ſuffer the diſputes with Spain to be mixed, in any ſhape whatſoever, with the negociations for peace now depending with France, and that all further mention of ſuch an idea would be conſidered as offenſive to his dignity: and the right of France at any time to intermeddle in like diſcuſſions between England and Spain, was denied with the moſt poſitive diſdain. Upon theſe grounds M. de Buſſy was informed, that the king of England had ordered the memorial concerning Spain to be returned as totally inadmiſſible; and alſo the memorial relating to the king of Pruſſia, as affecting the honour of Great Britain, and the unſhaken fidelity with which his majeſty will fulfil his engagements with his allies.

The court of Verſailles now became ſenſible of the ill conſequences that might reſult from this falſe ſtep. In a ſubſequent memorial, therefore, ſhe condeſcended to apologiſe for propoſing a diſcuſſion of the points in diſpute with Spain, and declared her readineſs to make new conceſſions for the purpoſe of accompliſhing the deſirable end of a general pacification. In reply, a paper was tranſmitted to Mr. Stanley, containing the *ultimatum* of the Engliſh court; inſiſting upon the entire ceſſion of Canada and its dependencies; of Cape Breton and the other iſlands in the Gulf of St. Laurence; of the ſettlements of Goree and Senegal, in Africa; the reſtoration of Minorca; the demolition of Dunkirk; ſatisfaction to the Eaſt-India company; the evacuation of Oſtend and Nieuport; the reſtitution of Cleves, Weſel, Gueldres; and in general of all the territories belonging to the king of Pruſſia, and the other allies of Great Britain. The king of England alſo left himſelf at full liberty to aſſiſt his Pruſſian majeſty according to the terms of the ſubſiſting treaties. With reſpect to the prizes taken after the commencement of hoſtilities, though before the formality of declaring war, his Britannic majeſty perſiſted in his opinion, that ſuch a demand on the part of France was neither juſt nor defenſible. Should France comply with theſe propoſitions, the court of London declared its readineſs to reſtore to France her conqueſts of Belleiſle and Guadaloupe, and to admit the ſubjects of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty to a participation of the Newfoundland fiſhery, agreeably to the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, and to cede the ſmall iſland of St. Pierre, on certain conditions, as a harbour for the fiſhermen. Theſe ſevere terms France, in the *ultimatum* on her part, dated September 13, 1761, accepted with little variation, excepting that ſhe refuſed to recede from her claim of reſtitution reſpecting the merchant-ſhips captured previous to the declaration of war; and that his moſt Chriſtian majeſty aſſerted it to be not in his power, agreeably to the ſtipulations by which he is already engaged, to evacuate the countries belonging to the empreſs queen.

To this memorial the court of London deigned not to reply; and the miniſters Stanley and Buſſy returned to their reſpective homes. Notwithſtanding the immediate withdrawment of the memorial reſpecting Spain, and the the declaration of France that the offence given to the Engliſh court was perfectly unintentional, much anger and reſentment remained, which now indeed appeared chiefly directed againſt the court of Madrid; and the Engliſh miniſter tranſmitted inſtructions to the earl of Briſtol, the ambaſſador of England at the court of Spain, to require from his Catholic majeſty an explicit declaration as to the authority by which the French miniſter acted, in preſenting a memorial in the name of the king of Spain; and in caſe it ſhall be avowed by the court of Madrid, to remonſtrate with firmneſs the unexampled irregularity of ſuch proceedings. In relation to the three points of requiſition, Mr. Pitt declared it ſufficient to ſay, reſpecting the firſt, "that the courts inſtituted for the cognizance of ſuch matters, are open to the parties who think fit to ſeek redreſs in due courſe of law. As to the obſolete pretenſions of Spain to fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland, no conceſſion in a matter ſo ſacred would be even thought of. With regard to the diſputes relating to the logwood coaſts, his Britannic majeſty was willing to receive any juſt overtures on the part of his Catholic majeſty, provided they be not conveyed through the channel of France. And he concluded with profeſſing his expectation that the court of Madrid would come to ſome explicit eclairciſſement as to the deſtination of her fleets, and with reſpect to her diſpoſition to maintain and cultivate friendſhip and good correſpondence with Great Britain."

The earl of Briſtol, who appears to have conducted himſelf throughout this difficult negociation with diſtinguiſhed ability and addreſs, informed Mr. Pitt in his reply, dated Auguſt 31, 1761, that immediately on the receipt of the diſpatches from England, he had waited on the Spaniſh miniſter, don Ricardo Wall, at St. Ildefonſo, and in the moſt explicit, and at the ſame time in the leaſt offenſive mode, executed the orders contained in them. In reply, general Wall affirmed that the king of Spain, with a view merely to render the peace more permanent, and without the leaſt intention to give offence to his Britannic majeſty, had aſſented to the propoſal made by the moſt Chriſtian king, for the joint accommodation of their differences with Great Britain. The Spaniſh miniſter aſked, whether it was poſſible to imagine that his Catholic majeſty was ſeeking occaſions of provocation at a time when England was in the moſt flouriſhing and exalted ſituation it had ever known, in conſequence of the moſt extraordinary ſeries of proſperities that any nation had ever met with; that Spain was ſurpriſed Great Britain ſhould take umbrage at any naval preparations made ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, ſince the ſhips of war in commiſſion were fewer than thoſe which had been equipped during the reign of the late king Ferdinand; that they ſerved in part to maintain the correſpondence between the kingdoms of Spain and the Sicilies, of which his Catholic majeſty, during the minority of his ſon, was the guardian and protector. Others were intended to convoy the homeward or outward bound flotas, aſſogues, or regiſter ſhips; and the remaining ones were to defend their coaſts againſt the inſults of the Barbary corſairs: and that it was the invariable wiſh of his Catholic majeſty to cement and cultivate the friendſhip ſo happily ſubſiſting between the two courts. The Spaniſh miniſter acknowledged that the greateſt harmony exiſted between the kings of France and Spain, at which, who in this age could affect to wonder? But if his Catholic majeſty had conceived that the memorial in queſtion could have been conſtrued into a menace, he would never have conſented to the delivery of it. On the contrary, what proceeding, ſaid the Spaniſh miniſter, more noble can an enemy hold, than to ſay as France does to Great Britain—I am reſolved for the ſake of peace to make theſe ſacrifices; but at the ſame time, in order to ſecure the permanency of it, I am deſirous that England ſhould ſettle with Spain their ſubjects of diſagreement, leſt from the nature of our ſubſiſting engagements I may be entangled in a freſh war. As to the differences which had ariſen between England and Spain reſpecting the capture of the Spaniſh ſhips during the

war, the general allowed they would admit of an eaſy accommodation. But the court of Spain thought the other two articles of much more importance; and that the refuſal of the Engliſh court to enter into any negociation reſpecting the claim of Spain to fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland was violent and harſh, eſpecially as coupled with the abſolute determination of England not to relinquiſh her acknowledged uſurpations on the coaſt of Honduras, except his Catholic majeſty would previouſly aſſure to them the right to which they pretended of cutting logwood within that territory. In other words, he affirmed this was ſaying, "I will give up the dwelling of which I have taken forcible poſſeſſion, but firſt you ſhall engage to give me what I want to take."

When the forbearance of Spain reſpecting the logwood was compared with the excluſive claim of England to the Newfoundland fiſhery, which was of ſo much importance to Spain, as an article not of luxury but ſubſiſtence, the Spaniſh miniſter ſaid, he thought the Engliſh themſelves would heſitate to boaſt of the ſuperior juſtice and equity of their conduct. In his ſubſequent diſpatches of September and October, the earl of Briſtol informed the court of London, "that umbrage had been taken by the court of Madrid at the additional fortifications reported to be going forward at Gibraltar, and that general Wall had aſked, if it were poſſible that England could be ſeriouſly apprehenſive of a rupture with Spain; affirming, that at no time had the Catholic king been more intent upon cultivating a good underſtanding with his Britannic majeſty than at the preſent; that the flota had arrived at Cadiz, but that the treaſure belonging to the crown was much leſs than had been expected; that great abuſes and malverſations had been charged againſt the Spaniſh viceroys and governors in the Weſt Indies; and that his Catholic majeſty's miniſters had ſtrongly ſuggeſted to him the impracticability of reforming effectually the old defective ſyſtem of government, ſhould the court of Madrid embroil itſelf in the preſent troubles of Europe; that the Spaniſh miniſter, don Ricardo, urged the evacuation of the more recent ſettlements on the Honduras coaſt, which he ſaid would ſerve as a ſalvo for the honour of Spain, and greatly facilitate the final adjuſtment of her differences with England. General Wall, ſaid the ambaſſador, has ever acted in too ingenuous a manner for me to ſuſpect the leaſt duplicity in his conduct: the ambaſſador added, that on the notification of the king's marriage to the court of Madrid, he was particularly enjoined to aſſure the king of England of the ſhare his Catholic majeſty would ever take in all events that contributed to his happineſs; that the Spaniſh miniſter expreſſed a thorough concern at the breaking off the conferences between the courts of Verſailles and London; and ſaid it was the opinion in Spain, that the French miniſters had gone as great lengths in conceſſions as could be expected, conſidering the engagements of France with her allies." Previous, however, to the arrival of the laſt diſpatches, Mr. Pitt was no longer miniſter. Having received certain intelligence that a treaty of alliance was recently concluded between the two courts of France and Spain, and being firmly perſuaded that the articles of this treaty were in the higheſt degree inimical to Great Britain, and that Spain waited only the favourable moment to act openly againſt her, he ſtrongly urged in council the policy and neceſſity of an immediate declaration of war againſt that power; and recommended that a ſtrong ſquadron ſhould be immediately ſent to the Mediterranean, to intercept the flota actually on its paſſage from Carthagena to Cadiz. In this opinion he was ſupported only by his brother-in-law earl Temple, lord privy ſeal; and finding his influence in the cabinet at an end, he reſigned the ſeals, October 9, 1761, in order, to uſe his own words, "not to remain reſponſible for meaſures which he was no longer allowed to guide."

Mr. Pitt was ſucceeded in the office of ſecretary of ſtate by the earl of Egremont; and the king, in order doubtleſs to mollify the reſentment of the retiring miniſter, granted him a penſion of three thouſand pounds per annum, a reward which his praiſe-worthy neglect to accumulate riches rendered it neceſſary, though with ſome riſk to his popularity, to accept; and his lady was created baroneſs of Chatham, with remainder to her heirs male, Mr. Pitt in his own perſon declining the honours of the peerage. In this meaſure, the determination of the cabinet could not but be approved by the reflecting and intelligent part of the nation, who ſaw no clear proofs of any intention in the court of Madrid hoſtile to Great Britain; and who were of opinion, that to precipitate the nation, already loaded with a debt of one hundred and thirty millions, into a new and dangerous war, becauſe a treaty had been concluded by Spain with France, which might, when the articles were divulged, poſſibly be found contrary to good faith and amity, was a mode of proceeding not to be juſtified by an appeal to the voice of reaſon, or the law of nations. It could not but be remarked, that the reſignation of Mr. Pitt under theſe circumſtances, favoured more of pride and paſſion than of wiſdom or patriotiſm; and that an oppoſition of ſentiment in the cabinet on ſuch a point, did not juſtify him in withholding his ſervices at a criſis which peculiarly demanded the exertion of his great and acknowledged talents. Nevertheleſs, an unanimous vote of thanks paſſed the court of common-council of London to the right honourable William Pitt, in the moſt flattering terms of reſpect and applauſe, for his great and eminent ſervices.

Had the new miniſters determined to avoid that rupture with Spain, for which no political neceſſity ſeemed to exiſt, they would have been entitled to indiſputable praiſe. But heſitating between their own conviction of the inexpediency, and their anxious deſire to ſupport their character with the nation for reſolution and vigour, they adopted that equivocal line of conduct which aimed at no determined object, and which was really calculated to accelerate the cataſtrophe they earneſtly wiſhed to avert. On the 28th of October, the earl of Egremont wrote to the ambaſſador lord Briſtol, that it was highly expedient the court of Spain ſhould in the preſent moment be appriſed of the ſentiments of that of Great Britain, and that the king of England had nothing more at heart than to cultivate the moſt cordial friendſhip of his Catholic majeſty; but that his Britannic majeſty cannot imagine that the king of Spain ſhould think it unreaſonable to deſire a communication of the treaty acknowledged to have been lately concluded between the courts of Madrid and Verſailles, or of ſuch articles thereof as can by particular and explicit engagements immediately relate to the intereſts of Great Britain, before he enters into further negociation on the points depending between the two crowns; and the ambaſſador is inſtructed to uſe the moſt preſſing inſtances to M. Wall to obtain ſuch communication as is above mentioned. The ambaſſador is further aſſured, that the reſignation of Mr. Pitt will only animate the preſent miniſtry to a more vigorous exertion of their powers; and that the moſt perfect harmony, unanimity, and confidence, now reign in his majeſty's councils. This diſpatch being written with a view to a confidential communication of its contents to the Spaniſh miniſter, the ambaſſador is informed in a ſeparate and "moſt ſecret" letter, that if the court of Spain ſhould propoſe to give his majeſty ſolemn aſſurances of the innocence of the treaty in queſtion in relation to the intereſts of England, he is not totally to reject the alternative, but to take it *in referendum*; provided always, that the ſaid aſſurances be given upon his Catholic majeſty's royal word, ſignified in writing either by the Spaniſh ſecretary of ſtate, M. Wall, or by the count de Fuentes, the Spaniſh miniſter in London, to his Britannic majeſty's ſecretary of ſtate, and not otherwiſe. The earl of Briſtol, in a letter written to the earl of Egremont, dated November the 2d, remarks the ſudden alteration of behaviour in the Spaniſh miniſter, and the haughty language now held by the court

of

of Madrid; general Wall declaring with uncommon warmth, that we were intoxicated with our ſucceſſes, and that it was evident, by our refuſal of the duc de Choiſeul's propoſals, that we aimed firſt to ruin the French power, in order more eaſily afterwards to cruſh Spain, and, by ſeizing the Spaniſh dominions in America, to ſatisfy to the utmoſt our ambition and unbounded thirſt of conqueſt. He himſelf, he ſaid with paſſionate emphaſis, would be the man to adviſe the king of Spain, ſince his dominions were to be overwhelmed, at leaſt to have them ſeized with arms in his ſubjects' hands, and not to continue the paſſive victim he had hitherto appeared to be in the eyes of the world. It was time, he affirmed, for Spain to open her eyes, and not to ſuffer an ally, a neighbour, and a friend, to receive the rigid laws impoſed by an inſulting victor. For this purpoſe he acknowledged, in reply to the requiſitions of the Engliſh ambaſſador reſpecting the purport of the late treaty, that his Catholic majeſty had judged it expedient to renew his "family compacts" with the moſt Chriſtian king.

This ſudden alteration of language and of conduct the ambaſſador aſcribed to the intelligence juſt received by the court of Madrid, of the propoſition made by Mr. Pitt, and recently diſcuſſed in the Britiſh cabinet, of an immediate declaration of war againſt Spain; a meaſure totally unexpected, and by which Spain, who conceived herſelf to be the injured party, was filled with indignation and aſtoniſhment. But the offence now given was not thought entitled to any political indulgence; and lord Briſtol, in the ſubſequent diſpatch of lord Egremont, was expreſsly commanded, in the name of his Britannic majeſty, to demand of the Spaniſh miniſter, an immediate, clear, and categorical, anſwer to the queſtion before ſtated; and to accompany this demand with an aſſurance, that any procraſtination, ambiguity, or evaſion, will be conſidered as ample and ſufficient ground for authorizing his majeſty to take ſuch ſteps as his royal wiſdom ſhall dictate for the honour of his crown, and the ſecurity of his people. At the ſame time the ambaſſador is, with ludicrous inconſiſtency, charged not to uſe any harſhneſs of language which can have the leaſt tendency to indiſpoſe or irritate the Spaniſh court, or the miniſter, M. Wall; as if the language preſcribed to the ambaſſador could poſſibly fail to produce that effect on the Caſtilian pride: but, in caſe the ſatisfaction required was delayed or refuſed, his excellency the ambaſſador was ordered forthwith to quit Madrid, without taking leave, and repair with all convenient ſpeed to Liſbon. About the ſame time that the above diſpatch was tranſmitted by lord Egremont to the earl of Briſtol, a letter was written to his lordſhip by the ambaſſador, in which he ſtates, that general Wall had recovered his uſual temper; and that after an amicable diſcuſſion of the points in diſpute, enforced by long and diſpaſſionate reaſonings, they had parted with reciprocal proteſtations of their earneſt deſire to continue in peace; and a copy of the king's ſpeech to the new parliament arriving about this period, the Spaniſh miniſter highly applauded the candour and moderation diſplayed throughout the whole; aſſuring at the ſame time the Engliſh ambaſſador, that he expected ſhortly to receive the Catholic king's commands to acquaint him with the reſolutions of Spain relative to his applications. But theſe flattering appearances entirely vaniſhed, when, in compliance with the expreſs inſtructions of the Engliſh court, the ambaſſador in peremptory terms demanded the categorical anſwer required in the laſt latter of the earl of Egremont, declaring, in conformity to the orders he had received, that a refuſal, and even a delay of ſatisfaction, would be deemed an aggreſſion on the part of the court of Madrid, and regarded in no other light than as an abſolute declaration of war. "I cannot (ſays the earl of Briſtol, in his official diſpatch) deſcribe the ſurpriſe M. Wall expreſſed at hearing this—he only brought out theſe words: What is to follow? You have then orders to withdraw from hence?" Upon the ambaſſador's acknowledgment that ſuch were his inſtructions, general Wall deſired him for greater preciſion to put in writing what he was ordered to demand; and, repairing to the palace of the Buen Retiro, he returned, after a ſhort interval, an anſwer from his Catholic majeſty, in which the ambaſſador is told, "that the ſpirit of haughtineſs and diſcord which dictated this inconſiderate ſtep, and which for the misfortune of mankind ſtill reigns ſo much in the Britiſh government, is what made in the ſame inſtant the declaration of war and attacked the king's dignity: your excellency may think of retiring when and in the manner convenient to you; which is the only anſwer his majeſty has directed me to give." Orders were ſent from Madrid to the count de Fuentes, inſtantly to leave the court and kingdom of England, delivering firſt a memorial to the miniſters of the king of England, in which the war that the Spaniſh and Engliſh nations were about to plunge into, is attributed to the pride and immeaſurable ambition of him who lately held the reins of government in Great Britain. "If (ſaid the memorial) his Catholic majeſty excuſed himſelf from making the explanations required, it was to manifeſt his juſt reſentment of the inſulting manner in which the affairs of Spain have been treated during Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration; who, when the juſtice of his Catholic majeſty's claims had been incontrovertibly proved, gave as his final anſwer, *That he would not relax in any thing till the Tower of London was taken ſword in hand.* If the reſpect due to royal majeſty had been regarded, explanations it was affirmed might have been had without difficulty. The miniſters of Spain might have ſaid frankly to thoſe of England, what the count de Fuentes, by the king's expreſs orders, declares publicly, That the ſaid treaty is only a convention between the family of Bourbon, wherein is nothing which has the leaſt relation to the preſent war; that there is in it an article for the mutual guarantee of the dominions of the two ſovereigns, but it is ſpecified therein that this guarantee is not to be underſtood but of the dominions which ſhall remain to France after the preſent war ſhall be ended; that although his Catholic majeſty might have had reaſon to think himſelf offended, by the irregular manner in which the memorial for terminating the differences between Spain and England, at the ſame time with the war betwixt this laſt and France, was returned to M. Buſſy, the king of Spain diſſembled, and from his love of peace cauſed a memorial to be delivered to lord Briſtol, wherein it is evidently demonſtrated, that the ſtep of France which put the miniſter Pitt into ſo bad humour, did not at all offend either the laws of neutrality or the ſincerity of the two ſovereigns; that as a freſh proof of his pacific ſpirit, the king of Spain wrote to the king of France his couſin, that if the union of intereſt in any manner retarded the peace with England, he conſented to ſeparate himſelf from it, not to put any obſtacle to ſo great a happineſs: but it was ſoon ſeen this was only a pretence on the part of the Engliſh miniſter; for that of France continuing his negociations without making any mention of Spain, and propoſing conditions very advantageous and honourable for England, the miniſter Pitt, to the great aſtoniſhment of the univerſe, rejected them with diſdain, and ſhewed at the ſame time his ill-will againſt Spain, to the ſcandal of the ſame Britiſh council; and unfortunately he has ſucceeded but too far in his pernicious deſign." This memorial ſerved to demonſtrate the ſuperior ſagacity of lord Briſtol, who declared, in the courſe of this negociation, his firm belief that the treaty in queſtion contained no article injurious to the intereſts of England, although the preposterous pride of the Spaniſh court prevented any poſitive or ſatisfactory aſſurance being given on this head; and the two nations, from an obſtinate adherence to a falſe and fooliſh punctilio of honour, found themſelves at length involved in a war, which they equally and anxiouſly wiſhed to avoid.

The preparations made for conducting the war againſt the united force of the houſe of Bourbon with vigour

and effect, ſhewed that the ſpirit of Mr. Pitt, againſt whom rather than the king of Great Britain the declaration of the king of Spain ſeemed to be directed, ſtill influenced and animated the public counſels. The grand machine of government, once put into motion, continued for a time its progreſs with the ſame force and velocity as if ſtill guided by the powerful hand which firſt urged it into action. Letters of marque were iſſued, and commiſſions granted for privateers to act againſt the ſubjects of his Catholic majeſty; and at length, on the 4th of January, 1762, war was declared againſt Spain with the accuſtomed formalities.

The new parliament was opened by a well-timed ſpeech from the throne, in which his majeſty expreſſed "his regret at the unſucceſsful termination of the late negociation for peace, and his reſolution to proſecute the war in the moſt effectual manner, till the enemies of Great Britain, moved by their own loſſes, and touched with the miſeries of ſo many nations, ſhall yield to the equitable conditions of an honourable peace." Very loyal addreſſes were returned. About two hundred and forty thouſand ſeamen, landmen, and marines, including the German mercenaries, were voted for the ſervice of the year; and twelve millions borrowed to make up the deficiency of the regular means of ſupply. His majeſty had already been voted the clear income of eight hundred thouſand pounds per annum, for the maintenance of the houſehold and the ſupport of the royal dignity, in lieu of the civil liſt revenues, which had been formerly appropriated for the ſovereigns of this country; and a jointure of one hundred thouſand pounds per annum was now ſettled on the queen, with the palaces of Richmond Old-park and Somerſet-houſe.

Towards the concluſion of the preceding year, a plan had been formed for the conqueſt of Martinico, the principal of the French Caribbee iſlands, and the reſidence of the governor-general and council, whoſe juriſdiction extends over all the French Antilles. The armament deſtined for this expedition conſiſted of eighteen ſhips of the line, and as many battalions of troops, under general Monckton and admiral ſir George Rodney, who, rendezvouſing at Barbadoes, proceeded early in the month of January, 1762, to Martinique; and on the 16th landed, after ſilencing the batteries erected on the coaſt in the vicinity of the town of Fort Royal, defended by a ſtrong citadel, and various military works erected on the Morne Tortueſon and the Morne Garnier, neighbouring heights which commanded the town. Theſe were ſoon forced by the intrepidity of the Engliſh troops, which on no occaſion diſplayed itſelf more conſpicuouſly than in the attack of this iſland. On the 4th of February, the commandant of the citadel ordered the chamade to be beat, and the garriſon was permitted to march out with the honours of war. But the governor-general, M. de la Touche, retreated to the ſtrong fortreſs of St. Pierre, ſituated to the leeward of Fort Royal, which he at firſt ſeemed diſpoſed to defend with vigour; but on the 14th, deputies arrived with propoſals of capitulation for the whole iſland, and this important conqueſt was achieved with inconſiderable loſs. In the mean time, commodore Swanton was detached from the fleet, with a force ſufficient for the reduction of the iſland of Grenada and the Grenadines; which ſubmitted without reſiſtance, and proved in the hands of the Engliſh a very valuable acquiſition. At the ſame time, the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Lucia, Tobago, and St. Vincent, which, though declared neutral by former treaties, had been for ſome time occupied by the French.

Spain, who meant certainly nothing further than by the weight of her influence and too partial mediation, to procure for France more favourable terms of accommodation than were otherwiſe obtainable, found herſelf unexpectedly engaged as a principal in the war, for which ſhe was extremely unprepared. The marine of France, by repeated defeats, was broken and ruined; whilſt the numerous fleets of Britain ſeemed to cover the ocean, and rode triumphant from the Ganges to the Miſſiſſippi, from the riſing to the ſetting ſun. The naval power of Spain was utterly unable to cope with this prodigious force. In one quarter only could England be conſidered as vulnerable. By an attack on Portugal, a kingdom in cloſe alliance with Great Britain, very open to invaſion, feeble, opulent, defenceleſs, Spain might reaſonably hope fully to indemnify herſelf for any loſſes ſhe might elſewhere ſuſtain. The military and heroic ſpirit by which the Portugueſe nation had been formerly characterized, was now no more: her privileged orders were ſunk in luxury; her people in ſloth, ignorance, and bigotry; her troops were deſtitute of diſcipline, and her fortreſſes of artillery and ammunition. The recent deſtruction of her capital, by the memorable earthquake, the myſterious conſpiracy againſt the life of the monarch, the conſequent execution of her moſt diſtinguiſhed and popular nobles, the forcible expulſion of the jeſuits, and the entire alienation of the court of Liſbon from the ſee of Rome; all theſe cauſes, conjoined, had filled the kingdom with confuſion and diſcontent. In this ſituation, it was doubtleſs imagined that Portugal would fall an eaſy prey to the arms of Spain, and great military preparations were made, and a large body of forces aſſembled on the frontiers of that kingdom.

On the 16th of March, 1762, a joint memorial was preſented by the ambaſſadors of France and Spain at the court of Liſbon, "inviting the king of Portugal to renounce his connection with Great Britain, and engage in the offenſive and defenſive alliance which they had formed againſt that inſolent and dangerous power." The Catholic king profeſſing "the moſt cordial attachment to the intereſts of his moſt Faithful majeſty, to whom he was ſo nearly allied, inſiſted that the Engliſh ſubjects reſident in Portugal ſhould be compelled to depart the kingdom, and the Engliſh ſhipping no longer be allowed ſhelter in her ports; declaring, that he ſhould immediately occupy with his troops the fortreſſes and maritime places belonging to his moſt Faithful majeſty, to protect them from the reſentment of England." To this extraordinary requiſition, the ambaſſadors of the two courts demanded a categorical anſwer in four days. The king of Portugal replied, in very moderate and conciliatory language, "That he was ſincerely diſpoſed to act as mediator in compromiſing the preſent differences, but that the unfortunate ſtate of his kingdom would not allow him, were he ſo inclined, to engage as a principal in the war; that the honour of his crown, and the faith of ſolemn treaties, would not permit him to abandon the alliance of England; and that he was determined to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality, making thoſe preparations only which were neceſſary for his own defence."

In a ſecond memorial, dated April 1, the confederate powers declared, in a tone ſtill more imperious, "that his moſt Faithful majeſty's alliance with England became in effect an offenſive alliance, from the ſituation of the Portugueſe dominions, and the nature of the Engliſh power; that the Britiſh ſquadrons could not keep the ſea without the uſe of the ports of his moſt Faithful majeſty; that the riches of Portugal paſſed into the hands of the Engliſh; and they again invited him, ſince the differences between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, which had laid the foundation of the alliance with England, had been long ſince happily accommodated, to abandon that alliance, and enter into a ſtrict league of friendſhip with their Chriſtian and Catholic majeſties." The king of Portugal perſiſting in his refuſal of theſe overtures, the ambaſſadors of the two courts, after the delivery of a third memorial ſtill more inſolent and inſulting than the former, were ordered to leave the kingdom.

On the 23d of May, 1762, war was declared by Portugal againſt Spain, the Spaniſh army having already paſſed the frontier. His moſt Faithful majeſty having made previous and urgent ſolicitation to the court of London for aſſiſtance, it was determined to grant him the

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moſt ſpeedy and efficacious ſuccour, by the embarkation of a large body of troops under lord Tyrawley, a veteran officer, who had formerly reſided with high reputation as ambaſſador at the court of Liſbon, and who now united the different characters of plenipotentiary and general. The king of Portugal had conferred, at the recommendation of the king of England, the ſupreme command of his armies on the famous count de la Lippe-Buckebourg, maſter-general of the artillery under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a man whoſe military talents were of the higheſt claſs, and who poſſeſſed all the heroic and romantic qualities which diſtinguiſhed and adorned the ages of chivalry. Lord Tyrawley returning ſoon to England, perhaps in diſguſt at this ſuperior appointment, the command of the Engliſh auxiliaries devolved on the earl of Loudon, under whom ſerved the generals Burgoyne, Crawford, Townſhend, and other officers of diſtinguiſhed merit and reputation.

In the beginning of May, 1762, the Spaniſh army, under the marquis de Sarria, paſſed the Douro, and inveſted the city of Miranda. Unfortunately, at the very commencement of the ſiege, before the parallels were formed, or the batteries planted, the grand magazine of the fortreſs, taking fire by accident, blew up with a tremendous exploſion, occaſioning the loſs of near five hundred lives, and making moreover two large and practicable breaches in the walls. In conſequence of this misfortune, the city was immediately given up, and the garriſon made priſoners of war. Braganza was next attacked; but ſuch was the conſternation of the Portugueſe, that the keys of the town were preſented, without any attempt at reſiſtance, to the Spaniſh commander. The city of Chaves, though provided with all the means of defence, was ſurpriſed at the ſame time by a ſeparate detachment under count O'Reilly. The ſouthern army, commanded by the count d'Aranda, being joined by eight thouſand French auxiliaries, entered the province of Eſtremadura, and opened the trenches before Almeida, in July; after a much better defence than had hitherto been made, that city was compelled to capitulate on the 25th of Auguſt. On the arrival of the count de la Lippe, Liſbon, the metropolis, and Oporto, the ſecond city of the kingdom, were expoſed to imminent danger. But that general, knowing the moſt effectual mode of waging a defenſive war to be the converting it as far as poſſible into an offenſive one, determined to carry the arms of Portugal into the kingdom of Spain. An enterprize againſt the city of Alcantara, where conſiderable magazines were forming, was reſolved upon, and brigadier-general Burgoyne was appointed to the command of the entire force collected for this purpoſe. This officer, paſſing the Tagus at midnight, reached Alcantara at the dawn of day, and, attacking with great reſolution the enemy poſted in the vicinity, and unſuſpicious of danger, totally routed them with very inconſiderable loſs. A great quantity of arms and ammunition fell into the hands of the victors. Amongſt the priſoners was the Spaniſh major-general don Miguel d'Iruniberri, who was preparing for an expedition into the Portugueſe province of Alentejo. The count d'Aranda, having reduced, after the ſurrender of Almeida, the fortreſſes of Caſtel Rodrigo and Caſtel Branco, attempted to force a paſſage through the mountains, intending to croſs the Tagus at Villa Velha, a poſt defended by general Burgoyne, who lay encamped on the ſouthern bank of the river. The old Mooriſh caſtle of Villa Velha, on the northern bank, though gallantly defended, was at length compelled to ſurrender, and the paſſes of the mountains gained. But the enemy having weakened their force at Villa Velha, in order to purſue their advantage in the oppoſite quarter, general Burgoyne ordered a detachment under lieutenant-colonel Lee to ford the Tagus in the night, and attack the Spaniards in their camp. This enterprize was executed with equal ſpirit and ſucceſs. A great number of the Spaniſh officers were ſlain in attempting to rally their troops; their cannon were ſpiked, their magazines deſtroyed, and much valuable plunder became the property of the aſſailants. The Spaniards being repeatedly foiled in their deſign of paſſing the Tagus, by the ſkill and vigilance of the commander, count de la Lippe, and embarraſſed alſo in their operations by the heavy rains which fell at this period, at length repaſſed the mountains, and entirely evacuated the province of Eſtremadura, firſt diſmantling the fortifications of Almeida and Caſtel Rodrigo.

No ſooner was war declared by England againſt Spain, than preparations began to be made for a grand enterprize; and in the beginning of March, 1762, a very powerful armament ſailed from Portſmouth, under the conduct of admiral ſir George Pococke, the earl of Albemarle commanding the land forces on-board. At the beginning of June, they arrived off the iſland of Cuba, and the troops were landed ſix miles to the eaſtward of the Havannah, a city of the utmoſt importance to the ſecurity and almoſt the exiſtence of the Spaniſh empire in America, as being the port where the galleons and flota, loaded with the riches of Mexico and Peru, conſtantly rendezvouſed on their return to Spain. This city was protected, excluſive of other works, by a very ſtrong caſtle called the Moro, againſt which the principal attack of the earl of Albemarle was directed. It was, however, bravely defended by the Spaniſh governor, don Louis de Velaſco; and the ſiege being protracted beyond expectation, ſickneſs began to make its ravages amongſt the beſiegers. On the 30th of July, therefore, although the breaches made were deemed ſcarcely practicable, an aſſault was determined upon, and the troops mounting with the utmoſt intrepidity, drove the enemy from the ramparts; and, after a ſhort but fierce and bloody conflict, the Spaniards were compelled to lay down their arms, and petition for quarter. Don Velaſco, animated with all the genuine Caſtilian heroiſm, fell by a promiſcuous ſhot, whilſt inciting his troops, both by his exhortation and example, to ſupport the glory of the Spaniſh arms. Notwithſtanding the conqueſt of the Moro, the city held out till the 13th of Auguſt, when the governor capitulated, on condition of being allowed to march out with the honours of war, and to have, with his whole garriſon, a free and unmoleſted conveyance to Spain. In this conqueſt was included twelve line-of-battle ſhips then lying in the harbour of the Havannah; great quantities of ammunition and warlike ſtores; prodigious quantities of merchandize of various kinds, and an immenſe treaſure in ſpecie. This therefore was a blow, which, at the very commencement of the war, ſtruck deep into the vitals of the Spaniſh power.

No ſooner was the intelligence of the Spaniſh war conveyed to the Eaſt Indies, than an armament ſpeedily equipped, under the conduct of admiral Corniſh and ſir William Draper, ſailed from Madras, deſtined againſt Luconia, the principal of the Philippine iſlands, of which the chief city is Manilla, whence two large ſhips are ſent annually acroſs the Pacific Ocean to Acapulco, on the coaſt of Mexico, laden with the ſpices, ſilks, and other precious products of India. On the 23d of September, 1762, the whole armament, having on-board a land force, including laſcars, ſepoys, and other troops, amounting to about two thouſand five hundred men, anchored in the bay of Manilla, where they excited great and general alarm. After effecting a landing, the city was ſummoned to ſurrender; but the marquis de Villa Medina, the governor, returned a reſolute refuſal. The Engliſh were far from being in a condition to form a complete inveſtment of the city, which was of great extent and ſtrongly fortified. The quarter which the general determined to attack, was defended by the baſtions of St. Diego and St. Andrew, a ravelin, a wet foſſe thirty yards in breadth, a covered way, and a glacis. At the beginning of October, the weather grew very ſtormy and tempeſtuous; notwithſtanding which the beſiegers carried on their works with unintermitted ardour. A furious ſally was on the 4th

made from the town before day-break, in which the regular troops of the forts were reinforced by a ſtrong body of the native Indians, armed only with bows and lances, who fought with aſtoniſhing perſeverance; advancing to the very muzzles of the Engliſh muſkets, and with wild and ſavage ferocity biting the bayonets even in the agonies of death. They were finally repulſed with great loſs; and a breach being made, a reſolution was taken to ſtorm the town.

Though no offer of capitulation had been made, the garriſon ſeemed ill prepared to ſuſtain an aſſault, and the Engliſh penetrated into the very centre of the city with little oppoſition. The governor retiring into the citadel, the town was expoſed for ſome hours to all the horrors of a general pillage. At length, the citadel being in no condition of defence, the marquis de Villa Medina, the archbiſhop of Manilla, and the officers of the garriſon, ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war; at the ſame time propoſing a capitulation to ſave the city from total deſtruction. After ſome diſcuſſion, a ranſom of four millions of dollars was offered, and accepted. The port and citadel of Cavite, with the iſlands and fortreſſes depending on the government of Manilla, being included in the capitulation, the whole force of the Engliſh ſcarcely ſufficed to garriſon their conqueſts.

Intelligence being received of the expected arrival of an Acapulco ſhip, the admiral ſent the Panther and Argo ſhips of war in queſt of her, who fell in with the Santa Trinidada, bound for Mexico, pierced for ſixty guns, with merchandize on-board to the amount of three millions of dollars. This was not the only regiſter-ſhip taken in the courſe of this war from the Spaniards; the St. Hermione, from Lima to Cadiz, being captured by two Britiſh frigates cruiſing off Cape St. Vincent. Her cargo was eſtimated at one million ſterling, being ſuppoſed the richeſt prize ever brought into the harbours of Great Britain.

Amongſt the military and naval achievements of the year 1762, it may be proper tranſiently to notice the recovery of the town and fort of St. John, in the iſland of Newfoundland, (ſome months before ſurpriſed and ſurrendered to the French,) by lord Colville and colonel Amherſt, who, ſailing from the harbour of Halifax, by their ſpirited exertions anticipated the effect of an armament fitted out expreſsly for this purpoſe at Portſmouth. All theſe plans of ſucceſsful conqueſt had been projected by the whig adminiſtration, who now went out. On the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, the entire direction of affairs was veſted in the earl of Bute. The duke of Newcaſtle, as firſt lord of the treaſury, and the duke of Devonſhire, as lord chamberlain, were diſmiſſed. The earl of Hardwicke retired in diſguſt; and the duke of Grafton, lord Ravenſworth, and lord Aſhburnham, with ſeveral other noblemen of high diſtinction, now ranged themſelves with Mr. Pitt, on the ſide of the oppoſition. Lord Anſon was ſucceeded at this period in the admiralty by the earl of Halifax, recently returned from the government of Ireland, in which he was ſucceeded by the duke of Northumberland; and Mr. George Grenville was advanced to the ſecretaryſhip. But in a ſhort time this order of things was reverſed: lord Halifax took the ſeals, and Mr. Grenville was placed at the head of the admiralty. No political conflict, however, could take place before the enſuing winter, and the ſummer months paſſed over in angry and ineffectual diſcontent.

On the 12th of Auguſt, 1762, a day auſpicious to the houſe of Brunſwick, as the era of its acceſſion to the throne of Great Britain; auſpicious alſo to the kingdom at large, whilſt the principles of liberty civil and religious, on which that acceſſion was founded, continue to be the rule of their government, the nation was gladdened by the birth of a prince of Wales, whoſe aim, whoſe ſtudy, and whoſe pride, may it ſtill be to eſtabliſh, extend, and improve, that free and happy conſtitution of which he is the hereditary guardian and defender!

The firſt and great object of the new miniſter was the reſtoration of peace; a laudable and noble deſign, but attended with very conſiderable difficulty. The majority of the nation, elated or rather intoxicated with ſucceſs, were eager for the continuance of the war, in the ſanguine hope of new victories; not reflecting that every rational purpoſe of the war had been long ſince obtained, and that additional conqueſts were in fact only additional incumbrances. A powerful party, compoſed of men the moſt diſtinguiſhed for rank, influence, and ability, was now formed in oppoſition to the miniſter; and this oppoſition was openly countenanced by the duke of Cumberland, uncle to the king, who had never connected himſelf with the tory party in oppoſition to the court in the late reign, and who had imbibed the whig principles and prejudices in their full extent. Upon whatever terms the peace might be concluded, it was not to be imagined that ſatisfaction could be given to the political antagoniſts of the miniſter, who would not fail to repreſent it as inadequate to the ſucceſſes of the war, if not inconſiſtent with the intereſt, and diſgraceful to the reputation, of England.

Theſe conſiderations did not, however, deter the miniſter from cauſing ſecret intimations to be given, that the revival of the ineffectual negociation of the laſt year would be not unacceptable; and the king of Sardinia was ſolicited to offer his mediation for this purpoſe. The court of Verſailles readily embracing the overtures now made by England, the duc de Nivernois arrived in London, in the month of September, inveſted with the character of ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the king of Great Britain; and the duke of Bedford, a nobleman diſtinguiſhed for honour and probity, and who had ſucceſſively occupied the high offices of ſecretary of ſtate, firſt lord of the admiralty, lord privy ſeal, and lord lieutenant of Ireland, was delegated in the ſame capacity, inveſted with the ſame diplomatic diſtinctions, to the court of France. And the negociators being actuated by a mutual anxiety for the re-eſtabliſhment of peace, preliminaries were ſigned and interchanged at Fontainebleau, in the beginning of November, 1762, between the miniſters of Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal.

On the 25th of November the parliament was convened; and the king, in his ſpeech from the throne, informed the two houſes, "that the preliminary articles were actually ſigned, on terms which he repreſented as very advantageous to England; and he recommended that union at home, which was ſo neceſſary to the adoption of thoſe meaſures which could alone relieve the nation from the heavy burdens entailed upon it by the proſecution of a long and expenſive war." When the addreſs in reply came under the conſideration of the houſe of commons, Mr. Pitt, in a long and elaborate ſpeech, expreſſed his entire diſapprobation of the tenor of the treaty, which he ſtigmatiſed as impolitic, and derogatory to the honour and intereſts of the kingdom. He was determined, afflicted as he was with illneſs, at the hazard of his life, he ſaid, to attend the houſe that day; to raiſe up his voice, his hand, and his arm, againſt the preliminary articles of a treaty, which obſcured all the glories of the war, ſurrendered the deareſt intereſts of the nation, and ſacrificed the public faith by an abandonment of our allies. He was anſwered at large by Mr. Fox, who, although he continued to occupy only the ſubordinate poſt of paymaſter of the army, was, at this time, the ableſt advocate of adminiſtration in the houſe of commons; and, after a warm and ample diſcuſſion, the addreſs, as propoſed by the partiſans of the court, paſſed the houſe by a great majority of voices.

In the houſe of lords, the miniſter, lord Bute, vindicated the treaty, with a ſpirit and energy which was not expected; and he concluded his ſpeech with declaring, "that he wiſhed no other epitaph to be inſcribed on his tomb, than that he was the adviſer of the peace, on the merits of which their lordſhips were then called upon to decide." Notwithſtanding the arguments and objections of the peers in oppoſition, the addreſs paſſed in this houſe

alſo by a ſimilar majority. And in juſtice to the earl of Bute, the impartiality of hiſtory will acknowledge, that this famous peace, ſo much and ſo long the ſubject of declamation and invective, was in fact liable to no ſolid or ſerious exception. The moſt plauſible objection to the treaty was the ceſſion of the iſland of St. Lucie to France; the importance of which, from its ſituation and excellent harbour, ſeems indeed to have been better underſtood by the French than the Engliſh negociators. Mr. Pitt had poſitively refuſed, in his negociation with M. Buſſy, to cede St. Lucie to France.

By this treaty the entire province of Canada was ceded and guaranteed to the Engliſh, with all that part of Louiſiana which is ſituated to the eaſt of the great river Miſſiſſippi, together with Cape Breton, and the other iſlands in the gulf and river of St. Laurence. In the Weſt Indies, the iſland of Grenada, and the Grenadines, were ceded to England, in full right; alſo, of the neutral iſlands, Dominique, St. Vincent's, and Tobago. In Africa, Senegal with its dependencies is guaranteed to England. In the Eaſt Indies, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty acknowledges Mahomed Aly Khan, as nabob of the Carnatic; and Salabat Zing, as ſubah of the Decan; renouncing all acquiſitions made on the coaſt of Coromandel ſince the year 1749, and engaging not to erect fortifications in any part of the kingdom of Bengal. See the article HINDOOSTAN. In Europe, he agrees to reſtore Minorca in the ſame condition as when conquered by the arms of the moſt Chriſtian king. He conſents that the harbour and fortifications of Dunkirk ſhall be demoliſhed. Finally, he ſtipulates that the territories belonging to the elector of Hanover, the landgrave of Heſſe, &c. now occupied by the armies of France, ſhall be evacuated, together with the fortreſſes of Cleves, Weſel, Gueldres, &c. belonging to the king of Pruſſia; and the two monarchs of France and England engage not to furniſh ſuccours of any kind to their reſpective allies in Germany. The difficult queſtion relative to the validity of the prizes captured before the declaration of war, is paſſed over in profound and diſcreet ſilence.

The king of Spain, on his part, cedes and guarantees in full right to England, the Eaſtern and Weſtern Floridas, and in general all that Spain poſſeſſes on the continent of America, to the eaſt or to the ſouth-eaſt of the Miſſiſſippi; in conſequence of which important ceſſion, in conjunction with that of the eaſtern part of Louiſiana, and the entire province of Canada, an immenſe country, capable of unlimited improvement, and bounded by a line of demarcation the moſt clear and definite, was gained to the empire of Britain. His Catholic majeſty alſo relinquiſhes, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, all pretenſions which he may have formed to the right of fiſhing on the banks of Newfoundland. He confirms and eſtabliſhes for ever the privilege or indulgence enjoyed by the Engliſh of cutting logwood on the coaſt of Honduras, ſtipulating only, that no fortifications ſhall be erected upon the territorial dominions of Spain. Finally, his Catholic majeſty engages entirely to evacuate, on the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty, all the lands, cities, and caſtles, belonging to his moſt Faithful majeſty the king of Portugal, in the ſame condition they were in when conquered by the arms of Spain.

In return for theſe great and important ceſſions, Great Britain engages to reſtore to France, in Europe, the iſland of Belleiſle; in Africa, the iſland of Goree; in the Weſt Indies, the iſlands of Guadaloupe, Martinique, and St. Lucie; in the Eaſt Indies, Pondicherry, and Chandernagore. The right of France to fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland is recogniſed; and the ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon are ceded as a ſhelter for the fiſhermen. The fortreſs of the Havannah, and the other acquiſitions of England, without reſerve, including the recent and as yet unaſcertained conqueſt of the Manillas, are reſtored to Spain.

A great obſtacle to the concluſion of the treaty had been removed by the alteration which had taken place in the politics of England reſpecting the king of Pruſſia, and in the beneficial change in the ſituation of that monarch, who had now concluded a peace with Ruſſia and Sweden, and to whom notice had been already given, that the annual ſubſidy treaty would be no more renewed. The territories of Pruſſia occupied by the French being evacuated, that monarch had, however, upon the face of the treaty of Fontainebleau, no juſt ground of complaint, his native force being equal to his own defence againſt the houſe of Auſtria; or, if it were not, England was under no obligation further to exhauſt her treaſures in order to defend him. Both parties being, however, weary of a war which had been ſo long continued with alternate loſs and advantage, they ſoon came to terms of accommodation.

Although the peace of Fontainebleau was almoſt univerſally unpopular in the nation at large, the decided approbation of the parliament ſeemed to enſure the permanency of the miniſter's power; and the real intrinſic merits of the treaty, with the beneficial conſequences neceſſarily reſulting from the reſtoration of peace, might reaſonably be ſuppoſed gradually to conciliate the minds of the public. But other cauſes of diſſatisfaction aroſe, which heightened almoſt to phrenſy the popular odium againſt the miniſter, and converted the national ebullitions of diſcontent into a tempeſt of faction.

In the courſe of the ſeſſion it was found neceſſary, the increaſing expence of the war having left an immenſe arrear of debt, to negociate a new loan to a very large amount; for diſcharging the intereſt of which, amongſt other taxes, a duty was moved by the chancellor of the exchequer of four ſhillings upon every hogſhead of cider, to be paid by the maker, and with certain qualifications ſubjected to all the laws of exciſe. No ſooner was this unpopular propoſition brought forward, than the oppoſition, eager to embrace ſo inviting an opportunity of attack, opened all their batteries againſt it. The arguments by which the nation had been ſo much inflamed thirty years before, at the period when ſir Robert Walpole attempted to carry into effect his famous project, were now revived. The bill, however, paſſed into a law; and from this time may be dated the ſolid foundation of the revenue by exciſe, which has ſince been made ſo productive.

But ſcarcely was this unpopular meaſure carried into execution, when the kingdom was aſtoniſhed with the reſignation of lord Bute; who having, as he boaſted, reſtored peace to the world, forfeited no engagement, abandoned no friend, and formed a miniſterial connection ſo powerful as no longer to need his aſſiſtance, was now determined, by retiring "to the bleſſings of the life he loved," to demonſtrate that miniſterial greatneſs had for him no charms. To the earl of Bute ſucceeded as firſt lord of the treaſury, Mr. George Grenville, brother to earl Temple, a man accurately verſed in the routine of buſineſs, practiſed in all the minutiæ of office, open and affable in his manners, not deficient in probity, although ambitious of diſtinction. But though his abilities were of a claſs to entitle him in a ſubordinate ſtation to reſpect, he was utterly deſtitute of thoſe commanding talents, that intuitive ſagacity, and intellectual comprehenſion, which mark the man whom nature ſeems to have deſtined to the government of empires.

On the death of lord Egremont, which took place nearly at this period, the ſeals were given to the earl of Sandwich; the earl of Egremont was advanced to the head of the admiralty; and the duke of Bedford, now returned from his embaſſy to Paris, was appointed preſident of the council in the room of the famous earl Granville, who had for many years paſt, and to the cloſe of life, under all the changing viciſſitudes of power, occupied with the higheſt reputation that honourable and exalted office. In conſequence of the retreat of the earl of Bute, a general coalition of parties ſeemed now to be again practicable, and overtures to that purpoſe were made to Mr. Pitt, and the other leaders in oppoſition; but after repeated

repeated conferences, the negociations for that purpoſe terminated ineffectually.

In conſequence of the ill ſucceſs of the recent attempt at reconciliation, the rage of party ſeemed more inflamed than ever, and the preſs teemed with political pamphlets on each ſide, couched in terms of the extremeſt virulence and abuſe. Theſe the miniſtry ſeemed totally and wiſely to diſregard, till on the appearance of the 45th number of a periodical publication ſtyled "The North Briton," containing a perſonal and very indecent attack upon the king, charging him with affirming a direct falſehood in his ſpeech from the throne; it was in an evil hour judged expedient, for the vindication of his majeſty's honour, to exert every effort of government to reſcue the ſovereign from an imputation, the impreſſion made by which, had it been regarded with the dignity of ſilent contempt, would probably have laſted only till the 46th number had promulgated ſome new abuſe, as impudent, as malignant, and as futile, as the former. No miniſter had been more virulently attacked than Mr. Pitt, nor did the political publications of the times ſpare the perſon of the late king; but Mr. Pitt, on being urged to proſecute the libellers, replied only with a ſmile, that the preſs was like the air, "a chartered libertine." The well-known author of the publication in queſtion was Mr. Wilkes, member of parliament for Ayleſbury, in Buckinghamſhire. A warrant was iſſued under the hand and ſeal of lord Halifax, directed to certain of his majeſty's meſſengers in the uſual official form, commanding them to apprehend the authors, printers, and publiſhers, of that ſeditious and treaſonable paper. On the 29th of April, 1763, late at night, the meſſengers entered the houſe of Mr. Wilkes, and produced their warrant, with which, on account of the general terms in which it was drawn, he abſolutely refuſed compliance; but on their return the next morning, he was compelled to accompany them to the office of the ſecretary of ſtate, whence he was committed cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his papers being previouſly ſeized and ſealed, and all acceſs to his perſon ſtrictly prohibited. Application being made to the court of common pleas for an habeas corpus, a writ was accordingly iſſued, directed to the conſtable of the Tower, in conſequence of which, Mr. Wilkes was brought up the next day to Weſtminſter-hall; and the caſe being new and important, he was, after the pleadings were finiſhed, remanded till Friday, May 6, that the judges might have leiſure to form their opinion. On that day, being again brought before them, lord-chief-juſtice Pratt, afterwards lord Camden, proceeded to give the opinion of the court. He declared, as to the leading points involved in this complex queſtion, the commitment of Mr. Wilkes to be not in itſelf illegal, being juſtified by numerous precedents; and though in ſtrict contemplation of law the warrant of the ſecretary of ſtate was not of ſuperior force to that of a juſtice of peace; where a combination of circumſtances gave a ſtrong ſuſpicion of facts incompatible with the public ſafety, he was ſupported in the commitment even without receiving any particular information for the foundation of the charge. As to the ſecond objection, the court was of opinion, that there was no neceſſity for the ſpecification of thoſe particular paſſages in the 45th number of The North Briton, which had been deemed a libel. The paper did not, at that time, come under the cognizance of the court, nor could it without the aſſiſtance of a jury. As to the third head, the chief-juſtice admitted, that the privilege of parliament was violated in the perſon of Mr. Wilkes; for the privilege of parliament could be forfeited only by treaſon, felony, or breach of the peace; but Mr. Wilkes ſtood accuſed only of writing a libel, which did not come within that deſcription. The court then diſcharged Mr. Wilkes, againſt whom nevertheleſs a proſecution was immediately commenced by the attorney-general; and he was at the ſame time, by an official notice from the ſecretary of ſtate to lord Temple, lord-lieutenant of the county of Bucks, diſmiſſed from his military command as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia; and lord Temple was himſelf in a ſhort time diſmiſſed from his lieutenancy, to make room for lord Le Deſpencer, late ſir Francis Daſhwood.

Upon the meeting of parliament, November 15, 1763, before the king's ſpeech could be reported to the houſe, the miniſter, Mr. Grenville, knowing the intention of Mr. Wilkes to prefer a formal complaint of the breach of privilege committed in his perſon, declared, that he had a meſſage to deliver from the king. The meſſage being read, imported, "that his majeſty having received information that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, he had cauſed the ſaid John Wilkes, eſq. to be apprehended and ſecured, in order to take his trial in due courſe of law. And Mr. Wilkes having been diſcharged out of cuſtody by the court of common pleas, on account of his privilege as a member of that houſe, and having ſince refuſed to anſwer to an information filed againſt him by his majeſty's attorney-general; his majeſty, deſirous to ſhow all poſſible attention to the privileges of the houſe of commons, and at the ſame time ſolicitous not to ſuffer the public juſtice of the kingdom to be eluded, had choſen to direct the ſaid libel, and alſo copies of the examinations upon which Mr. Wilkes was apprehended and ſecured, to be laid before them:" and the miniſter then delivered the papers in at the table. On this a violent debate aroſe, and the houſe, moſt unwiſely making itſelf a principal in the quarrel, and entering with violence into this vexatious and perplexing buſineſs, voted by a great majority, "that The North Briton, Number 45, is a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious, libel, manifeſtly tending to alienate the affections of the people from his majeſty, and to excite them to traitorous inſurrections;" and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. Thus was this queſtion, ſo inſignificant in its origin, ſwelled to vaſt and national importance. No legal conviction having as yet taken place, Mr. Wilkes now made his complaint to the houſe, of breach of privilege by the impriſonment of his perſon, the plunder of his houſe, the ſeizure of his papers, and the ſerving him with a ſubpœna upon an information in the court of king's bench. The complaint being perfectly regular, it was reſolved to take it into conſideration; and on the 23d of November, the houſe reſolved, by a majority of 125, in direct contradiction of the late deciſion of the court of common pleas, *and the precedents upon record in their own Journals*, "that privilege of parliament does not extend to the caſe of libel;" and an addreſs was preſented to his majeſty, in which the peers concurred, ſignifying their deteſtation of theſe ſeditious practices, and their warm affection for his majeſty's perſon and government. Mr. Pitt, who attended the houſe on this occaſion, though obliged by illneſs to be ſupported to his ſeat, declared himſelf with warmth againſt the reſolution now paſſed. No man, he ſaid, could condemn the paper or libel more than he did; but he would come at the author fairly, not by a ſacrifice of their conſtitutional privileges, and by ſubjecting every member who did not vote with the miniſter, to the dread and danger of impriſonment. The dignity of parliament called upon them doubtleſs to ſupport and protect the purity of his majeſty's character: this they had done by a ſtrong and deciſive condemnation of the libel in queſtion; the reſt belonged to the courts below.

In purſuance of the former vote, the ſheriffs of London attempting to execute the order of the houſe of commons for burning the 45th number of The North Briton at the Royal Exchange, a violent riot enſued; the paper was reſcued from the hands of the executioner, the peace-officers were attacked, and the ſheriffs themſelves put in danger of their lives. Upon this the two houſes reſolved, that the rioters were perturbators of the public peace, dangerous to the liberties of this country, and obſtructors of the national juſtice. The thanks of the commons were voted to the ſheriffs, and an addreſs preſented to his majeſty,

majeſty, that he would give directions for the puniſhment of the rioters. Parliament now began ſenſibly to feel the ill effects of its indiſcretion, in thus committing themſelves by an eager interference with a buſineſs to which their juriſdiction did not extend, and of which the eſtabliſhed courts of judicature alone could properly take cognizance. Notwithſtanding the votes, addreſſes, and reſolutions, of the two houſes, Mr. Wilkes brought his action againſt the earl of Halifax for ſeizing his papers; and, on the 6th of December, 1763, after an hearing of fifteen hours before lord-chief-juſtice Pratt, and a ſpecial jury, he obtained a verdict for one thouſand pounds damages and full coſts of ſuit. In the charge given by the chief-juſtice on this occaſion to the jury, his lordſhip, varying in ſome degree from his former opinion, ventured to declare the *general warrant* under which Mr. Wilkes was apprehended, *illegal*; with ſubmiſſion, however, to the opinions of the other judges, and of the higheſt judicial authority in this kingdom, the houſe of peers. "If, (ſaid his lordſhip,) theſe ſuperior juriſdictions ſhould declare my opinion erroneous, I ſubmit, as will become me, and kiſs the rod: but I muſt ſay, I ſhall always conſider it as a rod of iron for the chaſtiſement of the people of Great Britain."

Scarcely was this affair diſpoſed of, than the miniſter, Mr. Grenville, determined upon a meaſure in its tendency and ultimate conſequences the moſt intereſting and important which ever perhaps came under the cognizance of the Britiſh parliament. This was the project of taxing America. The plan had been formerly propoſed to ſir Robert Walpole; but that ſagacious ſtateſman replied, "that it was a meaſure too hazardous for him to venture upon; he ſhould therefore leave it to ſome more daring ſucceſſor in office to make the experiment." Mr. Grenville declared his intention to be, "to raiſe a revenue in America in aid to the mother country, the entire produce of which was to be paid into the exchequer of Great Britain." On the 10th of March, 1764, the houſe of commons, therefore, at the motion of the miniſter, paſſed a variety of reſolutions, reſpecting certain new duties on foreign goods imported into the Britiſh colonies in America, which being primarily of the nature of commercial regulations, paſſed without any diſtinct or particular notice in the Britiſh parliament, though their equivocal complexion rendered them very diſtaſteful to the Americans. But in the ſeries of parliamentary reſolutions was one of ſuch peculiar importance, that Mr. Grenville himſelf declared his intention to reſerve the execution of it till the next year. This reſolution imported, that it would be proper to impoſe certain ſtamp duties in the ſaid colonies and plantations, for the purpoſe of raiſing an American revenue payable into the Britiſh exchequer. This new proſpect of being relieved by the taxation of America from a portion of the national burdens was ſo flattering, that the reſolution paſſed the houſe with no ſerious oppoſition.

On the 30th of December in this ſame year, (1764,) died at Rome, in a far advanced age, the pretender, James Stuart, called the chevalier de St. George, only ſon of James II. Born with the proſpect of inheriting three powerful kingdoms, he experienced during the courſe of a long life only a ſucceſſion of misfortunes. So entirely had he ſurvived his political conſequence, that the intelligence of his death was received in Great Britain with the utmoſt indifference; though his pretenſions to the Britiſh crown had, within the memory of the majority of perſons then living, excited the higheſt apprehenſion and alarm. The chevalier left two ſons, upon the eldeſt of whom devolved that ſhadow of a ſhade, the divine and indefeaſible right of ſucceſſion to the throne of Great Britain. The younger, educated an eccleſiaſtic, had been advanced to the purple under the appellation of cardinal of York; and he remains the laſt claimant of the fallen honours of the ancient and royal houſe of Stuart.

Early in the year 1765, the queſtion reſpecting American taxation was revived with redoubled warmth and vigour. The indulgence of the miniſter in deferring the impoſition of the ſtamp duties till the preſent year, had not produced any advances towards an accommodation. The difference of principle occaſioned by the agitation of this queſtion, was in fact far too great to admit of any amicable compromiſe. Numerous petitions were therefore tranſmitted from the different colonies againſt this new principle of taxation. But the miniſter was inflexible; and anarchy followed.

On the 14th of January, 1766, the parliament being convened for the diſpatch of buſineſs, their attention was arreſted by the diſturbances and tumults which had taken place in almoſt all parts of the continent of America, in conſequence of the ſtamp act. As the queſtion relative to this famous act was chiefly a conteſt of principle, founded on the juſtice of taxing the colonies for the protection afforded them, it is ſcarcely worth while to remark the abſurdity ariſing from the paſſing, and immediate repeal, of the act itſelf. For the repeal, Mr. Pitt's arguments were deciſive. He inſiſted that their protection was abundantly compenſated by the profits of their commerce. "I ſpeak from accurate knowledge when I ſay, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, is two millions per annum. This is the fund which carried you triumphantly through the laſt war; this is the price America pays you for her protection; and ſhall a miſerable financier come with a boaſt that he can fetch a pepper-corn into the exchequer at the loſs of millions to the nation? I know the valour of your troops; I know the ſkill of your officers; I know the force of this country; but in ſuch a cauſe your ſucceſs would be hazardous. America, if ſhe fell, would fall like the ſtrong man; ſhe would embrace the pillars of the ſtate, and pull down the conſtitution with her. Is this your boaſted peace? Not to ſheath the ſword in the ſcabbard, but to ſheath it in the bowels of your countrymen? The Americans have been wronged; they have been driven to madneſs by injuſtice. Will you puniſh them for the madneſs you have occaſioned? No: let this country be the firſt to reſume its prudence and temper: I will pledge myſelf for the colonies, that, on their part, animoſity and reſentment will ceaſe. Let affection be the only bond of coercion. The ſyſtem of policy I would earneſtly exhort Great Britain to adopt, is, That the ſtamp act be repealed abſolutely, totally, and immediately." In a ſhort time a bill was brought in for this purpoſe, which paſſed both houſes by conſiderable majorities, and received the royal aſſent; accompanied at the ſame time with a declaratory act, aſſerting the power and right of Great Britain, nevertheleſs, to bind the colonies in all caſes whatſoever. The joy in America was extreme at the intelligence of this repeal; and the mere declaration of an abſtract right, which they imagined to be with reſpect to the claim of taxation in fact relinquiſhed, and which ſeemed chiefly intended as a ſalvo for the honour of parliament, gave them little apprehenſion or uneaſineſs; and it was not till after an interval of ſeveral years, when the colonies had been haraſſed and wearied out by a long ſeries of vexations, that the aſſembly of Maſſachuſetts at length, by a formal reſolution, voted the declaratory act to be a grievance.

Though in actual circumſtances nothing could be more wiſe and ſeaſonable than the repeal of the ſtamp act, it is not to be imagined that this was a meaſure attended with no political inconvenience; far from it: but in the dilemma to which miniſtry were reduced, they adopted that line of conduct which juſtice and policy marked out, and which appeared incomparably the leaſt of the two difficulties. By an egregious want of penetration, the government of Great Britain had attempted to carry into effect a meaſure, which upon trial it was found impoſſible, without bloodſhed and confuſion, to enforce. But as political power exiſts only by opinion, this project, however abſurd, could not be relinquiſhed without ex-

poſing the legiſlative authority of Great Britain to the riſk of at leaſt a temporary degradation. By their ſucceſs in this firſt inſtance of oppoſition and reſiſtance, the Americans would be encouraged and incited (ſuch is the nature of man) to diſpute the authority of the mother country when it happened to be in other inſtances exerted in a mode not agreeable to them, however neceſſary to maintain the juſt and conſtitutional ſubordination of the colonies. This was remarkably exemplified in the conduct of the aſſembly of the province of New York, who came to a reſolution, that they would not regard the proviſions of an act paſſed in the laſt ſeſſion, by which they were required to ſupply the troops ſtationed in the province with neceſſaries in their quarters.

When this inſtance of diſobedience and contumacy was laid before parliament, very rigorous meaſures of vengeance were urged by thoſe whoſe violent counſels had already been productive of ſo much miſchief. But the miniſters, purpoſely avoiding all harſh and poſitive penalties, adopted a meaſure at once forcible and dignified, by enacting a law prohibiting the governor, council, and aſſembly, of New York, to paſs any act till they had in every reſpect complied with the requiſition of parliament. This in a ſhort time produced the deſired effect, and it afforded a demonſtrative evidence, that the real and practical authority of Great Britain, wiſely and temperately exerted, was fully equal to the purpoſe of maintaining that relation of ſuperiority and dependence which indiſputably ought to ſubſiſt between the head and the members of a great and widely-extended empire.

Happy would it have been, had the miniſtry diſcovered in all other parts of their conduct the ſame prudence and policy. But through ſome unaccountable fatality, the project was revived of drawing a revenue from America, in a mode not indeed in all reſpects analogous to that which had been ſo recently abandoned, but which in her irritable ſtate of mind equally ſerved to rekindle thoſe alarms and jealouſies which might reaſonably be ſuppoſed rather allayed than extinguiſhed. In this ſtate of affairs a bill was brought into parliament, and paſſed, for the impoſition of certain duties on glaſs, tea, paper, and painters' colours, imported from Great Britain into the colonies; for, though by the repeal of the ſtamp act the exerciſe of the right of internal taxation was allowed to be virtually relinquiſhed, the claim of external taxation was affirmed ſtill to remain in full force. The Americans by this act were reduced to a moſt grievous embarraſſment. It had been ever uniformly acknowledged that Great Britain poſſeſſed the right of commercial regulation and controul; it could not be denied that port duties had been at former periods impoſed for the purpoſe of commercial regulation, particularly by the act paſſed in the ſixth year of the reign of the late king, on the importation of foreign rums, ſugars, and melaſſes, from the Weſt Indies. It could not be pretended with conſiſtency and plauſibility that the ſame power did not now inhere in the Britiſh parliament; but it was at the ſame time impoſſible not to diſcern that this power was in the preſent inſtance exerciſed with a very different intention, and for the accompliſhment of a very different object; and that by a ſpecies of artifice unworthy of a great nation, an attempt was now made to inveigle them into the payment of that revenue which could not be extorted by means more direct and unequivocal. When the intelligence of this new plan reached America, a ſudden and angry gloom univerſally took place of the hilarity and good humour which had predominated ſince the ſuppoſed relinquiſhment of the plan of American taxation. Mercantile combinations immediately became general, not to import thoſe articles on which the new duties were laid, the trivial amount of which did not diminiſh the odium attending them; the Americans comparing theſe duties to an entering wedge, deſigned to make way for others which would be greater and heavier.

The laſt buſineſs which occupied the attention of parliament before its receſs in 1767, related to the affairs of the Eaſt-India company. The prodigious acquiſitions recently made in the eaſt, and the princely fortunes accumulated by thoſe who occupied the higher departments in the company's ſervice, ſtrongly attracted the attention of the public. At a general court held at the India-houſe, it was affirmed by many of the proprietors to be highly reaſonable, that a larger dividend ſhould be declared by the directors, and that the whole body ſhould participate in the advantages of their late ſucceſſes; inſiſting, that ſo low a dividend as ſix per cent. agreed but ill with the preſent flouriſhing ſtate of the company's affairs. It was plauſibly urged, that the Dutch Eaſt-India company divided twenty per cent. upon its capital, though their poſſeſſions and revenues were in no degree equal to thoſe of the Engliſh. The directors, who, by the ſuperior ſagacity of their conduct, have frequently expoſed the dangerous fallacy of a confident reliance on the collective wiſdom of a popular aſſembly, replied with much good ſenſe and prudence, "that although great advantages had certainly been gained, it was not leſs true, that vaſt expences had been incurred by the unexampled extent and duration of their military operations. The profits of the company, they ſaid, were comparatively remote and precarious; their debts urgent and certain. Juſtice and good policy, therefore, concurred in recommending the previous diſcharge of incumbrances, ere they thought of appropriating the profits. Recal, ſaid they, the tranſactions of the South-Sea year, and conſider the pernicious effects of the fraudulent arts then uſed for raiſing the value of that ſtock. A conſiderable augmentation of dividend will raiſe the price of our fund to an extraordinary height, at which it cannot poſſibly be ſupported. Thus freſh fuel will be added to the ardour for gaming, a wider field will be opened for ſtock-jobbing, and all the myſterious iniquities of 'Change-alley. By your precipitance you will create a new South-Sea bubble, which will ultimately burſt on your own heads."

The proprietary, far from being ſatisfied with theſe reaſonings, reproached the directors with an intention to monopoliſe the riches of the company, and, by their futile and abſurd cavils, prevent all increaſe of dividend to ſwell their own enormous heaps. A dividend of twelve and a half per cent. was accordingly declared; when the parliament, in conſequence of an application from the company for the renewal of their charter, entered into a ſerious inveſtigation of the ſtate of the company's finances. It was without heſitation aſſerted, that a commercial company could not legally acquire territorial rights; and that the revenues annexed to thoſe rights appertained ſolely to the crown. The company, dreading the conſequences of a competition ſo formidable, voluntarily offered an annual ſum of four hundred thouſand pounds to the government, in lieu of all its claims; and a temporary agreement for two years only was concluded upon theſe terms, the queſtion of right remaining undecided. A bill, which the urgency of the caſe only could warrant, was at the ſame time brought into the houſe, reſcinding, by an high exertion of legiſlative authority, the late reſolution of the general court, and confining the dividends of the company to ten per cent. during the continuance of the agreement made with the government, which paſſed with much oppoſition; the ſecretary of ſtate, and the chancellor of the exchequer, on this occaſion, to the aſtoniſhment of the public, voting in the minority. This important bill originated with, and was ſupported by the powerful patronage of, the duke of Grafton, then at the head of the treaſury, who clearly diſcerned the neceſſity of adopting timely and deciſive meaſures of prevention, in oppoſition to the daring and nefarious deſigns of thoſe perſons, who hoped, by declaring an enormous dividend, and advancing the transfer price of the ſtock to a proportionate height, to take the ſame advantage of the public deluſion, as their predeceſſors in the ever-memorable year 1720. General Conway, ſecretary of ſtate, from motives free from any

taint of ſuſpicion, oppoſed the bill in queſtion, under the too ſcrupulous apprehenſion of its eſtabliſhing an arbitrary precedent. The oppoſition to this bill in the houſe of lords was truly formidable. The Rockingham and Grenville parties united in the reprobation of it. The diviſions in the different ſtages were uncommonly cloſe; and the miniſter, who defended the meaſure with great ability, was able on two ſucceſſive trials to command a majority of three voices only; more than 120 peers being preſent. At length it paſſed on a diviſion of 59 to 44 voices. The ideas of lord Chatham, who ſtill maintained an intimate and confidential intercourſe with the duke of Grafton, went to an abſolute and unqualified denial of the legal and conſtitutional right of the company to the territorial revenue, and the political juriſdiction annexed to it, as utterly incompatible with their commercial capacity, and totally foreign to the nature of the privileges veſted in them by charter.

This intereſting ſeſſion did not terminate till July 2, 1767, when the want of cordiality amongſt the miniſters became apparent. Soon after the prorogation, the king wrote with his own hand to the earl of Chatham, acquainting him with his intention to make certain alterations in the adminiſtration, and deſiring his lordſhip's aſſiſtance and advice. But lord Chatham ſignified to his majeſty, that ſuch was his ſtate of health as to render him incapable of affording the leaſt aid in ſettling any future arrangement; but acknowledging the neceſſity of ſtrengthening the hands of government, by a coalition either with the Rockingham or Grenville party. A change of miniſtry being now confidently expected, the duke of Newcaſtle exerted his utmoſt efforts to unite the houſes of Ruſſel and Wentworth, conſcious that a firm and cordial coaleſcence could alone render their oppoſition formidable, or their adminiſtration permanent. This, however, was extremely difficult to effect, from the difference of opinion that ſubſiſted relative to the affairs of America. At length various mutual ſacrifices being made to facilitate the formation of a new adminiſtration on a comprehenſive baſis, at a meeting held July 20, lord Rockingham was, by univerſal conſent, fixed upon as the moſt proper perſon to preſide at the board of treaſury. The marquis then propoſed general Conway for ſecretary of ſtate and miniſter of the houſe of commons, to which the duke of Bedford poſitively objecting, the conference was diſſolved; and at a ſubſequent meeting, the marquis perſiſting in this nomination, all ideas of an union vaniſhed, it being fully underſtood that the two parties would not recede in any degree from their oppoſite ſyſtems reſpecting America; and the miniſters actually in office determined to maintain their ground in defiance of all oppoſition. But on the ſudden death of Mr. Charles Townſend, chancellor of the exchequer, in September, 1767, he was ſucceeded in that office by the celebrated lord North, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Guildford. His abilities, though by no means of the firſt claſs, were far removed from contempt; his knowledge of buſineſs was extenſive, his integrity unimpeached; and, though indolent and unenterpriſing by conſtitution, he was occaſionally capable of reſolute and perſevering exertion. It muſt, however, be remarked, that a certain indiſtinctneſs and confuſion of ideas unfortunately pervaded his general ſyſtem of thinking; and, though he ſeemed habitually to aim at the thing which was right, and often made a conſiderable approach towards it, he almoſt invariably ſtopped ſhort of the true and genuine ſtandard of political propriety. With the reputation of meaning well, therefore, he acquired the imputation of indeciſion and inſtability; and the general tenor of his adminiſtration muſt certainly be allowed to exhibit very few indications of energy, wiſdom, or force of penetration. But the character of this nobleman will be beſt appreciated by poſterity, in contemplating that faithful portraiture of his actions and conduct, which it is the province of hiſtory to delineate. Mr. Thomas Townſhend ſucceeded lord North as paymaſter of the forces; Mr. Jenkinſon Mr. Townſhend as a lord of the treaſury. Lord Chatham, though he held the privy ſeal, and had retired, oppreſſed with illneſs and diſcontent, to his ſeat in Somerſetſhire, was no longer conſulted, from cauſes which require no additional explanation, either as to the arrangements actually made, or with reſpect to thoſe which were ſtill in view.

The earl of Northington, who had occupied, amid the ſucceſſive changes of five different adminiſtrations, the high offices of lord keeper, lord chancellor, and lord preſident, now broken in health, and weary of politics, at this juncture declaring his reſolution to reſign; new advances were made to the Bedford party, who, convinced that an accommodation with lord Rockingham was impracticable, determined at length to cloſe with theſe offers. About the end of the year, earl Gower was nominated preſident of the council, in the room of the earl of Northington; lord Weymouth, ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of general Conway, promoted in the military line; and lord Hillſborough was appointed to the new office of ſecretary of ſtate for the colonies, the creation of which place was ſuppoſed with reaſon to indicate ſome new and extraordinary meaſures. The earl of Chatham, at preſent only the ſhadow of a mighty name, and ſequeſtered in the groves of Burton Pynſent, ceaſed to be mentioned by the public. After the lapſe of ſome months, perceiving, or believing that he perceived, a malignant influence gaining ground, calculated to oppoſe and counteract the eſſential intereſts of the people, he determined upon a reſignation; and in October, 1768, not being able, or not deigning himſelf to appear at court, he ſent the privy ſeal to the king, by the hands of lord Camden; it was immediately delivered to the earl of Briſtol. Nearly at the ſame time, the earl of Shelburne, zealouſly attached to the earl of Chatham, reſigned the ſeals of the ſouthern department to the earl of Weymouth, who was ſucceeded by the earl of Rochford, late ambaſſador at Paris.

Parliament was convened early in 1768; but nothing peculiarly intereſting or important occurred in the courſe of the ſeſſion, with the ſingle exception of a bill introduced and patroniſed by the oppoſition, under the denomination of the *nullum tempus bill*, for quieting the poſſeſſions of the ſubject, and ſecuring them from all obſolete and vexatious claims of the crown, againſt which it was held to be a maxim of law that no preſcription could be pleaded. This bill originated in an incident of an extraordinary nature. The Portland family had, in conſequence of a grant from king William, poſſeſſed for ſeventy years the honour of Penrith and its appurtenances, ſituated in the county of Cumberland. The foreſt of Inglewood, and the manor and caſtle of Carliſle, being conſidered as parts of this grant, were quietly enjoyed by the family for ſeveral deſcents, under the ſame tenure, though not particularly ſpecified. Sir James Lowther, being apprized of this omiſſion, made an application to the crown for a leaſe of the premiſes in queſtion; and the ſurveyor-general of the crown lands, though no lawyer, nor acting on the opinion of any lawyer, took upon him to decide, that theſe eſtates were ſtill veſted in the crown. Orders were therefore iſſued for a new grant to ſir James Lowther, in which the foccage of Carliſle was rated at fifty pounds per annum, and the foreſt of Inglewood at fourteen ſhillings and fourpence; though in reality of immenſe value, and commanding an extenſive election influence. When the board of treaſury met, after a long adjournment, the duke of Portland preſented to the lords a memorial, in which he prayed to be heard by their lordſhips in defence of his title. He was informed that no ſtep would be adopted to his prejudice, till an impartial inveſtigation had taken place. But whilſt the duke's agents and ſolicitors were employed in a laborious ſearch into ancient and mouldered monuments, ſurveys, and court-rolls, his grace was informed, that the grant was actually completed; and, notwithſtanding the caveat entered in the court

court of exchequer, the chancellor, lord North, affixed the ſeal, in purſuance of a poſitive order from the lords of the treaſury.

When this buſineſs came under parliamentary diſcuſſion, the miniſter maintained, "that the premiſes in queſtion were no part of the honour of Penrith, and that the reſumption was therefore juſtifiable; that the family of Portland was ſufficiently paid for any ſervices which it might have rendered the nation; and, after enjoying for ſeventy years an eſtate to which it had no right, it was ſaid they might now be contented to reſign it into the hands of the true owner." The oppoſition replied, "that the revival of the obſolete and dormant prerogative of reſumption, in the face of a long and uninterrupted preſcription, was in the higheſt degree alarming; that reſumptions had been practiſed even in the worſt of times with great caution, from the general abhorrence which every act of that kind muſt excite. The maxim on which they were founded, was aſſerted to be the diſgrace of the government, and the ſcandal of the law; and it could ſcarcely have been imagined, that the moſt enlightened ages would revive a practice which the darkeſt times had held in deteſtation. All the lands of the kingdom have been at different times in the hands of the ſovereigns, and a large proportion of them, from the loſs of authentic deeds, may be liable to ſimilar claims; and thus the ſubject may be haraſſed and ruined by frivolous and vexatious ſuits, without the means of redreſs. To ground a proceeding of this nature upon the mere report of the ſurveyor-general of the crown, unſupported by any authority of law, was reprobated as a mockery and inſult, amounting to an evident abandonment of every principle of equity and juſtice. When the royal revenue aroſe only from demeſne lands, reſumptions might be more eaſily pardonable; but when a vaſt permanent revenue was ſettled by parliament on the crown, the plea of neceſſity is wholly precluded; not to mention that the reſerved rent was too contemptible a conſideration to be ſuppoſed in the remoteſt degree to have influenced the reſumption." The miniſtry contended, that further time was neceſſary for the full inveſtigation of the ſubject; however, the *nullum tempus bill* paſſed into a law; and thus the oppreſſion of an individual, agreeably to the happy genius of the Engliſh conſtitution, became the means of extending and ſecuring the rights and liberties of the community at large. When this great cauſe was argued before the barons of the exchequer, the late grant was judged invalid, as contrary to the ſtatute of queen Anne, which enacts, that, upon every grant, leaſe, or aſſurance, from the crown, the reſerved rent be not leſs than one-third of the clear yearly value of ſuch lands, manors, or meſſuages, as ſhall be contained in ſuch leaſe or grant; and, to the infinite ſatisfaction of every impartial perſon, ſir James Lowther was finally nonſuited, after having thrown the whole county of Cumberland into the utmoſt confuſion: above four hundred ejectments being, as it is affirmed, ſerved by the agents of ſir James Lowther upon the ſub-tenants and actual occupants of thoſe extenſive demeſnes, in one day.

The Britiſh parliament, having nearly completed the legal term of its exiſtence, was diſſolved; and the enſuing general election was ſignalized above all others, by the immenſe ſums expended in electioneering conteſts. The current price of boroughs was enormouſly raiſed by the rival plunderers of the eaſt and of the weſt, who, by a new ſpecies of alchemy, had tranſmuted into Engliſh gold the blood of Africa and the tears of Hindooſtan. Many private fortunes were ruined, or materially impaired, by conteſts carried on with the utmoſt political depravity. The circumſtances attending the election for Middleſex alone, however, demand, from their ſuperior connection with general politics, the ſpecific notice of hiſtory.

It is neceſſary to call to mind that Mr. Wilkes, by his contumacious contempt of the proceedings inſtituted againſt him in the courts at Weſtminſter, ſuffered a ſentence of outlawry to be paſſed upon him; and for ſeveral years preceding this period he had reſided in different parts of the continent. But at the eve of the preſent election he had the temerity to appear publicly at Guildhall, and offer himſelf as a candidate for the city of London. On the firſt advancement of the duke of Grafton to the premierſhip, Mr. Wilkes had written to that nobleman in a ſtrain ſufficiently reſpectful, and even flattering, "congratulating his country on that event, and entreating his grace to mediate his pardon from the king; declaring, that he had never in any moment of his life ſwerved from the duty and allegiance he owed his ſovereign, and profeſſing in every thing to ſubmit to his majeſty's clemency. Your grace's noble manner of thinking, (ſays he,) and the obligations I have formerly received, which are ſtill freſh in my mind, will, I hope, give a full propriety to this addreſs; and I am ſure, a heart glowing with the ſacred zeal of liberty muſt have a favourable reception from the duke of Grafton." This application was treated with neglect and diſdain; and Mr. Wilkes's hopes of pardon being extinguiſhed, he reſolved to make his enemies feel, if poſſible, the effects of his reſentment.

It is remarkable, that although he was received by the populace with loud acclamations, and a great majority of hands appeared in his favour at Guildhall, he was on the poll contemptuouſly rejected. Far from being diſpirited by this defeat, he immediately declared himſelf a candidate for Middleſex; and the electors for this county conſiſting chiefly of freeholders of the loweſt claſs, he was returned by a deciſive majority. Such was the exultation of the populace at this event, that they paraded the ſtreets of the metropolis, and compelled the inhabitants to illuminate their houſes, as if ſome ſignal victory had been gained; and the chief magiſtrate, Harley, was openly and groſsly inſulted by a violent aſſault upon the manſion-houſe. The miniſtry, who had remained unaccountably paſſive at his firſt appearance, now ſeemed to awaken from their lethargy. Mr. Wilkes, having with much diſcretion ſurrendered himſelf to the juriſdiction of the king's bench, obtained a reverſal of his outlawry: but the verdicts given againſt him on both trials were now affirmed by lord Mansfield, and he was in conſequence condemned to ſuffer two years impriſonment; to pay a fine of one thouſand pounds; and to find ſecurity for his good behaviour during the ſpace of ſeven years.

On the 10th of May, 1768, the new parliament was convened, and vaſt multitudes were collected about the king's bench, and the fields adjacent, under the idea of ſeeing Mr. Wilkes go the houſe of commons; when the unfortunate riot took place, in which young Allen was killed. After a very ſhort ſeſſion, and merely paſſing one or two bills *pro forma*, the parliament was prorogued till November. During the receſs, a letter from lord Weymouth, ſecretary of ſtate, addreſſed to the chairman of the bench of juſtices for the county of Surry, and expreſſive of the higheſt approbation of the late proceedings of the magiſtrates, fell into the hands of Mr. Wilkes, who immediately publiſhed it, with a preface ſufficiently daring and indignant. When the parliament met, lord Weymouth made a formal complaint of breach of privilege, and the houſe of commons with little heſitation reſolved this prefatory introduction to be "an inſolent, ſcandalous, and ſeditious, libel." And it being alſo urged that Mr. Wilkes was ſentenced to a long impriſonment for former offences of a ſimilar nature, and incapable of attending his duty in parliament, it was moved by lord Barrington, ſecretary at war, that he be expelled the houſe. His lordſhip's motion was ſeconded by Mr. Rigby, paymaſter of the forces, and carried by a great majority. It was however affirmed, "that the libel with which Mr. Wilkes now ſtood charged, did not come properly under the cognizance of the houſe. If the privileges of the peers were violated, or their proceedings arraigned, they were competent to the vindication of their own honour. For the other libels he has been already expelled. Shall the

the houſe puniſh twice for the ſame offence? Shall we act in direct oppoſition, not to the forms only, but to the very eſſence of the conſtitution? Shall we blend the executive and judicial powers with the legiſlative, and take upon ourſelves the odium of trying and puniſhing in a ſummary manner an offence cognizable by the laws in the ordinary courts of judicature?"

It is ſingular, that the apparently obvious and probable conſequence of this expulſion, does not ſeem to have occurred either to the miniſters of the crown, or to the members in oppoſition. But whatever might have been previouſly expected, the fact is, that, a new writ being iſſued, Mr. Wilkes was a ſecond time returned with the greateſt unanimity. The houſe now began to perceive the dilemma in which it had with ſuch haſte involved itſelf. By proceeding in this buſineſs, they muſt incur the reſentment of the electors; by receding, it were impoſſible to eſcape cenſure. Preferring what appeared to them the leaſt of two evils, they reſolved, "that Mr. Wilkes, having been once expelled, was incapable of ſitting in the ſame parliament, and that the election was therefore void." The freeholders of Middleſex, equally determined with the houſe of commons, choſe him a third time their repreſentative, with the ſame unanimity. The election was again declared void by the commons; and in order to terminate a conteſt in which the houſe appeared to ſo little advantage, colonel Luttrell voluntarily vacated his ſeat in parliament, with a view to offer himſelf as a candidate for Middleſex; being previouſly aſſured that he ſhould at all events, and whatever might be the diſparity of numbers upon the poll, be the ſitting member. At the fourth election Mr. Wilkes was again returned by the ſheriffs; the votes in his favour being 1243 to 296: but, on a petition from colonel Luttrell, he was, after a vehement debate continued to a very late hour, (March 3, 1769,) declared duly elected!

By this deciſion the nation was thrown into a great conſternation, which only ſerved to ſhew how a comparatively trivial queſtion may be magnified into artificial importance, by making it the object of political and perſonal contention. It could not be denied that the houſe of commons had ever exerciſed a judicial authority, which could in no other hands be ſo properly placed, in determining upon the validity of returns, and the qualifications of their own members. This authority might undoubtedly be abuſed or indiſcreetly exerciſed, but all power is in its own nature liable to abuſe; and if ſo vague an objection be admitted, the powers veſted in all political bodies, however conſtituted, muſt be annihilated, and the bands of civil ſociety are at once diſſolved. The power of expulſion for ſuch offences as appear to the houſe to render any of its members unworthy of the truſt repoſed in them, had been exerciſed in numerous inſtances from time immemorial; and though no caſe preciſely ſimilar to the preſent in all its circumſtances could be adduced, the houſe of commons now exiſting had certainly as valid a right to make a precedent in a new caſe within the limits of their own peculiar juriſdiction as any former houſe of commons, or as the courts ſitting in Weſtminſter-hall; and, had the expulſion of Mr. Wilkes been itſelf a popular meaſure, the ſubſequent ſteps taken by the houſe would no doubt have been deemed perfectly regular, as analogous to the ſpirit of former deciſions, conformable to the general powers of adjudication veſted in the houſe, and neceſſarily flowing from the original and eſtabliſhed parliamentary right of expulſion. It muſt nevertheleſs be acknowledged, that a diſcretionary power of expulſion is liable to be perverted to very bad purpoſes; and therefore it was judged proper by an act paſſed in the courſe of the enſuing ſeſſion, to ſpecify the offences which ſhall in future render incapacitation the neceſſary reſult of expulſion; and thus, inſtead of encroaching on the rights of the people in matters of election, this houſe of commons did in reality fix legal and definite boundaries to their own power.

The houſe of commons proceeded, after the queſtion of the Middleſex election was thus determined, to the uſual buſineſs of the ſeſſion, and thirty-three thouſand men were voted for the ſea and land ſervice of the year 1769. The charter of the Eaſt-India company was prolonged for the further term of five years, on conditions ſimilar to the laſt agreement; but the company were now allowed to increaſe their dividend to twelve and a half per cent. during this term, provided they did not in any one year raiſe it above one per cent. On the other hand, ſhould the dividend be reduced below the preſent ſtandard of ten per cent. the ſtipulated payment of four hundred thouſand pounds per annum to the public ſhould be proportionally diminiſhed; and if the dividend ſhould ſink to ſix per cent. the payment to the public ſhould wholly ceaſe.

In May, 1769, a circular letter was written by the earl of Hillſborough, ſecretary of ſtate for America, to all the different colonies, acquainting them, "that it was the intention of his majeſty's miniſters to propoſe, in the next ſeſſion of parliament, taking off the duties upon glaſs, paper, and colours, on conſideration of ſuch duties having been laid contrary to the true principles of commerce; and aſſuring them, that at no time had they entertained any deſign to propoſe to parliament to lay any further taxes on America for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue." Notwithſtanding the ſalvo of commercial principles, it was ſufficiently evident that this conceſſion was ſolely and wiſely made with a view to conciliate America in this criſis of diſaffection. But as the wiſdom of man is generally blended with a portion of folly, the duty on tea was purpoſely left as a mark of the legiſlative ſupremacy of Britain, very contrary to the inclinations and earneſt endeavours of the miniſter, who, by cogent arguments, demonſtrated in council the impolicy of leaving that fatal germ of contention to expand into incurable animoſity. But though the duke of Grafton was on this occaſion powerfully ſupported by lord Camden, and various other names of the higheſt reſpectability, his grace's ſyſtem of moderation was moſt unfortunately over-ruled in the cabinet; and from this period the duke of Grafton entertained fixed and ſerious ideas of relinquiſhing his ſtation ſo ſoon as a ſucceſſor could be provided by his majeſty.

The ferment raiſed in the nation by the late deciſion of the houſe of commons, ſeemed in the mean time daily to increaſe in violence; the freeholders of the county of Middleſex were highly incenſed, declaring, that the right of election had been wreſted from them, by the unprecedented ſeating of a candidate who was never choſen by the county. The public diſſatisfaction became apparent throughout the kingdom; and their grievances were magnified by an innumerable multitude of political publications, in which the conduct of the adminiſtration was arraigned in the bittereſt terms. Among theſe, the national attention was particularly attracted by a ſeries of letters appearing under the ſignature of *Junius*, and written in a ſtyle ſo maſterly as to be deemed, in point of compoſition, equal to any literary productions in the Engliſh language. They conſiſted, however, of little elſe than ſplendid declamation and poignant invective, and diſcovered a powerful malignity of diſpoſition, which, now the paſſions and follies of the day have vaniſhed, and given place to other paſſions and other follies, muſt excite diſregard; particularly as the author was not, nor probably ever will be, known. Of theſe celebrated letters, by far the moſt memorable is that addreſſed to the king, in which the writer, with equal elegance and energy of diction, affected to exhibit to the view of his ſovereign a moſt ſtriking picture of his adminiſtration. On the appearance of this letter, the attorney-general had orders immediately to file a bill in the court of king's bench, againſt the publiſher, Woodfall, for uttering a falſe and ſeditious libel; but the jury returned their verdict, "Guilty of printing and publiſhing only;" which verdict amounting to an acquittal, the defendant was diſcharged.

By an almoſt total ceceſſion from buſineſs for two years,

the health of lord Chatham was in an unexpected degree reſtored. The parliament met in January, 1770, and, on the motion for an addreſs to the throne, lord Chatham aroſe, and declared, "that, at his advanced period of life, bowing under the weight of his infirmities, he might perhaps have ſtood excuſed if he had continued in his retirement, and never taken part again in public affairs; but the alarming ſtate of the nation called upon him—forced him to come forward once more, and to execute that duty which he owed to God, to his ſovereign, and his country. The ſituation of foreign affairs was, he ſaid, critical; but what more immediately demanded their lordſhips attention, was the diviſions and diſtractions which prevailed in every part of the empire. He lamented thoſe unhappy meaſures which had alienated the colonies from the mother country, and which had driven them into exceſſes he could not juſtify. Such, however, was his partiality to America, that he was inclined to make allowance even for thoſe exceſſes. The diſcontents of three millions of people deſerved conſideration; the foundation of thoſe diſcontents ought to be removed. The diſcontents of the Americans, however, at the preſent criſis were unimportant, in compariſon of thoſe which prevailed in this kingdom. It was an obligation incumbent upon that houſe to enquire into the cauſes of the notorious diſſatisfaction expreſſed by the whole Engliſh nation, to ſtate thoſe cauſes to their ſovereign, and then to give him their beſt advice in order to their being removed;" the motion, however, for this purpoſe, was loſt in a diviſion.

Lord Camden, having in the courſe of the debate condemned in deciſive terms the proceedings of the houſe of commons, and actually dividing with lord Chatham, was immediately compelled to relinquiſh the great ſeal. The removal of that great magiſtrate was followed by the reſignations of the dukes of Beaufort and Mancheſter; the earls of Coventry and Huntingdon, and lord Granby, commander in chief of the forces of Great Britain. The earl of Briſtol chooſing the tranquil and irreſponſible poſt of firſt lord of the bedchamber, vacated by the earl of Huntingdon, the privy ſeal was delivered to the earl of Halifax. On the 22d of January, 1770, the marquis of Rockingham moved for fixing a day to take into conſideration the ſtate of the nation. The 2d of February was fixed upon by the houſe for reſolving itſelf into a committee on this enquiry; but on the 28th of January, the duke of Grafton unexpectedly reſigned his office as firſt lord of the treaſury; and lord North, who had now been two years chancellor of the exchequer, was nominated his ſucceſſor. Thus was at length formed that famous adminiſtration, which exerciſed the powers of government for twelve ſucceſſive years; during which the colonies were diſmembered from the mother country.

On the day ſucceeding the reſignation of the miniſter, the houſe of commons reſolving itſelf into a committee on the ſtate of the nation, Mr. Dowdeſwell moved, "That the houſe, in the exerciſe of its juriſdiction, ought to judge of elections by the law of the land, and by the cuſtom and practice of parliament, which is part of that law." The motion, if adopted, was intended to be followed by other reſolutions, purporting the unequivocal condemnation and conſequent reſcindment of the vote of the laſt ſeſſion. This leading propoſition was ſo ſkilfully worded, that it was impoſſible to put a direct negative upon it; and to evade it by the previous queſtion would only lead to a revival of the ſame motion in a new and varied form. It was therefore with equal parliamentary adroitneſs at once laid at reſt by lord North, who moved as an amendment the additional words: "And that the judgment of this houſe in the caſe of John Wilkes, eſq. was agreeable to the law of the land, and fully authorized by the practice of parliament." Though the amendment was oppoſed with vehemence, as a moſt unfair and diſingenuous perverſion of the true meaning of the reſolution, it was carried upon a diviſion by 224 to 180 voices: thus precluding all hope of redreſs by any future effort in that houſe of parliament.

On the 2d of February, 1770, being the day previouſly fixed upon by the peers for reſolving themſelves into a ſimilar committee, lord Rockingham, after an introductory ſpeech of ſome length, moved, "That the houſe of commons, in the exerciſe of its judicial authority in matters of election, is bound to judge according to the law of the land, and the known and eſtabliſhed law and cuſtom of parliament, which is part thereof." The motion was ſupported with all his accuſtomed warmth and energy by the earl of Chatham, who condemned the conduct of the houſe of commons in terms of great aſperity. He denominated the vote of that houſe, which had made colonel Luttrell repreſentative for Middleſex, "a groſs invaſion of the rights of election, a dangerous violation of the Engliſh conſtitution, and a corrupt ſacrifice of their own honour. To gratify individual reſentment (he ſaid) the laws had been deſpiſed, trampled upon, deſtroyed; thoſe laws which had been made by the ſtern virtue of their anceſtors, the iron barons of old, to whoſe virtue and to whoſe blood, to whoſe ſpirit in the hour of conteſt, and to whoſe fortitude in the triumph of victory, the ſilken barons of this day owe their honours and their ſecurity." The queſtion being now put, it was by a great majority reſolved, that the ſpeaker ſhould reſume the chair; and the original motion being thus evaded, lord Marchmont moved, "That any reſolution of this houſe, directly or indirectly impeaching a judgment of the houſe of commons, in a matter where their juriſdiction is competent, final, and concluſive, would be a violation of the conſtitutional right of the commons, tends to make a breach between the two houſes of parliament, and leads to a general confuſion."

This motion being zealouſly ſupported by lord Mansfield, lord Chatham again roſe, and endeavoured to ſhew the neceſſity of the interference of that houſe, in caſe of an invaſion of the people's liberties, or an unconſtitutional determination of the houſe of commons; and he affirmed, that the caſe of the county of Middleſex fell under both thoſe denominations. Then ſuddenly apoſtrophizing the houſe, he conjured the peerage of England, by the noble blood which had flowed for ſo many ages in their veins, by the glorious ſtruggles of their anceſtors in behalf of liberty, not to behold with indifference a tranſaction ſo alarming. "If, (ſaid he,) my lords, the conſtitution muſt be wounded, let it not receive its mortal ſtab at this dark and midnight hour, (being paſt twelve o'clock,) when almoſt every eye is cloſed in ſleep, and when robbers and aſſaſſins only are awake and prowling for their prey." At half paſt one in the morning the queſtion was put, and decided in the affirmative, though accompanied by an animated proteſt.

On the 1ſt of May, 1770, lord Chatham preſented to the houſe, a bill "for reverſing the adjudications of the houſe of commons, whereby John Wilkes, eſq. has been adjudged incapable of being elected a member to ſerve in this preſent parliament, and the freeholders of the county of Middleſex have been deprived of one of their legal repreſentatives." In deſcanting on the ſubject of this bill, he declared, that a violent outrage had been committed, which ſtruck at every thing ſacred to the liberties of Engliſhmen. The motion for the ſecond reading being negatived, lord Gower moved for its rejection; and, on a diviſion, 89 voted for the motion, 43 againſt it.

Not to be diverted from his purpoſe, lord Chatham made, after a ſhort interval, a motion for an addreſs to the king to diſſolve the parliament. He ſtated "the public diſcontents in England, Ireland, and America; affirmed, that the people had no confidence in the preſent houſe of commons; and ſhewed, from the ſituation of public affairs, the great neceſſity of having a parliament in whom the people can place a proper confidence. Inſtead (he ſaid) of depriving a county of its repreſentative,

one or more members ought to be added to the repreſentation of the counties, in order to operate as a balance againſt the weight of the ſeveral corrupt and venal boroughs. Inſtead of oppreſſing the colonies with a heavy taxation, it is our intereſt to repeal all ſuch laws, and be content with the abundance which accumulates to the treaſury from this commerce."—To this lord North replied—No—the propereſt time to exert our right of taxation is when the right is refuſed. To temporize is to yield; and the authority of the mother country, if it is now unſupported, will in reality be relinquiſhed for ever. A total repeal cannot be thought of till America is proſtrate at our feet.

For more than two years the affairs of America, and the Middleſex election, had ſo engroſſed the attention of the miniſtry, the parliament, and the nation, as almoſt to exclude the conſideration of other ſubjects in themſelves far more important and intereſting. At this period, however, an event forced itſelf upon the public notice, of conſiderable importance to the ſtate. A ſhort time previous to the cloſe of the ſeſſion, lord Chatham had declared, "that a great blow either was, or would ſoon be, ſtruck in ſome part of the world." The high idea univerſally entertained of this nobleman's political information, neceſſarily kept the public mind in a ſtate of ſuſpenſe; but the myſtery was quickly developed, and it was in a few weeks publicly aſcertained, that a ſquadron of Spaniſh ſhips from Buenos Ayres had ſeized upon the Malouine or Falkland iſlands, ſituated in the Magellanic ocean, and of which the Engliſh had been for ſome years the actual occupants or poſſeſſors. Towards the cloſe of the year 1769, captain Hunt, of the Tamer frigate, cruizing off theſe iſlands, fell in with a Spaniſh ſchooner belonging to Port Solidad, and, agreeably to what he conceived to be his duty, charged the commander of the ſchooner to depart from that coaſt, as it was the property of his Britannic majeſty. The ſchooner obeyed; but ſoon returned with an officer on-board, bringing with him a letter from the governor of Buenos Ayres, addreſſed to captain Hunt, in which the governor, in his turn, warned the captain to depart from a coaſt belonging to the king of Spain; but, on the ſuppoſition that captain Hunt's touching at theſe iſlands was merely accidental, the governor expreſſed his earneſt deſire to ſhew him all poſſible civilities. Captain Hunt replied with warmth, that theſe iſlands were the property of the crown of Great Britain, both by diſcovery and ſettlement; and the governor maintaining with equal warmth the rights of the crown of Spain, an altercation of conſiderable length enſued. But in the reſult, captain Hunt was charged with a direct violation of treaties by the governor, who declared it to be his duty to tranſmit the particulars of this tranſaction to the court of Spain. Captain Hunt, perceiving that this buſineſs was of greater importance than he had at firſt apprehended, and not chooſing to take any further ſteps without proper authority, ſet ſail for England, where he arrived in June, 1770, two ſmall ſloops only remaining at the Britiſh Port Egmont. Soon after his departure, a very conſiderable armament, conſiſting of five ſhips of war, with their attendant veſſels, furniſhed with all the apparatus for a regular ſiege, appeared before Port Egmont. Captain Farmer, the commandant, knowing the place to be utterly untenable, ſubmitted, after a few ſhots were fired, to a capitulation; by which he and his whole garriſon were allowed to evacuate the place, carrying with them ſuch of their ſtores as they were able. The commander of the Spaniſh ſquadron, not caring, however, that very early intelligence of this outrage ſhould be carried to England, enjoined captain Farmer not to ſail without his permiſſion; and in order to enſure compliance, he cauſed the rudder of captain Farmer's ſhip, the Favourite, to be taken off and kept on-ſhore, and it was not reſtored for the ſpace of twenty days; an inſult to the Britiſh flag not eaſily paralleled. The Favourite was at length permitted to depart, and, after a voyage of ſeventy days, arrived ſafe at Portſmouth.

No ſooner were the particulars of theſe extraordinary proceedings known in England, than the whole nation appeared inflamed with reſentment, and eager to avenge the national honour, thus groſsly and daringly violated. But a negociation between the two courts immediately commencing, the miniſters of Great Britain inſiſted upon the reſtitution of the iſland on the part of Spain, as a previous ſtep to the determination of the queſtion of right, and as abſolutely neceſſary before an amicable accommodation could take place.

At the enſuing meeting of parliament, in November, 1770, the king acquainted the two houſes, in his ſpeech from the throne, of this inſult which had been offered to the honour of the nation, "by the governor of Buenos Ayres, in ſeizing one of his majeſty's poſſeſſions; and that, ſhould ſatisfaction be refuſed by the court of Spain for this injury, preparations had been and were ſtill making to do ourſelves juſtice." Addreſſes were preſented from both houſes on this occaſion, in a ſtrain calculated to convince the court of Spain, that Engliſhmen, however at variance amongſt themſelves, are ever united, as in a common cauſe, in oppoſition to a common and foreign enemy. The miniſters exerted themſelves to the utmoſt in the equipment of a formidable fleet; and the court of Madrid was ſoon convinced, that, unleſs ſome conceſſions were made, an open rupture muſt enſue. In reply to the demand made by England, the marquis de Grimaldi, the Spaniſh miniſter, alleged, that as England well knew in what light the court of Madrid had ever viewed the ſettlement at Port Egmont, it could not be imagined that the court of Spain could really diſapprove the conduct of the governor of Buenos Ayres, don Buccarelli. But as it was neither the intereſt nor inclination of Spain to involve herſelf in a war with England, his Catholic majeſty was willing to make ſuch conceſſions as ſhould be conſiſtent with his honour and the welfare of his ſubjects; and that inſtructions had been tranſmitted to prince Maſerano, his ambaſſador in London, for this purpoſe. Prince Maſerano accordingly acquainted the Engliſh ſecretary of ſtate, lord Weymouth, that the king of Spain had empowered him to diſavow any particular orders given to M. de Buccarelli, and at the ſame time to ſay that he had acted agreeably to his general inſtructions and oath as governor; that the iſlands ſhould be reſtored; and that it was expected his Britannic majeſty would on his part diſavow captain Hunt's menace, which had prompted the governor to act as he had done.

At this period, lord Weymouth reſigned the ſeals of the ſouthern department to lord Rochford, and a convention was ſoon after concluded on the terms propoſed, but with a ſecret article or engagement annexed, that the iſlands ſhould be evacuated by England within a certain ſpecified term. To this mode of accommodation, lord Weymouth refuſed to accede, as injurious to the honour of Great Britain: but the condition not being known or ſuſpected, it afforded at the time no public ground of objection; and when the evacuation of the iſlands actually took place three years afterwards, the quarrel being almoſt forgotten, and the attention of the public otherwiſe engaged, it paſſed off with ſlight and tranſient animadverſions.

The earl of Halifax now took the ſeals of the northern department in the room of lord Rochford; lord Suffolk ſucceeding lord Halifax as lord privy ſeal; and ſir Edward Hawke relinquiſhed his ſeat at the head of the admiralty to the earl of Sandwich. Mr. George Grenville had departed this life November 13; and many of his friends joining the adminiſtration, the majorities in both houſes, notwithſtanding the general unpopularity of the miniſters, became very formidable.

About the ſame time an incident occurred, which revived in an alarming degree the reſentment of the people againſt

againſt their repreſentatives. Though nothing can appear more reaſonable than that the public at large ſhould be furniſhed with all ſuch means of information, reſpecting the conduct of their repreſentatives in parliament, as may conſiſt with the order and dignity of the houſe, it had been long a ſubject of complaint, that the ſpeeches of the members were, in contempt of the reſolutions of the houſe, regularly printed in the public papers; and ſeveral members having formally ſtated that their ſpeeches had been thus miſrepreſented, a motion was made and carried, that the printers, Wheble and Thompſon, ſhould appear to anſwer this complaint at the bar of the houſe. The printers taking no notice of this general ſummons, a ſecond order was iſſued, and declared to be final. No more regard being paid to the ſecond order than to the firſt, a motion was made, that Wheble and Thompſon ſhould be taken into the cuſtody of the ſerjeant at arms. In conſequence of information from the ſerjeant at arms that the parties had abſconded, a proclamation was iſſued, offering a reward of fifty pounds for apprehending the two printers. Another printer, Miller, was ordered to be taken into cuſtody for contempt of the houſe. Wheble being apprehended in conſequence of the proclamation, and carried before Mr. Wilkes, recently choſen an alderman of London, he was diſcharged by that magiſtrate, and bound over to proſecute the perſon who apprehended him; and in a letter addreſſed to the earl of Halifax, ſecretary of ſtate, Mr. Wilkes declared, "that Wheble had been apprehended in violation of the rights of an Engliſhman, as well as of the chartered privileges of a citizen of London." Thompſon alſo was apprehended, and diſcharged in the ſame manner. Miller being taken into cuſtody by the meſſenger of the houſe of commons, at his own dwelling, was carried before Croſby, lord-mayor, and the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver, at the manſion-houſe. The ſerjeant at arms attending to demand the priſoner, the legality of the warrant was denied, and the printer not only diſcharged, but the meſſenger of the houſe, on pretext of a falſe arreſt, ordered to be committed to priſon in default of bail, which was at the firſt refuſed, but at length given; and for theſe proceedings the thanks of the corporation of London were immediately voted.

The houſe of commons now found themſelves once more reduced to a moſt vexatious perplexity; and the oppoſition, who, as members of the houſe, felt for its honour, and participated in the general indignation excited by this unparalleled affront, reminded the miniſters that to them muſt be imputed the odium under which the houſe had fallen with the people, who embraced with eagerneſs every occaſion to baffle their meaſures. Theſe reflections admitted of little reply, and the lord-mayor and Mr. alderman Oliver, as members of the houſe, were ordered to attend in their places the next day. The lord-mayor pleaded, in his juſtification, that he was bound by oath to preſerve the franchiſes of the city, that his conduct had been ſtrictly agreeable to law, and he demanded to be heard by counſel. This was refuſed, on the ground that no counſel could be heard in oppoſition to the privileges of the houſe; and the lord-mayor's book of minutes being called for, the recognizance of Whittam, the meſſenger, was expunged from the record by order of the houſe; and a reſolution paſſed, that to inſtitute any proceeding at law in this caſe was contrary to the privileges of the houſe; and alſo that it was a breach of privilege to apprehend the meſſenger of this houſe executing his warrant, under the pretence of an aſſault, and that it was a breach of privilege to hold the meſſenger to bail for ſuch pretended aſſault. Mr. Oliver was proceeded againſt in a ſimilar manner; and the two magiſtrates reſolutely refuſing to make any conceſſion or apology, it was at length voted that they be committed priſoners to the Tower.

On the laſt day of the attendance of the lord-mayor, vaſt multitudes of people aſſembling in the vicinity of Weſtminſter-hall, a violent riot took place, and ſeveral of the miniſterial miniſters were groſsly inſulted: lord North himſelf being perſonally attacked, and with difficulty reſcued from the fury of the populace. Mr. Wilkes, having received a ſummons to attend at the bar of the houſe, addreſſed a letter to the ſpeaker, in which he declared that he could attend only in his place as member for the county of Middleſex. After ſome fruitleſs repetitions of the order, the houſe, now deſirous to diſmiſs the buſineſs, ordered a new ſummons for the 8th of April, and appointed the 9th as the firſt day of meeting after the Eaſter receſs. The lord-mayor, and Mr. Oliver, ſoon after their commitment, applied for a writ of *habeas corpus*, which was accordingly iſſued by the court of common pleas; but after very long and learned pleadings, theſe magiſtrates were remanded by the court, and continued in cuſtody till the end of the ſeſſion, when their liberation was celebrated by great rejoicings; and from this time forward the proceedings of parliament, and the ſpeeches of the members, have been publiſhed without interruption or moleſtation.

During the receſs of parliament died the earl of Halifax, a nobleman generous, liberal, and accompliſhed, but as a miniſter unpopular and unfortunate. The earl of Suffolk ſucceeded the earl of Halifax as ſecretary of ſtate for the northern department, and the duke of Grafton accepted the vacant poſt of lord privy ſeal. The miniſter, lord North, notwithſtanding ſome falſe ſteps, evidently gained upon the nation, by the ſuavity of his manners, and his apparent candour and ingenuouſneſs of diſpoſition. The late rupture with Spain, in the view of the public, who were not apprized of the ſecret article of reſtitution, had terminated honourably for England; and his lordſhip ſeemed to ſhew ſome inclination to accommodate the diſputes ſo long ſubſiſting with America. This was further confirmed by the reſignation of the earl of Hillſborough, ſecretary of ſtate for America, who was on various accounts obnoxious to the colonies; and the ſubſequent appointment of the earl of Dartmouth, a nobleman of acknowledged probity, of a mild and lenient temper, and who had uniformly oppoſed in parliament American taxation in every form. Various other changes and promotions alſo took place during the receſs of parliament. The earl of Harcourt ſucceeded lord Townſhend as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and lord Stormont was appointed ambaſſador at the court of Verſailles in the room of lord Harcourt. Mr. Charles Jenkinſon being nominated vice-treaſurer of Ireland, his ſeat at the board of treaſury was filled by the Hon. Charles James Fox, ſecond ſon of lord Holland, a young man who had already arreſted the attention of the public by the extent of his political knowledge, and the ſplendour of his parliamentary talents.

On the 22d of November, 1772, the ſeſſion was opened by an intereſting ſpeech from the throne, in which "the attention of parliament was particularly called to the preſent ſtate of the Eaſt-India company, and the difficulties in which they appeared to be involved; and his majeſty recommended making ſuch proviſions for the common benefit and ſecurity of all the various intereſts concerned, as they ſhould find beſt adapted to the exigencies of the caſe." Little certainly could it have been imagined, that in the ſhort interval which had elapſed ſince the acquiſition of the Dewannee, of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, by which the company appeared to be elevated to the height of proſperity, they ſhould be reduced to a ſtate of embarraſſment and diſtreſs verging upon ruin. No ſooner had the preſidency of Calcutta obtained the government of thoſe vaſt and opulent territories, than a grand project was formed by the preſident, lord Clive, and unanimouſly approved by the board; agreeably to which, the members of the council, and other civil and military ſervants of the company, might be enabled to derive

derive vaſt emoluments, not only without prejudice to their principals, but with great advantage to the company's revenue. This was no other than the eſtabliſhment of a commercial aſſociation, for the purpoſe of carrying on an inland traffic in the important articles of ſalt, betel-nut, and tobacco. Theſe are articles of general conſumption in India, and conſidered as amongſt the abſolute neceſſaries of life; and they had under the ancient government been ſubject to the trifling duty of the fortieth penny. But in order to obtain the ſanction of the company to the commercial ſyſtem now eſtabliſhed, a duty of thirty-five per cent. was impoſed on ſalt, which, with fifteen per cent. on betel-nut, and twenty-five per cent. on tobacco, produced an annual additional revenue of 160,000l. to the company. This, however, was regarded by the natives as a trivial grievance, in compariſon of the mode in which the traffic was conducted: for the ſervants of the company, acting at once in the two-fold capacity of merchants and ſovereigns, "in order (as they expreſſed themſelves) to aſſiſt this infant branch of commerce," the council decreed to the aſſociation, i. e. to themſelves and their copartners, "the free and excluſive purchaſe and ſale;" or, in other words, the complete monopoly, of the above articles; and their governing rule of trade appears invariably to have been to reduce to the loweſt extreme of depreſſion the price in the purchaſe, and to enhance it in the ſame extravagant proportion in the ſale. When this plan was communicated to the directors, they expreſſed much diſpleaſure that ſuch extortion ſhould be practiſed under their authority. "We leave (ſay they to the council) the adjuſtment of the duties on theſe commodities, to your judgment and conſideration: but we think the vaſt fortunes acquired by the inland trade, have been obtained by a ſcene of the moſt oppreſſive and tyrannic conduct ever known in any age or country. Were we to allow it, we ſhould conſider ourſelves as aſſenting and ſubſcribing to all the miſchiefs which Bengal has preſented to us for four years paſt." They approved, therefore, the oppreſſion of the natives ſo far as they themſelves were benefited by it, and no further. But theſe feeble and inconſiſtent remonſtrances were little regarded.

Another device or project of legal plunder was, to declare void at once, to the inexpreſſible conſternation of the zemindars and polygars, who conſtitute the great landed intereſt of the country, all the leaſes held by them under the government, on very low and beneficial terms, by a kind of feudal tenure. The pretext for this was, that many of theſe leaſes had been colluſively obtained; and it was ſaid, that impartiality required that they ſhould be now relet, without diſtinction, to the higheſt bidder. By this enormous act of deſpotiſm, many individuals of very elevated ſituations in life were entirely ruined, immenſe fortunes were made by the favoured few, and the landed revenue of the company, after all, was acknowledged to be very little improved. Notwithſtanding, indeed, every expedient that could be put in practice for the accumulation of wealth, the aggregate receipts of the company's treaſury alarmingly decreaſed; the natives, reduced to poverty, and almoſt deſpair, by perpetual exactions, could no longer purchaſe their favourite articles at the extravagant prices demanded by the monopoliſts. Thoſe that cultivated the ſoil, planted in doubt, and reaped in uncertainty. A large proportion of land was left untilled, and a general ſcarcity of proviſions, particularly of rice, the great ſtaple of Indian ſuſtenance, unavoidably enſued. It was poſſible to exiſt without betel-nut and tobacco, but not without their daily food. The commercial monopoliſts ſeized with avidity the opportunity of collecting the rice into ſtores. As the Gentoos would in no extremity violate the precepts of their religion by eating fleſh, they had no other alternative than to part with the remains of their property, or die with hunger. The people being thus reduced to a wretched ſubſiſtence on unwholeſome and unaccuſtomed roots, a dreadful ſickneſs and mortality enſued. In ſome diſtricts, the living ſcarcely ſufficed to bury the dead; and peſtilence and famine in horrid combination deſolated the land. The waters of the Ganges were infected by the multitude of carcaſſes caſt into the river; whilſt flights of vultures and other birds of prey, attracted in aſtoniſhing numbers by the putreſcent effluvia, completed the ſhocking picture. See the article HINDOOSTAN.

In the courſe of the ſeſſion, a report was preſented to the houſe by general Burgoyne, containing heavy charges againſt individuals in very exalted ſtations, and in which the character and conduct of lord Clive in particular, underwent a moſt ſevere inveſtigation. The depoſition and conſequent death of ſu-rajah Dowla, the direful reſult of a conſpiracy between the ſervants of the company and the ſubjects of the ſubah, was repreſented as an act replete with treachery and cruelty. The inextinguiſhable thirſt of lucre was affirmed to be the real and primary cauſe of this revolution, which proved the ſource of infinite miſchief, and the means correſponded in baſeneſs and turpitude with the end. It appeared in evidence, that Omichund, one of the chief of the conſpirators at the court of Moorſhedabad, inſiſted upon five per cent. on all the nabob's treaſures, and thirty lacks in money, for his nefarious ſervices; and that this condition was expreſsly inſerted in a formal treaty, concluded and ſigned by the parties previous to the attempt: that another treaty was framed and ſigned by the ſeveral parties, Omichund excepted, in order to defraud him of the reward he had ſtipulated for his villainy: that admiral Watſon, a man of ſtrict probity and honour, had abſolutely refuſed to ſign the fictitious treaty; but that lord Clive had cauſed the admiral's name to be affixed without his knowledge to this inſtrument: that, on the ſubſequent accompliſhment of the revolution, a conference was held at Moorſhedabad, in preſence of the new ſubah Meer Jaffier, and the real treaty, ſigned by the ſubah and the Engliſh council, publicly read; on which occaſion lord Clive himſelf declared to the committee, that the reſentment and indignation expreſſed in the countenance of Omichund baffled all deſcription. He ſaid, "This cannot be the treaty; it was a red treaty that I ſaw." On which his lordſhip replied, "Yes, Omichund, but this is a white treaty." It was affirmed, that lord Clive acquired, in conſequence of the depoſition of ſu-rajah Dowla, vaſt ſums under various pretexts, amounting in Engliſh money to no leſs than 234,000l. excluſive of a jaghire or life-annuity of 30,000l. charged on the revenue of the diſtricts ceded by Meer Jaffier to the company. That lord Clive declared, "he had never made the leaſt ſecret of theſe tranſactions; that his lordſhip held preſents ſo received to be not diſhonourable; that the ſubah, agreeably to the cuſtoms of the Eaſt, had, in a manner ſuitable to his rank and dignity, rewarded thoſe who had been, happily, inſtrumental to the ſucceſs of ſo hazardous an enterprize; adding, that it was well known to every gentleman in Bengal, that the honour of his country, and the intereſt of the proprietary, were the principles that governed all his actions."

Colonel Barré, on the debate which aroſe on reading the report, obſerved, "that the fortunes amaſſed by the company's ſervants, were, no doubt, all honourably acquired. If the property of the natives was taken without their conſent, it was military plunder; if otherwiſe, it was compenſation for ſervices: if by a commercial monopoly, it was inland trade. The nice and ingenious diſtinctions made by the noble lord between bribes and preſents, exactions and gratuities, reminded him of a certain Spaniſh governor of Gibraltar, who, amongſt other perquiſites of office, had been accuſtomed to receive an annual donation from the Jews. This people bringing him, on one of their anniverſaries, only a thouſand ſequins, the governor indignantly declared, "that the Jews ſhould not have audience, as they were ſprung from anceſtors who crucified our Lord Jeſus Chriſt." The Jews went back diſconſolate; but, on further conſideration,

returned with two thouſand ſequins, on which they were again admitted: "for (ſaid the governor), poor men! they had no hand in the crucifixion."

General Burgoyne concluded the report by moving, "1. That all acquiſitions made under the influence of a military force, or by treaty with foreign princes, do of right belong to the ſtate. 2. That to appropriate acquiſitions ſo made to the private emolument of perſons entruſted with any civil or military powers of the ſtate, is illegal. 3. That very great ſums of money, and other valuable property, have been acquired in Bengal by perſons of this deſcription, and appropriated to their private uſe." Theſe reſolutions, amidſt the general indignation excited by the report, paſſed with great unanimity; and the chairman of the committee moved, "That lord Clive, about the time of the depoſition of ſu-rajah Dowla, did obtain and poſſeſs himſelf of ſeveral ſums amounting to two hundred and thirty-four thouſand pounds, under the denomination of private donation, to the diſhonour and detriment of the ſtate."

Lord Clive now entered with great ability into his own vindication, and ſhewed the urgent political neceſſity which had induced him to embrace the meaſures for which he was at this diſtance of time ſo unexpectedly and injuriouſly arraigned. He affirmed, that the power and fortune of the Engliſh nation in India had been entirely owing to the boldneſs and promptitude with which thoſe meaſures had been conducted; that what he had acquired for himſelf, was inconſiderable in compariſon with what he had acquired for the company, whoſe welfare had ever been his great object; that he had been placed in great and eminent ſtations, ſurrounded with temptations; the civil and military powers were united in him, a circumſtance which had never happened to any other individual; that, being circumſcribed by no reſtraint but that of his own conſcience, he might have accumulated a fortune too great for a ſubject; but that he had then determined to reject all future opportunities of gain, and from the day on which he entered the city of Moorſhedabad in triumph, after the victory of Plaſſey, which was a ſpace of fifteen years, he had not benefited himſelf a ſingle ſhilling, directly or indirectly, the jaghire only excepted.

Many of the moſt reſpectable and impartial members of the houſe, could not on reflection but think it a harſh and invidious thing, that the vengeance of parliament ſhould be directed againſt a man who had raiſed ſo high the reputation of the Britiſh arms in India; who had fought the battles of his country with ſuch unparalleled glory and ſucceſs; and who would to the lateſt generations be accounted amongſt the moſt illuſtrious of her heroes. That the ſyſtem of policy adopted by the company's ſervants in India was totally indefenſible, muſt be admitted; but it did not appear from the nature of the regulations, which had received the ſanction of parliament, that any radical alteration of that ſyſtem was in contemplation. A great empire had been founded in the eaſt, chiefly through the exertions of the noble lord againſt whom this charge of delinquency was brought. Is it ſeriouſly meant to relinquiſh this empire? to reſtore thoſe immenſe ſums to the native princes and inhabitants, of which they have been plundered? Far from it. The queſtion is merely, whether the ſtate or the company ſhall enjoy the advantages ariſing from theſe vaſt poſſeſſions? Of this conteſt the reſult is known. The company, loaded with reproach and obloquy, are cenſured, condemned, and puniſhed, without ſo much as being heard in their own defence; but reſtitution is made, not to the princes of India, but to the people of Great Britain; and almoſt at the ſame inſtant that we are paſſing bills for the purpoſe of transferring the riches of Hindooſtan from the treaſury of the company to the royal exchequer, we are called upon to vote impeachments againſt the man by whoſe heroic efforts of valour and plans of policy thoſe riches were acquired. Is there any trace of dignity, of conſiſtency, or virtue, in this conduct? If we are deliberately determined to keep poſſeſſion of thoſe dominions, which are univerſally allowed to have been unjuſtly acquired, we are parties in the injuſtice, and thoſe who were the original actors of it are entitled from the juſtice of the nation (for there is a juſtice even in injuſtice) to indemnity at leaſt, if not to gratitude and applauſe; and all that can with propriety be done, ſhort of reſtitution and emancipation, is to ſecure, by wiſe and equitable regulations, the future happineſs and welfare of thoſe diſtant nations, who are become by an aſtoniſhing viciſſitude of fortune ſubject to our dominion.

On putting the queſtion, the laſt clauſe of the reſolution was rejected, although the miniſter declared in favour of the words of cenſure, and divided in the minority. An amendment was then moved, "That lord Clive did at the ſame time render great and meritorious ſervices to this country;" which was carried by a conſiderable majority, and an end put to the enquiry. A deep impreſſion was nevertheleſs made upon the mind of lord Clive by this public accuſation, and by the odium and obloquy which from this time attached itſelf to his character. His faculties, no longer rouſed to action by the neceſſity of great and vigorous exertion, languiſhed in retirement and ſolitude, and gradually preyed upon themſelves till exiſtence became inſupportable. Originally educated in ſtrict principles of religion, it is probable that his early aſſociations now recurred with redoubled force; and though acquitted by the higheſt human juriſdiction, he could not acquit himſelf, or hope for acquittal at that far more awful tribunal at which he dreaded to appear. After a few years paſſed in a ſtate of wretchedneſs and deſpondency, he at length put a voluntary period to his life; by this melancholy cataſtrophe demonſtrating to mankind the vanity of human purſuits and wiſhes, and the infinite ſuperiority of conſcious virtue to all the gifts of fame and fortune.

When at a very early period of lord North's adminiſtration the duties on paper, glaſs, and colours, were repealed, it has been already remarked, that the duty on tea was purpoſely left as a mark of legiſlative ſupremacy. The Eaſt-India company finding their ſtock of tea to accumulate in their warehouſes, in conſequence of the loſs of the American market, were very urgent with the miniſter to repeal the American import duty of three-pence per pound, offering in lieu of it to pay double the ſum on exportation. A fairer opportunity could not occur to terminate the diſpute. Accordingly, in the ſeſſion of 1773, the act paſſed for allowing the exportation of teas duty free; and the company, eager to make a grand effort to relieve themſelves from their difficulties, were buoyed up with the flattering expectation, by becoming their own factors, of regaining poſſeſſion of the American market: for, when the teas were actually tranſported acroſs the Atlantic, and lodged in warehouſes, the mere circumſtance of their having previouſly paid the import duty would not, it was imagined, impede the company's ſales. In this idea, however, they were moſt fatally deceived. The Americans conſidered this new attempt as an artifice, calculated to inveigle them into the payment of this tax, in order to eſtabliſh the precedent; and they were determined that no ſuch experiment ſhould take effect. Six hundred cheſts were by the company, in purſuance of the act, conſigned to their agent at Boſton, the like quantity to New York and Philadelphia, and in proportion to the other principal ports of the continent. Pennſylvania diſtinguiſhed herſelf by ſetting the firſt example of oppoſition. A general meeting was convened at Philadelphia, in which a ſeries of vigorous reſolutions were paſſed, "declaring this new plan of importation to be a violent attack upon the liberties of America, and pronouncing it to be the duty of every American to oppoſe this attempt; and that whoever ſhould directly or indirectly countenance it was an enemy to his country." A committee was then appointed to wait upon the conſignees of the company, and to requeſt their reſignation, which

was immediately complied with. At New York, on the arrival of the tea-ships, they were with difficulty permitted to approach the wharf; and, as at Philadelphia, the consignees were compelled to relinquish their appointments, and the ships returned back to England without breaking bulk. At Charlestown, after much opposition and tumult, the tea was permitted to be unloaded, but was immediately lodged in damp unventilated cellars, where it long remained, and finally perished. In no place was the delivery of it to the consignees suffered, and in most the captains of the India ships, on being apprized of the temper and disposition of the people, without any attempt to land, wisely set their sails for England. At Boston the spirit of resistance rose to a height which made the excesses committed elsewhere appear trivial; and here, in consequence, the first blood was shed, which brought on the long, obstinate, and unnatural, American war.—For the arduous and interesting events of this war, to the establishment of its independence, and peace with England, A. D. 1782, see the article AMERICA, vol. i. p. 439—465.

The watchfulness of France to take every advantage of the misfortunes of this country, was never more strikingly manifested than during the war of the mother country with her colonies. Without a shadow of cause, and without the least suspicion, she privately entered into the war in support of the refractory colonies, and left it to the best informed in England to discover her intrigues. This extraordinary information was first developed by the hon. Charles James Fox, in the meeting of the house of commons in the session of 1778. He did not, he said, speak from surmise, but he had it from authority he could not question, "that a treaty of amity and alliance had been signed in Paris between France and America, ten days ago; he therefore wished that the noble lord (North) would give the house satisfaction on that interesting point." The minister, closely pressed, at length acknowledged, "that it was but too probable such a treaty was in agitation, though he had no authority to pronounce absolutely that it was concluded:" and it was animadverted upon as a very extraordinary circumstance, that the intelligence of a private member of that house should be sooner received, and more authentically ascertained, than that of the first minister of the government.

In the house of peers, on the same day, the duke of Grafton informed their lordships, that he had indubitable intelligence, that a treaty had been actually signed between France and America; and his grace demanded from the ministers a public avowal or disavowal of this important fact. To which lord Weymouth, secretary of state, replied, "that he knew nothing of any such treaty, nor had received any authentic information of its being either in existence or contemplation." Nevertheless, within a very few days after this extraordinary declaration, lord North delivered a message to the house of commons, and lord Weymouth to the house of peers, in which the king informed the two houses, "That a rescript had been delivered by the ambassador of his most Christian majesty, containing a direct avowal of a treaty of amity, commerce, and alliance, recently concluded with America; in consequence of which offensive communication on the part of the king of France, his majesty had sent orders to his ambassador to withdraw from that court; and, relying on the zealous support of his people, he is prepared to exert all the force and resources of his kingdoms, to repel so unprovoked and unjust an aggression." Addresses were voted by both houses, containing the strongest assurances of assistance and support. An amendment moved by Mr. Baker, containing a severe reflection on the conduct of the minister, was previously rejected in the house of commons, by 263 voices against 113.

A similar amendment was moved in the upper house by the duke of Manchester, which gave rise to a debate, chiefly interesting as it brought into view a very important difference of opinion subsisting between the lords in opposition, and which had on various occasions more covertly appeared, respecting the recognition of American independence. The marquis of Rockingham, and the whole Rockingham connection, maintained without reserve the necessity of admitting the independence of America. "To attempt impossibilities, (said they,) can only render our ruin inevitable; it is not now in our power to recover what we have wantonly thrown away." On the other hand, the earls of Chatham, Temple, and Shelburne, and several other minority lords, who had established a distinct connection, and were, throughout the long course of opposition to this ministry, considered as a separate party, disclaimed every idea of relinquishing America, and deprecated its independence as the greatest of all political and national evils; and as including the utter degradation and final ruin of this country. The numbers on the division were, 100 lords who voted against the amendment, to 36 who supported it.

On the 7th of April, 1778, the duke of Richmond moved an address to the king on the state of the nation. In his speech in support of this address, his grace declared in strong terms his conviction of the necessity of an immediate recognition of American independence. "The mischief, (he said,) whatever might be the magnitude of it, was already done; America was for ever lost; and her independence as firmly established as that of other states. We had indeed sufficient cause for regret; but our lamentation was of no more avail than it would be for the loss of Normandy or France." The earl of Chatham, in full expectation that this point would come under discussion, resolved, however enfeebled and afflicted by his corporeal infirmities, to make his personal appearance in the house, in order to bear his decided testimony against it. The mind feels interested in the minutest circumstances relating to the last day of the public life of this renowned statesman. He was led into the house by his son and son-in-law, Mr. William Pitt and lord viscount Mahon, all the lords standing up out of respect, and making a lane for him to pass to the earls' bench, he bowing very gracefully to them as he proceeded. He looked pale and much emaciated, but his eye retained all its native fire; which, joined to his general deportment, and the attention of the house, formed a spectacle very striking and impressive.

When the duke of Richmond had sat down, lord Chatham rose, and began by lamenting, "that his bodily infirmities had so long, and at so important a crisis, prevented his attendance on the duties of parliament. He declared, that he had made an effort almost beyond the powers of his constitution, to come down to the house on this day, perhaps the last time he should ever be able to enter its walls, to express the indignation he felt at the idea which he understood was gone forth, of yielding up the sovereignty of America. My lords, (continued he,) I rejoice that the grave has not closed upon me; that I am still alive to lift up my voice against the dismemberment of this ancient and noble monarchy. Pressed down as I am by the load of infirmity, I am little able to assist my country in this most perilous conjuncture; but, my lords, while I have sense and memory, I never will consent to tarnish the lustre of this nation by an ignominious surrender of its rights and fairest possessions. Shall a people so lately the terror of the world, now fall prostrate before the house of Bourbon? It is impossible. I am not, I confess, well informed of the resources of this kingdom, but I trust it has still sufficient to maintain its just rights, though I know them not. Any state, my lords, is better than despair. Let us at least make one effort; and, if we must fall, let us fall like men."

The duke of Richmond, in reply, urged the noble lord to point out any possible mode, if he were able to do it, of making the Americans renounce that independence of which they were in possession. His grace added, that if HE could not, no man could; and that it was not in his power to change his opinion on the noble lord's authority,

rity, unſupported by any reaſons, but a mere recital of the calamities ariſing from the ſtate of things not in the power of this country now to alter. Lord Chatham, who appeared greatly agitated during the reply, made an eager effort to riſe at the concluſion of it, as if labouring with ſome great idea, and impatient to give full ſcope to his ſentiments; but, before he could utter a word, preſſing his hand on his breaſt, he fell down ſuddenly in a convulſive fit. The duke of Cumberland, lord Temple, and other lords near him, caught him in their arms. The houſe was immediately cleared; and his lordſhip being carried into an adjoining apartment, the debate was adjourned. Medical aſſiſtance being obtained, his lordſhip in ſome degree recovered, and was conveyed to his favourite villa of Hayes, in Kent, where, after lingering ſome few weeks, he expired, May the 11th, 1778, in the ſeventieth year of his age.

On the firſt intelligence of his death, colonel Barré repaired to the houſe of commons, then ſitting, and communicated the melancholy information. Although it was an event which had been for ſome time expected, the houſe ſeemed affected with the deepeſt ſenſibility. The recollection of his former pre-eminence in power, of his unrivalled eloquence, of his unwearied exertions in the public ſervice, and of the unexampled proſperity to which Great Britain had attained under his adminiſtration, ruſhed upon the mind with irreſiſtible force, and produced an emotion which the ſympathy ſo powerful in popular aſſemblies heightened to enthuſiaſm. The motion made by colonel Barré, "That the remains of the earl of Chatham be interred at the public expence," was unanimouſly adopted; with the further addition, "That a monument be erected to his memory in the collegiate church of St. Peter, Weſtminſter." This was followed by a motion from lord John Cavendiſh, for an addreſs to the king, "That his majeſty would be graciouſly pleaſed to make a permanent proviſion for the family of the late William Pitt, earl of Chatham, in conſideration of the ſervices performed by that able ſtateſman;" and a bill was brought into parliament, and unanimouſly paſſed, by which a clear annuity of four thouſand pounds per annum, payable out of the civil liſt, is for ever to be annexed to the earldom of Chatham, and the ſum of twenty thouſand pounds voted for the diſcharge of debts and incumbrances. Thus nobly and gratefully did the nation reward the ſervices of the man, whoſe counſels, to the amazement of the world, ſhe had for ſo many years neglected and contemned. The ready concurrence of the court in the honours laviſhed on the memory of this great ſtateſman, may be aſcribed entirely to the decided manner in which he delivered, almoſt in his laſt breath, his ſentiments againſt the recognition of American independence, and which may be regarded as the ſole political error, with which, in reſpect to America, he is chargeable. What his preciſe ideas were, with regard to the plan of conciliation proper to be adopted in the then actual circumſtances of the nation, cannot be aſcertained; but of this we may reſt aſſured, from the uniform and ſyſtematic tenor of his policy, that he never would have employed coercive means in accompliſhing it. It is exceedingly to be lamented, that perſonal and party conſiderations prevented that firm and cordial coaleſcence amongſt the whig intereſt, which was ſo neceſſary to give efficacy to their exertions. The diſlike of lord Chatham to the Newcaſtle or Rockingham party was invincible; and the diviſions and animoſities which originated in that diſlike, and which his death was far from extinguiſhing, will ever be lamented by this nation, inaſmuch as ſuch a coalition of great abilities might have finally prevented the miſchiefs that followed.

At the eve of a war with France, and a war with Spain in no very diſtant proſpect, two different lines of conduct now obviouſly preſented themſelves: either, firſt, to withdraw our fleets and armies from America, and to direct the whole force of the empire againſt the houſe of Bourbon, in the hope of ſucceſs ſo deciſive, as to enable us in the reſult to conclude an advantageous accommodation with America, conformably to the general ideas of lord Chatham; or, ſecondly, which would have been infinitely the wiſer, though the leſs ſplendid plan, at once to recognize, upon a principle of mutual amity, the independency of America, which would have opened the way, without difficulty, to an immediate and general pacification. But our affairs ſeemed as yet too proſperous in the opinion of miniſtry to juſtify ſuch a ſacrifice; and the North-American continent continued to be the theatre of bloodſhed, rapine, diſcord, and deſolation; families deſtroying kindred families, and Engliſhmen and their offſpring planting the ſword in each others breaſts; while the natural foe of both hovered on the coaſts, anxious to aſſiſt and promote the ſelf-deſtruction of an empire, which it could otherwiſe never hope to ſubdue.

From this fatal ſcene of unnatural warfare in America, the particulars of which we have already referred the reader to in our firſt volume, p. 439, &c. it will be expedient to advert to the ſituation of affairs in Europe. When a war with France became inevitable, admiral Keppel, an officer of diſtinguiſhed reputation, but wholly unconnected with the miniſtry, was, on the perſonal ſolicitation of the king, prevailed on to accept the command of the channel fleet, though, as he himſelf obſerved, "his forty years ſervices were not marked by any favour from the crown, except that of its confidence in the hour of danger." On the 13th of June, 1778, the admiral ſailed from St. Helen's with twenty ſhips of the line, and at the entrance of the bay of Biſcay he fell in with the Licorne and the Belle Poule, two French frigates. Through that feebleneſs and indeciſion of counſels which prevailed at this period, the admiral had no poſitive orders as to the commiſſion or avoidance of actual hoſtilities, but was inveſted with an unmeaning, and as to himſelf dangerous, diſcretion of acting according to circumſtances. Perceiving the frigates intent on taking an accurate ſurvey of his fleet, he thought it expedient to fire a gun in order to compel them to bring to; and on their refuſal to obey, a chace enſued, when the Licorne, after wantonly diſcharging a whole broadſide, ſtruck to the America, of ſeventy-four guns. The Belle Poule, after a warm engagement with the Arethuſa, eſcaped by running on-ſhore. The Pallas alſo, another French frigate, was in the mean time captured and detained. From the papers found on-board theſe frigates, the admiral diſcovered, to his inexpreſſible aſtoniſhment, that the French fleet, lying in Breſt-water, amounted to no leſs than thirty-two ſail of the line; he was therefore under the immediate neceſſity of returning to port for a reinforcement.

On the 9th of July, he was enabled again to ſail with twenty-four ſhips, and was ſoon afterwards joined by ſix more. In a few days he came in ſight of the French fleet, commanded by M. d'Orvilliers, who ſeemed, on perceiving the Engliſh fleet nearly equal in force, inclined to avoid an engagement; but the wind changing ſome points in favour of the Engliſh, they gained ſo much upon the enemy, that an engagement became inevitable, and the French ranging in order of battle, but on the oppoſite tack, the fleets paſſed each other about noon in a diagonal direction. The action, though very warm, was conſequently partial; but the Engliſh admiral, having in a ſhort time ſufficiently repaired his damages, made the proper ſignals for the van and rear diviſions to take their reſpective ſtations. This order was inſtantly obeyed by ſir Robert Harland, of the van; but admiral ſir Hugh Palliſer, of the rear or blue diviſion, who had fallen a great way to leeward, took no notice whatever of the ſignals. Admiral Keppel, after waiting perhaps too long, ſent the Fox frigate at five o'clock with peremptory directions to ſir Hugh Palliſer, to bear down into his wake in order to renew the engagement. Sir Hugh anſwered, "that he was knotting and ſplicing, but would obey the order as ſoon as poſſible." At ſix o'clock the commander threw out another ſignal for all ſhips to come into their ſtations;

ſtations; and at ſeven o'clock, wearied with expectation, he threw out a third ſignal, for each particular ſhip of the blue diviſion to come into her ſtation in the line; but all to no purpoſe, and the day finally cloſed before ſir Hugh Palliſer rejoined his commander. In the night the French made ſail for their own coaſt, and in the morning ſcarcely were the rearmoſt ſhips diſcernible from the top-maſt heads of the Engliſh fleet. Admiral Keppel therefore returned to Portſmouth to refit; but his public letter, containing an account of this tranſaction, occaſioned great ſpeculation; his deſire to ſcreen the miſconduct of the admiral of the blue, induced him to give ſuch a relation of this engagement, as ſeemed to imply great impropriety of behaviour in the commander himſelf. For no reaſon whatever was aſſigned for not renewing the engagement in the afternoon, except the expectation of the admiral, "that the French would fight it out handſomely the next day."

It was impoſſible that the truth ſhould not in ſome degree tranſpire; and a well-written letter appearing ſome time afterwards in the public prints, ſeverely reflecting on the conduct of ſir Hugh Palliſer, that officer thought proper to require from the commander in chief a formal diſavowal of the charges it contained, and a public juſtification of his character. This the commander abſolutely and indignantly declining, the vice-admiral immediately exhibited articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, for miſconduct and neglect of duty on the 27th of July, 1778, although he had in the month of October a ſecond time ſailed with admiral Keppel, and had never before this ſo much as whiſpered a word to his prejudice. The lords of the admiralty, with apparent alacrity, fixed a day for the trial of the commander in chief; the reſult of which was in the higheſt degree honourable to that brave and injured officer, who was not only unanimouſly acquitted by the court-martial, but received the thanks of both houſes of parliament for his ſervices. Sir Hugh Palliſer afterwards demanded a court-martial upon himſelf, which terminated in a ſlight cenſure only; but the reſentment of the public was ſo great that it was deemed expedient by the miniſters to accept his ſucceſſive reſignations of his place at the board of admiralty, his lieutenant-generalſhip of marines, his government of Scarborough-caſtle, and to permit him to vacate his ſeat in the houſe of commons. The ready acquieſcence of the board of admiralty in the appointment of the court-martial, on a charge ſo groſsly invidious and unjuſt, gave the higheſt diſguſt to the officers of the navy. A ſtrong memorial was preſented to his majeſty on the ſubject by the duke of Bolton, ſigned by twelve admirals, with the venerable Hawke at their head, ſtating to his majeſty, in ſtrong colours, the ruinous conſequences which the precedent now introduced would inevitably bring upon all naval ſervice and diſcipline. "If, (ſaid theſe gallant defenders of their country,) we had conceived that this board had no legal uſe of their reaſon in a point of ſuch delicacy and importance, we ſhould have known on what terms we ſerved; but we never did imagine it poſſible that we were to receive orders from, and be accountable to, thoſe who by law were reduced to become mere paſſive inſtruments to the poſſible ignorance, malice, or treachery, of any individual, who might think fit to diſarm his majeſty's navy of its beſt and higheſt officers. We conceive it to be diſreſpectful to the laws of our country to ſuppoſe them capable of ſuch manifeſt injuſtice and abſurdity."

The only part of admiral Keppel's conduct really culpable, appears to have proceeded from that exceſs of deference and reſpect for ſir Hugh Palliſer, which prevented his adopting thoſe daring and deciſive meaſures the occaſion called for, in order to improve in the moſt effectual manner an opportunity of which he had little reaſon to expect the return. The courage of ſir Hugh Palliſer had been on many occaſions too conſpicuous to be queſtioned; but that principle of envy, ſo powerful in ſome minds, could not endure that a man whom he regarded in the light of a rival, ſhould acquire ſuch an addition of fame and ſuperiority as muſt have reſulted from a complete and decided victory. In conſequence of this fatal miſunderſtanding, lord Howe declared in parliament his reſolution to decline all future ſervice, ſo long as the preſent miniſters continued in office. A deciſive experience had taught him, that beſides riſking his honour and profeſſional character in ſuch an attempt, he could not, under ſuch counſels, render any eſſential ſervice to his country. The Howes, impatient of the obloquy now thrown upon them by the partiſans of the miniſtry, earneſtly ſolicited a parliamentary enquiry into their conduct in America; to which the miniſter at length very reluctantly aſſented. A multitude of papers were in conſequence laid upon the table; and the houſe reſolving itſelf into a committee of enquiry, lord Cornwallis, ſir Charles Grey, ſir Guy Carleton, and various other officers of high reputation who had ſerved in America, were examined at the bar of the houſe; and the reſult of a long and tedious inveſtigation was, "That the force ſent to America was at no time equal to the ſubjugation of that continent; that the people of America were almoſt unanimous in their enmity and reſiſtance to Great Britain; that the nature of the country was beyond any other difficult and impracticable for military operations; and that there was no fairer proſpect of ſucceſs, in any ſubſequent attempt at conqueſt, than in thoſe which had been already made." On the 29th of June, 1779, the committee was ſuddenly diſſolved, without coming to a ſingle reſolution on any part of the buſineſs.

A ſhort time before the prorogation, a royal meſſage was unexpectedly delivered to both houſes, on a ſubject of the higheſt importance, informing them, that a manifeſto had been preſented to his majeſty by the count d'Almodovar, ambaſſador of the king of Spain, containing a declaration of hoſtility on the part of the Catholic king, who had in conſequence ordered his ambaſſador to depart without taking leave. The diſcloſure of this alarming event, ſo long predicted by the minority, called forth all their powers of eloquence and invective. The miniſters were reminded of their incredulity on this ſubject, and of their unfounded declarations, "that Spain could have no intereſt in joining our enemies; Spain had colonies of her own, and would not ſet ſo bad an example as to afford aid or ſuccour to our rebellious colonies. The honour, ſincerity, and fidelity, of the court of Spain, were held up as ſacred, and thus were parliament and the nation kept in a conſtant ſtate of deluſion, until awakened from their dream by impending ruin."

On the 3d of July, the king cloſed the ſeſſion with a ſpeech, in which his majeſty mentioned it as a happy omen of the ſucceſs of his arms, that the increaſe of difficulties ſeemed only to augment the courage and conſtancy of the nation. The memorial of count d'Almodovar, and a long juſtificatory manifeſto ſubſequently publiſhed by the court of Madrid, were filled with heavy complaints of the conduct of the Engliſh court for ſeveral years paſt, though certainly grounded on no ſolid reaſon; the king of England truly affirming in his meſſage to parliament, "That with regard to Spain he had nothing to reproach himſelf with; and that his deſire to cultivate peace and amity with that power had been uniform and ſincere." The court of Madrid pretended, that the inſults and incredible violences offered to the Spaniſh traders by England, from the year 1776 to the beginning of the preſent year 1779, were no leſs than eighty-ſix in number, ſince which other inſults and injuries had been offered; ſo that the whole amount aroſe to the full complement of one hundred.

During the receſs of parliament, the earl of Stormont, late ambaſſador at Paris, was made ſecretary of ſtate in the room of the earl of Suffolk, deceaſed. The earl of Weymouth a ſecond time reſigned the ſeals of the ſouthern department, which were transferred to the earl of Hillſborough; and earl Bathurſt, chancellor of Great

Britain, was nominated preſident of the council, in the room of earl Gower. The great ſeal had been conſigned, in the courſe of the preceding year, to the attorney-general Thurlow, created baron Thurlow, a man endowed by nature with uncommon talents, which were concealed, and in effect loſt to the world, under an almoſt impervious veil of moroſeneſs. Under this miniſtry the war broke out with Spain.

In the Weſt Indies, ſoon after the failure of d'Eſtaing on St. Lucie, admiral Barrington was joined by admiral Byron; and the Engliſh fleet being now ſuperior to that of the French, endeavours were uſed to force the enemy to a general engagement; but they choſe, rather than encounter this riſk, to remain inactive in the harbour of Fort Royal. Admiral Byron, however, deeming it expedient to convoy the trade-ſhips collected at St. Chriſtopher's in June, part of their voyage; count d'Eſtaing took the opportunity of detaching a conſiderable force to the iſland of St. Vincent, which ſurrendered, though garriſoned by ſeven companies of regular troops, without firing a ſhot. This is aſcribed to the dread entertained of an inſurrection of the Caribbs, who ſtill entertained a deep reſentment of the injuries they had ſuſtained. The French commander, being now joined by a large reinforcement of ſhips and troops, ſailed with twenty-ſix ſhips of the line from Fort Royal, in the beginning of July, and ſteered his courſe to the iſland of Grenada, which, though bravely defended by the governor, lord Macartney, was compelled in a ſhort time to ſurrender at diſcretion. Admiral Byron, on his return, receiving intelligence of the capture of St. Vincent's, immediately determined to make an effort for its recovery; but, on his paſſage thither, heard the ſtill more unwelcome tidings of the attack of Grenada, of which he now reſolved to attempt the relief. On the 6th of July the two fleets came in ſight; but the French, having already effected their purpoſe, were little inclined, notwithſtanding their preſent ſuperiority, to riſk a cloſe engagement. A warm but indeciſive action enſued between the van diviſions of the two fleets, in the courſe of which the Engliſh firſt diſcovered the French colours flying on the fortreſs of St. George. In the reſult, the Engliſh fleet bore away for Antigua, and the French returned to Grenada.

Count d'Eſtaing being fully informed of the critical ſituation of the ſouthern provinces of America, now, unexpectedly directing his courſe to Georgia, made an eaſy capture of the Experiment, of fifty guns, with ſupplies of various kinds on-board for Savannah, and three other frigates, which he fell in with on his way. On the 9th of September he anchored off the mouth of the Savannah, to which general Prevoſt had again retired, and ſent a haughty ſummons to that officer to ſurrender to the arms of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty; to which a ſpirited anſwer was returned. The count d'Eſtaing being joined by general Lincoln, the allies advanced to the attack of the Britiſh lines on the morning of the 9th of October. They were every where repulſed with heroic valour. Count d'Eſtaing himſelf being wounded in the action, and the troops having ſuſtained great loſs, the ſiege was raiſed. The count now retired to the Weſt Indies; whence he quickly returned to France, much chagrined at the final diſappointment of the vaſt hopes and projects which he had originally formed.

During theſe tranſactions, much alarm had been created in England by the junction of the fleets of France and Spain, which took place very ſoon after the delivery of the Spaniſh manifeſto. In Auguſt, 1779, they entered the channel to the amount of ſixty-five ſhips of the line, accompanied by a cloud of frigates, ſloops, and fire-ſhips. The Engliſh fleet, commanded by ſir Charles Hardy, who had received no inſtructions to prevent this formidable junction, being utterly unable to encounter ſo prodigious a force, was compelled to retire, whilſt the flags of France and Spain menaced and inſulted the Engliſh coaſts, whilſt their ſhips rode triumphant in the Engliſh channel. Plymouth was, by the unaccountable negligence of the miniſters, left ſo entirely deſtitute of the means of defence, that the docks and ſhipping in the harbour might have been deſtroyed without difficulty. Fortunately this was not known to the confederate commanders; and on the approach of the equinox, count d'Orvilliers ſteered his courſe back to Breſt, without effecting any thing further than the capture of the Ardent man of war, which had ſailed into the midſt of the combined fleets while at anchor off Plymouth, miſtaking them for the Engliſh ſquadron. But the moſt remarkable conſequence reſulting from the appearance of this vaſt armament in the Britiſh ſeas, was the extraordinary vigour and reſolution with which it ſuddenly inſpired the inhabitants of the kingdom of Ireland, who had hitherto contented themſelves with feeble lamentations and unavailing complaints. Seeing themſelves in a manner abandoned by England, their troops withdrawn, their commerce unprotected, their grievances unredreſſed, military and mercantile aſſociations began every where to be formed; and in a ſhort time, to the aſtoniſhment of the world, an army of fifty thouſand volunteers, as if by magic, was created, diſciplined, and equipped; and reſolutions almoſt univerſally paſſed againſt the uſe of Britiſh manufactures.

The Engliſh miniſters, whoſe fears and apprehenſions on this occaſion happily ſupplied their deficiency in information, inſtead of oppoſing this national rage, furniſhed the new-raiſed army with arms from the royal magazines; and thus gave a ſanction to a meaſure which had been adopted without any regard to their conſent or approbation. The Iriſh parliament met on the 12th of October, and to the uſual addreſs brought forward by the courtiers, an amendment was moved, and adopted by a great majority, to inſert in the body of the addreſs the following words: "We beg leave humbly to repreſent to your majeſty, that it is not by temporary expedients, but by a free trade, that this nation is now to be ſaved from impending ruin." In this the lords concurred, and the addreſſes were carried up to the lord lieutenant with great parade amidſt the acclamations of the people; the duke of Leinſter, who commanded the Dublin volunteers, eſcorting the ſpeaker in perſon; and the thanks of both houſes were unanimouſly voted to the volunteer corps throughout the kingdom, for their patriotic exertions; and a ſix months money bill paſſed the commons, in order to prevent a ſudden prorogation.

Before we inveſtigate the conſequences of this alarming ſpirit, it may be proper to notice a further occaſion of miſunderſtanding between the courts of London and the Hague, from an encounter which took place in the courſe of the preſent ſummer between ſir Richard Pearſon of the Serapis man of war, accompanied by the Scarborough frigate, having under their convoy the trade from the Baltic, and captain Paul Jones, an adventurer of deſperate fortune and deſperate courage, who was commander of a ſmall American ſquadron, which had for ſome time paſt infeſted the Britiſh ſeas. After a very fierce and bloody action, both the Serapis and Scarborough, the convoy being firſt ſecured, were compelled to ſtrike their colours, and were carried by their captors to the Texel. On this a very ſtrong memorial was preſented to the ſtates-general by ſir Joſeph Yorke, who urged in the moſt preſſing terms, "That thoſe ſhips and their crews may be ſtopped and delivered up, which the pirate Paul Jones, who is a rebel ſubject, and a criminal of the ſtate, has taken." But their high mightineſſes anſwered, "That they will in no reſpect whatever pretend to judge of the legality or illegality of the actions of thoſe who have on the open ſeas taken any veſſels which do not belong to this country, and bring them into any ports of the republic; and that they are not authorized to paſs judgment either on thoſe prizes, or on the perſon of Paul Jones." This was an anſwer hard of digeſtion to the Engliſh, and which indeed clearly indicated the partiality of the republic to the cauſe of America; but the quarrel between the two countries, though

though evidently growing more and more ſerious, was not yet ſufficiently matured for an actual rupture.

Very early intelligence of the war with France having been ſent by expreſs over land to India, the city of Pondicherry was inveſted by the troops of the company and of the government, in the autumn of 1779; and, after a gallant reſiſtance by M. de Bellecombe, the governor, it ſurrendered to the arms of his Britannic majeſty. On the other hand, the ſettlement of Senegal, and the Britiſh forts on the river Gambia, were captured by a French ſquadron under M. de Lauzun.

On the 6th of December, a reſolution of cenſure on the miniſters was moved in the houſe of commons by the earl of Upper Oſſory, relative to the affairs of Ireland. His lordſhip obſerved, "that the miniſters ſeemed totally to have abandoned the government of that country to chance. They neither felt for its diſtreſſes, nor provided againſt its reſentments: the preſent ſtate of Ireland, (his lordſhip ſaid,) was truly alarming, and ſeemed to portend a ſudden diſſolution of the conſtitutional connection which had ſo long ſubſiſted between the two countries. To the ſhameful inattention of the miniſtry, who might in the early ſtages of the miſeries of that kingdom have granted the Iriſh nation ſubſtantial relief, was the preſent ſpirit of reſiſtance wholly imputable." The motion was powerfully ſupported by Mr. Fox, Mr Burke, and Mr. Dunning; and oppoſed in an elaborate ſpeech by lord North, who pledged himſelf, on a given day, to move certain propoſitions favourable to Ireland. On the day previouſly fixed, lord North accordingly brought forward his propoſitions reſpecting Ireland, which opened her commerce, and allowed the free exportation of her woollens. Theſe privileges were received in Ireland, not only with ſatisfaction, but with exultation and joy, from the flattering expectation of deriving from them an effectual relief to her diſtreſſes.

An act of parliament had paſſed in the courſe of the ſeſſion of 1778, relieving the Roman catholics from ſome of the heavier penalties inflicted upon them in the ſeventeenth century. This act ſeemed to be well approved in England; but the fanatical ſpirit, unextinguiſhed ſince the days of Knox, and which ſtill diſcovered itſelf by unequivocal ſymptoms in Scotland, prevented the extenſion of this defective toleration to that kingdom. Yet on the bare ſuſpicion of ſuch an indulgence, great tumults took place at Edinburgh and Glaſgow, the popiſh chapel in the metropolis was deſtroyed, and the houſes of the principal catholics attacked and plundered; on which the lord provoſt publiſhed a ſingular proclamation, aſcribing the riots to the "apprehenſions, fears, and diſtreſſed minds, of well-meaning people, and aſſuring them no repeal of the penal ſtatutes would take place." Incited by this encouraging declaration, the fanatics formed themſelves into a ſociety, ſtyled the "Proteſtant Aſſociation," to oppoſe any remiſſion of the perſecuting laws againſt the papiſts; and of this aſſociation lord George Gordon was choſen preſident, a man in the higheſt degree wild, eccentric, and enthuſiaſtical. This aſſociation was gradually extended to England, and much pains were taken by inflammatory harangues and pamphlets to prejudice the minds of the vulgar againſt the late ſalutary relaxation of the penal code. It was at length determined to prepare a petition for a repeal of the law in queſtion, which is affirmed to have obtained one hundred and twenty thouſand ſignatures, or marks, of men of the loweſt orders of ſociety, whoſe exceſs of zeal could be equalled only by the groſſneſs of their ignorance; a combination of qualities at once ridiculous and terrible. Lord George Gordon, who was himſelf a member of the houſe of commons, declined to preſent this petition, unleſs he were accompanied to the houſe by at leaſt twenty thouſand men.

A public meeting of the aſſociation was, in conſequence, convened in St. George's Fields, London, June 2, 1780, whence it was ſuppoſed that not leſs than fifty thouſand perſons proceeded in regular diviſions, with lord George Gordon at their head, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. Towards evening this multitude began to grow tumultuous, and groſsly inſulted various members of both houſes, compelling them in paſſing to and from the houſe to cry, "No popery!" and to wear blue cockades. During the debate on the petition, lord George Gordon frequently addreſſed the mob without, in terms calculated to inflame their paſſions, and expreſsly ſtating to them, "that the people of Scotland had no redreſs till they pulled down the popiſh chapels." After the adjournment of the houſe, the mob, on this ſuggeſtion, immediately proceeded to the demolition of the chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian ambaſſadors. The military being ordered out could not prevent the miſchief, but apprehended ſeveral of the ring-leaders.

The next day, Saturday, paſſed quietly; but on Sunday the rioters re-aſſembled in vaſt numbers, and deſtroyed the chapels and private dwellings belonging to the principal catholics in the vicinity of Moorfields. On Monday they extended their devaſtations to other parts of the town; and ſir George Saville's houſe, in Leiceſter-ſquare was totally demoliſhed by theſe blind and barbarous bigots; that diſtinguiſhed ſenator and patriot having had the honour to be the firſt mover of the bill. On Tueſday, the day appointed for taking the petition into conſideration, the mob again ſurrounded the parliament houſe, and renewed their outrages and inſults. The houſe, after paſſing ſome reſolutions adapted to the occaſion, and expreſſive of their juſt indignation, immediately adjourned. In the evening the populace, now grown more bold, attacked the priſon of Newgate, where ſeveral of their comrades were confined; and, ſetting the building in flames, liberated more than three hundred felons and debtors reſident within its walls. Encouraged by the impunity with which they had hitherto been ſuffered to go on, they next proceeded to lord Mansfield's houſe in Bloomſbury ſquare, which they totally demoliſhed, his lordſhip eſcaping with great difficulty. The priſons of Clerkenwell were alſo forced, many private houſes plundered or deſtroyed, and ſcarcely did the night afford any ceſſation of the riots.

On Wedneſday the mob, hardened by the miſchiefs and villanies they had already perpetrated, attacked with incredible fury the houſes of various individuals, chiefly catholics, which they had previouſly marked for deſtruction. In the evening the King's-bench, the Fleet priſon, and the new compter, were ſet on fire, and, with a prodigious number of private dwellings in different parts of the town burning at the ſame time, formed a tremendous ſcene of conflagration, to which London, ſince the great fire of 1666, had ſeen nothing parallel or ſimilar. The ſame day attempts were made by the rioters on the bank and pay-office; but theſe, being ſtrongly guarded, happily eſcaped that deſtruction which muſt have involved the whole nation in irreparable diſtreſs and ruin. What appeared moſt to excite the public indignation was the criminal ſupineneſs of the magiſtracy of London during theſe horrible commotions, apparently threatening to lay the metropolis of the empire level with the ground, and which actually preſented in many parts the image of of a city ſtormed and ſacked. At length the king himſelf declared, with laudable reſolution, in council, "that, although the magiſtrates had not done their duty, he would not be deficient in his," and general orders were immediately tranſmitted to the military to fire upon the rioters, without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrate, in conſequence of which the ſlaughter was terrible; but in a ſhort time the commotions were effectually ſuppreſſed, and by Thurſday noon order and tranquillity were perfectly reſtored.

On that day lord George Gordon was taken into cuſtody, and, after a ſtrict examination before the privy council, committed cloſe priſoner to the Tower on a charge

of high treaſon, for which there does not appear to have been ſufficient ground, and therefore on his trial he was acquitted. An impeachment by the houſe of commons for high crimes and miſdemeanors would have been a mode of procedure far more eligible and efficacious, and would indubitably have inſured that puniſhment which his raſh conduct ſo juſtly merited.

A ſpecial commiſſion was iſſued for the trial of the rioters, of whom a great number, conſiſting of men very oppoſite in deſcription and character, were apprehended; many of whom ſuffered death. On the 19th of June the parliament met, and the king going in ſtate to the houſe of peers, made a very judicious ſpeech, "lamenting the neceſſity which had obliged him, by every tie of duty and affection to his people, to employ the force entruſted to him for the ſuppreſſion of thoſe acts of felony and treaſon, which had borne down all civil authority, and threatened the immediate ſubverſion of all legal power, the deſtruction of all property, and the confuſion of every order in the ſtate; at the ſame time renewing his aſſurances, that he had no other object than to make the laws of the realm, and the principles of the conſtitution, the rule and meaſure of his conduct." An addreſs of thanks was deſervedly voted in reply to this laudable ſpeech, without a ſingle negative.

The political alienation which had for ſome years taken place between England and Holland, now began to unfold itſelf. A requiſition had been made by the court of London to the ſtates general, ſoon after the declaration of war againſt Spain, for the ſuccours ſtipulated by the treaty of 1678, confirmed by various ſubſequent agreements; but no anſwer could be obtained from their high mightineſſes. On the contrary, loud complaints were made of the conduct of the Engliſh court, which had cauſed to be ſeized, and carried into the different ports of Great Britain, ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the republic, navigated under the faith of treaties, and not laden with contraband goods. On the other hand, Great Britain complained that France received from Holland continual ſupplies of naval and military ſtores, contrary to the faith of treaties; and that the principle of ſelf-defence warranted the ſeizure and detention of all veſſels laden with ſuch exceptionable cargoes.

On the 1ſt of January, 1780, commodore Fielding fell in with a fleet of Dutch merchant ſhips off Portland, convoyed by a ſmall ſquadron commanded by count Byland. Captain Fielding deſiring permiſſion to viſit the merchant ſhips, in order to aſcertain whether they contained any contraband goods, was refuſed by the Dutch admiral; on which he fired a ſhot a-head of the count, who returned a broadſide: commodore Fielding did the ſame, and then the Dutch immediately ſtruck their colours. Such of the merchant ſhips as had naval ſtores on-board were ſtopped, and the Dutch admiral was informed that he was at liberty to hoiſt his colours and proſecute his voyage. But he refuſed to quit his convoy, and accompanied the commodore to Portſmouth. A memorial in ſtrong and reſentful terms was preſented by the Dutch ambaſſador, count Welderen, by order of the ſtates, in conſequence of this tranſaction, which was repreſented as a direct attack upon the independence and ſovereignty of their high mightineſſes; and a peremptory demand was made of reparation and redreſs, to which no regard was paid. But on the 17th of April a declaration was publiſhed by the king of Great Britain, by which it was announced, "That repeated memorials having been preſented by his majeſty's ambaſſador to the ſtates general, demanding the ſuccours ſtipulated by treaty, to which requiſition they had given no anſwer, nor ſignified any intention of compliance, his majeſty conſidered their high mightineſſes as having deſerted the alliance that had ſo long ſubſiſted between Great Britain and the republic; and his majeſty from this time ſuſpended, proviſionally, all the ſtipulations of the ſeveral exiſting treaties, particularly of the marine treaty, concluded at London, A. D. 1674."

Holland was, however, far from being ſingular in her complaints reſpecting the violated rights of neutrality. The powers of the Baltic, with a firmer tone, and in more decided language, declared their reſolution to adopt ſuch meaſures as were neceſſary for their own ſecurity. Early in the ſpring of 1780, the empreſs of Ruſſia addreſſed a declaration to the courts of London, Verſailles, and Madrid, containing an explicit ſtatement of the principles on which ſhe had determined to act for the removal of thoſe moleſtations which had interrupted the navigation of her ſubjects, and for the protection of the liberty of commerce in general. The radical principles here laid down were: I. That neutral ſhips ſhould enjoy a free navigation even from port to port, and on the coaſts of the belligerent powers. II. That all effects belonging to the ſubjects of the belligerent powers ſhall be looked upon as free on-board ſuch neutral ſhips, excepting only warlike ſtores or ammunition; but neither the veſſels, paſſengers, nor the reſt of the goods, ſhall be liable to ſeizure or detention. "To theſe principles, (her imperial majeſty declared,) ſhe was firmly reſolved to adhere; and, for the honour of her flag, and the ſecurity of her ſubjects, ſhe had ordered a conſiderable part of her naval forces to be equipped, to act wherever her honour, intereſt, or neceſſity, ſhould require." Denmark and Sweden, according in form to this declaration of Ruſſia, and ordering ſimilar equipments of their marine, this confederacy of the powers of the north acquired the appellation of "the armed neutrality;" and the baſis on which it was founded ſeemed to give univerſal ſatisfaction throughout Europe; England alone, againſt whom it was manifeſtly levelled, excepted.

Great Britain, thus menaced on all ſides, nevertheleſs purſued the war with vigour; and Spain commenced her offenſive operations with the blockade of Gibraltar. Early in 1780, ſir George Rodney was appointed to the command of a powerful fleet, deſtined for the relief of that garriſon, having on-board prince William-Henry, the third ſon of his majeſty. On the northern coaſt of Spain he fell in a convoy of twenty-two merchant-ſhips, richly laden, under the protection of a ſquadron of ſeven ſhips of war, to which he immediately gave chace, and in a few hours the whole were taken. This ſucceſs was the prelude to another and much greater.

On the 16th of January, off Cape St. Vincent, he deſcried a Spaniſh ſquadron, conſiſting of fourteen ſail of the line, which he directly bore down upon, and, notwithſtanding the ſtormy ſeaſon, taking the lee-gage, in order to prevent the enemy from retreating into their own ports; at four in the afternoon the action began, and in little more than half an hour one of the Spaniſh ſhips blew up with a dreadful exploſion. The engagement, nevertheleſs, continued with unabating fury in the midſt of darkneſs; and, before morning, the Phœnix, of eighty guns, don Juan de Langara, the Spaniſh admiral's own ſhip; the Monarca, the Princeſſa, the Diligenti, of ſeventy guns each, ſtruck their colours; the St. Julien, and St. Eugenio, were alſo captured; but through the violence of the tempeſt, were driven on-ſhore and loſt. The others eſcaped in a very ſhattered condition, and the whole ſquadron, as to any immediate capability of ſervice, might be conſidered as annihilated. Though the force of admiral Rodney was greatly ſuperior, his ſkill and courage were fully apparent in the mode of conducting the attack, which the violence of the ſtorm, the darkneſs of the night, and the vicinity of a lee-ſhore, every where encircled with ſhoals and breakers, rendered extremely dangerous; the admiral's own ſhip, the Sandwich, and ſeveral others, were in extreme hazard of being loſt on the ſhoals of St. Lucar, and did not get into deep water till the next day. After effecting the primary object of his commiſſion, the relief of Gibraltar, ſir George Rodney proceeded to the Weſt Indies, ſending home his prizes under the care of admiral Digby, who, on his paſſage, captured the Prothée, a French ſhip of ſixty-four guns, and part of her convoy

of

of merchant-ships. No sooner had admiral Rodney taken upon him the command in the West Indies, than every possible exertion was made to bring on a general action, which count de Guichen, who commanded the French fleet, cautiously avoided; but intelligence being received that in the night of the 15th of April, 1780, they had put to sea with their whole force, Rodney, who was stationed at St. Lucie, immediately followed, and early on the morning of the 17th he came in sight of the enemy; at noon the admiral made the signal for a general and close engagement, himself setting a noble example of courage to the fleet by bearing down upon the French admiral, whom he fought with unremitting fury till the enemy bore away, leaving the Sandwich, which from causes not easily or clearly ascertainable, was very ill supported in this action, a mere wreck upon the water. Other partial and indecisive encounters also took place, in which little inferiority of skill or courage was discernible on the part of the French officers or seamen.

During these transactions in the West Indies, don Galvez, the Spanish governor of Louisiana, reduced the British settlements on the Mississippi, and had made great progress in the conquest of the province of West Florida, though Pensacola held out to the next year. As a very inadequate counterbalance to these successes, an expedition had been undertaken from Jamaica to the Spanish main; and the fortress of Omoa, which contained a considerable booty in specie and merchandise, was taken by storm, but soon afterwards evacuated. A very heavy misfortune in the autumn of this year took place, in the entire capture of the outward-bound East and West India fleets, in the Bay of Biscay, by the Spaniards; a loss which had no parallel in the naval and commercial history of Great Britain, since the famous capture of the Smyrna fleet, in the reign of king William.

On the 3d of September, 1780, the Mercury, a congress packet, was taken by the Vestal frigate, off the banks of Newfoundland. On-board this packet was Mr. Laurens, president of the American congress, charged with a commission to Holland. On being brought to England, he was examined by the privy council, and committed close prisoner to the Tower, on an accusation of high treason. His papers, which had been thrown overboard, and by great dexterity and diligence recovered and deciphered, were found to contain the sketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the states of America. This treaty appeared to be in a train of negociation, and to have received the sanction and approbation of M. Van Berkel, counsellor and pensionary of Amsterdam. Such was the high offence taken by the court of London at this discovery, that orders were transmitted to sir Joseph Yorke immediately to leave the Hague, and a declaration of war was made against Holland on the 20th of December, 1780. This was a measure totally unexpected on the part of the states general, who were ill-prepared for such a rupture. Before the departure of count Welderen from the court of London, he delivered, by order of the states, a letter to lord Stormont, which his lordship returned unopened; the war having been decided on in the cabinet as inevitable.

A very considerable portion of the first session of the new parliament, which met on the 31st of October, 1780, was occupied in the consideration of the affairs of India, from the period in which the memorable bill of regulation framed by lord North, A. D. 1773, passed into a law. In the month of April, 1772, took place, in consequence of the removal of governor Cartier, the memorable appointment of Warren Hastings, esq. as governor-general of Bengal; a man, whose conduct throughout all the inferior gradations of office stood confessedly unimpeached. The members of the supreme council at the same time appointed under him were, sir John Clavering, colonel Monson, and Philip Francis, esq. That the reader may be enabled to form a competent idea of the nature of Indian politics, and of the mode of traffic by which such immense fortunes were all at once poured into England from that opulent country, we shall, from the documents furnished by the public enquiry into the conduct of Mr. Hastings in Hindoostan, give a faint outline of the government under which such riches were acquired, and which called so loudly for the interference of the British parliament.

The project which had been unjustly adopted in India, and so universally execrated in England, of setting up the lands of the zemindars, polygars, &c. to public auction, still appeared, from the immediate adoption of this system by the new governor, to be the favourite policy of Mr. Hastings himself. In the space of about two hundred years, during which the kingdom of Bengal and its appendages had been under the Mahomedan government, the original ground rents or heriots, *aussil jumma*, of the zemindars, and other great hereditary landholders who held under the government, had never been raised; and a permanent interest being thus created in the land, the talookdars, polygars, and ryots, who possessed the subordinate rights of property under the zemindars, were neither themselves oppressed, nor allowed to oppress the actual occupants and cultivators of the soil. But from the period that Bengal fell into the hands of the English, this judicious regulation appears to have been annihilated, by unreasonably advancing the fee-farm rents. Mr. Hastings, among the first acts of his government, instituted a committee of circuit, invested with the power to dispose of all the lands in the province, from the highest zemindar down to the lowest ryot, by public auction, to farm for the term of five years. The pretext for this bold measure, was the decay of the public revenue, of which, in consequence of this system, Mr. Hastings had the courage to promise the court of directors an immediate and progressive augmentation; acknowledging, nevertheless, the country at the same time to be in a languishing state, and that the population had decreased in the proportion of one-third since the first grant of the dewannee, or sovereign jurisdiction, from the Mogul emperor. The most dreadful confusion began to ensue; and Mr. Hastings, in his minute of April, 1773, confesses, "That the expected improvement had not taken place, being obstructed by a circumstance which could not be foreseen, viz. the farmers having engaged for a higher revenue than their districts could afford. It is true (says he) that the lands were almost all over-bid for; and many let to indigent and desperate adventurers; but this was unavoidable in such a mode." The deficiency in the revenue was in fact enormous, falling, in five years, no less than two millions and a half short of the settlement. The lands being on all hands admitted to be partially overrated, the governor and council were of course called upon to exercise a discretionary power of remission. This at once opened an immense field of fraud and peculation, and could not fail to prove to individuals, *in certain situations*, an exhaustless source of wealth. The court of directors declared themselves, in the sequel, "fully aware of the duplicity which had been practised in the letting out the lands in Bengal; that flagrant corruption and great oppressions had been committed;" and they ordered a prosecution to be commenced against the persons who composed the committee of circuit. But after long and studied delays, Mr. Hastings ultimately proposed, and carried his proposition in council, "That orders should be given for withdrawing the said prosecution." It is worthy of remark, that the banyan, or black steward, of Mr. Hastings, Cantoo Baboo, rented, under the new tenure, lands to the value of 150,000l. per annum; and remissions to a very great amount were granted to this man, as well as to all those whose reasons appeared to the governor and council equally valid. The zemindary of Baharbund, taken from the rannee of Radshi, was also given in perpetuity to Cantoo Baboo, at a rent of 82,000 rupees, although the value of it was rated at 350,000. The same Cantoo Baboo was also permitted to contract largely

largely for the proviſion of the company's inveſtments; "but this (the court of directors, in their general letter of December, 1776, ſay,) we poſitively forbid in future." The aſtoniſhment into which ſir John Clavering and his colleagues were thrown, on being apprized of this extraordinary ſtate of things in Bengal, was much increaſed by the alarming information of a war, into which the governor-general had recently entered, in conjunction with the vizier Sujah ul Dowla, nabob of Oude, for the abſolute conqueſt and extirpation of the nation of the Rohillas, inhabiting the fertile and beautiful province of Rohilcund, ſituated to the northward of the dominions of the vizier, and bounded by the high range of mountains dividing Hindooſtan from Tartary. It was not pretended by Mr. Haſtings, that the company had received any injury whatever from the Rohilla nation; but that we engaged in the war ſolely as allies of the nabob vizier. The cauſes or pretexts of the quarrel, with reſpect to the vizier himſelf, were of a nature palpably unreaſonable and unjuſt. The Rohilla nation, being involved in hoſtilities with the Mahrattas, had applied to the vizier for aſſiſtance, who agreed to furniſh them with a large body of troops for an equivalent in money. But, through the dilatory, or perhaps inſidious, policy of the vizier, the auxiliary troops did not arrive till the enemy were repulſed. The Rohilla government, therefore, objected to the payment of the promiſed ſtipend; on which the vizier, with the concurrence of Mr. Haſtings, determined to declare war againſt the Rohillas, for the purpoſe of adding ſo deſirable a territory to his dominions. Such is the Rohilla ſtatement of the caſe. Nevertheleſs, ſir Robert Barker, and the other officers employed in this expedition, ſtrongly atteſt the performance of the ſervice contracted for by the vizier, in their reſpective examinations at the bar of the houſe of commons. The Rohillas, in the higheſt degree alarmed, offered to ſubmit the whole cauſe of diſpute to the arbitration of the Engliſh; but this was declined by Mr. Haſtings, who urged the vizier in ſtrong terms to the execution of his deſign, declaring to him, "That it would be abſolutely neceſſary to perſevere in it until it ſhould be accompliſhed; and that he could not hazard or anſwer for the diſpleaſure of the company, if they ſhould find themſelves engaged in a fruitleſs war, or in a ruinous expence for proſecuting it." This apprehenſion was founded on very reaſonable grounds; for the court of directors, in their inſtructions to the ſupreme council, had laid it down as an unalterable maxim, "That they were to avoid taking part in the political ſchemes of any of the country princes, particularly of the nabob of Oude, of whoſe ambitious diſpoſition they were well apprized."

A conſiderable body of troops under colonel Champion, being detached to the aid of the vizier, entered the province of Rohilcund, and a pitched battle took place, in which Hafiz Rhamel, the principal leader of the Rohillas, and many other of their chieftains, were ſlain. The whole country, deſcribed as "a garden not having one ſpot in it of uncultivated ground," was, in conſequence of this war, converted into a barren waſte, and in a great meaſure depopulated, either by the rigours of military execution, or by forcing the wretched inhabitants beyond the mountains, to wander and periſh in the Tartarian deſerts. For this ſervice, the vizier had agreed to pay into the treaſury of Calcutta the ſum of forty lacks of rupees; and Mr. Haſtings, in vindication of his conduct, alleged, and in his memorable parliamentary defence entered upon record, the following very extraordinary reaſons: "The acquiſition of this ſum to the company, and of ſo much ſpecie added to the exhauſted currency of our provinces, that it would give wealth to the nabob of Oude, of which we ſhould participate; that he ſhould be always ready to profeſs, that he did reckon the probable acquiſition of wealth among his reaſons for taking up arms againſt his neighbours; that it would eaſe the company of a conſiderable part of their military expence, and preſerve their troops from inactivity and relaxation of diſcipline; that the Rohillas are not a nation, but a body of foreign adventurers, who had made a conqueſt of the country about ſixty years before. See the article HINDOOSTAN. That this province would be a moſt commodious acquiſition, and the weakneſs of the Rohillas, with the open and defenceleſs ſtate of the country, promiſed an eaſy conqueſt; and finally, that ſuch was his idea of the company's diſtreſs at home, added to his knowledge of their wants abroad, that he ſhould have been glad of any occaſion to employ their forces which ſaved ſo much of their pay and expences."

The principal of the Rohilla chieftains, who eſcaped from the deciſive battle of St. George, was Fyzoola Khan, who retired to a remote part of the country with his treaſures, and the ſhattered remains of the Rohilla army; and after the death of Hafiz, renowned throughout the eaſt for the ſuperiority of his intellectual talents and perſonal accompliſhments, Fyzoola Khan was very generally acknowledged as the head of this unfortunate nation. Finding his utter inability to continue the war, he ſued in very ſubmiſſive terms for peace; which the vizier, through the interceſſion of colonel Champion, thought proper to grant; and a treaty was accordingly ſigned at Lall-Dang, October 1774, agreeably to which Fyzoola Khan was confirmed in the poſſeſſion of Rampore, Shawabad, and ſome adjoining diſtricts; on condition of giving up half his treaſure, and of furniſhing a certain ſtipulated quota of troops when called upon. Thus the Rohilla war ended: but it was ſubſequently condemned in deciſive terms by a formal reſolution of the court of directors in London, paſſed November 1775, "as contrary to the expreſs and repeated orders of the court, and inconſiſtent with the principles both of policy and juſtice;" and this reſolve was, with the omiſſion of the laſt word, confirmed by a vote of the court of proprietors.

After having made the acquiſition of Bengal, the company at home ſeemed fully ſatisfied with the extent of their conqueſts; and the diſpatches of the court of directors were from that period filled with rigorous injunctions to avoid all offenſive wars, in which they appear perpetually apprehenſive that the ambition, temerity, and avarice, of their ſervants in India would involve them. Nevertheleſs, at the diſtance of half the globe from the ſcene of action, it was impoſſible not to allow in the execution of their orders ſome latitude of diſcretion. "The ſituation of affairs, (ſay they, in their general letter of the 30th of June, 1769,) may be varied by unforeſeen events at the very moment we are writing; whenever you think yourſelves obliged for our ſecurity upon emergent occaſions to adopt meaſures of a contrary, i. e. hoſtile tendency, you are to give us very full reaſons for ſuch deviations." In another letter they ſay, "You muſt undoubtedly act according to the emergency of affairs:" and again, in another diſpatch, "As we know not what alliances may be formed to juſtify us in carrying our arms beyond the bounds of the provinces, we are prevented from propoſing any preciſe plan for your guidance in this reſpect."

Theſe neceſſary and unavoidable conceſſions on the part of the directors, Mr. Haſtings, in his minutes of defence, converts into a juſtification of the Rohilla war; although the Rohillas were as unwilling as they were unable to do any injury to the company. The real grounds of the war, however, appeared ſufficiently obvious. The pretext held out was, that the vizier, as an ally of the company, was entitled to our aſſiſtance; and that, as guarantees of the treaty between him and the Rohilla chiefs, we were bound to grant it. Without adverting to the juſtice or injuſtice of the vizier's demand on the Rohillas, it is enough to ſay, that this pretended guarantee conſiſted only in the treaty being ſigned at the requeſt of the Rohillas themſelves, from their well-grounded diſtruſt of the vizier, in the preſence of ſir Robert Barker, commander in chief of the company's forces, as a witneſs of

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the ſame. It is not pretended that ſir Robert Barker had authority to pledge the company as guarantees of the treaty; and that he ſhould take upon him to bind the government by ſo ſerious and important an act, without ſpecial inſtruction and direction, is an incredible ſuppoſition; and in fact, ſir Robert Barker, being interrogated at the bar of the houſe of commons, "Whether he conceived that he had by any act of his bound the company to a guarantee of the treaty by war?" anſwered poſitively, "I did not." Alſo, in a letter written even before the actual concluſion of the treaty, he declares, "That it was the furtheſt from his intention that the company ſhould in any reſpect whatever be mentioned in the agreement between the vizier and the Rohillas."

From the firſt ſuggeſtion of this project of conqueſt and extirpation by the vizier of Oude, it is evident that Mr. Haſtings urged its proſecution with an ardour far ſuperior to that diſcovered by the nabob, whoſe ambition was counteracted by his avarice, and who on cool reflection appears to have thought the prize ſcarcely worth the purchaſe. "I availed myſelf, (ſays Mr. Haſtings,) of his eager ſolicitude for the attainment of this point, to engage his aſſent to another meaſure of much greater value to the company; that is to ſay, the increaſe of his annual payments or ſubſidy to the amount of two hundred and ten thouſand rupees per month." But it is ſufficiently evident, that when this conceſſion was once extorted from the vizier, his ſolicitude for the war began to ſink into indifference.

In a letter written by Mr. Haſtings to the vizier, April 21, 1773, he enlarges on the great advantage which would reſult to the vizier from the reduction of the Rohilla country; "becauſe (ſays he) by that means the defenſive line of your dominions would be completed, by including within it all the land lying on that ſide of the river Ganges."—"The allurement (to adopt the language of Mr. Haſtings, in his defence,) thus held out to the vizier, ſucceeded. He propoſed, in reply, a meeting with me at Benares. I found him ſtill equally bent on the deſign of reducing the Rohillas, which I encouraged as I had before done, by dwelling on the advantages which he would derive from its ſucceſs; by objecting with great force the orders of the company reſtricting us from ſuch remote ſchemes of conqueſt, to which I therefore could not aſſent without ſuch conditions obtained in return for it as might obviate their diſpleaſure, and win their ſanction to ſo hazardous and unauthorized a meaſure. Having at length obtained this point, viz. the increaſe of the ſubſidy, I eaſily yielded my aſſent to the Rohilla plan, on the ſtipulation of forty lacks for its accompliſhment. (A lack of rupees, at par, amounts to 12,500l. ſterling.) As a precaution againſt any effects which were to be apprehended from the vizier's irreſolution, the conditions originally accepted were dictated to him in the form of a letter, to be written by him, in which a clauſe was inſerted, 'that whether the country was conquered, or a peace concluded between him and the enemy, the ſtipulation for the forty lacks ſhould become *equally due*.' Thus, at laſt, (ſays Mr. Haſtings,) an occaſion took place, when, by a ſlight deviation from the defenſive plan, our alliance with the vizier might be converted into ſolid advantages. In effect, the ſame reaſons which before urged us to ſhun every military expedition, now operated in the contrary direction, and recommended the employment of our army for the purpoſe of reducing our expences, and adding to our currency."

As to the mode in which this war of extirpation was conducted, we are aſſured that colonel Champion never mentioned the ſervice on which he was employed without the deepeſt expreſſions of grief and abhorrence. "Whilſt all Aſia knows, (ſays this commander,) that the Engliſh gave him, i. e. Sujah, the nabob of Oude, the rod, will they not reaſonably conclude that the ſcourges which the agent gives are connived at? will they not ſay every Engliſh chief is another Sujah?"—"The authority given to the vizier over the army, (ſays the colonel, in a letter to Mr. Haſtings, dated May 10, 1774,) has totally abſorbed that degree of conſequence due to my ſtation. My hands have been tied up from giving protection to the miſerable. I have been obliged to lend a deaf ear to the lamentable cries of the widow and the fatherleſs, and ſhut my eyes againſt a wanton diſplay of violence and oppreſſion, of inhumanity and cruelty. The company's intereſt conſtrained me in public to ſtifle the workings of my feelings, but I muſt give way to them in private; it would affect your ſenſibility too much, were I to deſcend to particulars. The family of Hafiz, the Begums included, have been driven to the neceſſity of making ſupplications for a little rice and water; and of the priſoners, many have died for want of ſuſtenance. I wiſh to leave ſcenes which none but the mercileſs Sujah can bear without heart-bleeding pain: relieve me, therefore, as ſoon as poſſible." In a moving repreſentation to the colonel from the ſons of Hafiz, of their manifold diſtreſſes, they ſay of the vizier, "He has deprived us of our country, our riches, and even of our honour; and not ſatisfied with that, he is going to ſend us priſoners to Fyzabad. We deſire no country, no riches, no palaces; but at Biſſoulee are the tombs of our noble anceſtors: near them, under ſome ſhade, we beg permiſſion to ſpend the remainder of our days as faquiers." Theſe things the colonel ſays he is compelled to ſtate, although the ungracious reception of his former repreſentations gave him but little encouragement to plead the cauſe of the unfortunate.

In a ſubſequent letter, dated June 15, 1774, the colonel deſires that he may be empowered to withdraw the Engliſh troops, in caſe the vizier will not otherwiſe be prevailed upon to deſiſt from his enormities: but this Mr. Haſtings, in his reply, declares to be "obviouſly inadmiſſible. Where, (ſaid he,) is our authority to judge or controul the conduct of the vizier, further than reſpects his engagements with us? Even granting we had an authority to controul the vizier's conduct in the manner you propoſe, we muſt have demonſtration of the infallibility of the perſon we entruſted with ſuch an authority, before we could be vindicated in the delegation of it. All the country ſubdued becomes abſolutely the vizier's. On the terms you propoſe, the Engliſh commander would ſuperſede his authority in the government of his new poſſeſſions." In lieu, therefore, of the expedient ſuggeſted by the humanity of colonel Champion, the governor-general ordered his reſident, Mr. Middleton, to remonſtrate and expoſtulate with the vizier concerning his conduct towards the Rohillas, "in order to exculpate the Engliſh government from the imputation of aſſenting to ſuch a procedure." But ſo little did the vizier regard theſe feeble and formal remonſtrances, that the family of Hafiz, after ſuffering the moſt dreadful and ſhocking indignities, were carried in captivity to Fyzabad.

In a ſubſequent letter from the nabob Mahub Ulla Khan, eldeſt ſon of Hafiz, he moſt earneſtly ſupplicates, in the name of God and Chriſt, the interpoſition of the Engliſh commander for their releaſe. "O my guardian! (ſays he,) turn your face to the buſineſs of a ſlave, and have us enlarged, and it will not go unrewarded." As to the plea ſet up in defence of this unprovoked invaſion, "That the Rohillas were not a nation, but a body of foreign adventurers, who poſſeſſed the country by a preſcription of only ſixty years;" it is ſufficient to know, that the inhabitants of Rohilcund, under their civil government, enjoyed peace and proſperity; that theſe people were able to bring an army of fifty or ſixty thouſand men into the field; and that it might with infinitely more force be retorted on the Engliſh themſelves, that they were a body of "foreign adventurers," who had been at this time ſcarcely ſeven ſummers in poſſeſſion of the country they occupied. With equal feeling and animation it has been ſaid in relation to the general infamy of the Rohilla war, "There is no power in this world that can annihilate ſuch a queſtion—though it were dead, yet ſhall it live.

The cauſe by its own energy ſhall turn upon the force that oppreſſes it, and ſting to deſtruction the vulnerable heel that endeavours to keep it down."

Another important tranſaction, of which the new counſellors were for the firſt time apprized at their arrival in India, gave further ſcope to their ſyſtem of policy. In the ſolemn treaty of peace, concluded Auguſt 1765, at Illahabad, between the nabob vizier of Oude and the Eaſt-India company, it is ſtipulated, that the Mogul emperor, Sha Allum, ſhall remain under the guarantee of the company in full poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah and Illahabad, as a royal demeſne; in conſideration of which the dewannee or ſovereignty of Bengal was granted by the Mogul emperor in perpetuity to the company. About the year 1772, the emperor, who had hitherto reſided at Illahabad, removed to his ancient capital of Dehli; but unhappily engaging in unſucceſsful hoſtilities with the Mahrattas, this people compelled him, while in their power, to grant ſunnuds for the ſurrender of Corah and Illahabad to them. But Mr. Haſtings, in his letter of March 1773 to the court of directors, ſays, "In no ſhape can this compulſatory ceſſion by the Mogul king, releaſe us from the obligation we are under to defend the provinces which we have ſo particularly guaranteed to him;" and they were accordingly occupied by the troops of the company, and taken under its immediate protection. In a ſhort time, however, the ideas of Mr. Haſtings ſuffered a total change; for by an act of the governor and council, paſſed in June following, the engagements between the company and the emperor are declared to be diſſolved, by his alienation from them and their intereſts, manifeſted by his removal to Dehli. Nevertheleſs, "if the Mogul king ſhould make overtures to renew his former connection, his right to reclaim the diſtricts of Corah and Illahabad could not (ſay they) be diſputed; and the governor is authoriſed to reſtore them to him, on condition that he ſhould renounce his claim to the annual tribute of twenty-ſix lacks of rupees, reſerved to the emperor out of the revenues of Bengal, and to the arrears which might be due." Yet, in the treaty concluded in perſon by the governor-general with the vizier of Oude, in September 1773, it is aſſerted, "That his Mogul majeſty having abandoned the diſtricts of Corah and Illahabad, and given a ſunnud for Corah and Currah to the Mahrattas, had thereby forfeited his right to the ſaid diſtricts." And in his ſubſequent report of this interview and negociation with the vizier Sujah ul Dowla, the governor declared, "That the adminiſtration would have been culpable in the higheſt degree for retaining poſſeſſion of Corah and Illahabad, for any other purpoſe than that of making an advantage by the diſpoſal of them, and therefore he had ceded them to the vizier for fifty lacks of rupees; the nett annual revenue of theſe provinces being eſtimated at twenty-five lacks." At the ſame time the governor and council determined to withhold the tribute of twenty-ſix lacks of rupees from the emperor, pretending "That they were not ſatisfied of his amicable intentions, and that the reduced ſtate of their treaſury rendered ſuch payment impracticable." Such was the unaccountable treatment which the emperor of Hindooſtan received from the ſervants of a foreign mercantile company; although Mr. Haſtings himſelf, in a minute recorded in the council-book on another occaſion, declared, "That fallen as the houſe of Timur is, it is yet the relic of the moſt illuſtrious line of the eaſtern world; that its ſovereignty is univerſally acknowledged, though the ſubſtance of it no longer exiſts; and that the company itſelf derives its conſtitutional dominion from its oſtenſible bounty."

The Mahratta ſtates are the only people of Hindooſtan who were not ſubdued by the Moguls, or who never acknowledged allegiance to the houſe of Timur. Secure amidſt their inacceſſible mountains, they preſerved, unimpaired, their liberty and independency, and were at all times regarded by the moſt powerful of the Mahomedan emperors as very formidable adverſaries. This nation conſiſted of a number of diſtinct tribes, governed by their reſpective chieftains, but who all recognized, as their ſupreme head, a prince ſtyled the Sou, or Ram Rajah, i. e. the great rajah, whoſe throne was eſtabliſhed at Setterah. Since the decline of the Mogul power, that of the Mahrattas had riſen rapidly on its ruins. At this period their dominions extended from Travancore, near the ſouthern extremity of the peninſula, to the province of Guzzerat, northward, divided from the Perſian territories by the river Paddar, the Jumna ſeparating them from the empire of the Mogul. To the eaſt they ſtretch to the Carnatic and the dominions of the Nizam of the Decan, the province of Catac carrying their poſſeſſions irregularly acroſs the peninſula to the bay of Bengal. Their revenues were computed to amount to more than twelve millions ſterling; and their military eſtabliſhment, which was compoſed chiefly of cavalry, to three hundred thouſand men. It is a ſingular circumſtance in this government, that the ſovereignty of the Sou or Ram Rajah exiſt, at this day, only in name. Nana Row, peiſhwa or prime miniſter of the country, at a period not very remote, ſeizing the perſon of the rajah, confined him in a fortreſs near Setterah; and, uſurping the powers of the government, continued to adminiſter them in the name of the ſovereign. Nana Row, dying, left the ſucceſſion to his ſon Mada Row, who finding a rival in the perſon of Ragonaut Row, his uncle, a man of an intriguing diſpoſition and moſt flagitious character, kept him in cloſe confinement till near the time of his own death; when, being deſirous to enſure the quiet ſucceſſion of the peiſhwaſhip to his brother Narrain Row, he became reconciled to Ragonaut, in conſequence of the moſt ſolemn promiſes of the latter to aſſiſt the young Narrain Row with his moſt tender care, protection, and advice. The credulous Mada Row ſhed tears of joy and ſatisfaction at this happy event, and cloſed his eyes in peace. But the vile and unnatural wretch, thus generouſly liberated, immediately engaged in new plots againſt his nephew Narrain; and in a few months after his acceſſion, September 1773, the young peiſhwa was aſſaſſinated by the villainous contrivance of his uncle, who expected to have ſucceeded without difficulty to the government. But the horror and deteſtation excited by a crime of this enormous magnitude, occaſioned an oppoſition ſo general, that the parricide Ragonaut was compelled to fly his country. Unhappily he directed his courſe to the iſland of Bombay, the government of which not only granted him, without heſitation, their protection, but, affecting to admit the validity of his claims, they commenced open hoſtilities againſt the Mahrattas, indulging the moſt ambitious and ſanguine hopes, if the reſtoration of Ragonaut Row could be accompliſhed by their aid, to rival Madras and Calcutta in opulence and power.

The iſland of Salſette, and the city of Baroach, were quickly reduced by the valour of the company's troops; but it does not appear that at this period the preſidency of Bombay received any encouragement from Mr. Haſtings to proſecute theſe projects of aggrandiſement. On the contrary, the governor joined with the new counſellors, Clavering, Monſon, and Francis, in reprobating theſe proceedings; declaring by an act of council, paſſed May 1775, that the meaſures adopted by the preſidency of Bombay had a tendency to a very extenſive and indefinite ſcene of troubles; and that their conduct was unſeaſonable, impolitic, unjuſt, and unauthorized. And availing themſelves of the ſuperiority veſted in them as conſtituting the ſupreme power in India, colonel Upton was ſent on an embaſſy to the Mahratta court, for the purpoſe of negociating a peace, which was concluded at Poonah, and ratified March 1, 1776, upon terms honourable and advantageous. By this treaty Salſette, Baroach, and various adjoining diſtricts in the Guzzerat provinces, were ceded to the company, and the ſum of twelve lacks of rupees allotted to them as an indemnification for the expences of the war. On the other hand, it was ſtipulated

that

that Ragonaut Row ſhould withdraw from Bombay, and that no protection or aſſiſtance ſhould be granted to him or any other ſubject of the Mahratta ſtate, who may cauſe any diſturbance or rebellion in that country. Notwithſtanding the ſolemnity of this engagement, Ragonaut Row ſtill continued at Bombay, and by means of his agents fomented parties and diſſenſions in the court of Poonah, until the Mahratta government, jealous in the higheſt degree of the deſigns of the Engliſh, were provoked to receive with marked diſtinction the chevalier de St. Lubin, ambaſſador from the French preſidency of Pondicherry. This event brought on the ſubſequent ſtruggles betwixt the Engliſh and French in India.

On the 28th of January, 1778, the governor introduced this ſubject at the ſupreme board. "If report could be believed, (ſaid Mr. Haſtings,) written engagements had paſſed between the Mahratta court and M. St. Lubin, the object of which, whatever it be, muſt, if attempted, prove deſtructive to the Britiſh trade and influence in India. Although the Mahratta power, unallied with other ſtates, was unable to cope with the company, yet, ſuſtained by the French, they are qualified to refuſe acquieſcence with our demands, which demands the iſland of Baſſeen offers as the only proſpect of a ſecurity; that no obligation precludes us from demanding it, nor can any blame be imputed to us, if, as the ſuperior power, we preſcribe the terms of accommodation." In addition to this demand, Mr. Haſtings, in the plan ſubſequently laid by him before the board, required "that the Mahratta government give ſuch ſecurity for the perſonal ſafety of Ragonaut Row as he himſelf ſhall require; that a ſpecific ſum be demanded to reimburſe the company for their late military charges; that a grant of territory be made contiguous to Baſſeen; and that no European ſettlement be allowed on the Mahratta coaſts without conſent of the company." At the ſame time he communicated a plan formed by the preſidency of Bombay, to reinſtate Ragonaut Row in the peiſhwaſhip by force of arms, being invited to this enterpriſe by ſundry members of the Mahratta government.

After much oppoſition from Mr. Francis and Mr. Wheeler, who had recently ſucceeded ſir John Clavering as a member of the board, the governor's propoſals were carried in council by his own caſting vote; and it was finally determined to ſupport Ragonaut Row, in the event of the infraction of the Poonah or Poorunder treaty, as now explained: aſſerting that "the preſidency of Bengal was in a condition to aſſiſt Bombay abundantly with men and money to carry on the Mahratta war," Mr. Haſtings propoſed to march a large detachment of the company's troops acroſs the peninſula, for the purpoſe of reinforcing the Bombay army. This alſo being carried in the ſame manner, the deſtined reinforcement, under colonel Leſlie, commenced this unprecedented march of eleven hundred miles, early in May, 1778. In order to promote and corroborate the ſucceſs of this project, Mr. Haſtings had moſt aſſiduouſly courted the friendſhip and alliance of the rajah of Berar, Moodajee Booſla, whoſe dominions occupied the intermediate ſpace between thoſe of the company and of the Mahratta ſtates, inciting and urging that prince, who was far advanced in years, and of a mild and pacific diſpoſition, openly to avow his claim to the ſovereignty of the Mahrattas, to which the rajah had ſome obſcure and remote pretenſions. Moodajee Booſla, however, was ſo far from being willing to embark his fortunes in this new war, that he abſolutely declined to take any part in it.

Colonel Leſlie, who commanded the army on its march to Bombay, dying, October, 1778, was ſucceeded by colonel Goddard. This able officer, after ſurmounting great and various obſtacles, reached the ſouthern banks of the Narbudda, within the territory of Berar, January, 1779; and immediately detached lieutenant Wetherſtone to the court of Naigpore, again to urge the rajah's acceſſion to the propoſed plan of operation. But the lieutenant, in his letters to colonel Goddard, declares, that Moodajee Booſla, and the government of Berar, were determined not to take any active part whatever with the company's armies; that they had a thouſand arguments to oppoſe to thoſe he urged in favour of the plan for aſſuming the dignity of ram rajah of Setterah, particularly the faith pledged, and the alliance of friendſhip they had ſworn to, with the preſent peiſhwa; that the aſſerting their pretenſions to the ſovereignty would meet with numberleſs oppoſitions; and that ſucceſs could not be obtained without ſhedding much blood, and at the expence of violating the ſacred engagements before entered into with them. Mr. Wetherſtone further ſays, "that it ſeemed now to be the firſt wiſh of the court of Berar to ſet aſide our connection with Ragonaut Row, the ſupporting of whom they aſſerted to be highly impolitical, and that in the end it would be fully proved ſo; that this chief, Ragonaut Row, was held in univerſal abhorrence; and that the prejudices againſt him in the decan would not eaſily, if ever, be removed. And the rajah earneſtly offered his mediation to make up all the exiſting differences."

About this period, likewiſe, letters were received by the governor-general from Siccaram Pundit, prime miniſter of the Poonah government, containing heavy complaints of the conduct of the Engliſh ſince the concluſion of the treaty of Poorunder. "The government of Bombay from that period has, in every inſtance, (he aſſerts,) excited troubles and commotions, in violation of the ties of friendſhip; and notwithſtanding the expreſs ſtipulation to expel Ragonaut Row from the dominions of the company, they have performed nothing thereof. Out of regard to the friendſhip and alliance of the company, I call God to witneſs, that the envoy of France was diſmiſſed without negociating with him. It is mutually incumbent upon us to obſerve the terms of the treaty." And again, in a ſubſequent diſpatch, the ſame miniſter ſays, "Notwithſtanding the concluſion of the treaty, the Bombay government kept Ragonaut Row with them. It even appears to a conviction, that they perſuaded Ragoba, i.e. Ragonaut Row, to the meaſures he has purſued. How then does the ſupreme authority of the council of Calcutta from the king of England appear, ſince the chiefs of the different ſettlements do not regard engagements made by you as binding on them? And you, ſir, paying no regard to your own acts, take your meaſures on the repreſentations of the government of Bombay. This is indeed aſtoniſhing to the higheſt degree! It is the dictate of ſound policy, that you withdraw your troops to your own territory. This will be a convincing proof of the ſincerity of your friendſhip, and will ſpread the fame of your good faith throughout the univerſe. From the commencement of the government of the family of the peiſhwa, they have entered into treaties with many of the chiefs of the eaſt and weſt, and have never before experienced ſuch a want of faith from any one."

In the mean time, pending theſe negociations and the march of the Bengal army, the preſidency of Bombay, poſſeſſed with high ideas of their own ſtrength, confident of ſucceſs, and jealous, leſt, by the arrival of the expected reinforcements, they ſhould be obliged to divide the ſpoil and profit of the expedition into the Mahratta country, with thoſe of whoſe aſſiſtance they ſtood in no need, having made all the previous military preparations, and formally declared the treaty of Poorunder void, put their troops in motion, November, 1778. The event of this expedition cannot be better related than in the words of Row Ghee, reſident at the court of Poonah from the nabob of Arcot: "The Engliſh ſurdars, (ſays this intelligent obſerver, in a letter to the nabob,) with an army conſiſting of ſeven hundred Europeans, eight battalions of ſepoys, and forty pieces of cannon, marched from Bombay to the paſſes. Siccaram Pundit and Nana Furneſe joined their forces, and ſatisfied the diſcontented chiefs, Scindia and Holkar, by giving them money, jaghires, and other preſents. All the chiefs having met to conſult, agreed unanimouſly not to receive Ragonaut Row, ſince he came with an army of Engliſh, who were of a different nation

from them, and whoſe conduct in Sujah Dowla's country, the Rohilla country, Bengal, and the Carnatic, they were well acquainted with. Otherwiſe, in the end, they would be obliged to forſake their religion, and become the ſlaves of Europeans." Upon this they exchanged oaths, and a great army was ſent to occupy the Ghaut, or paſs of Tullicanoon. Mr. Martyn, the Bombay reſident at Poonah, had encouraged the Engliſh to believe, that as ſoon as their army ſhould arrive at the Ghaut, Holkar would join them with all his forces. The Engliſh, truſting to this, waited there with impatience for a whole month, but no one appeared to join their ſtandard. They then marched forward, although much haraſſed by the Mahrattas, who at length completely cut off their ſupplies of proviſions.

The Engliſh then determined upon retreating back to the Ghaut; but Siccaram, gaining intelligence of their march, detached a large body of troops to intercept them. An obſtinate engagement enſued on the 13th of January, 1799, in which the Engliſh, being ſurrounded and overpowered, loſt two hundred Europeans and twelve hundred ſepoys. No poſſibility of eſcape now remained; and on the renewal of hoſtilities on the 15th, by a heavy cannonade from the Mahrattas, a gentleman, Mr. Farmer, advancing from the Engliſh camp, the firing ceaſed. The chiefs of the Mahrattas ſent for him into their preſence, and Mr. Farmer addreſſed them in the following words: "We are only merchants—when diſputes prevailed with you, Ragonauf Row came to us, and demanded our protection. We thought he had a right to the government, and gave him our aſſiſtance. Nothing but ill fortune attends him, and we have been brought to this miſerable ſtate by keeping him with us. You are maſters to keep him from us. We ſhall henceforth adhere to the treaties that have formerly taken place between us; be pleaſed to forgive what has happened." The miniſter anſwered, "Ragonaut Row is one of us—what right could you have to interfere in our concerns with him? We now deſire you to give up Salſette and Baſſeen, and what other countries you have poſſeſſed yourſelves of. Adhere to the treaty made in the time of Bajalee Row, in September, 1761, and aſk nothing elſe."

Next day at noon Mr. Farmer returned, and told Scindia "that he had brought a blank paper, ſigned and ſealed, which the Mahratta chiefs will fill up as they pleaſed." Scindia told the chiefs, "that although they had it in their power to make any demands they pleaſed, it would not be adviſable to do it at this time. For our making large demands would only ſow reſentment in their hearts, and we had better demand only what is neceſſary. Let Ragonaut Row be with us; let Salſette and the pergunnahs in Guzzerat be reſtored; let the Bengal army return back." Theſe articles being wrote out on paper, in Perſian, Mahratta, and Engliſh, ſealed with the company's ſeal, were ſigned at Worgaum, by general Carnac and ſeven officers. Hoſtages were given for the due performance of them. After this the Mahratta ſurdars ſent them victuals, which they needed much. The Engliſh and ſepoys, grounding their arms, marched out, eſcorted by two thouſand Mahratta horſe.

Intelligence of this diſaſtrous event having reached Calcutta, Mr. Haſtings declared in council, that general Goddard, in caſe of the failure of the Poonah expedition from Bombay, had his expreſs orders to recur to his negociations with Moodajee Booſla, which implied his return to Berar. But that officer, regardleſs of that inſtruction, proceeded by forced marches to Surat, agreeably to the requiſition of the preſidency of Bombay. This government, in their diſpatches to the ſupreme council, after ſtating the defeat of their army, have the effrontery to ſay, "that they did not think themſelves obligated by the conditions of the ſubſequent treaty; but that, having intentions to enter into another, they had tranſmitted directions to general Goddard accordingly." Mr. Haſtings expreſſed his approbation of the tenor of this diſpatch, and, declaring "that the treaty, being made by perſons unauthoriſed to ſubſcribe to ſuch conditions, was invalid; propoſed that general Goddard be commiſſioned to negociate at the court of Poonah for the renewal of the treaty of Poorunder; and that the preſidency of Bombay be required to prepare for ſervice, whether offenſive or defenſive."

Mr. Francis entered in the council-book his reaſons for diſſenting from the governor-general. He admitted "the probability, that peace might be obtained on the terms of the treaty of Poorunder, provided this government be itſelf in earneſt in purſuit of its preſent object, and ſuffered not itſelf to be entangled in the deſperate ſchemes of thoſe who conſtitute the government of Bombay. The re-eſtabliſhment of peace on the Malabar coaſt, I deem, (ſaid this able counſellor,) to be eſſential, not merely to the proſperity of the India company, but to their exiſtence. Let a war upon that coaſt be conducted how it may, the difference between conqueſt and defeat, in my judgment, is little more than the delay or acceleration of the ruin of all our reſources. The annexed account ſhews that, during the laſt five years, they have received little leſs than 116 lacks of current rupees directly out of the revenues of Bengal. Yet their bond-debt accumulated daily, and now amounts to thirty-eight lacks. By the month of October, the preſident Hornby ſays, their finances will be utterly exhauſted; in the interval they will want a ſupply of thirty lacks. Of this ſum the preſident propoſes to borrow twenty lacks, but doubts the poſſibility of raiſing ſo large a ſum; and if it could be borrowed, he ſays, they have no funds to pay the intereſt. We ſhould therefore conſider how long we can maintain a war on ſuch a footing, before we engage in it." To this the governor-general was pleaſed to declare, "that, from his anxiety to avoid controverſy, he ſhould decline any reply."

A letter was then read by the governor, in anſwer to the diſpatches from Bombay, which, though ſtrongly objected to by Mr. Francis and Mr. Wheeler, received the ſanction of Mr. Barwell, and of ſir Eyre Coote, who had now taken his place at the board as commander-in-chief of the company's forces. In this letter the governor, in name of himſelf and council, acquaints the preſidency of Bombay, "that the government of Bengal refuſes to ratify even the ſmalleſt tittle of the treaty or convention of Worgaum; that general Goddard was inveſted with full powers to conclude a pacification with the court of Poonah, on the terms preſcribed in his inſtructions; and that, if the Mahratta miniſters ſhall reject thoſe propoſals, and the company be reduced to the neceſſity of defending its rights by an open war, a latitude of action is left to general Goddard, to avail himſelf of the ſituation which fortune ſhall preſent to him. Mr. Haſtings, in order to enforce the general ſyſtem of policy contained in this letter, moreover declared to the council, "that he never would ſuffer the object to be loſt, for which the detachment now commanded by general Goddard was firſt appointed." This paſſed in the month of June, 1779; and by a letter from general Goddard, dated October following, the governor and council were informed, as they had every reaſon to expect, "that the peiſhwa's miniſter had, in plain and poſitive terms, declared to him that his maſter would not accede to the propoſals made by general Goddard, or conclude peace with the Engliſh, unleſs Ragonaut Row, who had eſcaped, was delivered up to him, and Salſette ſurrendered to the Mahratta government; that, in conſequence of this declaration, general Goddard had broken off the negociation, and prepared for war." As was predicted by Mr. Francis, the whole Mahratta race, including the rajah of Berar, together with Hyder Ally Khan, and the nizam or ſubah of the Decan, in the higheſt degree exaſperated, now reſolved, with the aſſiſtance of the French, to endeavour to expel the Engliſh nation from India.

In the progreſs of the war, the government of Bengal ſoon found itſelf reduced to the extremeſt neceſſity for money to defray the enormous expence of its complex

and extended operations. Caſting his eyes around, the governor-general at length fixed them on the territory of Benares, a province depending on the vizierate of Oude, highly cultivated and populous, and the capital city of which, ſituated on the Ganges, has for ages been regarded by the Hindoos as a place of peculiar and indelible ſanctity, as the ſeat and centre of their ſcience, their laws, their philoſophy, and religion. The late rajah of Benares, Bulwant Sing, during the wars between the vizier and the company, had zealouſly attached himſelf to the Engliſh intereſt; and the court of directors, in their letter of May 26, 1768, acknowledge "the ſignal ſervices he had rendered them; and they expreſs their hope, that the attention paid to thoſe who have eſpouſed their intereſts in this war will reſtore their reputation in Hindooſtan, and that the Indian powers will be convinced that no breach of treaty will ever have their ſanction."

Two years after this, Bulwant Sing died, leaving the ſucceſſion to his ſon, Cheyt Sing; and the council of Calcutta, Mr. Cartier being then preſident, interpoſed their influence and authority at the court of Lucknow, in order to procure from the vizier juſt and reaſonable terms of ſettlement. It was finally agreed, that the rajah ſhould pay to the vizier a peſhcuſh, or fine, equivalent to about 200,000l. and that an annual advance of 30,000l. ſhould be made to the ſtated tribute. A ſolemn deed of confirmation was then paſſed by the vizier, and the rajah was inveſted with the government, amid the loud acclamations of a numerous and happy people. In 1773, at the immediate inſtance of Mr. Haſtings, this grant was anew confirmed and ratified by the vizier, with the additional and expreſs proviſion, that no increaſe of tribute ſhall ever hereafter be demanded; and that the government of Benares ſhall deſcend, on the terms of this agreement, to the heirs of the preſent rajah.

The governor-general, knowing the enmity which had long ſubſiſted between the vizier and the late rajah, declared himſelf "to be well convinced that the rajah's inheritance, and perhaps his life, are no longer ſafe than while he enjoys the company's protection, which is his due by the ties of juſtice, and the obligations of public faith." In the following year, 1774, the governor-general and council obtained the aſſignment of the ſovereignty paramount of the province of Benares, by treaty with the nabob vizier of Oude, "without any encroachment (to adopt the words of the act of council) on the juſt rights of the rajah, or the engagements actually ſubſiſting with him." And at the expreſs recommendation of Mr. Haſtings, by a new grant, further privileges were conferred upon the rajah, viz. the ſovereignty of the mint, and the rights of criminal juſtice in the laſt reſort; the governor, in the record of this tranſaction in the council-book, making uſe of theſe remarkable words: "The rajah of Benares, from the ſituation of his country, which is a frontier to the provinces of Oude and Bahar, may be made a ſerviceable ally to the company; but, to inſure his attachment, his intereſt muſt be connected with it, which cannot be better effected than by freeing him totally from the remains of his preſent vaſſalage, under the guarantee and protection of the company; and, at the ſame time, guarding him againſt any apprehenſions from this government, by thus pledging its faith, that no encroachment ſhall ever be made on his rights by the company." Such were, at this period, the good-will and generoſity of Mr. Haſtings, that he propoſed to receive the tribute of the rajah, amounting to 260,000l. per ann. punctually and cheerfully paid in monthly aſſeſſments; not at Benares, but at Patna, the neareſt provincial ſtation, "leſt the preſence of a reſident ſhould in any manner fruſtrate the intention of rendering the rajah independent; eventually reducing him (as Mr. Haſtings's ſolicitude apprehended) to the mean and depraved ſtate of a mere zemindar." Amongſt the preſents privately received by Mr. Haſtings, on this occaſion, as he acknowledges, was the ſum of 23,000l. or two lacks of rupees, from the rajah Cheyt Sing.

In this ſtate things remained till, in the year 1777, the rajah had the misfortune to give great offence to the governor-general; an offence, however, unintentional, but for which his final ruin only could atone. In order to comprehend the nature of his delinquency, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that in the courſe of the preceding year, 1776, Mr. Haſtings had, in his private and confidential correſpondence, authoriſed Mr. Maclean, his agent in England, to ſignify to the court of directors his deſire to reſign his office, and to requeſt their nomination of a ſucceſſor to the vacancy which would be thereby occaſioned in the ſupreme council. The court, after appointing a committee to examine into the powers veſted in Mr. Maclean, unanimouſly reſolved to accept the ſaid reſignation, and named Mr. Wheeler to fill the vacancy occaſioned by the ſame. A regular notification of this acceptance was immediately tranſmitted to India, and the diſpatches were read in council, June 19, 1777. Mr. Haſtings obſerving a profound ſilence on the ſubject of theſe diſpatches, general Clavering addreſſed a letter to him on the following day, containing a formal requiſition to the governor-general, to ſurrender the keys of Fort William, and of the company's treaſury. But Mr. Haſtings, affecting ſurpriſe and indignation, peremptorily refuſed to comply with this demand; denying that his office was vacant; aſſerting that Mr. Maclean had exceeded his powers, and declaring his reſolution to maintain his authority by every legal means. General Clavering, on the contrary, conceiving the office to be irrevocably vacated, and that he himſelf had legally ſucceeded to the government, iſſued ſummonſes to the other members of the council, Mr. Barwell, and Mr. Francis, and in the preſence of Mr. Francis, took the oaths as governor-general. On the other hand, Mr. Haſtings, ſupported by Mr. Barwell, iſſued directions to the commandant of the garriſon of Fort William, to the provincial councils, and to the officers on the different military ſtations, enjoining them, at their peril, to obey no orders but ſuch as ſhould be ſigned by him, or a majority of his council. Sir John Clavering, perceiving that Mr. Haſtings was determined rather to riſk a civil war than to reſign the government, propoſed a reference to the ſupreme court of judicature; to which Mr. Haſtings, confiding in the *known integrity* of ſir Elijah Impey, readily conſenting, a deciſion was given in favour of Mr. Haſtings.

But this judicial confirmation of his authority, by no means ſatisfied Mr. Haſtings. Omitting, therefore, to ſummon ſir John Clavering and Mr. Francis to the next meeting of council, the governor, ſupported only by Mr. Barwell, entered in the council-book a formal reſolve, importing, "that general Clavering having uſurped the preſidency of Bengal, had thereby relinquiſhed and vacated the office of ſenior counſellor and commander-in-chief of the company's forces; and that, for the preſervation of the legality of their proceedings, the ſaid general Clavering be not in future ſummoned or admitted as a member of the council." This reſolve was notified to ſir John Clavering, and iſſued in general orders to the officers civil and military of the three provinces. At the enſuing meeting of council, Mr. Francis moved the reverſal of theſe proceedings; but Mr. Haſtings declared his determination to adhere to them, ſaying, "That they were not the precipitate effects of an inſtant and paſſionate impulſe, but the fruits of long and temperate deliberation, and of the ſtricteſt ſenſe of public duty." The chief-juſtice Impey, however, having his reaſons for declining to ſupport the governor in *this* exerciſe of his public duty, Mr. Haſtings thought proper to move a ſubſequent reſolution in council, conformably to the advice of the judges, "That all parties be replaced in the ſame ſituation in which they ſtood before the receipt of the laſt advices from England."

Thus

Thus terminated this extraordinary buſineſs; but, moſt unfortunately for the rajah Cheyt Sing, on the firſt intelligence of general Clavering's advancement to the government, he had, with officious complaiſance, deputed a vakeel, or ambaſſador, to congratulate the new governor on his acceſſion. This, Mr. Haſtings, in his ſubſequent juſtification, urges as a preſumptive proof of the rajah's diſaffection to the Engliſh government; and the affront thus offered to him appears to have rankled in his boſom, till he found a fit opportunity for gratifying his revenge. Conſcious of his uncontroulable power, the governor propoſed in council, July 9th, 1778, ſir John Clavering being deceaſed, "That the rajah of Benares ſhould conſent to the eſtabliſhment of three battalions of ſepoys, to be raiſed and maintained at his own expence;" and, notwithſtanding the alarm of the rajah at the firſt intimation of this deſign, and the vigorous oppoſition of Mr. Francis and Mr. Wheeler, the reſolve was carried into effect by the caſting vote of the governor. The ſum of five lacks of rupees, which was ſuppoſed to be equivalent to the expence of raiſing the three battalions, was demanded of the rajah to be paid in ſpecie within five days; and in caſe of non-compliance, the reſident, Fowke, was peremptorily enjoined to refrain from all further intercourſe with him. The affrighted rajah paid the money without delay or heſitation. But the ſame demand being renewed the following year, he ventured to remind the governor, in a moſt reſpectful letter, "that he was encouraged to believe the former demand would not be drawn into precedent. I am therefore hopeful, (ſaid he,) you will be kindly pleaſed to excuſe me the five lacks now demanded, and that nothing may be demanded of me beyond the amount expreſſed in the pottah." In reply to this ſubmiſſive application, the governor repeated his demand, that the rajah ſhould, without evaſion or delay, pay the five lacks of rupees; in caſe of his refuſal, informing him that meaſures would be taken to oblige him to a compliance. The third year, the ſame demand being made, the rajah again entreated a remiſſion, but without effect; and as a puniſhment for his continued contumacy, the governor-general, of his own authority, impoſed upon him an additional fine or mulct of 10,000l. Theſe outrages failing to produce the effect intended on the mild and timid temper of the rajah, a ſudden demand was made, in addition to the tribute and ſubſidy, to provide a body of two thouſand cavalry for the ſervice of the company. It was in vain that the rajah proteſted he had no more than thirteen hundred horſe in his ſervice; five hundred of which, and five hundred burkundaſſes, or match-lock men, ſhould be ready to march to whatever place they ſhould be ordered. Mr. Haſtings gave no anſwer whatever to this repreſentation; but declared, "that he was determined to convert the faults of the rajah into a public benefit; that he would exact the ſum of 500,000l. as a puniſhment for his breach of engagements, and other acts of miſconduct; and that if the rajah ſhould refuſe the demand, he would deprive him of his government."

Mr. Barwell and Mr. Francis having by this time returned to England, and Mr. Wheeler only remaining in council, the ſole reſponſibility of the government centered in Mr. Haſtings. For the purpoſe of executing more effectually theſe preconcerted deſigns, the governor determined upon a journey to Benares; previous to which he veſted in himſelf, by a formal act, the entire powers of the ſupreme council. At the eve of his departure, however, he informed Mr. Wheeler, "that the offences of the rajah required puniſhment; and, *as his wealth was great*, and the company's exigencies preſſing, it was a meaſure of policy and juſtice to exact from him a large pecuniary mulct for their relief." On the entrance of the governor-general into the province, he was met by the rajah in perſon, with a magnificent attendance. Nevertheleſs, to ſhew his confidence in the juſtice of the governor, he entered alone the pinnace in which the governor had proceeded up the Ganges, and, in a lowly and ſuppliant manner, putting his turban in his lap, entreated his favour. He was, however, repulſed with contempt; and on the arrival of the governor at Benares, he received an injunction from Mr. Haſtings, not to enter his preſence without his permiſſion.

On the ſucceeding day, the governor ſent articles of accuſation in writing to the rajah, importing, 1. That he had endeavoured to excite diſorders in the government on which he depended. 2. That he had ſuffered with impunity the perpetration of robberies and murders, even in the ſtreets of Benares, to the great and public ſcandal of the Engliſh name. 3. That he had delayed the payment of the ſums required of him for the company's ſervice; and, 4. That he had not complied with the demand of cavalry: all of which amounted, as the governor aſſerted, to a direct charge of diſaffection to the government on which the rajah depended; and to theſe articles of impeachment he demanded an immediate anſwer. On the evening of the ſame day, the rajah ſent in his defence, denying, in the moſt poſitive manner, the truth of the aforeſaid articles: "My enemies, (ſaid he,) with a view to my ruin, have made falſe repreſentations to you. Now that, happily for me, you have yourſelf arrived at this place, you will be able to aſcertain all the circumſtances. 1. Relative to the horſe. 2. To my people going to Calcutta. 3. The dates of the receipts of the particular ſums above-mentioned. I have never ſwerved in the ſmalleſt degree from my duty to you. It remains with you to decide on all theſe matters. I am in every thing your ſlave. What is juſt I have repreſented to you. May your proſperity increaſe!" At this reply the governor expreſſed great wrath, declaring it to be leſs a vindication of the rajah than a recrimination on him; and that it was couched in terms of defiance, manifeſting a dangerous ſpirit of independency.

In conſequence of the rajah's offenſive conduct, Mr. Haſtings conceived himſelf obliged to adopt ſome deciſive plan; and an order was therefore immediately iſſued to put the rajah under an arreſt in his own palace. To this indignity the rajah, ſhocked as he appeared to be, ſubmitted with the moſt paſſive humility. "He hoped, (he ſaid,) that the governor would allow him a ſubſiſtence in conſideration of his father's ſervices; but as for his zemindary, his forts, and his treaſures, he was ready to lay them at his feet, and his life, if required." Being at once dejected with the ignominy, and diſmayed with the danger of his ſituation, ſurrounded by a guard of ſepoys with their ſwords drawn, he wrote to the governor, "Whatever be your pleaſure, do it with your own hands. I am your ſlave. What occaſion can there be for a guard? It depends on you alone to take away, or not to take away, the country out of my hands." The higheſt alarm being excited in the city of Benares, by this arreſt of the rajah, great numbers of people aſſembled round the palace, nor could the earneſt and repeated entreaties of their prince reſtrain them from acts of violence; and believing the perſon of the rajah, who was much beloved by his ſubjects, to be expoſed to extreme hazard, they at length broke through the incloſure, and falling ſuddenly upon the guard of ſepoys and Engliſh officers, nearly the whole were cut to pieces. In the tumult the rajah made his eſcape over the walls of his palace by means of a cord formed of turbans tied together; and, croſſing the Ganges in a boat, fled to a place of refuge, whence he directed a ſuppliant letter to Mr. Haſtings, to which the governor affirmed "he did not think it becoming him to reply."

The troops in the province of Benares being quickly reinforced, the territories of the rajah were immediately attacked, and completely reduced. The rajah having himſelf made his eſcape to the camp of the Mahrattas, orders were given by Mr. Haſtings to ſeize upon the fortreſs of Bidjegur, the reſidence of the Rannee Pauna, mother of Cheyt Sing, repreſented as a woman ſingularly amiable

amiable and virtuous, and againſt whom no delinquency was even pretended. The treaſures of the Rannee being very conſiderable, ſhe was deſirous to capitulate upon conditions, in order to ſave ſomething from the wreck of her fortunes. But Mr. Haſtings wrote to the commander, major Popham, "I think every demand the Rannee has made to you, except that of ſafety and reſpect for her perſon, unreaſonable. I apprehend that ſhe will contrive to defraud the captors of a conſiderable part of the booty, by being ſuffered to retire without examination. But this is your conſideration, and not mine. As to making any conditions with her for a proviſion, I will never conſent to it." In a ſecond letter he ſays, "If ſhe delays the ſurrender beyond the term of twenty-four hours, it is my poſitive injunction that you put a ſtop to the negociation, and on no account renew it: nor will I grant her any conditions whatever; but leave her expoſed to thoſe dangers ſhe has choſen to riſk, rather than truſt to the clemency and generoſity of our government." The caſtle being accordingly ſurrendered within the time ſpecified, the articles of the capitulation, by which an allowance of fifteen per cent. was reſerved to the Rannee, were nevertheleſs ſhamefully and outrageouſly broken, the perſon of the Rannee and her attendants groſsly inſulted, and their effects plundered. Notwithſtanding the efforts and repreſentations of major Popham, the commander, a man of humanity and honour, no redreſs was obtained from the governor, who, now wholly intent upon the vindication of his conduct, had cauſed a great number of affidavits and depoſitions, aiming to prove the exiſtence of a conſpiracy againſt the Engliſh government, to be taken by ſir Elijah Impey, who *happened* at this time, in the courſe of an excurſion for the benefit of his health, to be fortunately reſident at Benares.

In his ſubſequent narrative of this tranſaction to the court of directors, Mr. Haſtings heſitated not to aſſert, "that the rajah of Benares had no claim to the title or privileges of a prince; that the deeds which paſſed between him and the board, upon the transfer of the zemindary, in 1775, were not to be underſtood to bear the quality and force of a treaty between equal ſtates; that the payments to be made by him were not a tribute, but a rent; that, being nothing more than a common zemindar, he owed a perſonal allegiance, and an implicit and unreſerved obedience, to the authority of the company, at the forfeiture of his zemindary, and even of his life and property." Yet, perhaps, the records of hiſtory do not exhibit a poſition more enormouſly extravagant, than that the ſovereign of a province in the interior parts of Hindooſtan, exerciſing the powers of government over a happy and conſenting people, ſhould owe implicit and unreſerved obedience to a company of traders inhabiting an iſland on the other ſide of the globe!

After the depoſition of the rajah Cheyt Sing, Mr. Haſtings, in virtue of the commiſſion with which he had inveſted himſelf, inſtantly exerciſed the ſovereign authority over the province of Benares. Setting aſide all former agreements, though evidently made with the rajahs not in their perſonal but political capacity, he increaſed the tribute, or ſtated rent-charge, from 260,000l. to 400,000l. per annum. Having beſtowed the government on a youth, called Mehip Narrain, a deſcendent by the mother from the rajah Bulwant Sing; he, in addition to the tribute, impoſed ſuch heavy and grievous duties on merchandize, as threatened the abſolute annihilation of their commerce; charging moreover penſions on the revenues of the province, and ſending large bodies of troops into the territory of Benares, to be maintained by the oppreſſed and impoveriſhed inhabitants. The father of the new rajah, Durbitzee Sing, who was appointed guardian and adminiſtrator to his ſon, was by Mr. Haſtings, in a ſhort time, depoſed from his office, on a vague and indefinite charge of mal-adminiſtration and deficiency in his payments, and thrown into priſon. His property being confiſcated, and his perſon endangered, he in a ſhort time died, overwhelmed with diſtreſs and ruin.

"When a new ſyſtem was to be formed with the ſucceſſor of Cheyt Sing, (ſays Mr. Haſtings,) I ſaw no objection to making the company's intereſts my firſt principle of action. The eaſy accumulation of too much wealth had been Cheyt Sing's ruin. It had buoyed him up with extravagant and ill-founded notions of independency, which I much wiſhed to diſcourage in the future rajah. Some part, therefore, of the ſuperabundant produce of the country, I turned into the coffers of the company, by an augmentation of the tribute." Here the grand object of the Britiſh government in India, as adminiſtered by Mr. Haſtings, is undiſguiſedly avowed: the filling the company's coffers with money, was by him held to be the firſt principle of action. Happy would it indeed have been for the inhabitants of Hindooſtan, if even this principle had been purſued by rational and politic means, ſuch as would have ſecured, unimpaired, the ſources of proſperity, though for the mere purpoſe of ſubſequent emolument.

The treaty concluded in 1765 with the vizier Sujah ul Dowla, nabob of Oude, by the late lord Clive, left that province in a conſiderable meaſure dependent upon the company. From this period the decay and deſolation of the vizierate commenced. The annual revenue, which was eſtimated at more than three millions, had ſunk, in 1779, to leſs than one million and a half. The vizier had contracted to maintain, at his own expence, a brigade of the company's troops in his ſervice, for ſo long time as he might deem them neceſſary for the defence of his country. But the court of directors, in their letter to the governor and council, of the 15th of December, 1775, expreſsly ſay, "If you intend to exert your influence, firſt to induce the vizier to acquieſce in your propoſal, and afterwards to compel him to keep the troops in his pay during your pleaſure, your intents are unjuſt, and a correſpondent conduct would reflect great diſhonour on the company." In the mean while, the nabob Aſoph ul Dowla, who had ſucceeded his father in the vizierate, February, 1775, making very earneſt ſupplication to be relieved from this burden, which the reduced ſtate of his revenue rendered him utterly unable to ſupport; Mr. Haſtings declared, "the relief deſired was totally inadmiſſible;" further affirming, "that the tone in which the demands of the nabob were aſſerted, gave cauſe for the moſt alarming ſuſpicions;" though it is difficult to conceive how language more ſubmiſſive and humble could have been adopted.

"During three years, (ſays the nabob,) the expence occaſioned by the troops in brigade, and others commanded by European officers, has much diſtreſſed the ſupport of my houſehold, inſomuch that the allowances made to the ſeraglio and children of the deceaſed nabob, have been reduced to one-fourth of what it had been. The attendants and ſervants of my court have received no pay for two years paſt, and applications from my father's private creditors are daily preſſing upon me. All theſe difficulties I have for three years ſtruggled through, and found this conſolation therein, that it was complying with the pleaſure of the honourable company, and in the hope that the ſupreme council would make enquiry, from impartial perſons, into my diſtreſſed ſituation: but I am now forced to a repreſentation. From the great increaſe of expence, the revenues were neceſſarily farmed out at a high rate, and deficiencies have followed yearly, till the whole country and cultivation is abandoned."

In 1781, a commiſſion of delegation having been executed at Calcutta, inveſting Mr. Haſtings with the entire powers of the ſupreme council, the governor-general reſolved to viſit the province in perſon. At a meeting which took place at Chunar, on the confines of Benares, a ſecret treaty was concluded by the governor with the vizier, containing ſeveral articles of a very extraordinary nature. By this the claims upon the nabob, on various

grounds and pretences, aroſe to the enormous ſum of 2,785,000l. ſterling, which was conſiderably more than two years net produce of the nabob's revenues. In order to liquidate this debt, Mr. Haſtings urged the nabob, and an article to this effect was inſerted in the treaty of Chunar, to a general reſumption of the jaghires, or government aſſignments upon land, throughout the province, to the amount of many hundred thouſand pounds annual rent, including the proviſions made by the former nabob-viziers for their princes of the blood, and the ancient friends and dependents of their family. The eſtates thus confiſcated were re-let on rack-rents, and at the ſame time mortgaged to rich bankers of Benares, to ſupply the immediate wants of the Engliſh government. A *gift* from the vizier of 100,000l. ſterling was alſo at this period accepted by Mr. Haſtings; which being, as he confeſſed, a ſum of too great magnitude to be concealed, he, after ſome deliberation, thought proper to apprize the court of directors of this violation of their commands; but he nevertheleſs had to expreſs his hope, "that, in conſideration of his long and faithful ſervices, and the ſums he had expended from his private fortune upon their account, they would permit him to apply this donation to his own uſe."

The confuſion and diſtreſs conſequent on the late violent expedition of reſumption, and other devices of extortion, it is impoſſible in adequate terms to deſcribe. The regular authority of the magiſtracy, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, totally ceaſed; and no power was viſible but that of the farmers of the revenue, attended by bodies of troops, to enforce the collections. The country was declared, by one of the nabob's miniſters, to be "a ſpeaking picture of famine and woe."—"From the total want of police, (ſays the reſident, Briſtow,) hardly a day eſcapes but I am informed of ſome tragical event, whereof the bare recital is ſhocking to humanity:" and he confeſſes that his feelings are ſenſibly hurt, and his compaſſion ſtrongly excited, by the diſgraceful and miſerable ſtate of poverty to which the brothers of the nabob are reduced. From three of theſe princes, Mirza Ali, Mirza Hyder, and Mirza Sief, the reſident received an affecting memorial, in which they ſay, "Our ſituation is not fit to be told: for two years we have not received an hubba on account of our tuncaw (aſſignment on the revenue). It is ſurpriſing, having ſuch a friend as you, our ſituation is arrived at that paſs that we ſhould be in diſtreſs for bread and clothing—yet we are the ſons of Sujah ul Dowla!"

The mother and wife of the late nabob kept their court at the city of Fyzabad, where, after the cuſtom of the eaſt, they lived in much magnificence, having the charge of educating the numerous offspring of the deceaſed ſovereign, and of maintaining a houſehold conſiſting of two thouſand perſons. To ſupport this vaſt expence, the nabob had left them a large proportion of his treaſures, and had ſettled upon them jaghires, or permanent revenues, ſuitable to their high rank and dignity, and to the importance of the truſt committed to them; ſolemnly and earneſtly recommending at the ſame time the intereſts of his family to the guardian care and protection of the company, by whom their poſſeſſions had been ſubſequently and authentically guaranteed. By the treaty of Chunar, nevertheleſs, the preſent nabob was authorized by Mr. Haſtings to ſeize upon the jaghires, or landed revenues, of theſe illuſtrious relatives, and to allow them penſions equal to the amount. And this, the governor pretended, was conformable to the Mahommedan law. The nabob appearing, nevertheleſs, manifeſtly reluctant to carry this project into execution, Mr. Haſtings ſignified his pleaſure to his own reſident at Lucknow, Mr. Middleton, "that as this meaſure originated with the Engliſh, and was intended for their benefit, the execution was to be forced upon him;" although the expreſs words of the treaty of Chunar were merely, "that the nabob be permitted to reſume ſuch jaghires, or eſtates, as he may think neceſſary."

In order to impart ſome colour of juſtice to theſe proceedings, depoſitions the moſt futile and ridiculous were, as at Benares, extra-judicially made before ſir Elijah Impey, who unexpectedly preſented himſelf in the courſe of his progreſs, after leaving Benares, firſt at Chunar, then at Lucknow. For this magiſtrate ſo highly degraded his character and ſtation, as to become a principal agent in this buſineſs. And ſuch was the ſilent celerity of his movements, that the chief-juſtice has been, with humourous alluſion, compared to the ghoſt in Hamlet, exclaiming, in almoſt every quarter at the ſame inſtant, "Swear!" Theſe affidavits, founded on vague rumours, were deſigned to prove, that the princeſſes of Oude fomented the inſurrection at Benares, and were even engaged in a plot for the dethronement of their own ſon, and the utter extirpation of the Engliſh nation. Very little ſtreſs, however, was at this criſis placed by Mr. Haſtings on the validity of theſe proofs, which were evidently calculated to anſwer a different and diſtant purpoſe. "Your pleaſure, (ſays Mr. Middleton,) reſpecting the begums, I have learnt from ſir Elijah Impey. Finding the nabob wavering in his determination about the reſumption of the jaghires, I this day ordered the neceſſary perwannahs for that purpoſe. But before they were tranſcribed, I received a meſſage from the nabob, entreating that I would withhold them till the morning. As it is poſſible that the nabob, ſeeing the buſineſs will at all events be done, may make it an act of his own, I have conſented to indulge him in this requeſt." The nabob at length iſſued his perwannahs, but with extreme reluctance, and, to uſe the language of Mr. Middleton, "after much trifling evaſion and puerile excuſes;" the irreſiſtible effuſions, no doubt, of that natural affection which it is ſo difficult totally to eradicate from the human heart. "At the ſame time the nabob declared, (ſays Mr. Middleton,) both to me and his miniſters, that it was an act of compulſion."

In a ſubſequent letter, Mr. Middleton informs the governor, that the vizier, wiſhing to evade the meaſure of reſumption, ſuggeſted to him, that the debt of the company might be better and more expeditiouſly liquidated by taking the amount at once from the treaſures left by his father. Mr. Haſtings, now, ſtill inſiſting upon the reſumption of the jaghires, declared his reſolution *alſo to ſeize the treaſures*; enjoining upon the agent, Middleton, the execution of this nefarious act, in the following peremptory terms: "You yourſelf muſt be perſonally preſent. You muſt not allow any negociation or forbearance, but muſt proſecute both ſervices until the Begums are at the entire mercy of the nabob." In conformity to this order, the Britiſh reſident, at the head of a body of troops, accompanied by the terrified vizier, marched to Fyzabad, and with little or no reſiſtance ſtormed firſt the town, and then the caſtle. The chief officers of the houſehold, the eunuchs Jewar Ali Khan and Bahar Ali Khan, perſons of diſtinguiſhed rank, who had been in high truſt and favour with the late nabob, were ignominiouſly thruſt into confinement, in order to extort from them the diſcovery of the treaſures and effects committed to their care. In conſequence of theſe ſeverities, the *bhow begum*, i. e. the mother princeſs, at length conſented to the ſurrender of her treaſures, hid in the moſt ſecret receſſes of the palace, to the amount of the bond debt due from the nabob to the company. But avarice is inſatiable as the grave! Another demand of 120,000l. was made for the balance pretended to be due ſince the execution of the bond; and to enforce compliance, the two eunuchs were, by order of the reſident, Middleton, committed to cloſe cuſtody, put in irons, and kept from all food. To raiſe this ſum, great part of the furniture of the palaces, the jewels, and other effects of the begums, even to the wardrobe, were diſpoſed of by public ſale.

Fully appriſed of the diſtreſsful ſituation of the princeſſes, Mr. Haſtings could, nevertheleſs, write at this period to the reſident, Middleton, as follows: "The nabob having

having conſented to the reſumption of the jaghires held by the begums, and to the confiſcation of their treaſures, and thereby involved my own name, and the credit of the company, in a participation of both meaſures, I have a right to require and inſiſt on the complete execution of them, and I look to you for their execution, declaring that I hold you accountable for it." Mr. Haſtings, in his defence, alleged, that he was ignorant of many tranſactions imputed to him reſpecting this buſineſs. But of thoſe which were in any degree material, he could *not*, with truth, plead ignorance. "If Mr. Middleton did not give him an exact account of the groans that were heaved, the tears that were ſhed, the weight of the fetters, or the depth of the dungeon, he ſtated (ſays Mr. Sheridan, vide his ſpeech, June, 1788,) every important ſtep that was taken in the progreſs and winding up of this relentleſs tragedy." In fact, nothing of moment was done without the expreſs command of Mr. Haſtings; for even Mr. Middleton diſcovered no ſymptoms of alacrity in the execution of this direful commiſſion.

It may eaſily be imagined, that the penſions allotted to the begums, and other jagheerdars, in lieu of their jaghires, would be very ill and defectively paid. In the month of March, 1782, the officer on duty at Fyzabad, major Gilpin, wrote to the reſident: "The women belonging to the *khord mohul*, or leſſer palace, are in want of every neceſſary of life; and are driven to that deſperation, that they threaten to throw themſelves from the walls of the zenana." In a ſubſequent letter it is ſaid, "The women in the zenana aſſembled laſt night on the tops of the building, crying in a moſt lamentable manner for food." And in a third letter, "The repeated cries of the women for ſubſiſtence have been truly melancholy. They beg moſt piteouſly for liberty, that they may earn their daily bread by ſervitude, or to be releaſed from their miſery by immediate death." At length the company's reſident, Mr. Briſtow, ventured, of his own authority, to order the removal of the troops, and the releaſe of the priſoners, Bahar and Jewar Ali Khan, who had now been confined and in irons for near twelve months. "The quivering lips, (ſays the commander of the troops at Fyzabad, ſpeaking of their enlargement,) and the tears of joy ſtealing down the poor mens' cheeks, was a ſcene truly affecting." The diſtreſſes of the zenana, or ſeraglio, nevertheleſs, ſtill continued; and the women, breaking by frantic violence the ſacred bounds of the palace, exhibited themſelves in this ſtate of degradation and deſpair to the aſtoniſhed inhabitants of Fyzabad, in the public bazar, or market-place, of that great and populous city. But after this act of deſperation, they do not appear to have been permitted to ſuffer equal extremity.

In a letter from the bhow begum to the reſident, Briſtow, this unfortunate princeſs ſays, "An accuſation was framed againſt me, which I had never conceived even in idea, of rendering aſſiſtance to rajah Cheyt Sing. Having ſeized my head eunuchs, Jewar Ali Khan and Bahar Ali Khan, they obliged them to ſign a bond for ſixty lacks of rupees. They were thrown into priſon with fetters about their feet, and denied food and water. I, who had never even in my dreams experienced ſuch an oppreſſion, gave up all I had to preſerve my honour and dignity. My ſufferings did not terminate here. The diſturbances of colonel Hannay and Mr. Gordon were made a pretence for ſeizing my jaghire. The ſtate of the matter is this: When colonel Hannay was by Mr. Haſtings ordered to march to Benares, during the troubles of Cheyt Sing, the colonel, who had plundered the whole country, was incapable of proceeding from the union of thouſands of zemindars, who had ſeized this favourable opportunity. They haraſſed Mr. Gordon near Junivard, and oppoſed his march. Mr. Gordon forded the river upon his elephant. In the mean time a letter was received by me from colonel Hannay, deſiring me to eſcort Mr. Gordon to Fyzabad. As my friendſhip for the Engliſh was always ſincere, I readily complied, and ſent ſome companies of Nejeebs to eſcort Mr. Gordon and all his effects to Fyzabad; where, having provided for his entertainment, I effected his junction with colonel Hannay. The letters of thanks I received from both theſe gentlemen are ſtill in my poſſeſſion. But is it not extraordinary, that notwithſtanding the juſtneſs of my cauſe, nobody relieves my misfortunes?"

In the letter of colonel Hannay, referred to by the begum, that officer, in the oriental phraſeology, ſays: "Begum Saib of exalted dignity! Your exalting letter, fraught with grace and benevolence, I had the honour to receive in a fortunate moment. Your faithful ſervant repoſeth his moſt unbounded hopes and expectation upon your highneſs, that Mr. Gordon may arrive at Fyzabad without apprehenſion or danger." And Mr. Gordon expreſſes himſelf in a ſtill higher ſtrain of reſpect and gratitude: "Begum Saib of exalted dignity and generoſity! Your gracious letter, in anſwer to the petition of your ſervant from Goondah, exalted me. The welfare of your ſervant is entirely owing to your favour and benevolence. Continue to exalt and honour me with your gracious letters. May the ſun of proſperity continually ſhine!"

When the intelligence of theſe aſtoniſhing tranſactions reached the court of directors, that aſſembly ordered a letter to be written to the governor and council, in which they ſay, with reference to the iniquitous and enormous plan of ſeizure and reſumption, "We hope and truſt, for the honour of the Britiſh nation, that this meaſure appeared fully juſtified in the eyes of all Hindooſtan. It no where appears, from the papers at preſent in our poſſeſſion, that they, the begums, excited any commotions previous to the impriſonment of Cheyt Sing; and only armed themſelves in conſequence of that tranſaction; and it is probable, that ſuch a conduct proceeded from motives of ſelf-defence, under an apprehenſion that they themſelves might likewiſe be laid under unwarrantable contributions." And the court expreſsly ordered an enquiry to be inſtituted into this matter, and, if the charge proved to be unfounded, that their jaghires ſhould be reſtored. But this requiſition was never complied with.

On the departure of Mr. Francis from India early in 1781, Mr. Haſtings, upon whom the entire powers of government devolved, immediately diſſolved the provincial councils, and eſtabliſhed a committee of revenue, with powers in the higheſt degree deſpotic. The general renewal of leaſes coming under the conſideration of this board, they determined, "that as to the period of the leaſes, it appeared beſt to the committee to limit them to one year." In this reſpect the committee of revenue were leſs lenient than the famous committee of circuit. And they acted in direct contradiction to the former opinion of Mr. Haſtings, who then ſolemnly declared, "that the farmer, i.e. the government leſſee, who holds his farm for one year only, having no intereſt in the next, takes what he can with the hand of rigour: he will be tempted to exceed the bounds of right, and to augment his income by irregular exactions, and by racking the tenants, for which pretences will not be wanting where the farms paſs annually from one hand to another. On the contrary, from long leaſes the farmer acquires a permanent intereſt in his lands: he will, for his own ſake, lay out money in aſſiſting his tenants, in improving lands already cultivated, and in clearing and cultivating waſte lands." All the evils ſo clearly foreſeen, and ſo little regarded, added to thoſe ariſing from the groſſeſt peculation, took place under this new ſyſtem; the chief adminiſtrator and manager of which was one Govind Sing, a wretch loaded (as Mr. Haſtings himſelf acknowledged) with reproaches, and of whom it ſtands upon record, "that there was ſcarcely a family of rank in the three provinces whom he had not ſome time or another diſtreſſed and afflicted—ſcarcely a zemindary that he had not diſmembered and plundered."

During the long adminiſtration of Mr. Haſtings, va-

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rious momentous incidents occurred in the ſubordinate departments of government in India; but of theſe a curſory mention can only be made. Mahomed Ali Khan, nabob of Arcot, had, by means too obvious to need explanation, acquired an unbounded influence over the counſels of the government of Madras. Supported by the aid and authority of that preſidency, under the expreſs ſanction of the governor and council of Bengal, the nabob, on frivolous pretences, declared war againſt the rajah of Tanjore, a neighbouring prince and ancient ally of the company; and, ſeizing his dominions, annexed them to his own territory. The court of directors, highly indignant at this unjuſt and violent uſurpation, determined upon the reſtoration of the rajah: and for this purpoſe lord Pigot, a nobleman who had formerly been employed in the Indian ſervice, and whoſe character, both in a civil and military capacity, ſtood deſervedly high, was appointed to the government with poſitive orders to that effect. His lordſhip arrived at Madras the latter end of the year 1775; and, notwithſtanding all the oppoſition and the temptation thrown in his way, he accompliſhed the grand object of his appointment in the re-inſtatement of the rajah. Diſputes running extremely high in the council in conſequence of this meaſure, the governor, in the autumn of 1776, ſuſpended two of the members from their functions, by a doubtful and dangerous aſſumption of authority. But ample revenge was ſoon after taken by the remaining malcontents, in the arreſt and impriſonment of his lordſhip, who ſurvived this daring outrage but a very ſhort time. In the ſeſſion of Parliament which began November 1778, Admiral Pigot, brother to lord Pigot, brought this affair in all its circumſtances before the houſe of commons; and after ſtating, in a ſeries of reſolutions, the principal facts relative to this cataſtrophe, he concluded with moving an addreſs to his majeſty, "humbly praying, that George Stratton, eſq. and the other members of the council of Madras, be proſecuted for ordering their governor and commander in chief to be arreſted, and confined under a military force—they being returned to England, and now within the juriſdiction of his majeſty's courts of Weſtminſter-hall." Notwithſtanding the laboured juſtification of Mr. Stratton, who was a member of the houſe, theſe reſolutions were unanimouſly carried. Theſe gentlemen, being in the ſequel tried and convicted in the court of king's-bench, were, to the amazement of the public, ſentenced only to pay a trifling fine.

At this period the war in India had become very general; a moſt formidable combination of the country powers in oppoſition to the Engliſh had taken place, which, aſſiſted by the fleets and armies of France, ſeemed to menace the very exiſtence of the empire of Britain in India. Hyder Ali, the ancient and inveterate enemy of the company, in July, 1780, broke into the Carnatic with a vaſt army, and committed the moſt dreadful ravages. On the 10th of September, he attacked and ſurrounded a conſiderable detached corps under colonel Baillie, which were entirely cut to pieces or made priſoners. He then attacked and made himſelf maſter of Arcot; and ſcarcely did the government at Madras believe itſelf to be in ſafety, when ſir Eyre Coote arrived to take the command of the company's forces on the coaſt of Coromandel, and Hyder was in repeated engagements foiled and defeated by this gallant veteran. Various naval encounters alſo took place between the French and Engliſh fleets, commanded by M. Suffrein and admiral ſir Edward Hughes, with equal ſkill, courage, and ſucceſs. The naval force of both nations was gradually increaſed, in the progreſs of the war, to a degree far beyond what had been known at any former period in India, amounting at the laſt, on the part of the Britiſh, to eighteen ſhips of the line of battle. But the proportion continuing nearly the ſame, the mutual acceſſions of ſtrength ſerved only to increaſe the number of human victims: and the ſucceſſive battles being obſtinately and heroically conteſted, the blood ſhed in the eaſtern world was uncommonly great.—See the article HINDOOSTAN.

The affairs of India were now become ſo alarming in England, that a ſecret committee having been appointed, in 1781, to enquire into the cauſes of the Mahratta war, and that in the Carnatic; a very able report was brought up early in the ſeſſion of 1782, by Mr. Dundas, chairman of the committee, in which the general ſyſtem of policy purſued by the governor-general Haſtings, was reprobated in terms of extreme ſeverity. Mr. Dundas, in the courſe of his ſpeech, ſaid, "that the governor had no right to fancy he was an Alexander, or an Aurengzebe; or to prefer frantic military exploits, inſtead of the improvement of the trade and commerce of the country." Sir Thomas Rumbold alſo, who had juſt relinquiſhed the government of Madras, was criminated as guilty of groſs peculation, embezzlement, and oppreſſion. General Smith, in moving that the report of the ſecret committee be referred to a committee of the houſe, took notice that ſir Elijah Impey, his majeſty's chief juſtice in India, had ſo far degraded his character and office, as to accept of a place under the company of 8000l. per annum, contrary to the ſolemn engagements under which he held his appointment. An addreſs was in conſequence preſented to the king, to beſeech his majeſty to recal ſir Elijah Impey from India to anſwer for his conduct. A bill was likewiſe brought in by Mr. Dundas, for inflicting certain pains and penalties on ſir Thomas Rumbold, for high crimes and miſdemeanours.

On the 28th of May, 1782, the houſe of commons paſſed a ſeries of reſolutions, in the moſt deciſive terms condemnatory of the whole ſyſtem of Indian politics. The laſt reſolution imported, "That Warren Haſtings, eſq. governor-general in Bengal, and William Hornby, eſq. preſident of the council at Bombay, having in ſundry inſtances acted in a manner repugnant to the honour and policy of this nation, and thereby brought great calamities on India, and enormous expences on the Eaſt-India company, it is the duty of the directors of the ſaid company, to purſue all legal and effectual means for the removal of the ſaid governor-general and preſident from their ſaid offices, and to recal them to Great Britain." This reſolution was confirmed by the court of directors, and paſſed October, 1782, in the following terms: "Reſolved, that it is the opinion of this court, that a ſteady perſeverance in the ſyſtem of conduct ſo frequently enjoined by the court of directors, cannot be expected from thoſe ſervants whoſe ideas of extenſion of dominion, either by negociation or conqueſt, have led them to depart from orders ſo often enforced; and therefore, that it is expedient to remove Warren Haſtings, eſq. from the office of governor-general of Bengal."

The war in India, in the mean while, went on with various ſucceſs. The valuable ſettlements of Negapatnam, on the Coromandel coaſt, and Trinquemale, in the iſland of Ceylon, belonging to the Dutch, were captured by the Engliſh. On the other hand, colonel Braithwaite, with a detachment of the company's troops, was totally routed on the banks of the Coleroon by Tippoo Saib, ſon of Hyder Ali, aſſiſted by a body of French troops; after which Cuddalore ſurrendered to the victors. The operations of the war on the Malabar coaſt were at the ſame time conducted by general Goddard, with a great diſplay of military ſkill and ſpirit. Invading the province of Guzzerat, in 1780, he reduced the city of Amedabad, its capital; and, on the ſecond of April, he ſtormed the camp of the Mahrattas, commanded by Madajee Scindia, whom he totally defeated. Entering into a treaty with the rana of Gohud, major Popham, by order of the general, attacked and carried, in the courſe of the ſummer, the ſtrong fortreſs of Gualior, which was garriſoned by the Mahrattas, though within the territory of the rana.

Early in 1781, general Goddard ſat down before Baſſeen; and, after reducing this important place, he deſiſted from further active operations, in conſequence of the ſuc-

cours

cours he was under a neceſſity to ſend to ſir Eyre Coote. In the province of Malva, colonel Carnac ſurpriſed, April 30, the camp of the enemy, and Madajee Scindia was a ſecond time totally routed. After this the Mahratta chieftain made ſecret overtures for a ſeparate peace; and a ceſſation of hoſtilities between England and the Mahratta ſtates took place in the month of October, 1781. The definitive articles of peace were ſigned in May following, at Salberg, by Mr. Anderſon, on the part of the company, and by Scindia, general and plenipotentiary, on the part of the peiſhwa. By this treaty Baſſeen, and the other recent acquiſitions in the Guzzerat, were reſtored to the Mahrattas, the iſland of Salſette only of the late conqueſts remaining to the Engliſh; for, at the requeſt of Madajee Scindia, the Engliſh conſented alſo to relinquiſh their claim to the city of Baroach and the contiguous diſtricts. Ragonaut Row was, by this treaty, for ever abandoned, and compelled to quit the territories of the company; and their ally, the rana of Gohud, who appears indeed without ſcruple to have oppoſed duplicity to duplicity, was, under pretext of "leaving him to ſettle his own affairs," virtually delivered up to the mercy of his enemies. But the moſt extraordinary article of the treaty was that whereby the peiſhwa engages that Hyder Ali Khan ſhall be made to relinquiſh, within ſix months, all ſuch territories belonging to the company or their allies as he ſhall have taken poſſeſſion of ſince the ninth of the month Ramzan. The fact was, that not only a treaty of peace, but of the ſtricteſt alliance and friendſhip, was now formed by the governor-general Haſtings with the Mahratta court; and a ſecret project was believed to be already in contemplation for the partition of Hyder's dominions. The nizam of the Decan and the rajah of Berar were alſo parties in this accommodation, for their acceſſion to which they received large pecuniary gratifications.

This pacification with the Mahrattas induced the preſidency of Bengal to riſque a bold attempt on the dominions of Hyder Ali on the Malabar ſide. The kingdoms of Canara and Myſore, both under ſubjection to that prince, ſtretch along the weſtern coaſt of Hindooſtan, nearly in the latitude of Arcot. The chief city of the former is Bednore, a name changed by its poſſeſſor to Hydernagore. A conſiderable force, already landed in the kingdom of Myſore, had relieved the city of Tellicherri, a poſt or factory on that coaſt belonging to the Engliſh, and reduced the neighbouring town of Calicut. It was with difficulty, nevertheleſs, that the Engliſh kept their footing in this country, when General Matthews arrived from Bombay with very large reinforcements, and immediately laid ſiege to the important fortreſs of Onore, which was carried by ſtorm on the fifth of January, 1783. At this period died Hyder Ali; who was ſucceeded by his ſon Tippoo Saib, a prince who had already given great proofs of valour and ability.

From Onore general Matthews proceeded through the *ghauts*, or paſſes of the mountains, to Hydernagore, which ſurrendered to him without reſiſtance. After this, Annampore, Carwa, and Mangalore, were ſucceſſively ſubdued; the former by ſtorm, with circumſtances of ſingular barbarity: four hundred beautiful women periſhed in the general maſſacre, under the brutal licentiouſneſs of the ſoldiery. In the mean time Tippoo prepared for the relief of Myſore and Canara; and, leaving a ſtrong force to guard his conqueſts in the Carnatic, he marched his army acroſs the peninſula with unexampled expedition, and arrived in the vicinity of Hydernagore in April, 1783. By a ſeries of manœuvres he made himſelf maſter of the ghauts in the rear of general Matthews, by which means all communication with the ſea was entirely cut off. The force of general Matthews being now centred in Hydernagore, this city was inveſted by Tippoo with a vaſt army, computed at 150,000 men, covering the hills on every ſide as far as the eye could reach. The Engliſh, reduced to extremity, were ſoon obliged to ſurrender on capitulation, by the terms of which the public treaſure was to be reſtored to the ſultan; but not a rupee being found in the fortreſs, general Matthews was charged by the conqueror with groſs colluſion, and a direct infraction of the treaty; and being conducted in chains to Seringapatam, the capital of Myſore, he was thrown into a dungeon, and, with the greater part of his officers, periſhed miſerably in confinement under various devices of cruel torture. See the article HINDOOSTAN.

Notwithſtanding the departure of Tippoo from the Carnatic, the preſidency of Madras had ſtill to cope with ſuperior force. Although the utmoſt exertions of ſir Eyre Coote had not been wanting, no deciſive advantage had been gained in the laſt campaign with Hyder; and the ill ſtate of health of this able commander obliged him to reſign the army into the hands of general Stuart, and to retire at the concluſion of 1783 to Bengal. Early in the enſuing ſpring, believing himſelf ſomewhat recovered, he returned to Madras in order to reſume his command; but two days only after his arrival, he expired in an advanced age, having acquired in more than thirty years military ſervice in India a reputation, the luſtre of which could be deemed ſcarcely inferior to that of his predeceſſor, lord Clive. The important ſettlement of Trinquemale was retaken by M. Suffrein, and a very large reinforcement of French troops landed in the Carnatic under M. de Buſſi. Notwithſtanding all oppoſition, general Stuart inveſted Cuddalore, and made conſiderable progreſs in the ſiege, when an expreſs arrived with the intelligence of a treaty of peace having been concluded between the belligerent powers, on which an immediate ceſſation of hoſtilities took place.

After the conqueſt of Hydernagore, and the recapture of the inland country by Tippoo, he laid ſiege to Mangalore, the principal place yet remaining in the hands of the Engliſh; an obſtinate reſiſtance was made by the garriſon; but a practicable breach being at length effected, a general aſſault was in contemplation, when news arrived of the pacification which had taken place in Europe; and the French troops and engineers in his ſervice informed him, that they muſt immediately withdraw their aſſiſtance. Tippoo, after much paſſionate expoſtulation, therefore aſſented to an armiſtice, in a few days after which event colonel Macleod arrived with powerful reinforcements from Bombay. A negociation was immediately commenced for a definitive peace. This was accelerated by a declaration which the ſultan received from the peiſhwa of the Mahrattas, that if Tippoo did not conſent to an immediate evacuation of the Carnatic, he would unite with the Engliſh againſt him. During the continuance of the truce and the negociation, the *bibby*, or princeſs of Cannanore, a diſtrict depending on the kingdom of Canara, having ſeized ſome boats with ſepoys belonging to the garriſon of Mangalore, accidentally forced by ſtreſs of weather on her coaſt, colonel Macleod attacked and ſtormed the fortreſs of Cannanore, making the princeſs herſelf priſoner. Although loud complaints were made by Tippoo of this violation of the armiſtice, it does not appear much to have retarded the negociation, the articles being ſigned March 11, 1784, on the terms of mutual reſtitution, and a renunciation on the part of Tippoo of his claim to the ſovereignty of the Carnatic.

In the month of March, 1783, Mr. Haſtings diſpatched his own ſecret agent, major Browne, to the court of Dehli, in order to make propoſals to the Mogul emperor Sha Allum, to enter into engagements with the company and the Mahratta government, for the accompliſhment of certain deſigns in favour of the emperor, but of a very hoſtile nature to ſeveral powers of Hindooſtan then in amity with the company. And major Browne was commiſſioned to offer to the Mogul, to provide for the entire expence of any troops the emperor might require; which propoſal was accepted with every ſymptom of eagerneſs and ſatisfaction. And the negociation being ſufficiently advanced, Mr. Haſtings brought forward a propoſition in

council, October 5, 1783, to aſſiſt the Mogul with a military force: and at a ſubſequent meeting of the board, he laid before them a letter from major Browne, dated Dehli, December 30, 1783, containing, amidſt much miſcellaneous matter, the following extraordinary paſſages: "The buſineſs of aſſiſting the ſhah can and muſt now go on, if we wiſh to be ſecure in India, and regarded as a nation. We have offered; the ſhah has accepted the offer of aſſiſtance. We have annexed conditions; the ſhah has approved of them." The project thus unexpectedly obtruded on the board by Mr. Haſtings, was very ill received by his colleagues, Mr. Wheeler and Mr. Stables, who ſtrongly remonſtrated againſt involving the company in new wars and dangerous foreign connections. But Mr. Haſtings was not to be diſcouraged by trivial obſtacles.

Early in the following year, 1784, Mr. Haſtings made a progreſs to the city of Lucknow, and there had an interview with the prince Mizra Jehander Sha, eldeſt ſon of the Mogul emperor, and who, as the governor-general in his public letter ſays, "had long held the principal part in the adminiſtration of the king his father." From Mr. Haſtings's account of this interview, which he repreſents as wholly unexpected and fortuitous, the prince having left the court of Dehli without even the knowledge of the emperor, it appears that urgent ſolicitations were made by the heir of the Mogul empire to the Engliſh governor, for aid and aſſiſtance to raiſe the king, his father, from that ſtate of degradation and inſignificance into which he had fallen: intimating his readineſs even to go in perſon to England, to repreſent the diſtreſſes of the emperor of Hindooſtan, in the hope of obtaining relief. Mr. Haſtings in reply informed the prince, "that the Engliſh nation, juſt emerged from a ſtate of univerſal warfare, required repoſe, and would be alarmed at any movement of which it could not immediately ſee the iſſue or the progreſs, but which might eventually create new hoſtilities; that as to himſelf, he could not engage, if he choſe it, in a buſineſs of this nature, without the concurrence of his colleagues in office, who, he believed, would be averſe to it; that he would, however, repreſent his ſituation to the joint members of his own government, and wait their determination. In the mean time he adviſed him to make advances to Madajee Scindia, as the effective head of the Mahratta ſtate, and who was in intimate union, and ſworn connection, with the Engliſh."

On the departure of the young prince from Dehli, Mr. Haſtings wrote to the Mahratta chief, Madajee Scindia, to apprize him of this event, and, profeſſing himſelf unprepared, to aſk his advice how to act in this emergency: and certain confidential agents from the Mahratta chief repairing to Lucknow, held frequent and ſecret conferences with the governor, the purport of which was never communicated to the board at Calcutta. This tiſſue of intrigues terminated, however, very unexpectedly, in the ſudden invaſion of the emperor's territories by the Mahrattas, who made themſelves maſters of Dehli; and the emperor, being a ſecond time priſoner in their hands, was obliged to declare the head of the Mahratta ſtate to be vicegerent of the Mogul empire; in which capacity great and indefinite claims of ſuperiority were advanced on the part of the peiſhwa, and a ſpecific claim ſet up to the tribute due to the emperor from the Engliſh at Bengal. Far from being alarmed at this addition to the Mahratta power, Mr. Haſtings declared, "that ſuch was the attachment of Scindia to the Engliſh, that, while he lives, every acceſſion of territory obtained by him will be an advantage to this government." The council, however, unable to explore the dark and unfathomable abyſs of the governor's politics, at length came to a reſolution to oppoſe them; and the governor, perceiving his influence in the council loſt, knowing his reputation at home to be in the wane, and fearing moſt probably a diſgraceful diſmiſſion, now thought it expedient to *reſign* the government. On his arrival in England, he was impeached at the bar of the houſe of lords, by the commons of Great Britain, of high crimes and miſdemeanors in the execution of his office.

We are now to revert from this long but neceſſary digreſſion, to the regular narrative of events in England. On the 13th of July, 1781, the ſeſſion was cloſed by a ſpeech, in which his majeſty obſerved, "that the great efforts made by the nation to ſurmount the difficulties of the preſent arduous and complicated war, muſt convince the world that the ancient ſpirit of the Britiſh nation was not abated or diminiſhed; and he was reſolved to accept of no terms or conditions of peace, than ſuch as might conſiſt with the honour and dignity of his crown, and the permanent intereſts and ſecurity of his people."

The military hiſtory of the preſent year was marked, in its commencement, by a ſpirited attempt on the part of the French, to capture the iſland of Jerſey by a *coup-de-main*. Early on the 16th of January, 1781, a landing was effected by the baron de Rullecourt, at the head of about eight hundred men, at the Bank du Violet; and, to the aſtoniſhment of the inhabitants, when the day began to dawn, the market-place of St. Helier was found occupied by French troops. The governor's houſe being entirely ſurrounded, he was compelled to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, and was ſo far intimidated as even to ſign articles of capitulation. But when Elizabeth-caſtle was ſummoned, captain Aylward, the commander, far from paying the leaſt regard to the acts of the governor in his preſent ſtate of durance, fired upon the French, and obliged them to retreat; and major Pierſon, a young and gallant officer, ſecond in command, having aſſembled the regular troops and militia of the iſland on the heights near the town, attacked the enemy with the greateſt reſolution and vigour. Baron Rullecourt being at the commencement of the action mortally wounded, the French troops in leſs than half an hour laid down their arms, and ſurrendered priſoners of war. Unfortunately almoſt the laſt ſhot fired, proved fatal to major Pierſon, in whoſe conduct, during the whole of this tranſaction, diſcretion and valour had been equally conſpicuous.

Early intelligence of the rupture with Holland having been tranſmitted to the Weſt Indies, admiral Rodney and general Vaughan appeared, February, 1781, with a very conſiderable naval and military force before the iſland of St. Euſtatia, that famous depoſit of wealth and mart of traffic. So little apprehenſive were the inhabitants of this event, that it was with difficulty they were brought to give credit to the ſummons. Being totally deſtitute of the means of reſiſtance, they were compelled to ſurrender at diſcretion. The ſtores and merchandize, eſtimated at three millions ſterling, were publicly ſold for the benefit of the captors. A prodigious number of trading veſſels lying in the harbour alſo became the property of the victors, with two men of war, one of which was a flag-ſhip, commanded by admiral count Byland. Nearly at the ſame time, the Dutch ſettlements of Demerara, Berbicia, and Iſſequibo, on the ſouthern main, alſo ſubmitted without reſiſtance to the arms of his Britannic majeſty.

The French fleet under count de Graſſe, after a partial engagement with admiral Hood, who in the abſence of ſir George Rodney commanded the Engliſh fleet, ſteered its courſe to the iſland of Tobago, on which M. de Bouillé, with a conſiderable land force, made an immediate deſcent. Admiral Rodney, on receiving intelligence of this attack, detached a ſquadron for the relief of the iſland, which finding the French in great force was obliged to return; and the admiral, accompanied by general Vaughan, now ſailed in perſon with the whole fleet for Tobago, off the coaſt of which he arrived the fourth of June, but had the mortification to learn that the iſland had ſurrendered on the ſecond. And at the latter end of the year, the iſland of Euſtatia was re-captured. M. de Bouillé, receiving

receiving certain intelligence of the habitual negligence of the garriſon, landed by night about four hundred troops, part of a much larger force, which the tempeſtuouſneſs of the weather had ſeparated, in a cove at the back of the iſland. This ſpirited officer, confiding in his fortune, advanced with his troops, as ſoon as day-light appeared, to the citadel, which they immediately ſtormed, and carried with little difficulty; and the ſurpriſe being very complete, near ſeven hundred men, with colonel Cockbourne, their commander, were, by a moſt humiliating neceſſity, conſtrained to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of war.

While the war was going on with various ſucceſs in America, governor Johnſtone, late one of the commiſſioners to America, was inveſted with a naval command, and with a conſiderable ſquadron was detached on an expedition to the Cape of Good Hope. The court of Verſailles, knowing the inability of the ſtates-general to protect their foreign dominions, ſent a ſuperior ſquadron under M. Suffrein to counteract the deſigns of the Engliſh; and coming up with them at Port Praya, in the iſland of St. Jago, the French admiral ſcrupled not to violate the neutrality of the Portugueſe flag, by attacking the ſquadron of commodore Johnſtone while it lay diſperſed and ſcattered, unſuſpicions of danger, in the harbour. Happily the French, rather by extraordinary efforts of valour on the part of the Britiſh ſeamen, than of ſkill on that of their commander, were beaten off; but immediately proceeding to the Cape, they effectually ſecured that important ſettlement from any hoſtile attempt. Commodore Johnſtone, on his ſubſequent arrival, was obliged to content himſelf with the capture of ſeveral Dutch Eaſt Indiamen in Saldanha bay; and thoſe of his ſhips which were deſtined for the Eaſt Indies proſecuting their voyage thither, the commodore returned home with his prizes from his lucrative expedition.

In the courſe of the ſummer of 1781, an engagement took place off the Dogger Bank, between an Engliſh ſquadron commanded by admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron of equal force under admiral Zoutman, who had under convoy the Baltic trade bound to the Texel. On perceiving the Engliſh fleet bearing down, the Dutch admiral, who was to leeward, lay-to, and the Engliſh were ſuffered to approach within half muſket ſhot without firing a gun, when a dreadful cannonade commenced, which was kept up without interruption for three hours and forty minutes; and the action then ceaſed only becauſe the ſhips on both ſides, from the damages they had reſpectively ſuſtained, were no longer found manageable. The Dutch, after ſome time, bore away with their convoy for the Texel, which they reached with great difficulty, one of their largeſt ſhips ſinking before they could make the harbour. Admiral Parker, who had unavailingly applied to the admiralty for a reinforcement, returned in great diſcontent and in a ſhattered condition to the Nore, where he received the ſignal honour of a viſit from his majeſty on-board his own ſhip, and was offered knighthood as the reward of his valour. But his haughty refuſal ſhewed how little he was flattered by theſe puerile diſtinctions.

About this time the emperor of Germany, then reſident in the Netherlands, iſſued a placart, by which Oſtend was declared to be a free port; and in the month of October, 1781, he acceded in form to the armed neutrality, as the kings of Pruſſia and Portugal had alſo previouſly done. All the continental powers ſeemed fully ſenſible that England was rapidly exhauſting her ſtrength in a fruitleſs and unnatural war with her colonies; and they were all equally ſedulous to be prepared to take advantage of her weakneſs. But the bulk of the people of England were not ſo blind to their own affairs as not to be fully ſenſible that the policy of lord North's adminiſtration was tending rapidly to the ruin and diſgrace of the country; and therefore a ſtring of motions for the diſcontinuance of the American war, and for the diſmiſſion of his majeſty's miniſters, had been ſtrenuouſly followed up by the members in oppoſition. On the 19th of March, 1782, the earl of Surrey had propoſed to move a reſolution of a ſimilar import; but when his lordſhip was about to riſe, lord North addreſſed himſelf to the ſpeaker, and ſaid, "that as he underſtood the object of the noble lord's motion to be the removal of miniſters, he wiſhed to prevent the neceſſity of giving the houſe further trouble by an explicit declaration, that his majeſty had come to a determination to make an entire change of adminiſtration: and he and his colleagues only retained their official ſituation till other miniſters were appointed to occupy their places." Thus was this famous adminiſtration under lord North, which had exiſted for twelve years, ſuddenly and totally diſſolved. The marquis of Rockingham, to the univerſal ſatisfaction of the kingdom, was now a ſecond time placed at the head of the treaſury; under whom lord John Cavendiſh acted as chancellor of the exchequer; the earl of Shelburne and Mr. Fox were nominated ſecretaries of ſtate; lord Camden was appointed preſident of the council; the duke of Grafton reinſtated as lord privy ſeal; admiral Keppel, now created lord Keppel, placed at the head of the admiralty; general Conway, of the army; the duke of Richmond, of the ordnance. The duke of Portland ſucceeded lord Carliſle as lord-lieutenant of Ireland; Mr. Burke was conſtituted paymaſter of the forces; and colonel Barré, treaſurer of the navy. Lord Thurlow, by the unanimous conſent of the new miniſters, continued in poſſeſſion of the great ſeal.

The firſt act of the new adminiſtration was to ſignify its abhorrence of the war, and by every honourable means to ſtop the further effuſion of human blood. Negociations for a general peace were almoſt immediately commenced between France and Great Britain, and Mr. Grenville was ſent to Paris, inveſted with full powers to treat for that purpoſe with all the belligerent powers.

Previous to the change of adminiſtration, ſir Henry Clinton had reſigned to ſir Guy Carleton his command in America, which he had held ſince the reſignation of ſir William Howe in the ſpring of 1778. Inſtructions were now ſent to the new commander, and admiral Digby, to acquaint the congreſs of the pacific views of the Engliſh court, and of their readineſs to treat on the baſis of American independence; for the event of which ſee the article AMERICA, vol. i. p. 465.

On the 15th of April, a meſſage was delivered to the houſe by Mr. Fox from the king, ſtating, "That his majeſty, taking into conſideration the ſupplies which have been given with ſo much liberality, and ſupported by ſuch uncommon firmneſs and fortitude by his people in the preſent extenſive war, recommended to his faithful commons the conſideration of an effectual plan of economy throughout all the branches of the public expenditure." An addreſs of thanks was then moved for, and immediately agreed to by the houſe; and in conſequence of this meſſage, Mr. Burke's reform bill was a third time brought forward, and finally paſſed. By this bill the board of trade, and the board of works, with the great wardrobe, were aboliſhed; together with the office of American ſecretary of ſtate, the offices of treaſurer of the chamber, cofferer of the houſehold, the lords of police in Scotland, the paymaſter of the penſions, the maſter of the harriers, the maſter of the ſtag-hounds, and ſix clerks of the board of green cloth. Proviſion alſo was made to enable his majeſty to borrow a ſum for the liquidation of a new arrear of three hundred thouſand pounds, by a tax on ſalaries and penſions; a debt to this amount having been contracted by the prodigality of the late miniſters, notwithſtanding the addition of one hundred thouſand pounds per annum, recently made to the civil liſt.

On the 3d of May, 1782, after a debate of ſome length, it was reſolved by the houſe of commons, "That all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions, of that houſe, reſpecting the election of John Wilkes, eſq. be expunged from the journals of the houſe, as ſubverſive of the rights

of the whole body of electors in the kingdom." Mr. Wilkes, in a public letter addreſſed to his conſtituents, "congratulated them on the ſignal reparation they had now obtained for their violated franchiſes, and the injuries they had ſuſtained under the former adminiſtration."

The new miniſtry, though compoſed of diſſonant and jarring materials, conducted public affairs with at leaſt the appearance of perfect and cordial unanimity, until the death of the marquis of Rockingham, July 1, 1782, in the meridian of his age, and at the very height of his political reputation; the weight and influence attached to which, combined with the excellence of his private character, and the mild benignity of his manners, formed that power of attraction which held together the new miniſterial ſyſtem; and when this ceaſed to operate, diſorder, confuſion, and mutual repulſion, took place. On the very day ſucceeding the deceaſe of the marquis of Rockingham, the earl of Shelburne was declared firſt lord of the treaſury. The acceptance of this high office, without any previous communication with his colleagues in adminiſtration, was conſidered by the Rockingham party as equivalent to a declaration of political hoſtility on the part of lord Shelburne. On this promotion, therefore, Mr. Fox reſigned the ſeals as ſecretary of the northern department; lord John Cavendiſh his office as chancellor of the exchequer; the duke of Portland his government of Ireland; lord Althrop, lord Duncannon, Mr. Frederic Montague, &c. their ſeats at the boards of treaſury and admiralty; and Mr. Burke his poſt of paymaſter of the army. In conſequence of theſe reſignations and removes, the ſeals of the ſouthern department were given to the earl of Grantham; and of the northern to Mr. Thomas Townſhend, late ſecretary at war; ſir George Young ſucceeded Mr. Townſhend; colonel Barré was made paymaſter of the forces; and the lord advocate of Scotland, in his room, treaſurer of the navy. The earl of Temple, eldeſt ſon of the late George Grenville, ſucceeded the duke of Portland in the lord lieutenancy of Ireland; but the promotion which attracted moſt of the public attention was that of Mr. William Pitt, who, at the age of three-and-twenty, was conſtituted chancellor of the exchequer, ; an office which had been always ſuppoſed to require, in order to its proper diſcharge, not ſo much brilliancy of talents, as long previous ſtudy and experience, and confirmed habitudes of diligence and induſtry in accounts.

On the 11th of July, 1782, the ſeſſion terminated, under which the new adminiſtration had been formed and reformed; and the ſpeech from the throne contained the welcome declaration, "that nothing could be more repugnant to his majeſty's feelings, than the long continuance of ſo complicated a war; and that his ardent deſire of peace had induced him to take every meaſure which promiſed the ſpeedieſt accompliſhment of his wiſhes."

The military events of the year yet remain to be narrated. The fortreſs of Gibraltar had continued to be cloſely inveſted by the Spaniards; and the reſolute defence of the garriſon began to attract the attention of Europe. Towards the cloſe of 1781, by a moſt ſpirited and ſucceſsful ſortie, the ſtupendous works erected by the Spaniards acroſs the iſthmus which connects the rock of Gibraltar with the Spaniſh main, were ſtormed and almoſt totally demoliſhed, when, after immenſe expence and labour, they had arrived at the higheſt ſtate of perfection. In leſs than half an hour five batteries, with all the lines of approach, communication, and traverſe, were in flames; the magazines blowing up one after another as the conflagration ſucceſſively reached them; the aſtoniſhed Spaniards offering no other reſiſtance, than a diſtant and ill-directed fire from the forts of St. Philip and St. Barbara.

To balance this ſucceſs, intelligence arrived early in the ſpring of 1782, that general Murray, governor of Minorca, had been compelled, after a long and vigorous reſiſtance, to ſurrender that iſland to the arms of his catholic majeſty. Formerly, the loſs of Minorca had occaſioned the downfal of an adminiſtration; but ſuch were the infinitely greater misfortunes and diſaſters of the preſent war, that this event made little impreſſion upon the public, and it was ſcarcely remarked, that no attempt whatever had been made for its relief during a ſiege of one hundred and ſeventy-one days.

The iſland of Nevis, in the Weſt Indies, alſo about the ſame time ſurrendered to the marquis de Bouillé and the count de Graſſe; by whom the moſt liberal terms were granted to the inhabitants. Eight thouſand troops, with a formidable train of artillery, were then landed on the important iſland of St. Chriſtopher. Sir Samuel Hood, who now commanded the Britiſh fleet in the Weſt Indies, made ſtrenuous efforts for its relief: and, notwithſtanding his diſparity of force, in three ſucceſſive encounters with the count de Graſſe he obtained each time the advantage, and, at length, by a dextrous manœuvre gained poſſeſſion of the enemy's anchorage in Baſſeterre Road. Admiral Hood then landed a conſiderable detachment of troops from Antigua under general Preſcot; but general Frazer, the commanding officer on the iſland, who was ſtrongly poſted on an intrenched eminence, ſent him word, "that as he had taken the trouble to come with troops to his aſſiſtance, he ſhould doubtleſs be glad of the honour of ſeeing him, but he was in no want of him or his troops." Notwithſtanding this idle vaunt, he was obliged to ſurrender the iſland on capitulation, after a ſiege of five weeks, on the 12th of February, 1782. In the ſame month, Demerara and Iſſequibo were captured by the French: alſo the iſland of Montſerrat. The loſs of the Bahamas quickly followed, being reduced by a conſiderable force under don Manuel de Cigagal, governor of the Havannah, to the obedience of the crown of Spain.

On the 19th of February, however, ſir George Rodney arrived in the Weſt Indies with a ſtrong reinforcement of ſhips from England, and reſumed the command of the fleet. Mighty preparations were now making both by the French and Spaniards, for the invaſion of Jamaica; and as the combined force of theſe powerful nations amounted to above ſixty ſail of the line, had a junction been effected, the iſland would have been irrecoverably loſt. The firſt object of the Britiſh admiral was to intercept a great convoy of troops, proviſions, and ſtores, expected from Europe: but in this he was diſappointed; the enemy found means to eſcape his vigilance, by making the iſland of Deſeada, to the northward, and keeping cloſe in ſhore under the high land of Guadaloupe and Dominique, and arrived ſafe at Fort Royale on the 21ſt of March. It was the deſign of count de Graſſe to proceed to Hiſpaniola, and join the Spaniſh admiral, don Solano, who was waiting his arrival, in order to make, in conjunction, the pre-concerted attack on Jamaica.

On the 8th of April, at day-break, the French fleet left the harbour of Fort Royale; and admiral Rodney, who had the earlieſt intelligence of their movements, inſtantly made the ſignal for a general chace. Early the next morning he came up with the enemy under Dominique, where the van of the Engliſh engaged the rear of the French, but the continued calms prevented a general or cloſe action. In the morning of the 11th a freſh breeze ſprung up, and the chace was renewed; and towards evening the headmoſt ſhips of the van gained ſo much on one or two of the enemy's ſhips, damaged in the late action, that the count de Graſſe thought it neceſſary to bear down for the purpoſe of protecting them. Sir George Rodney, who had eagerly watched for this opportunity, now manœuvred the fleet with ſuch ſkill, as to gain the windward of the enemy during the night, ſo as entirely to preclude their retreat. At ſeven in the morning of the 12th, the two fleets, being ranged in lines directly oppoſite, engaged with the greateſt fury. The French ſhips being crowded with men, the carnage was prodigious, but no viſible impreſſion was made, or material advantage gained till about noon, when ſir George Rodney

ney in the Formidable, followed by his ſeconds, the Namur and the Duke, perceiving an accidental interval which invited the attempt, bore directly with full ſail athwart the enemy's line, and ſucceſsfully broke through, about three ſhips ſhort of the centre, where the count de Graſſe commanded in the Ville de Paris. Being quickly ſupported by the remainder of his diviſion, the Engliſh commander wore round cloſe upon the enemy, and actually ſeparated their line, placing the central ſhips of the French between two fires. This bold and maſterly manœuvre proved deciſive. The French, however, continued to fight with the utmoſt bravery, and the battle laſted till ſun-ſet. The Cæſar was the firſt ſhip which ſtruck her colours, having loſt her captain, and being almoſt torn to pieces by the Britiſh fire. Soon afterwards, by ſome unfortunate accident ſhe blew up, and every ſoul on board periſhed. The Glorieux, the Hector, the Ardent, now followed the example of the Cæſar, and the Diadem went down by a ſingle broadſide. The count de Graſſe in the Ville de Paris, beſet on all ſides, ſtill held out with heroic bravery, and, though reduced to a wreck, ſeemed to prefer ſinking rather than ſtrike to any thing under a flag. At length admiral Hood, in the Barfleur, approached him juſt at ſunſet, and poured in a moſt deſtructive fire, which the count yet ſuſtained for ſome time, till, having three men only left alive and unhurt on the upper deck, he ſtruck to his gallant antagoniſt. Night only cloſed the action: the ſhattered remains of the French fleet crowded all the ſail they could make for Cape François, and in the morning they were out of ſight. Sir Samuel Hood being detached to purſue the flying enemy, came up with five ſail off Porto Rico, and captured the Jaſon and Caton ſhips of the line, and two frigates, the third with difficulty clearing the Mona paſſage. Unfortunately the fleet was becalmed for three days after the action; and ſir George Rodney did not eſcape cenſure for the previous dilatorineſs of his purſuit. Whether more might have been done, if more had been attempted, it is difficult, perhaps impoſſible, to determine. "What had been is unknown, what is appears;" and certain it is, that this was one of the moſt glorious and deciſive naval victories ever obtained by the arms of Britain in any age of the world.

For this great victory, ſir George Bridges Rodney was created a peer of Great Britain, by the title of baron Rodney, of Rodney-Stoke, in the county of Somerſet, and a perpetual annuity of two thouſand pounds annexed to the title. And the admiral received, as he well deſerved, the unanimous thanks of both houſes for his eminent ſervices.

The campaign of 1782 was deſtined to be for ever ſignalized in the annals of hiſtory, by another event not leſs glorious to the arms of Britain than the victory of ſir George Rodney. The favourite object of Spain, during the whole of this war, was the recovery of the important fortreſs of Gibraltar; and, after the reduction of Minorca, the whole ſtrength of the Spaniſh monarchy ſeemed to be directed to this purpoſe. The duc de Crillon, conqueror of Minorca, was appointed to conduct the ſiege, and, from the failure of former plans, it was reſolved to adopt an entire new mode of operation. A project was formed by the chevalier d'Arçon, and approved by the Spaniſh court, to conſtruct a number of floating batteries, on a model which it was imagined would ſecure them from being either ſunk or fired. With this view their keels and bottoms were made of an extraordinary thickneſs, and their ſides defended by a kind of rampart, compoſed of wood and cork long ſoaked in water, and including between them a large layer of wet ſand. The roof was made of a ſtrong rope-work netting, covered with wet hides, and calculated, by its ſloping poſition, to prevent the ſhells and bombs from lodging, but to glide them off into the ſea before they could produce any effect. The batteries, ten in number, were made of the hulls of large veſſels cut down for the purpoſe, and mounted with heavy braſs cannon; and, by a moſt ingenious mechaniſm, a great variety of pipes and canals perforated all the ſolid workmanſhip, in ſuch a manner, as to convey a continued ſucceſſion of water to every part of the veſſels.

The preparations were enormouſly expenſive in other reſpects: about twelve hundred pieces of heavy ordnance had been brought to the ſpot, to be employed in the different modes of attack; above eighty gun-boats and bomb-ketches were to ſecond the operations of the floating batteries, with a multitude of frigates, ſloops, and ſchooners; and the combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to fifty ſail of the line, were to cover and ſupport the attack, while they heightened the awful grandeur of the ſcene. The Spaniards employed by land and ſea againſt the fortreſs, were eſtimated at more than one hundred thouſand men.

With this force, and by the fire of three hundred cannon, mortars, and howitzers, from the adjacent iſthmus, it was intended to attack every part of the Britiſh works at one and the ſame moment. The count d'Artois and the duc de Bourbon, the brother and couſin of the late unfortunate Louis XVI. had repaired to the Spaniſh camp, in order to witneſs the inevitable fall of Gibraltar, which had ſo long bid haughty defiance to the united powers of France and Spain.

Early on the morning of the 13th of December, the ten battering ſhips, commanded by admiral don Moreno, came to an anchor in a line parallel to the rock, at the diſtance of about 1200 yards. The ſurrounding eminences were covered with people, as though all Spain were aſſembled to behold the ſpectacle. The cannonade and bombardment on all ſides, from the iſthmus to the ſea, and the various works of the fortreſs, were tremendouſly magnificent. The prodigious and unintermitted ſhowers of red-hot balls, of bombs and carcaſſes which filled the air, exhibited a ſcene perhaps unparalleled in military hiſtory. The whole peninſula, like ſome vaſt volcano diſcharging on all ſides its burning lava, ſeemed enveloped in a ſheet of liquid fire. The battering ſquadron for many hours remained to all appearance unaffected, but about two in the afternoon the admiral's ſhip was obſerved to ſmoke, and ſoon after, that of the prince of Naſſau was obſerved to be in the ſame condition. The whole line of attack was now viſibly diſordered. At length, the day having cloſed, the two firſt ſhips appeared to be in flames, and others were beginning to kindle; and ſignals of diſtreſs were univerſally made. Captain Curtis, who commanded the Engliſh marine force in the bay, to complete the confuſion, having advanced to the attack with his gun-boats, and raked the whole line of batteries with his fire, the Spaniſh launches, which had been employed in bringing off the men, no longer dared to appear; but were compelled, after ſeveral had been ſunk in the attempt, to abandon their ſhips to the flames, and their men to the mercy of the Engliſh. The diſtreſs of the enemy was now wrought up to the higheſt pitch of calamity; and the Britiſh officers and ſeamen, ſeeing all reſiſtance at an end, nobly exerted themſelves to ſave the vanquiſhed foe; and their humanity was, at the cloſe of this memorable conflict, no leſs conſpicuous than their valour. Captain Curtis, in particular, expoſed himſelf to the moſt imminent perſonal danger; and his pinnace was almoſt in contact with one of the largeſt batteries at the moment of her exploſion, while occupied in the philanthropic work of ſaving the enemy from drowning.

In the mean time, lord Howe, who commanded the grand fleet conſiſting of thirty-four ſail of the line, was on his paſſage from Portſmouth, in order to throw ſuccours into the fortreſs. He arrived at Cape St. Vincent the 9th of October, and on the 11th he paſſed the Straits, where the combined fleets had for ſome time been ſtationed in order to intercept him; but a violent tempeſt drove them upon the Barbary coaſt, and prevented all

poſſibility of attack. The St. Michael, of ſeventy-two guns, having ſeparated from the fleet, ran on-ſhore on the rock of Gibraltar, and was taken poſſeſſion of by captain Curtis. After fully executing the purpoſe of his deſtination, lord Howe ſet ſail for England. The enemy making their appearance off Cape St. Vincent, October 20, the Britiſh admiral lay-to, in order to receive them; but they kept at ſo great a diſtance, that the cannonade, which laſted from about five in the afternoon till ten at night, did little damage; and his lordſhip, having no preſſing reaſons for renewing the fight againſt ſo ſuperior a force, continued his voyage without further moleſtation back to Portſmouth. The governor of Gibraltar, general Elliot, for his gallant and heroic defence of that fortreſs, was moſt deſervedly raiſed to the peerage by the title of baron Heathfield, and a penſion annexed to the title equal in amount to that granted to ſir George Rodney.

This was the laſt military tranſaction of importance during the continuance of the war in Europe; and thus the career of Britain, after her repeated misfortunes, terminated with great ſplendour and eclat. All the belligerent powers were now inclined to liſten to her overtures of pacification. The independence of America being virtually recognized by England, and a reſolution againſt offenſive operations having paſſed the houſe of commons, the war with the colonies was, in fact, at an end. The original purpoſe of France, that of detaching the colonies from the parent country, being accompliſhed, ſhe could have no motive to perſevere in a war, the expence of which was enormous, and the further ſucceſs uncertain. Spain, after extraordinary exertions, having failed in her grand objects, the recovery of Gibraltar and the conqueſt of Jamaica, had little reaſon to flatter herſelf that her future efforts would be more ſucceſsful; and Holland had neither the inclination or the ability to continue the war alone.

During the negociation with France and Spain, proviſional articles of pacification between Great Britain and America were ſigned on the 30th of November, 1782, by which the thirteen provinces were declared free and independent ſtates; and, by a boundary line very favourable to America, the whole country ſouthward of the lakes on both ſides of the Ohio, and eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi, was ceded to the colonies, with a full participation of the fiſheries on the banks of Newfoundland, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. In return for which, the congreſs engaged to recommend to the ſeveral ſtates to provide for the reſtitution of the confiſcated eſtates of the loyaliſts. But this recommendation eventually proved nugatory and uſeleſs; and this wretched portion of his majeſty's American ſubjects migrated in great numbers to the inhoſpitable wilds of Nova Scotia, and the barren ſhores of the Bahamas. See the article AMERICA, vol. i. p. 465, &c.

Preliminary articles of peace were ſigned between Great Britain, France, and Spain, on the 20th of January, 1783. By this treaty Great Britain guaranteed to France the iſland of Tobago, and reſtored that of St. Lucia; alſo the ſettlements of Goree and Senegal in Africa; and the city of Pondicherry, with her other conqueſts in the eaſt, accompanied by ſome additions of territory. Laſtly, the claims of Britain reſpecting Dunkirk were expreſsly relinquiſhed; and on her part, France agreed to reſtore, Tobago excepted, all her valuable and important conqueſts in the Weſt Indies. His catholic majeſty was allowed to retain Minorca and Weſt Florida, Eaſt Florida being alſo ceded in exchange for the Bahamas. Holland having rejected the former advances of the Engliſh court towards an accommodation, it was reſolved that ſhe ſhould not eſcape with total impunity; and the Britiſh plenipotentiaries were directed to offer the reſtitution of the Dutch ſettlements in the poſſeſſion of England, with the important exception of Trincomalee, which their high mightineſſes declared they could not reconcile with the profeſſions of moderation on the part of his Britannic majeſty. On the other hand, Holland demanded an indemnification for the loſſes and expences of the war, a pretenſion which the Engliſh negociators peremptorily rejected as totally inadmiſſible.

Upon this peace lord North's famous motion of diſapprobation was brought into the houſe of commons. His lordſhip wiſhed not, however, "to ſet the negociations aſide, however derogatory of the honour and intereſt of Great Britain; nor to put thoſe who adviſed them under peril of puniſhment, how much ſoever it was deſerved." Such was the candour of the noble lord, and ſuch his indulgence to thoſe guilty of the crime of refcuing the nation from the ruin which impended over it, as the inevitable reſult of that fatal ſyſtem which had been ſo long patronized and ſupported by the noble lord. Mr. Fox now roſe, and declared "his perfect concurrence with the ſentiments expreſſed by lord North; and in ſtill more bitter terms reprobated the peace as the moſt diſaſtrous and humiliating that had ever diſgraced any country. He had been accuſed, (he ſaid,) of having formed an union with the noble lord, whoſe principles he had oppoſed for ſeveral years of his life; but the grounds of their oppoſition were removed, and he did not conceive it to be honourable to keep up animoſities for ever: He was happy at all times to have a proper opportunity to bury his reſentments, and it was the wiſh of his heart that his friendſhips ſhould never die. The American war was the ſource of his diſagreement with the noble lord; and that cauſe of enmity being now no more, it was wiſe and fit to put an end to the ill-will, the animoſity, the feuds, and the rancour, which it engendered. It was a ſatisfaction to him to apply the appellation of friend to the noble lord; he had found him honourable as an adverſary, and he had no doubt of his openneſs and ſincerity as a friend." But by a very great and reſpectable part of the houſe, this execrable *coalition*, which opened a perfectly new ſcene of things, was moſt indignantly received. Mr. Powis ſaid, "This was the age of ſtrange confederacies. The world had ſeen great and arbitrary deſpots ſtand forth the protectors of an infant republic: France and Spain had combined to eſtabliſh the riſing liberties of America; the houſe now ſurveyed the counterpart of this picture—a monſtrous coalition of oppoſite principles—the lofty aſſertor of the royal prerogative joined in alliance with the worſhippers of the majeſty of the people!

By this coalition the duke of Portland was placed at the head of the treaſury; and lord John Cavendiſh was re-appointed chancellor of the exchequer; lord North and Mr. Fox were nominated joint ſecretaries of ſtate, the firſt for the home, the latter for the foreign, department; lord Keppel, who had recently reſigned on account of his diſapprobation of the peace, was again placed at the head of the admiralty; lord Stormont was created preſident of the council; and lord Carliſle was advanced to the poſt of lord privy ſeal. The great ſeal was put into commiſſion; the chief-juſtice Loughborough, ſo diſtinguiſhed for political verſatility, being declared firſt lord commiſſioner; the earl of Northington was appointed to the government of Ireland; and Mr. Burke reinſtated in his former poſt of paymaſter of the forces. The coalition was, however, the theme of univerſal diſapprobation: all thoſe bitter and opprobrious expreſſions of contumely and reproach againſt lord North, with which the ſpeeches of Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke had been for ſo many years filled, were now recalled to the general recollection:—when lord Chatham "wiſhed that the vengeance of the nation might fall heavy upon the miniſters;—when Mr. Fox declared, "that he would purſue even to the ſcaffold the authors of the public ruin;—and when Mr. Burke affirmed, "that he had articles of impeachment actually framed againſt lord North, whom he ſtigmatized as a ſtate criminal." In ſhort, the coalition was univerſally branded as a groſs and palpable ſacrifice of every ſentiment of honour, conſiſtency, and rectitude, on the altar of private intereſt and ambition.

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One of the moſt diſtinguiſhed meaſures of Mr. Fox and his new colleague, was the introduction of their India bill. This famous bill propoſed no leſs than to take from the directors and proprietors the entire adminiſtration, not of their territorial merely, but of their commercial affairs, and to veſt the management and direction of them in the hands of ſeven commiſſioners named in the bill, and irremovable by the crown, except in conſequence of an addreſs of either houſe of parliament. Theſe commiſſioners and directors were immediately to enter into poſſeſſion of all lands, tenements, books, records, veſſels, goods, merchandize, and ſecurities, in truſt for the company. This act, by which the charter of the company was entirely ſuperſeded, was to continue in force four years, that is, till the year after the next general election; and it was accompanied by a ſecond bill, enacting very wiſe and equitable regulations for the future government of the Britiſh territories in Hindooſtan. The aſtoniſhment excited by the diſcloſure of this plan was very great; and while it was on one ſide of the houſe extolled as a maſterpiece of genius, virtue, and ability, it was on the other reprobated as a deep and dangerous deſign, fraught with miſchief and ruin. A petition was alſo preſented from the company, repreſenting the meaſure as ſubverſive of their charter, and operating as a confiſcation of their property, without charging againſt them any ſpecific delinquency, without trial, without conviction; a proceeding contrary to the moſt ſacred privileges of Britiſh ſubjects, and praying to be heard by counſel againſt the bill. The bill, however, was carried with rapidity through all its ſtages in the houſe of commons; and on the 9th of December, 1783, Mr. Fox, attended by a numerous train of members, preſented the bill at the bar of the houſe of lords. On this occaſion, earl Temple declared, "that he was happy to embrace the firſt opportunity of entering his proteſt againſt ſo infamous a bill; againſt a ſtretch of power ſo truly alarming, and that went near to ſeize upon the moſt ineſtimable part of our conſtitution, our chartered rights." On the 17th of the ſame month it was moved, that the bill be rejected; and after a vehement debate, the motion of rejection was carried by 95 againſt 76 voices. At midnight, on the 18th of December, a royal meſſage was ſent to the coalition ſecretaries of ſtate, demanding the ſeals of their ſeveral departments; and early the next morning letters of diſmiſſion, ſigned TEMPLE, were ſent to the other members of the cabinet. In a few days after, Mr. Pitt was declared firſt lord of the treaſury and chancellor of the exchequer; which terminated the very ſhort adminiſtration of Meſſrs. Fox and North. The marquis of Carmarthen, and Mr. Thomas Townſhend, now created lord Sydney, were nominated ſecretaries of ſtate; lord Thurlow was reinſtated as lord chancellor; earl Gower, afterwards created marquis of Stafford, as preſident of the council; the duke of Rutland was conſtituted lord privy ſeal; lord Howe placed at the head of the admiralty, and the duke of Richmond of the ordnance. The earl of Northington was recalled from his government of Ireland, to which lord Temple, who had retained the ſeals of ſecretary only three days, was again deſtined to ſucceed.

On the diſmiſſion of the coalition adminiſtration, Mr. Pitt, who now took the lead, recommended the arrangement of a plan for the future government of India. For this purpoſe, Mr. Pitt, on the ſixth of July, 1784, brought in a bill founded on the general principles of one that had been rejected by the former parliament, and to which the company had now given their ſlow and reluctant aſſent. By this bill the Britiſh territories in Hindooſtan are now governed and regulated; the particulars of which may be ſeen under EAST-INDIA COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 875—883.

In the interval between the prorogation of the parliament, A. D. 1784, and its re-aſſembling in the courſe of the enſuing winter, the nation enjoyed a flattering and delightful repoſe, under the bleſſings of peace. Highly gratified with the recent change which had taken place in the adminiſtration, the people viewed with unbounded complacency and confidence the miniſter now at the head of affairs; and indulged the moſt fond and ſanguine hopes, that under his auſpices Britain would be ſoon reſtored to her former enviable ſtate of proſperity and greatneſs.

The affairs of India during the ſeſſion of 1786, occupied the chief attention of Parliament. A bill was brought in by Mr. Dundas, which with ſome oppoſition paſſed into a law, to explain and amend the act of 1784. This bill, among other regulations of inferior importance, beſtowed upon the governor general of India the high prerogative of deciding in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the majority of the council. The offices of commander in chief and governor general, were in future to be united in the ſame perſon; and earl Cornwallis, who had borne ſo conſpicuous a part in the American war, and whoſe character ſtood deſervedly high in the public eſtimation, was nominated to fill this important commiſſion.

Mr. Haſtings, the late governor-general of Bengal, arrived in England in the month of June 1785; and the ſeaſon being then far advanced, Mr. Burke gave notice of his intention to move early in the next ſeſſion for a parliamentary inveſtigation into his conduct. Accordingly, on the 17th of February 1786, Mr. Burke threw down the gauntlett, and deſiring that the reſolutions of May 28, 1782, might be read (reſolutions moved by Mr. Dundas, as chairman of the ſelect committee, declaratory of the culpability of Mr. Haſtings, and the conſequent neceſſity of his recall), declared his "deep regret, that the ſolemn and important buſineſs of that day had not been brought forward by the original mover of the reſolutions now recited. Moſt feelingly did he lament, as the unwelcome conſequence of a devolution cauſed partly by the natural demiſe of ſome, the political deceaſe of others, and in particular caſes a death to virtue and to principle, that he ſhould now remain alone engaged in the attempt to preſerve unſullied the honour and the conſiſtency of that houſe, which had fixed upon Mr. Haſtings as an object of their particular and formal accuſation, by impeachment: preparatory to which, he concluded with moving for the papers neceſſary to corroborate the charge againſt the late governor-general of India. And on the 4th of April, 1786, Mr. Burke ſolemnly roſe to impeach Warren Haſtings, eſq. of high crimes and miſdemeanors in the execution of his office, exhibiting at the ſame time nine diſtinct articles of accuſation, which in a few weeks were increaſed to the number of twenty-two.

On the 1ſt of May, Mr. Haſtings, at his own deſire, and by the indulgence of the houſe, was heard at the bar of the houſe, in this early period of the buſineſs, in his own defence: and at the farther requeſt of the accuſed, the minutes of his defence were ordered to lie on the table. But the general opinion, faintly controverted even by the friends of Mr. Haſtings, was, that the defence, thus prematurely delivered, was of no ſervice to his cauſe, and contributed in a very inadequate degree to the vindication of his character. The houſe now proceeded in the examination of evidence: and the firſt article of impeachment reſpecting the Rohilla war was brought forward on the 1ſt of June. After a very long debate, the queſtion was decided in favour of Mr. Haſtings, ayes for the impeachment 67, noes 119. Mr. Pitt gave a ſilent vote againſt the motion; but the ground on which he voted was aſcertained by a declaration he had previouſly made, when the ſubject of the Rohilla war was in a more general way diſcuſſed, "that he conſidered that tranſaction in a horrible alarming point of view; and as being ſo repugnant to every ſentiment of human nature, that nothing could juſtify it but the ſtrongeſt motives of political expediency, and the invincible principles of retributive juſtice; adding, nevertheleſs, that it would be highly inconſiſtent and abſurd to conſider Mr.

Haſtings now in the light of a culprit, for any meaſures taken by him *previouſly* to the period in which he had been nominated by act of parliament, *governor-general of India.*"

On the 13th of June, the ſecond charge, relative to the rajah of Benares, being brought forward, it was reſolved by the houſe, on a diviſion of 119 to 79 voices, "that this charge contained matter of impeachment againſt the late governor-general of Bengal." On this occaſion Mr. Pitt ſpoke in ſupport of the motion. On the 11th of July, 1786, an end was put to theſe proceedings for the preſent by a prorogation of the parliament, which was diſmiſſed with aſſurances of "the particular ſatisfaction with which the king had obſerved their diligent attention to the public buſineſs, and the meaſures they had adopted for improving the reſources of the country."

Soon after the riſing of parliament, a ſingular incident occurred which ingroſſed for a moment the attention of the public. As the king was alighting from his poſt-chariot at the garden entrance of St. James's palace, Auguſt the 2d, a woman decently dreſſed preſented a paper to his majeſty; and while he was in the act of receiving it, ſhe ſtruck with a concealed knife at his breaſt. The king happily avoided the blow by drawing back; and as ſhe was preparing to make a ſecond thruſt, one of the yeomen caught her arm, and the weapon was wrenched out of her hand. It appeared that this poor woman, whoſe name was Margaret Nicholſon, had for a long time laboured under a mental derangement; ſhe was therefore taken to a proper place of ſecurity, and maintained at the king's expence.

In September, 1786, the king was pleaſed to appoint a new committee of council, for the conſideration of all matters relating to trade and foreign plantations. Of this board the famous Charles Jenkinſon, now for his long and faithful ſervices created lord Hawkeſbury, and conſtituted chancellor of the duchy of Lancaſter, was declared preſident. Under the auſpices of this new commiſſion a treaty of commerce was ſigned between the two courts of England and France, September 26, 1786, on the liberal principles of equality and reciprocity. Its general principle was to admit the mutual importation and exportation of the commodities of each country at a very low *ad valorem* duty. About the ſame time a convention was ſigned with Spain of ſome importance, as it finally terminated the long ſubſiſting diſputes reſpecting the ſettlements of the Engliſh nation on the Moſquito ſhore, and the coaſt of Honduras. By the preſent treaty the Moſquito ſettlements were formally and explicitly relinquiſhed, as they had already virtually been by the 6th article of the general treaty of 1783. In return the boundaries of the Engliſh ſettlements on the coaſt and bay of Honduras were ſomewhat extended, but in ſuch manner, and on ſuch conditions, as to leave the king of Spain in full poſſeſſion of his territorial rights and excluſive dominion.

The impeachment of Mr. Haſtings was reſumed on the 7th of February, 1787, when Mr. Sheridan opened the third charge reſpecting the begum princeſſes of Oude, with an eloquence and energy which were perhaps never ſurpaſſed. On a diviſion, the numbers were, in favour of the motion 175, againſt it 68. On the 2d of March, Mr. Pelham opened the charge relative to the nabob of Ferruckabad, which was affirmed by 112 againſt 50 voices. On the 15th of March, the charge upon the ſubject of contracts was brought forward by ſir James Erſkine. "All of them," ſir James obſerved, "were made in direct violation of the regulations of the court of directors." On this article the diviſion was, ayes 60, noes 26. Upon the 23d of March, the charge relative to Fyzoola Khan was brought forward by Mr. Windham. This was carried on a diviſion of 96 againſt 37 voices. On the 2d of April, Mr. Sheridan opened to the houſe the charge upon the ſubject of corrupt and unreaſonable preſents. Upon a diviſion, the numbers appeared, ayes 165, noes 54. On the 19th of April, the charge reſpecting the waſte of the revenues was opened by Mr. Francis, who had formerly occupied with ſo much honour, the office of member of the ſupreme council in India, and who had recently taken his ſeat as a member of the houſe of commons. This charge was confirmed, notwithſtanding the unexpected diſſent of the miniſter, by 71 to 55 voices.

On the 9th of May, the report made by Mr. Burke from the committee, to whom it had been referred to prepare the articles of impeachment, was confirmed by the houſe, ayes 175, noes 89. On the following day it was voted that Mr. Haſtings be impeached; and Mr. Burke accordingly, in the name of the houſe of commons, and of all the commons in Great-Britain, repaired to the bar of the houſe of lords, and impeached Mr. Haſtings of high crimes and miſdemeanours. On the ſame day the articles actually prepared were ſent to the lords; and on the 21ſt Mr. Haſtings, being conducted to the bar of that houſe by the ſerjeant at arms, was taken into the cuſtody of the black rod, but on the motion of the lord chancellor was admitted to bail—himſelf in twenty thouſand pounds, and two ſureties, Mr. Sullivan and Mr. Sumner, in ten thouſand pounds each; and he was ordered to deliver in an anſwer to the articles of impeachment in one month from that time, or upon the ſecond day of the next ſeſſion of parliament. On the 30th of May, 1787, the king put an end to the ſeſſion by a ſpeech, applauding "the meaſures taken by parliament reſpecting the reduction of the national debt, and the treaty of navigation and commerce with the moſt Chriſtian king."

One of the acts of the ſeſſion of 1787, provided for the eſtabliſhment of a court of judicature in New South Wales, a part of the great iſland, we may ſay continent, of New Holland. The priſons in England, being inconveniently crowded, the idea of a diſtant removal, combined with the hope of colonial advantage, had occaſioned the reſolution of ſending convicts to the country bordering on Botany Bay, of which captain Cook had made favourable mention. About eight hundred delinquents, of which number three fourths were males, were ſent out under the care of captain Philip, who was commiſſioned to act as governor of the future colony. The duration of the voyage was above eleven months; and, when the fleet had reached the bay, the ſcarcity of freſh water rendered it expedient to ſeek another ſpot. Port Jackſon, being found more eligible, became the primary ſeat of the criminal exiles. The neceſſary rigour of the colonial government operated to the repreſſion of crimes, and the preſervation of general order; and in many of the convicts a ſenſe of ſhame had an extraordinary effect, which ſeemed to augur future proſperity and ſucceſs.

The parliament again aſſembled on the 27th of November; and in the early part of the ſeſſion Mr. Haſtings delivered in his anſwer to the impeachment of the commons, who immediately proceeded to the appointment of a committee of managers. The trial commenced on the 15th of February, 1788; Weſtminſter-hall being fitted up for the purpoſe with great magnificence. Mr. Burke was no leſs than four days in making his preliminary ſpeech, which was filled with vehement invective, with much rhetorical exaggeration, and with matter wholly extraneous to the ſubject. Men of plain ſenſe, whoſe object was truth, and who deſired only a clear and ſimple ſummary of facts, ſighed over theſe eccentricities, and augured ill of the procedure from ſo injudicious an outſet.

On the 22d of February, the Benares charge was opened by Mr. Fox; and it was concluded on the 25th by Mr. Grey. On the 15th of April, the charge relative to the begums of Oude was brought forward by Mr. Adam; and the evidence on this charge was ſummed up by Mr. Sheridan, in a ſpeech which laſted five days, and of which the more vigorous compreſſion only was wanting to the perfection of eloquence. The king put an end to the ſeſſion, July 11, 1788, by a ſpeech from the throne, in which

which he complimented the two houſes on their great attention and liberality.

Soon after the receſs of parliament, the king, who had been for ſome time indiſpoſed, was adviſed by his phyſicians to try the mineral waters of Cheltenham, which he was believed to drink in too profuſe a quantity. On his return to Windſor, late in the ſummer, his illneſs returned with new and alarming ſymptoms. By the end of October, it could no longer be concealed that the malady of the king was of a nature peculiarly afflictive and dreadful. A mental derangement had taken place, which rendered him totally incapable of public buſineſs.

The ſituation of affairs was at this period ſingularly critical. The prince of Wales, into whoſe hands the government of the country was then likely to fall, had conceived a deep reſentment againſt the miniſters; and he took no pains to conceal his decided predilection for the perſon and politics of Mr. Fox. This diſtinguiſhed ſtateſman, on the earlieſt intelligence of the king's indiſpoſition, had returned from a ſummer excurſion to the continent with incredible expedition; and in contemplation of an approaching change, a new arrangement of adminiſtration was already believed to be formed, conſiſting of the principal members of the former coalition miniſtry, lord North only excepted, and of which the duke of Portland was to be once more the oſtenſible head. The policy of oppoſition ſeemed evidently repugnant to every idea of unneceſſary delay. Yet doubts were ſtarted by Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, and others of the ſame party, whether parliament could in this momentous caſe diſpenſe with that ſort of evidence on which they had been accuſtomed to proceed. The validity of the objection was very faintly conteſted, and a committee of twenty-one perſons in each houſe, after no long debate, appointed to examine and report the ſentiments of the king's phyſicians. The report of the committee was laid upon the table of the houſe of commons on the 10th of December; when Mr. Fox advanced, as a propoſition deducible from the principles of the conſtitution, and the analogy of the law of hereditary ſucceſſion, "that whenever the ſovereign was incapable of exerciſing the functions of his high office, the heir apparent, if of full age and capacity, had as indiſputable a claim to the exerciſe of the executive authority, in the name and on the behalf of the ſovereign, during his incapacity, as in the caſe of his natural demiſe."

On this aſſertion, Mr. Pitt roſe with much apparent warmth, and declared, "that the ſpeech of Mr. Fox was little ſhort of treaſon againſt the conſtitution. And he pledged himſelf to prove, that the heir apparent, in the inſtances in queſtion, had no more right to the exerciſe of the executive power than any other perſon; and that it belonged entirely to the two remaining branches of the legiſlature to make ſuch a proviſion for ſupplying the temporary deficiency as they might think proper." Thus was this famous queſtion at iſſue between theſe two great political rivals; in which it was remarkable, that Mr. Fox, the great advocate of the rights of the people, became the defender of prerogative; and Mr. Pitt, who had been loudly accuſed of deſerting the principles of liberty, appeared in the advantageous light of their zealous aſſertor. All the popular arguments and axioms of government, were upon this occaſion urged by Mr. Pitt. "When, (ſaid he,) the regular exerciſe of the powers of government was from any cauſe ſuſpended, to whom could the right of providing a remedy for the exiſting defect devolve, but to the people, *from whom all the powers of government originated? To aſſert an inherent right in the prince of Wales to aſſume the government, was virtually to revive thoſe exploded ideas of the divine and indefeaſible authority of princes, which had ſo juſtly ſunk into contempt, and almoſt into oblivion.* Kings and princes derive their power from the people; and to the people alone, through the organ of their repreſentatives, did it appertain to decide in caſes for which the conſtitution had made no ſpecific or poſitive proviſion." The diſcuſſion of the abſtract queſtion of right being perceived to afford a great and unexpected controverſy, the duke of York, ſoon after this debate, in the name of the prince, moſt nobly and ingenuouſly expreſſed his wiſhes, "that the queſtion might be waved. No claim of right, (his highneſs ſaid,) had been advanced by the prince of Wales; and he was confident that his brother too well underſtood the ſacred principles which ſeated the houſe of Brunſwick upon the throne, ever to aſſume or exerciſe any power, be his claim what it might, *that was not derived from the will of the people expreſſed by their repreſentatives.*"

Theſe debates were at length happily arreſted in their progreſs, by an intimation from the lord chancellor, that the king was declared by his phyſicians to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence. This was followed by a declaration on the 10th of March, 1789, that his majeſty being perfectly recovered from his indiſpoſition, had ordered a commiſſion to be iſſued for holding the parliament in the uſual manner. The tidings of the king's recovery diffuſed the moſt general and heartfelt ſatisfaction. A national thankſgiving was appointed, and the king himſelf went in ſolemn proceſſion to the cathedral of St. Paul's, to offer up his grateful devotions on this event; which was celebrated throughout the kingdom by ſplendid illuminations, and every other demonſtration of joy. In this ſeſſion Mr. Wilberforce brought forward his long-expected motion, relating to the abolition of the African ſlave-trade, which was now become the theme of public execration. See the whole of this intereſting ſubject amply diſcuſſed under the article SLAVE.

The trial of Mr. Haſtings was now reſumed; and the third article, reſpecting preſents illegally and corruptly received, was brought forward by Mr. Burke. In his opening ſpeech in ſupport of this charge, in which the fatal buſineſs of Nund-comar, who was ſaid to have fallen a victim to the rapacity of Mr. Haſtings, ſtood moſt conſpicuous, Mr. Burke made uſe of the following indiſcreet expreſſion: "that man Mr. Haſtings murdered by the hands of Sir Elijah Impey." This afforded a ground of petition from Mr. Haſtings, that this allegation ſhould be proſecuted in ſpecific articles, or that the houſe ſhould grant him ſuch redreſs as to them ſhould ſeem meet. After a long debate, the houſe of commons reſolved, "that no authority had been given by the houſe for the purpoſe of making any criminal charge reſpecting the death of Nund-comar, and that the words complained of ought not to have been ſpoken."

Mr. Grenville, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, being advanced, upon the reſignation of lord Sydney, to the office of ſecretary of ſtate, was ſucceeded, after ſitting in the chair of the houſe ſcarcely ſix months, by Henry Addington, eſq. This new ſpeaker ſoon acquired great reputation, for dignity, integrity, and impartiality in the diſcharge of his office; and the ſeſſion was terminated Auguſt 11, 1789, by a ſpeech from the lord chancellor in the name of the ſovereign; in which it was obſerved, "that although the good offices of the king and his allies had not been effectual for the reſtoration of the general tranquillity, the ſituation of affairs promiſed to this country the uninterrupted enjoyment of the bleſſings of peace." This was an aſſurance highly and peculiarly grateful, in conſequence of the recent events which had taken place in the different kingdoms of Europe. A war had been kindled between Ruſſia, Auſtria, and the Turks, which gradually diffuſed itſelf from the Euxine to the Baltic—from the ſnow-clad mountains of Norway to the arid waſtes of Tartary: while the foundations of a great and ſtupendous revolution had been laid, which, almoſt inſtantly expanding itſelf into gigantic growth, became the ſubject of terror, no leſs than of aſtoniſhment to the ſurrounding nations. This was no other than the French revolution: for the riſe, progreſs, and fatal circumſtances of which, ſee the article FRANCE, in our ſeventh volume.

In this ſtate of things, the parliament of Great Britain was convened January the 21ſt, 1790. The king's ſpeech

contained nothing remarkable. It ſlightly glanced on the affairs of France, in declaring, "the internal ſituation of the different parts of Europe, to have been productive of events which had engaged his majeſty's moſt ſerious attention." But early indications appeared of the miſchiefs with which the recent tranſactions in that kingdom were likely to involve this country. The buſineſs relative to the abolition of the ſlave-trade was now reſumed; but it went on ſlowly and heavily. Every artifice of procraſtination was uſed on the part of the ſlave-merchants and planters, and the whole ſeſſion paſſed over in the hearing of evidence and examination of witneſſes.

The trial of Mr. Haſtings alſo proceeded with equal languor. On the 16th of February, 1790, the charge reſpecting corrupt preſents was recapitulated by Mr. Burke; but in the entire courſe of the ſeſſion the court ſat only thirteen days. The enthuſiaſm of thoſe who expected to have ſeen a great public delinquent brought to juſtice, was faſt changing to compaſſion for the man who ſeemed deſtined to live a life of impeachment, and to have become the object of a relentleſs perſecution. The evidence on three articles only of the general charge out of twenty-two was as yet cloſed, after which Mr. Haſtings was to enter upon his defence, and the commons were to reply; ſo that in all probability the judges and the witneſſes, the accuſers and the accuſed, would be all ſwept away by the hand of time before the trial could arrive at its legal termination. The common ſenſe of mankind revolted at this procedure. It appeared manifeſt to all, that this was not the mode in which human affairs could or ought to be conducted. The real merits of the cauſe were loſt in the immenſity of the detail. It was not to be expected or imagined that the public at large could pretend to form any judgment reſpecting it. This only without heſitation they inferred, that if Mr. Haſtings was ſo criminal as he was repreſented, a ſhort and ſimple ſtatement of facts would ſuffice to prove his guilt. But Weſtminſter-hall was converted into a lyceum, a ſchool of eloquence, and all was ſeen confuſed and magnified through the miſt of rhetorical declamation.

On the 31ſt of March, 1790, Mr. Dundas brought forward his annual ſtatement of the debts and revenues of the Eaſt-India company, as required by the regulation act. He repreſented their ſituation as in the higheſt degree proſperous and flouriſhing; and what is very remarkable, he did not conclude his eulogium of the preſent year with aſking a loan to enable them to avoid the horrors of inſolvency. Through the wiſe and equitable adminiſtration of lord Cornwallis, the revenues of Bengal had been advanced during the laſt year, without the aid of any new impoſition, from one million eight hundred thouſand pounds to two millions one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. The preſent governor-general, on his acceſſion to his high office, had ſtated the ſituation of the provinces as moſt wretched and deplorable. In his diſpatch to the court of directors, Auguſt 2, 1789, he ſays, "Independent of all other conſiderations, it will be of the utmoſt importance for promoting the ſolid intereſt of the company, that the principal landholders and traders in the interior parts of the country ſhould be reſtored to ſuch circumſtances as to enable them to ſupport their families with decency, according to the cuſtoms of their ſeveral caſtes and religions. I am ſorry to be obliged to ſay, that agriculture and internal commerce have for many years been gradually declining; and the inhabitants of theſe provinces were advancing haſtily to a general ſtate of poverty and wretchedneſs. In this deſcription I muſt include almoſt every zemindar in the company's territories." And in his council-minute of September 18, 1789, his lordſhip writes, "I can ſafely aſſert, that one-third of the company's territory is now a jungle, inhabited by wild beaſts!" One of the primary and moſt important meaſures of the new governor-general was, to leaſe the lands in perpetuity at an equitable valuation to the actual occupants; in alluſion to which momentous tranſaction his lordſhip thus forcibly expreſſes himſelf to the directors: "The ſecurity of property, and the certainty with which each individual will now feel of being allowed to enjoy the fruits of his labours, muſt operate uniformly as incitements to labour and induſtry." This could not but be conſtrued as a bitter ſatire on the conduct of his predeceſſor; and as amounting to a very explicit acknowledgment of the miſery and oppreſſion which the inhabitants had long ſuffered under the former capricious government.

In April, 1790, Mr. Pitt preſented his ſtatement of the national revenue and expenditure of the ſtate; and it was very conſolatory to the public to be informed that the receipt of the exchequer had ſurpaſſed that of the year preceding in the ſum of half a million, and more ſo to be told that ſtill greater acceſſions might reaſonably be hoped from the uninterrupted enjoyment of the ineſtimable bleſſings of peace. It therefore excited peculiar aſtoniſhment, when in about a fortnight from this period, viz. May 5th, 1790, a royal meſſage was delivered by the miniſter, announcing a ſtate of things which bore the undiſguiſed and menacing aſpect of war. To elucidate this matter, it is neceſſary to mention that the celebrated circumnavigator Cook, in his laſt voyage of diſcovery, touching at divers ports on the weſtern coaſt of North America, purchaſed from the natives a number of valuable furs bearing a high price in the Chineſe market. This branch of commerce proving very lucrative, a ſpot of ground was, in 1788, procured from the Indians, and a regular eſtabliſhment, defended by a ſlight fortification, formed at a place called Nootka Sound, ſituated about the fiftieth degree of latitude. This being regarded by the Spaniards as an encroachment on their excluſive rights of ſovereignty, the Princeſſa, a Spaniſh man of war diſpatched for this purpoſe by the viceroy of Mexico, in the following ſpring, ſeized without ceremony upon the fort, and captured ſuch Engliſh veſſels, the Iphigenia, Argonaut, &c. as were found trading on the coaſt. At the ſame time the Spaniſh commandant hoiſting the national ſtandard, declared that the whole line of coaſt from Cape Horn to the ſixtieth degree of latitude belonged to the king of Spain. After ſome delay, and much loſs and vexation to the proprietors, the captured veſſels were reſtored by order of the viceroy, on the ſuppoſition, as he declared, "that nothing but ignorance of the rights of Spain could have induced the merchants in queſtion to attempt an eſtabliſhment on that coaſt." This was the exact counterpart of the memorable affair of Falkland Iſlands, which had ſo nearly involved Europe in a war twenty years before.

The claims of Spain, in relation to her rights of dominion and ſovereignty in America, were doubtleſs in the higheſt degree chimerical. By the treaty of 1763, the river Miſſiſſippi, flowing from north to ſouth in a direct courſe of fifteen hundred miles, was made the perpetual boundary of the two empires of Spain and Great Britain; and the whole country to the weſt of that vaſt river belonged to his catholic majeſty, by juſt as valid a tenure as the country eaſtward of the river to the king of England. Excluſive of this recent and deciſive line of demarcation, by which the relative and political rights of both nations were clearly aſcertained, the Spaniſh court referred to ancient treaties, by which the rights of the crown of Spain were acknowledged in their full extent by Great Britain. Charles III. king of Spain, died December, 1788, and his ſon, Charles IV. confiding in the juſtice of his claims, offered to ſubmit the deciſion of this queſtion to any one of the kings of Europe, leaving the choice wholly to his Britannic majeſty. The reply of the court of London to the Spaniſh ambaſſador, was full of dignity and ſpirit: "The act of violence mentioned in the memorial, neceſſarily ſuſpended any diſcuſſion till an adequate atonement had been made for a proceeding ſo injurious to Great Britain."

On the 10th of June, 1790, the king terminated the ſeſſion,

ſeſſion, and in his ſpeech ſignified the probability of a ſpeedy diſſolution of the preſent parliament; aſſuring the members in handſome terms of "the deep and grateful ſenſe which he entertained of that affectionate and unſhaken loyalty, that uniform and zealous regard for the true principles of the conſtitution, that unremitted attention to the public happineſs and proſperity, which had invariably directed all their proceedings;" and on the day following the parliament was diſſolved by proclamation.

Conſcious of her inability to contend alone with the power of England, Spain had in an early ſtage of the negociation applied to the court of France, to know how far ſhe could depend, in preſent circumſtances, upon the fulfilment of the conditions of the family compact, in caſe of a rupture with Great Britain. But ſuch was the tumultuous ſtate of affairs at Paris, that the court of Madrid plainly ſaw the inability of the French nation to engage in a war with England; and, yielding to neceſſity, complied firſt with the harſh demand of previous reſtitution and indemnification; and at length, on the 2d of October, 1790, a convention was ſigned at the Eſcurial, by which every point in diſpute was conceded by Spain. The ſettlement at Nootka was reſtored; the free navigation and right of fiſhery in the Southern Pacific Ocean, were confirmed to Britain; a full liberty of trade was granted to all the northweſt coaſts of America, beyond the moſt northerly of the Spaniſh ſettlements, unaccompanied, however, by any formal renunciation of their right of ſovereignty. And the two powers were, on the other hand, equally reſtrained from attempting any ſettlement nearer to Cape Horn than the moſt ſoutherly of the ſettlements actually formed by Spain. A very wiſe article was inſerted likewiſe in this treaty: that in all future caſes of complaint, or ſuppoſed infraction of the preſent convention, no act of violence ſhall be committed, but an exact report ſhall be made of the affair to the reſpective courts, who will terminate ſuch difference amicably.

The new parliament aſſembled on the 25th of November, 1790. In his opening ſpeech, the king ſignified "his ſatisfaction that the differences with Spain were brought to an amicable termination. He obſerved, that ſince the laſt ſeſſion of parliament a foundation had been laid for a pacification between Auſtria and the Porte; but that the war between Ruſſia and the Porte ſtill continued. "The principles on which I have hitherto acted (ſaid the monarch,) will make me always deſirous of employing the weight and influence of this country in contributing to the reſtoration of general tranquillity."

The terms of the convention with Spain were approved and ratified in both houſes by great majorities. To defray the expence of the armament which had taken place, Mr. Pitt, with the laudable reſolution to ſuffer no permanent increaſe of debt, propoſed various temporary taxes, which would diſcharge the incumbrance in four years, with the aſſiſtance of five hundred thouſand pounds, which he had it in contemplation to take from the unclaimed dividends lying in the Bank of England, the amount of which he eſtimated at 660,000l. This propoſition excited a juſt alarm in all the great chartered companies, and in the commercial and mercantile world in general; and was, therefore, ſtrongly and ably oppoſed. It was urged, "that agreeably to the terms of the original contract between the government and the public creditors, the directors of the bank are conſtituted truſtees for the public creditor. When the money is once paid into the bank, it ceaſes to be public money, and is inſtantly converted into private property; which muſt there remain a ſacred depoſit till it is claimed by the private individuals to whom it appertains. And even in caſe of the expiration of the charter of the bank of England, the directors ſtill remain a corporation by law, for the expreſs purpoſe of executing their delegated truſt. What miſchief may not reſult from the admiſſion of a power in government, arbitrarily to depart from the conditions of the contract actually made with the public? Under the the very term *unclaimed dividends*, is indeed veiled a groſs fallacy. Excluſive of the dividends of the laſt three years, which are not properly unclaimed but merely *unreceived* dividends, the balance amounts ſcarcely to a fifth part of the ſum which the miniſter propoſes to ſeize. If the recent and fluctuating balances of the bank are thus liable to ſeizure, the miniſter may one day order the money to be paid into the bank, and the next he may without any violation of public faith command it to be repaid into the exchequer." After much heſitation and conteſt, the miniſter conſented, by way of compromiſe, to accept of a loan of five hundred thouſand pounds from the bank, without intereſt, ſo long as a floating balance to that amount ſhould remain in the hands of the caſhier.

On the 17th of December, 1790, Mr. Burke moved, "that the houſe do reſolve itſelf into a committee, to take into conſideration the ſtate of the impeachment of Warren Haſtings, eſq." This being done, he made a ſecond motion, "that an impeachment by this houſe, in the name of the commons of Great Britain, againſt Warren Haſtings, eſq. for high crimes and miſdemeanours, is ſtill pending." From this propoſition, the entire corps of lawyers in the houſe with ſcarcely an exception declared their total diſſent: and Mr. Erſkine, in an elaborate ſpeech, endeavoured to ſhew that in conſequence of the diſſolution of parliament the impeachment had abated, and on this ground he was ſupported by Mr. Hardinge, Mr. Mitford, and ſir John Scott.

Upon this great queſtion, in the deciſion of which the honour, the dignity, and the authority, of the houſe, were ſo deeply involved, the ſpeaker with great propriety roſe to deliver his opinion: "If the maxim laid down by the lawyers were admitted as juſt, the conſequence was obvious. The impeachment of a profligate or corrupt miniſter might, by the inſidious intervention of the prerogative, at any time be rendered nugatory and abortive. In the view of the conſtitution, and even by the forms of parliament, the impeachment is preferred not by the houſe of commons merely, but by all the commons of England; and the houſe can be conſidered in relation to the proſecution as no more than the agents and attornies of the people at large. A ſecond houſe of commons therefore, though certainly poſſeſſing a diſcretionary power of dropping the proſecution, if upon due conſideration they are of opinion that it does not reſt upon a juſt foundation, are as certainly at full liberty to proceed in it, if in their judgment conducive to the ſafety or the intereſts of the ſtate. In an impeachment of the nature of the preſent, it would ſcarcely be imagined that twenty-two complex articles could by any mode of inveſtigation be decided upon in a ſingle ſeſſion. If then, agreeably to the genius of the ancient conſtitution, parliaments themſelves were to be made annual, the labour would be truly Syſiphean; as ſuch a trial never could arrive at a legal termination. Such were the plain dictates of common ſenſe; which pointed to rules of law, and precedents of parliament." Upon a general review of theſe facts and precedents, the ſpeaker gave it as his deliberate and decided judgment, that the impeachment was ſtill legally pending: in this opinion Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, and the moſt eminent parliamentary authorities on both ſides concurred. But very little progreſs was made in it during the ſhort remainder of the ſeſſion.

The ſtate of affairs in France, though paſſed over in total ſilence in the king's ſpeech, was now become very critical. In England, the anniverſary of the French revolution was celebrated, not without a certain mixture of indiſcretion, conſidering the lowering aſpect of the political horizon in France, and the party ſpirit which at this period raged throughout England. The latter months of the year paſſed over in gloomy ſilence. The parliament was not convened till the 31ſt of January, 1792. The king announced in his ſpeech the marriage of his ſon, the duke of York, with the princeſs Frederica, daughter of the king of Pruſſia. The general ſtate of affairs in

Europe, he ſaid, promiſed a continuance of peace, and he was induced to hope for an immediate reduction of the naval and military eſtabliſhments.

The attention of parliament towards the concluſion of the ſeſſion, was again forcibly drawn to the ſituation of India. From the era of the peace of Mangalore, concluded by the company with Tippoo Saib in 1784, the power of that prince had been regarded as very formidable. He was avowedly attached to the intereſts of France, to which country he had ſoon after that event ſent a ſplendid embaſſy, and eſtabliſhed an intimate friendſhip and alliance. The period, however, at length arrived, when, France being occupied with other and greater objects, a ſevere vengeance might be ſafely taken on the tyrant of Myſore, for all his perfidies and oppreſſions. The Dutch Eaſt-India company had in the ſeventeenth century conquered from the Portugueſe two forts, ſituated within the territory of Myſore, called Cranganore and Acottah. Theſe they had recently diſpoſed of by purchaſe to the rajah of Travancore, an ally of the Engliſh company. Tippoo, reſenting the conduct of the Dutch, and affirming that the rajah had no right to make any ſuch purchaſe within the limits of his territory, marched a conſiderable military force, in the ſummer of 1789, againſt Cranganore, with a profeſſed intent to reduce it to his dominion. The conduct of the rajah in making the purchaſe in queſtion, on ſo precarious a title, was ſeverely cenſured by the government of Madras; and, Mr. Holland, the preſident, warned him to deſiſt from his ambitious deſigns.

In conſequence of the powerful mediation thus interpoſed, Tippoo withdrew his troops, ſtill, however, aſſerting his claim to the feudal ſovereignty of the forts, and offering, as it is ſaid, to ſubmit his pretenſions to any impartial arbitration. But on the 1ſt of May, 1790, the rajah, relying, as it afterwards appeared, on the ſupport of the ſuperior preſidency of Bengal, made an offenſive attack on the army of Tippoo Sultan; and the war having thus commenced, the Engliſh government was bound in honour and juſtice to defend their ally. This the company were the better enabled to do, not merely from their knowledge of the ſtate of France, but from the treaties they had actually formed with the nizam of the Decan, and the Mahratta ſtates, for the expreſs purpoſe of humbling the power of Myſore. The grand Carnatic army immediately aſſembling, under the command of general Meadows, marched through the ſouthern or Coimbetore country, and penetrating the ghauts or paſſes of the mountains, advanced towards the city of Seringapatam, the capital of Myſore.

On the weſtern ſide, the Bombay army, under general Abercrombie, after reducing Cannanore, and ſeveral other places on the coaſt, entered the kingdom of Myſore; which, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the government, exhibited every where the marks of the higheſt cultivation and proſperity. The ſultan, defending himſelf with great reſolution, and no mean diſplay of military ſkill, general Meadows found himſelf under the neceſſity of retreating to the vicinity of Madras; where, in the month of December, 1790, lord Cornwallis aſſumed the command of the army in perſon. The plan of the war was now entirely changed, and a grand effort reſolved on, to force a paſſage to Seringapatam, through the country lying directly weſtward of Madras. On the 21ſt of March, 1791, the important town of Bangalore was taken by ſtorm, with little loſs on the part of the Britiſh, but with a dreadful carnage of the garriſon.

On the 13th of May, the army, by extraordinary exertions, arrived in ſight of the ſuperb capital of Myſore, defended by the ſultan in perſon; and, on the next day, an action took place, in which Tippoo was ſaid to be defeated, though he does not appear to have ſuſtained any very conſiderable loſs; and the ſwelling of the Cavery, (in an iſland formed by the branches of which Seringapatam is ſituated,) together with the want of proviſions, compelled lord Cornwallis to begin his retreat to Bangalore, almoſt before his victory could be announced. General Abercrombie, who had advanced through the ghauts on the oppoſite ſide, with a view to form a junction with lord Cornwallis, was now alſo obliged to lead back his army, fatigued, haraſſed, and diſappointed, over the mountains they had ſo lately and with ſuch difficulty paſſed. During theſe tranſactions, the troops of the nizam and the Mahrattas kept diſcreetly aloof, leaving the burden of the war almoſt entirely to the Britiſh.

But the next campaign, for which lord Cornwallis made unremitted preparations, opened under more favourable auſpices. Early in February, 1792, the eaſtern and weſtern armies, reſuming their former plan of operations, effected, before the end of the month, a junction under the walls of Seringapatam; the forces of the peiſhwa and of the nizam encamping alſo at a ſmall diſtance, and furniſhing to the Britiſh army a plentiful ſupply of ſtores and proviſions. On the 7th of February, a general attack was made by moonlight on the lines of the ſultan, which was attended with important effects; Tippoo being compelled to relinquiſh his former advantageous poſition, which covered his capital, and Seringapatam was, in conſequence of this defeat, cloſely and completely inveſted. The ſituation of Tippoo being now in the higheſt degree alarming and almoſt hopeleſs, he thought proper to ſend a vakeel to the camp of lord Cornwallis to ſue for peace; which the Britiſh general granted on the terms, 1. Of ceding one-half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2. Of paying three crores and thirty lacks of rupees, as an indemnification for the expences of the war. 3. The releaſe of all priſoners; and, 4. The delivery of two of his ſons as hoſtages for the due performance of the treaty.

On the 26th of February, the princes, each mounted on an elephant magnificently capariſoned, proceeded to the Britiſh camp, where they were received by lord Cornwallis with all poſſible kindneſs and affection. The eldeſt, Abdul-Kalic, was about ten; the younger, Mirzaud-Deen, about eight years of age. The princes were attired in white muſlin robes, with red turbans richly adorned with pearls, and they conducted themſelves with a politeneſs and propriety which aſtoniſhed the ſpectators. On the 19th of March, 1792, the definitive treaty, ſigned by the ſultan was delivered by the young princes, with great ſolemnity, into the hands of lord Cornwallis; but the ſums ſpecified in the ſecond article not being actually paid, the princes remained under the ſafeguard and cuſtody of his lordſhip until the payment was completed, when they were honourably reſtored. See the article HINDOOSTAN.

The ſeſſion cloſed with a ſpeech from the throne, June 15, 1792, in which his majeſty expreſſed to the two houſes "his great concern at the actual commencement of hoſtilities in different parts of Europe, in conſequence of the affairs of France; aſſuring them, nevertheleſs, that his principal care would be to preſerve to his people the uninterrupted bleſſings of peace." At this criſis a very remarkable letter was written in confidence by the king of France to the king of England, expreſſing in the moſt flattering terms his obligations to his Britannic majeſty for his impartial conduct, and making the moſt eager advances to the formation of a treaty of amity and alliance. "Between our two countries, (ſays the French monarch,) new connections ought to take place. I think I ſee the remains of that rivalſhip which has done ſo much miſchief to both, daily wearing away. It becomes two kings, who have diſtinguiſhed their reigns by a conſtant deſire to promote the happineſs of their people, to connect themſelves by ſuch ties as will appear to be durable in proportion as the two nations ſhall have clearer views of their own intereſts. I conſider the ſucceſs of the alliance, in which I wiſh you to concur with as much zeal as I do, as of the higheſt importance. I conſider it as neceſſary to the ſtability of the reſpective conſtitutions, and the internal tranquillity of our two kingdoms; and

I will

I will add, that our union ought to command peace to Europe."

It was in a ſhort time after this announced, that the combined armies of Auſtria and Pruſſia had entered France, under the command of the duke of Brunſwick, who had on the 25th of July iſſued a proclamation which ſeemed purpoſely calculated to complete the ruin of the French king. In this famous manifeſto the moſt dreadful vengeance is denounced againſt the French nation: all ſuch as are found in arms againſt the troops of the allied powers, are threatened to be puniſhed as deſtroyers of the public tranquillity; and the city of Paris is threatened to be delivered up to the horrors of military execution! This violent declaration filled up the meaſure of the popular fury, and the fate of the unfortunate French monarch was hence decided. See the article FRANCE.

M. Dumourier, to whom the army of France was now entruſted, could ſcarcely oppoſe thirty thouſand men to the army of the duke of Brunſwick, conſiſting of eighty thouſand. With this ſmall force he determined to make his ſtand at the foreſt of Argonne, the paſſes of which after repeated attempts the duke found himſelf unable to force. The French army receiving continual reinforcements, and the Pruſſians ſuffering under the united evils of ſickneſs and famine, the duke of Brunſwick was compelled to the humiliating neceſſity of commencing a haſty retreat, and the French arms were triumphant in every quarter. Early in November, Dumourier entered the Auſtrian Netherlands; and on the 5th of that month, attacking the Auſtrian entrenchments at Jemappe, near Mons, he gained a moſt complete and ſignal victory, the conſequences of which were deciſive as to the fate of the Netherlands.

In conſequence of the virtual depoſition of the French monarch, lord Gower, the Engliſh ambaſſador at Paris, received orders from the court of London to quit the kingdom; for that, the functions of royalty being ſuſpended, his miſſion was at an end. Nevertheleſs, M. Chauvelin, the French ambaſſador, ſtill remained in London, though from this period unacknowledged in any public or authoriſed capacity. And as a ſtriking indication of the deſign of Great Britain to take a part in the war, the miniſter, on the ſucceſs of the French arms in Flanders, made an unſolicited offer of aſſiſtance to the ſtates-general in caſe of need. But their high mightineſſes declined to accept the favour, declaring themſelves under no apprehenſion of an attack.

On the 17th of December, 1792, a memorial was preſented by M. Chauvelin to lord Grenville, in which he informed his lordſhip, that the executive council of the French Republic, had authorized him to demand, Whether France ought to conſider England as a neutral or hoſtile power; at the ſame time being ſolicitous, that not the ſmalleſt doubt ſhould exiſt reſpecting the diſpoſition of France towards England, and of its deſire to remain in peace. To which lord Grenville returned the following anſwer: "If France is really deſirous of maintaining friendſhip and peace with England, ſhe muſt ſhew herſelf diſpoſed to renounce her views of aggreſſion and aggrandizement, and to confine herſelf within her own territory, without inſulting other governments, without diſturbing their tranquillity, without violating their rights." At length this buſineſs was brought to a criſis, by a letter from lord Grenville to M. Chauvelin, dated January 24, 1793, in which his lordſhip ſays, "I am charged to notify to you, ſir, that the character with which you had been inveſted at this court, and the functions of which have been ſo long ſuſpended, being now entirely terminated by the fatal death of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, you have no longer any public character here; and his majeſty has thought fit to order that you ſhould retire from this kingdom within the term of eight days."

The death of the French monarch was indeed a diſaſtrous and mournful event. It is well known that the executive council, and a great majority of the conventional aſſembly, were eagerly deſirous to have averted this calamity; but the violence of the jacobin faction, and the ſavage rage of the populace, hurried on the fatal cataſtrophe. The convention, however, ſtung at the diſmiſſal of their ambaſſador from the court of London, came to an ultimate reſolution; and on the 1ſt of February, 1793, a decree unanimouſly paſſed that aſſembly, declaring the republic of France at war with the king of Great Britain, and the ſtadtholder of Holland.

The operations of the French republican army commenced againſt the Dutch, with an attack upon Breda, which was defended by count Byland, who was ſoon terrified into a capitulation; but, at Williamſtadt, the aid of the Britiſh troops was uſefully exerted in compelling the French to retire. Yet Gertruydenberg, where the Engliſh was not preſent, was quickly taken; and Dumourier was preparing to ruſh into the heart of Holland, when he was called off to a different ſervice. The French troops in the Netherlands, and on the German frontier, being injudiciouſly poſted, and the commanders not being on the moſt harmonious terms, the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, who commanded the Auſtrians, conceived the hope of bringing the republican army to a diſadvantageous action. Clairfait was therefore detached over the Roer; and, when this intrepid officer had aſſaulted ſome poſts with advantage, the prince, engaging the enemy near Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 3d of March, 1793, obtained a conſiderable victory, deſtroying about five thouſand of the French. The vanquiſhed fled toward Liege in great confuſion; and the conſternation of the defeat extended to the camp of general Miranda, who was employed in beſieging Maeſtricht. He raiſed the ſiege on the approach of the victorious army: the Lower Maes was left open to the allies; and the divided bodies of the French took refuge in Brabant, where they were greatly weakened by deſertion.

Dumourier now aſſumed the command of the retiring troops, and led them back againſt prince Cobourg's army. In ſome ſkirmiſhes he met with ſucceſs: but, in an obſtinate conflict near Landen, March 18, he was obliged to yield the honour of the day, after loſing above three thouſand of his men; and, being unſucceſsful in another engagement, he retreated to the borders of France. His ambition and talents had excited the jealouſy of the jacobin faction, who, being alſo diſguſted at his repugnance to their ſanguinary ſchemes, ſought an opportunity of cruſhing him. He was endeavouring to reſtore diſcipline to a diſorganiſed army, when commiſſioners, ſent from Paris to arreſt him, arrived in his camp. Inſtead of ſuffering them to ſeize him, he ordered them to be delivered up to the Auſtrians, as hoſtages for the ſafety of the royal family of France, and endeavoured to prevail on his army to aim at a counter-revolution: but he found that his exhortations had no effect on their republican ſpirit; and he was even apprehenſive that they would betray him into the hands of his enemies. Thus ſituated, he fled to Mons, and offered to the allies that ſervice of which he deemed his countrymen unworthy: but, being expoſed to neglect and diſgrace, he ſoon quitted the army for a private ſtation.

The ſucceſſor of the fugitive general was Dampierre, who being attacked near Valenciennes, on May 8, repelled the aſſailants. In a battle near St. Amand, the Britiſh troops, particularly the guards, under the command of the duke of York, obtained great praiſe by their ſpirited exertions. They ſo effectually ſupported the Auſtrians and Pruſſians, that the French were at laſt conſtrained to retire. The republican commander received a ſhot which proved fatal; and loſt about four thouſand of his men in killed and wounded. The valour of the Engliſh alſo appeared when the French were attacked in the well-fortified camp of Famars, May 23, which covered the city of Valenciennes, and from which they were driven, after the fall of a conſiderable number of men on both ſides. The allied army now ſubjected Valenciennes to a cloſe ſiege,

in which much time was consumed and many lives were lost. Condé was at the same time blockaded; and it was hoped that the reduction of these important towns would be followed by triumphant success. After a blockade of three months, the governor of Condé surrendered, on the 10th of July, to the prince of Wirtemberg. The siege of Valenciennes was supported with vigour by the duke of York, but the most arduous part of the siege devolved to the Austrians, of whom about thirteen hundred were killed. When a general assault was commenced, July 28, the garrison hastily capitulated, and obtained leave to retire into France, on condition of not serving against the allies during the remainder of the war.

Thus far the progress of the allied army in the interior of France carried all before it; but its subsequent movements, and final separation, have remained an inexplicable mystery on the minds of the people in England, which no system of political measures have yet been able to unravel. Perhaps the following remark of M. Lacretelle, in his *Précis Historique de la Révolution Française*, published at Paris in 1803, may help to explain this obscure part of the campaign: "After the fall of Valenciennes, not one of the powers seemed to recollect the purposes of their league. France now appeared to them another Poland; and partition views and selfishness led astray their policy. The emperor declared Valenciennes to be his conquest. The prince of Cobourg threatened an invasion far better concerted than that of the king of Prussia. He had already obliged the French to quit Cæsar's camp; and Cambray would have yielded but feeble resistance, and the line of strong posts would have been passed. The numerous German cavalry was about to over-run the plains of France. Paris would have known its approach by that of famine: but Austria forgot Paris and France, and fixed its thoughts on Quesnoy and Maubeuge, as did England upon Dunkirk. An absurd order was issued by the cabinet of St. James's; and the English army, commanded by the duke of York, separated itself from the conquerors of Famars. Had the most inveterate hatred directed this movement, it could not have rendered it more incompatible with any plan of future concert and mutual support. The prince of Cobourg marching towards Maubeuge, and the duke of York towards Dunkirk, caused a separation of their forces, exactly such as active and provident enemies could have wished."

The duke of York had no sooner made known his intention of attacking Dunkirk, than the hereditary prince of Orange assaulted several posts, chiefly with a view of covering his highness's march. He forced Lincelles, August 18, with small loss; but he was soon dispossessed of it by a superior force. Three British battalions, conducted to his aid by major-general Lake, bravely stormed a very strong redoubt, and saved the Dutch by routing the enemy. Near Furnes, another brisk engagement occurred, in which the allies were also successful. But the unaccountable delay of naval preparations for the siege, and the necessity of waiting for very heavy artillery, gave the French time to make ample provision for the defence of the town. The Hanoverian general Freytag was fiercely attacked on September 6, by the French army, and obliged to retreat with considerable loss. He and prince Adolphus, the youngest son of our sovereign, were made prisoners in their retreat, but were seasonably rescued by a detachment sent to their relief. The duke's right wing was harassed by a sally; but, on this and some other occasions, he drove back the enemy into the town. An improbability of success, however, constrained him to raise the siege; and his artillery, with a great store of ammunition, fell into the hands of the enemy. Houchard, for suffering the besieging army to escape, was put to death by the tyranny of the convention.

Soon after the duke of York had raised the siege of Dunkirk, the Dutch posts upon the Lys were forced, the consequence of which was the evacuation of Menin. This misfortune was counterbalanced by the surrender of Le Quesnoy to the emperor's troops, and by the defeat of a numerous body of French near Bisseghem. General Beaulieu then assaulted Menin, and re-took it with very small loss. The prince of Saxe-Cobourg invested the camp and fortress of Maubeuge; but, after two engagements, in one of which he was severely harassed, he quitted his advantageous position. Other conflicts in the Netherlands displayed the obstinate courage of the opposite parties, without any decisive result. In Germany the allies for a time were more fortunate than the French. They defeated the enemy on several occasions, and, among other successes, recovered the city of Mentz, to the great joy of the imperial diet, which had recently declared its concurrence in the war. They afterwards attacked the lines of Weissembourg, and forced them by a persevering defiance of all danger.

The Spaniards, having invaded France, prevailed in different conflicts, and reduced Bellegarde and Colioure. This ill success of the republican army in the south, was embittered by the dread of an extension of that spirit of loyalty which had appeared at Marseilles, Toulon, and Lyons. The Marseillois, indeed, did not long continue refractory; but, at Toulon, the mal-contents were so hostile to the convention, that they surrendered that important city and arsenal to lord Hood, commander of the British fleet in the Mediterranean, August 29, on his promise of assistance in the recovery of the constitution of 1789, with a proviso for the full restitution (after the return of peace) of the town, forts, and vessels, to Louis XVII. or his lawful successor.

In La Vendée (a part of the former province of Poictou), and other western departments, numerous bodies had taken arms, under the celebrated Charette, for the restoration of royalty; and some desperate engagements had occurred, to the disadvantage of the republican government. But, when the latter had repeatedly routed the insurgents, Barrère announced to the legislature the extinction of the revolt. This orator, however, paid little regard to truth in his statements; for the insurrection still bore a serious and violent aspect. But at Lyons, the republican arms triumphed over all opposition. General Doppet, after a vigorous siege, entered the city, from which the leaders of the revolt had previously retired. A great part of the town was wantonly destroyed; and many thousands of the inhabitants, of both sexes, were put to death in different modes, under the direction of Collot d'Herbois, without even the formality of a trial.

Toulon was invested by a numerous army of French republicans, towards the close of 1793, under general Dugommier; but it was defended with great spirit and bravery by the English. Brisk sallies were made by the garrison, which consisted of soldiers of various nations. In one of the sorties, general O'Hara was wounded and taken prisoner; and in this and other conflicts, no small loss was sustained by the allies. They were obliged to extend their force so as to occupy eight considerable posts, and several dependent stations; and, while about nine thousand men filled those posts, scarcely more than three thousand remained in the town. The increasing strength and resentful spirit of the besiegers alarmed the confederates, who, being dislodged from some of their chief stations, resolved to quit a place which they found it impossible to retain; therefore, destroying the arsenal, and desolating the city, they evacuated the garrison on December 18, 1793. Sir Sydney Smith undertook the dangerous task of burning the store-houses and ships, amidst a continued firing from the enemy on shore. A "rapid ignition," took place; but the operators were unable to extend it to the vessels which were nearest to the town. Nine ships from seventy-four to eighty guns, besides some that were not completely prepared for service, were destroyed, with an immense quantity of naval stores. Three ships of the line, four frigates, and many sloops, were added to the British fleet; and as many of the royalists as could be stowed in the retiring vessels, were

brought off by the allies. It is said that Dugommier expressed, in council, the utter impossibility of recovering this great naval arsenal, unless a most competent engineer could be found, to manage and direct the immense artillery to be employed against it. Such a person was at length discovered in Napoleone Bonaparte, an obscure Corsican, who had been educated at the military academy in France, and served as a lieutenant in the regiment of La Fere. Having fled from the troubles that prevailed in his native island, he now offered his services, and was employed by the deputy Barras, on the recommendation of his countryman Salicetti, and certainly contributed by his military talents to decide the fate of Toulon.

On the Rhine the French arms were equally prosperous; for, though the duke of Brunswick had the advantage in several actions, and general Wurmser was sometimes successful, the overwhelming mass of republicans so effectually prevailed after four days of continued conflict, that the lines of Weissembourg were recovered, and Landau was relieved from a blockade by the flight of the Prussians and Austrians. The cities of Spire and Worms were seized; and stores of various descriptions, to a great amount, fell into the hands of the republican army.

The fleets of the contending nations had no engagement in this first year of the war; but some maritime expeditions were undertaken. An armament sailed to Tobago, and the island was soon reduced; but, when a squadron had appeared before Martinique with a similar view, the debarkation of a small force proved fruitless; and the English retired. In the northern part of the western hemisphere, two islands (St. Pierre and Miquelon) were added to the British possessions. In India, the ships and factories of the French were taken as soon as the intelligence of the war arrived; and Pondicherry was surrendered by a spiritless garrison to the British arms. In the Mediterranean, our naval commanders endeavoured to intimidate the grand duke of Tuscany and the republic of Genoa into a conjunction with the allied powers; but French influence, and a desire of peace, had a greater effect than these menaces. While the war thus raged, a declaration was presented to the world, on the part of Great Britain, dated October 29, vindicating the exercise of external force for the establishment of order in France, as such interference was essential to the security and repose of all civilised powers; recommending an hereditary monarchy, yet not insisting on the exclusion of any other form of government which might prove compatible with the peace and safety of Europe.

In opening a new session of parliament, January 21, 1794, the king observed, that he and his subjects were engaged in a momentous contest, on the issue of which depended the maintenance of the national constitution, laws, and religion, and the security of all civil society. Having mentioned the advantages obtained by the arms of the confederate powers, he added, that the circumstances by which their further progress had been impeded, not only proved the necessity of vigour and perseverance, but confirmed the expectation of ultimate success. He regretted the necessity of continuing the war; but he thought he should ill consult the essential interests of his people, if he desired peace on any grounds exclusive of a due provision for their permanent safety, and for the independence and security of Europe.

The disembarkation of a body of Hessians in the isle of Wight, and their detention there, without the previous consent of parliament, furnished a topic of debate. Mr. Grey moved, that the commons should declare it to be contrary to law; and the earl of Albemarle contended for the propriety of enacting a bill of indemnity on account of this invasion of the constitution. A treaty was also announced to the parliament, by which the king had bound himself, in concert with the Dutch, to the payment of 50,000l. per month for a Prussian army of 62,400 men, of 300,000l. for putting that force in a state of action, and of a large sum for bread and forage. It was observed, that the king of Prussia was more interested in opposing the French than we could be; that he had been one of the chief instigators of the war; that former engagements required him to continue hostilities without being subsidised by Great Britain; that the terms were extravagant; and that the men who thus lavished the treasures of their country had no reason to expect good faith from a venal and fickle prince, who would probably desert us in the hour of need. It was said in reply, that it was illiberal to doubt the honour of that magnanimous court; but the event afforded a new and singular instance of rapacity and defection in a foreign ally.

The conduct of the war was the subject of strong censure in various debates; and the improbability of its final success was repeatedly noticed. Mr. Jenkinson exposed himself to ridicule in one of these discussions, by asserting the practicability of marching to Paris, and overturning the obnoxious government. After a review of the French revolution and the progress of the war, the duke of Bedford proposed, as preliminaries to a peace, a candid and explicit declaration of the object of the war, and a renunciation of all concern with the internal affairs of France; and Mr. Fox ably harangued the commons on the same ground; but both houses exploded all propositions of this nature.

It was supposed that the trial of Mr. Hastings would have been brought to a close in the preceding year; but the further examination of witnesses, and the intervention of speeches from the advocates and the managers, retarded the conclusion. In this session, marquis Cornwallis appeared as a witness; and his testimony being favourable to his predecessor, gave a remarkable turn to the cause. Replies to the defensive allegations followed these proceedings; and Mr. Burke, in a series of admired harangues, again entered into the history of India, and delineated in glowing but overcharged colours, the chief features of the impeachment. He then urged with forcible eloquence the claims of eternal justice, and thus closed the process of accusation, June 16, 1794. The managers were complimented by Mr. Pitt with a motion for a vote of thanks, which passed, though not unanimously.

On the day of prorogation, July 11, earl Fitzwilliam was appointed president of the council; the duke of Portland became one of the secretaries of state; earl Spencer was declared keeper of the privy seal, and Mr. Windham secretary at war.

In the mean time the campaign of 1794 opened; but with the disadvantages most commonly attendant upon allied powers. The rivalry between Austria and Prussia, and the jealousy which each had conceived of the other, were so visible to the duke of Brunswick, that he resolved to have no further concern in the command of an army whose efforts, he thought, would be rendered unavailing by the disunion of ostensible confederates. His resignation was soon followed by a complaint from the Prussian monarch of the great expence of the war, and a proposal that the states of the empire should provide for the subsistence of his troops; a request to which that body did not accede. When the emperor desired that the diet would order the people in the frontier circles to rise in a mass, the court of Berlin strongly opposed the measure as fruitless and dangerous. The general levy did not take place; and the contingents of the German princes were imperfectly and tardily furnished.

Extraordinary preparations were made for the defence of the Netherlands, and the attack of the French frontiers. The emperor Francis, took the personal command of the Austrian, British, and Dutch armies, April 17, and led them forward in eight columns. The three first of these battalions dislodged the enemy from various posts; and the fourth, conducted by the duke of York, approaching Vaux amidst a very severe fire, forced that post as well as the wood of Bohain. The works at Premont were stormed by the corps which sir William Erskine commanded; while the three other columns gained their appointed

pointed ſtations without the hazard of a conflict. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, the emperor reſolved to inveſt Landrecy; and the hereditary prince of Orange was intruſted with the direction of the ſiege. This gallant prince aſſaulted an entrenched camp with vigour and ſucceſs; and, during the ſiege, lieutenant-general Otto, with Britiſh and Auſtrian troops, totally routed a conſiderable body of the French near Cambray. The two covering armies were afterwards attacked, April 26, with great impetuoſity. The villages in the duke of York's front were quickly taken; but Otto, with the right wing, charged the enemy in the flank and rear, and did great execution. The left wing alſo triumphed; and the Auſtrian army met with equal ſucceſs. General Clairfait, however, was defeated at Mouſcron; but the ſurrender of Landrecy compenſated that diſaſter. Near Tournay a gallant action took place, to the diſadvantage of the French; and, though they obtained a victory over Clairfait near Courtray, they were routed by general Kaunitz near Mons. But in another battle near Tournay, May 17, they ſo effectually profited by their ſuperiority of numbers, that the allies were defeated with great loſs, and the duke of York eſcaped with extreme difficulty. In a ſubſequent conflict, victory was long doubtful; but it ultimately devolved to the confederates, who killed or wounded above ten thouſand of the French republican army.

The moſt memorable engagement of this campaign in the Netherlands, was that of Fleurus. The importance of the beſieged town of Charleroi induced the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, June 26, to riſk a battle for its relief, as he did not know that the garriſon had already ſurrendered. He attacked the army of Jourdan near Goſſelies, and met with ſuch ſucceſs as flattered him with the hope of triumph. Thrice were the French driven back to their entrenchments with great ſlaughter; but Jourdan, (who had recently obtained conſiderable advantages near Arlon and Traſegnies,) again renewed the conteſt with alacrity and vigour; and, being well ſupported with freſh ſupplies of men, he overpowered his adverſaries after a conflict of fifteen hours. About ten thouſand of the allies were killed or wounded; and the reſt fled with precipitation.

The Engliſh army had no ſhare in this diſaſtrous colliſion, or in thoſe actions which, for four ſucceſſive days, thinned the ranks of Clairfait and Moreau, near Ypres. The retreat of the Auſtrians, and the reduction of that town by the French, conſtrained the duke of York to remove from Tournay, which, with Oudenarde and Ghent, quickly admitted the French yoke. Oſtend was evacuated by the Britiſh garriſon, and Mons by the Auſtrians under prince Cobourg; who, being again defeated by Jourdan, left Bruſſels to the victorious enemy. The duke of York, now reinforced by the earl of Moira with a ſmall army from England, made a ſhow of defence at Mechlin; but he was ſoon obliged to retire toward the Dutch frontiers. The defeat of Clairfait near Louvain put the French in poſſeſſion of that city. Nieuport was reduced by a vigorous ſiege: Namur and Antwerp were taken with leſs difficulty: the conqueſt of the biſhopric of Liege followed this ſignal ſucceſs in the Low Countries; and the United Provinces were now threatened with the terror of becoming the theatre of the war.

Mean time the feuds and animoſities of the newly-conſtituted powers at Paris ran high. The jealous and tyrannical Robeſpierre, anxious for the maintenance of his own authority, watched the conduct of all parties, haraſſed all who murmured, and wreaked his vengeance on all who oppoſed him. Suſpecting Hebert, and other chiefs of the Cordelier club, of aiming at political pre-eminence, he accuſed them of being traitors to the republic, and ſubjected them to the new-fangled inſtrument of decapitation, the guillotine. He coolly ordered the arreſt of many of his former aſſociates, and ſacrificed them without remorſe to his fears and his ambition. Executions were wantonly multiplied; and even the ſiſter of Louis XVI. one of the moſt reſpectable and virtuous women of her age, was deprived of life by the atrocious cruelty of the deſpot. The ſervile ſubmiſſion of the legiſlative body to the tyranny of this monſter, and the paſſive ſubſerviency of an oppreſſed community, aſtoniſhed and diſguſted foreign nations: but the diſgraceful yoke was at length ſhaken off.

Such continued inhumanities excited a general horror, and, by rendering life precarious and inſecure, alarmed all ranks throughout the republic, except the loweſt of the populace. Some ſpirited members of the convention, among whom were Tallien, Barras, and Freron, reſolved to ſubdue the tyrant, or die in the attempt. They rouſed the aſſembly againſt him by a detail of his enormities, and procured a decree for his arreſt. Henriot, the commandant of the Pariſian guard, prepared to cruſh the party that oppoſed his patron; but a vote of outlawry confounded even the armed force, and the exertions of the friends of the convention ſecured the public tranquillity. In a fit of deſpair, he who had deſtroyed ſo many of his fellow-creatures attempted to diſpatch himſelf; but he failed in his efforts, and was beheaded with his principal adherents, July 28, 1794, amidſt the exultations of the ſpectators.—See the article FRANCE.

The outrageous inhumanity of Robeſpierre had extorted a decree from the convention, for the murder of all the Britiſh and Hanoverian ſoldiers who ſhould fall into the hands of the French: but the troops were not ſo baſe as to comply with this order. After the conqueſt of all the Auſtrian low countries, except Luxembourg, the French eaſily recovered Le Queſnoy, and the three other towns which had been taken by the confederated army; and they found in thoſe place very conſiderable ſupplies.

The Pruſſians did not act with much vigour in this campaign; nor were they wholly inactive. They forced the entrenchments at Kaiſerſlautern, but they and the Auſtrians were defeated at Tripſtadt, and other poſts. The city of Treves was now taken by the republicans; and, after they had repeatedly triumphed over the generals Latour and Clairfait, they reduced the greater part of the country between the Maes and the Rhine. Againſt their Spaniſh foes the French were alſo eminently ſucceſsful. They routed a far ſuperior number near St. Jean de Luz; and, after another victory, took Fontarabia and St. Sebaſtian. They met with ſucceſs in a ſkirmiſh at Alberdes, obtained a more important advantage at Colioure, and defeated an army which oppoſed them at Bellegarde. They routed the enemy near Mouga, where Dugommier, their victorious general, was ſlain; and, having ſtormed the formidable works near Figueres, they took poſſeſſion of various towns, and filled the whole country with conſternation. Good fortune alſo attended the French arms in Italy. They reduced Oneglia, forced the Col de Tende, and ſubdued ſeveral diſtricts in the ſouthern parts of Piedmont. The defenſive ſtrength of Mont Cenis ſerved only to inflame their ardour: they ſtormed the well-fortified poſts of that difficult paſs; and, having defeated their opponents in other parts of the country, they looked forward to more important victories.

The Engliſh in the Mediterranean were now employed in the reduction of Corſica. An armament under lord Hood attacked the town and forts of Baſtia, after the acquiſition of San Fiorenzo: the ſeamen and ſoldiers co-operated with emulous zeal; and the place was taken with ſmall loſs. General Paoli having exerted his influence over his countrymen, they voted, in a regular aſſembly, June 14, 1794, that the ſovereignty of the iſland ſhould be transferred to the king of Great Britain. Sir Gilbert Elliot, in the royal name, accepted the offer, with an engagement for the maintainance of that conſtitution which was then framed by the national repreſentatives. The ſtrong town of Calvi was ſtill poſſeſſed by the French: but it was at length reduced by Britiſh valour. But the ſucceſs of the Engliſh fleet in the Atlantic, excited ſtronger emotions of joy than the addition of Corſica to the dependencies of Great Britain. Earl Howe was cruiſing off the coaſt of Bretagne, when he was informed that the

the French admiral, Villaret-Joyeuſe, had ſailed from the harbour of Breſt. Having approached the enemy to the weſtward of Uſhant, rear-admiral Paſley attacked the rear with ſpirit; and a briſk engagement enſued on the following day, when the nautical ſkill of the veteran Howe enabled him to obtain the weather-gage. Three days afterwards, June 1, he brought the French to a cloſe action, having twenty-five ſail of the line oppoſed to twenty-ſix. In the Queen Charlotte he broke their line, and evinced an admirable union of ſkill and intrepidity. Captain Berkeley, in the Marlborough, had a dangerous conflict with two ſhips; but he diſabled one, and repelled the other. The Brunſwick, commanded by Hervey, engaged ſeveral ſhips with great gallantry, and had a long conteſt with Le Vengeur, whoſe crew implored mercy; but the Britiſh captain could not prevent her from ſinking. Though many of the French were ſaved on this occaſion by the humanity of their adverſaries, above three hundred went to the bottom. The ſame fate attended the fine ſhip Le Jacobin, out of whoſe crew ſcarcely a man was ſaved; but the undaunted republicans, when ſinking on the wreck of their ſhip, exultingly cried out with their laſt breath, *Vive la liberté! Vive la république!* The French line was broken in three places; and at length the Britiſh fleet obtained a memorable triumph. When the firing ceaſed, the admiral found that ſix ſhips of the line had been taken, in which 690 men were killed, and 580 wounded; a number far exceeding the official liſt of ſufferers (904) in the whole Britiſh fleet.

An expedition to the Weſt Indies alſo proved, in a great degree, ſucceſsful. Sir Charles Grey landed, with a reſpectable but not numerous force, on the iſland of Martinique, while ſir John Jervis ſuperintended the naval operations. Several ſtrong poſts were ſeized; and the reduction of Pigeon-iſle opened the bay and harbour of Fort Royal to the ſhipping. Of the works near St. Pierre the invaders gained poſſeſſion with ſmall loſs; and that town was then evacuated by the enemy. To complete the inveſtment of Fort Bourbon, it was neceſſary that the heights of Sourier ſhould be gained. Bellegarde, a bold leader of the mulattoes and negroes, might have defended this poſt for a conſiderable time, if he had not been prompted by the impetuoſity of his ſpirit to ruſh from the heights with a part of his force, and attack the left diviſion of the Britiſh army. Pleaſed at the opportunity, the general ſent three battalions from his right to ſtorm the weakened camp, which was eaſily forced by the valour of this detachment, while Bellegarde was ſoon repelled by the firmneſs of the corps which he engaged.

Preparations were now made for aſſaulting Fort Royal; and a detachment of grenadiers and light infantry, under the conduct of colonel Symes, marched to the back of it, while commodore Thompſon, directed the exertions of a ſelect naval force. Captain Faulknor particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf on this occaſion. He puſhed forward at the head of the crew of the ſloop which he commanded, and ſcaled the walls in defiance of repeated volleys of grape-ſhot. This daring act concurred with the approach of the ſoldiery, to intimidate the garriſon into a ſurrender, which took place on the 20th of March, 1794. The commandant of Fort Bourbon, no longer inclined to reſiſt, propoſed a capitulation; and the acquiſition of this fortreſs completed the reduction of the iſland. Major-general Dundas and prince Edward, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf in theſe exploits, afterwards landed in St. Lucia, and proceeded to the inveſtment of la Morne Fortunée. Lieutenant-colonel Coote ſtormed a redoubt and two batteries; and the dread of an aſſault of the fort produced its ſpeedy ſurrender. The iſles called the Saints were then reduced; and a diſembarkation was effected at Goſier-bay, in Guadaloupe. Fort Fleur d'Epée was quickly ſtormed; and the impetuous fire of the aſſailants had ſpared only a ſmall part of the garriſon. Fort Louis, and other poſts of Grande Terre, were abandoned with great precipitation; and the Engliſh proceeded to the conqueſt of Baſſe Terre. Palmiſte, the ſtrongeſt poſt of this diviſion, was ſoon taken; and, after other exploits, the whole iſland ſurrendered, with its dependencies.

The Engliſh did not long retain the laſt of theſe conqueſts. The yellow fever began to diffuſe its ravages, which diminiſhed the number of the armed, and weakened the ſurvivors. From hence, expecting to find the works inadequately manned, a French force approached the coaſt, attacked Fleur d'Epée and other poſts, and recovered them with little difficulty. The Engliſh ſoon regained the poſt of St. Anne, where they put to death about four hundred of the enemy, without loſing an individual of their own party. After various actions, brigadier Symes and colonel Fiſher, with a body of ſoldiers and ſeamen, endeavoured to ſurpriſe the enemy in the night on the heights near Point-à-Petre; but they were ſaluted in their march with ſo ſevere a cannonade, that great confuſion aroſe. A retreat was now ordered; and, for ſome time, from the prevalence of diſeaſe, the troops were almoſt inactive. When the camp at Berville was at length attacked by the French, it was ſo bravely defended that the republican army ſuffered conſiderable loſs; but their repeated exertions conſtrained the Engliſh to capitulate.

After further hoſtilities, Fort Matilda was the only place of ſtrength which the Engliſh retained in Guadaloupe. Here they were beſieged by Victor Hugues for eight weeks; and, as the fort was no longer tenable, they found it expedient to retire in the night. Not long after the loſs of the iſland, the brave captain Faulknor, who had ſo eminently contributed to the reduction of Martinique, loſt his life in an engagement with a frigate near Marie-galante. More than ſeventy men are ſaid to have been killed in the French veſſel, and above one hundred wounded; while only twenty-nine ſuffered in the victorious ſhip.

In the ſanguinary iſland of St. Domingo, the Engliſh had ſo far profited as to acquire ſome territorial poſſeſſions. That iſland, in a remarkable degree, had ſuffered the miſchievous effects of the French revolution. When the people in the mother country aſſerted their right to freedom, the claims of the colonial ſubjects of France were alſo recogniſed; and a ſociety called *les Amis des Noirs*, (Friends of the Negroes,) warmly ſupported the pretenſions of the ſlaves to emancipation, and of the mulattoes to all the privileges enjoyed by the white inhabitants. The declaration of rights promulgated by the national aſſembly increaſed the ferment which the firſt intelligence of the revolution had produced in the iſlands; and violent diſturbances and conteſts were apprehended. Deputies from the different diſtricts of the French part of St. Domingo met by the king's order, to prevent tumults and reform abuſes by ſeaſonable regulations: but their endeavours were oppoſed by the partiſans of the old régime; and the governor diſſolved the aſſembly. Many of the repreſentatives failed to France to juſtify their conduct; and, during their abſence, Ogé, an enterpriſing mulatto, returned to the iſland from Europe for the execution of a ſcheme which had been ſuggeſted to him by Briſſot and Grégoire, who wiſhed that the people of colour, (as the mulattoes were ſtyled,) might be ſtimulated to riſe in arms, and redreſs their own grievances. He found means to excite an inſurrection; but it was quickly ſuppreſſed, and his life was ſacrificed to public juſtice. The claims of his brethren, however, were confirmed by a decree of the ruling aſſembly of the parent ſtate, which admitted them to all the privileges of French citizens, on the 15th of May, 1791. Before the death of Ogé, the negroes had been inſtigated to join the mulattoes in a general rebellion; and the recent decree gave vigour to their intentions.

While a new colonial aſſembly deliberated on the conduct which prudence required at this criſis, the ſlaves in the neighbourhood of Cape François attacked the whites, murdered a great number of them, and deſtroyed the plantations. The inſurrection ſoon ſpread to other diſtricts; and, though many hundreds of the negroes and

their confederates were ſlain in battle, or periſhed by famine, they ſeemed to multiply like the heads of the hydra. In the vicinity of Port-au-Prince, however, the inſurgents agreed to an accommodation, on condition of the obſervance of the late decree; but, about the ſame time, the French legiſlature thought proper to annul it. When the intelligence of this repeal reached the iſland, the mulattoes accuſed the planters and their adherents of inſidious duplicity, and again had recourſe to arms. They deſtroyed a third part of Port-au-Prince by fire, and committed barbarous outrages, which expoſed them, when taken, to ſevere retaliation. Commiſſioners were ſent from France to heal the diſorders of the colony; but they did not ſucceed in their endeavours. A new decree reſpecting equality of privilege was enacted; and new delegates were ſent to enforce it. Theſe men behaved in an abſurd and arbitrary manner, and diſguſted the coloniſts by their rapacity and violence. Having produced by their miſconduct a civil war among the whites, they invited to their aid a body of rebel negroes, who, thus encouraged, perpetrated a horrible ſeries of maſſacres at Cape François, and in June, 1793, burnt the greater part of the town.

The convulſions of the colony induced many of the planters to ſolicit ſuccour from the Britiſh government; and, as they aſſerted the probability of a ſpeedy acquiſition of the whole French diviſion of the iſland, major-general Williamſon was ordered to detach an armament from Jamaica, to take poſſeſſion of thoſe ſettlements which the people might be diſpoſed to ſurrender. Lieutenant-colonel Whitelocke ſailed in conſequence to Jeremie, and received the ſubmiſſion of the inhabitants: the town and harbour of St. Nicolas were alſo given up to the Engliſh; and to theſe poſſeſſions Leogane and other towns and diſtricts were ſoon added. An expedition was undertaken for the reduction of Cape Tiburon; and a bribe was offered to general Lavaux for the ſurrender of Port de Paix. The enterpriſe ſucceeded, and the town was taken on the 2d of February, 1794. The fort of Acul was ſtormed by the Engliſh; but, at Bompard, they were repelled with loſs. They defended Cape Tiburon againſt an army of blacks and mulattoes, who were routed with conſiderable ſlaughter. The arrival of a reinforcement from Great Britain, under brigadier-general Whyte, elevated the hopes of the Engliſh; and preparations were made for the conqueſt of Port-au-Prince. Fort Bizotton was attacked by ſea with little effect; but, when aſſaulted on the land ſide by a ſmall party under captain Daniel, amidſt a violent thunder-ſtorm and torrents of rain, it was taken at the point of the bayonet; and the town was ſoon after evacuated. The French commiſſioners intended to have ſet fire to the buildings, and the veſſels that were in the harbour; but this havock was prevented by the vigilance of the Engliſh. The unhealthineſs of the climate now occaſioned a great mortality among the troops, and checked the extenſion of their conqueſts. They loſt Leogane, were ſeverely haraſſed in the town of St. Marc and at Fort Bizotton, and were deprived of Tiburon by the mulatto general Rigaud.

While theſe operations were going on in the Weſt Indies, the Engliſh on the continent of Europe were intent on the preſervation of Holland; but they were not more fortunate in that object than they had been in their endeavours to ſecure the Netherlands to the emperor. When Moreau had reduced the iſle of Cadſand and the ſtrong town of Sluys, Pichegru advanced with a numerous army againſt the duke of York, and attacked Boxtel and other poſts near the river Dommel, from which he diſlodged his opponents, on the 16th of September, after a vigorous conflict. The fort of Creve-cœur was ſoon taken; and Bois-le-Duc did not long reſiſt the beſiegers. The duke of York, who had removed to the banks of the Waal, was again aſſaulted, October 19, and compelled to retire. In this engagement, a corps of his infantry miſtook a body of the enemy for a party of friends, and being thus ſurpriſed, ſuffered a heavy loſs. His royal highneſs now endeavoured to protect Nimeguen, which was ſeverely haraſſed by a ſiege. A ſally of the garriſon, though many of the French were killed on the ſpot, proved inefficacious: the batteries played with redoubled fury; but, while ſome diviſions of the allies were marching from the town, the French, who were favoured by the treachery of ſome of the inhabitants, were enabled to gain poſſeſſion of it. Maeſtricht ſuſtained a longer ſiege; but, when Kleber threatened a general aſſault, the governor was perſuaded by the inhabitants to capitulate.

When the French attacked fort St. André and the adjacent poſts, they met with ſuch a warm reception, that they were obliged to retreat in confuſion; but, on the renewal of their exertions, they paſſed the Waal, and ſeized the ſtrong poſt of Tuyl. The duke of York and the aſſociated commanders now ordered an aſſault upon this ſtation; and it was executed with great ſpirit, the enemy haſtily re-croſſing the frozen river; but, after a ſhort interval, the poſt was regained by the French. Alarmed at their progreſs, the allied generals reſolved to make vigorous efforts of counteraction. A freſh attack was directed; but the enemy anticipated the aſſault by an impetuous charge at Geldermalſen, which threw the allies into confuſion, though it did not diſlodge them. Reflecting on the danger to which the fatigued and unſheltered troops of the allies were expoſed, the commanders thought it expedient to fall back, and take a poſition on the right bank of the Leck. A ſudden thaw occaſioned the recal of the orders given for that purpoſe; and, though the froſt ſoon returned, major-general Dundas advanced to riſk an engagement, in which he was ſucceſsful. The French ſoon after attacked the Auſtrians and Hanoverians, drove them back, and alſo conſtrained lieutenant-general (afterwards ſir Ralph) Abercrombie to retire. Having taken Heuſden, they aſſailed the whole confederated line from Arnheim to Amerongen; and compelled a retreat, on the 14th of January, 1795.

The ſucceſs of the French republican army induced many of the Dutch to ſeek refuge in Britain, where they were received with politeneſs and hoſpitality. When Utrecht had ſubmitted to the enemy, the ſtadtholder, knowing that Amſterdam would not be defended, left his country to its fate, and eſcaped to England in a fiſhing-boat. He and his family became immediate objects of royal benevolence, and were treated with the reſpect due to their rank and misfortunes. The Dutch, who had viewed the Engliſh with an unfriendly eye ſince the revolution of 1787, appeared to be highly pleaſed at this change in their affairs. They now treated the Britiſh troops with contempt and illiberality, and were not diſpoſed to alleviate, by kindneſs or compaſſion, the ſufferings of the wounded, or the diſtreſs of the fugitives, who at length effected their retreat to Bremen, after a long and ſevere exerciſe of patience and fortitude. The united provinces were now revolutioniſed on the French model, under the name of the *Batavian republic*. But the Gallic friends of the Hollanders, in reſcuing them from what they termed a diſgraceful yoke, have never once permitted them to enjoy real freedom or independence.

During the ſanguinary extenſion of the war in Europe, the king of Great-Britain was anxious to enlarge his connections in Aſia, by an alliance with the emperor of China. The prevailing deſire of commercial advantage, concurring with a wiſh to ſecure the friendſhip of a potentate whoſe influence extended to territories bordering on thoſe of the Engliſh Eaſt India company, induced the king to ſend an ambaſſador to treat with the Chineſe court. The abilities of earl Macartney, who had acquired reputation as governor of Madras, qualified him for ſuch a negociation; and, when he had added to his ſuite ſome able cultivators of ſcience and ſkilful artiſts, he ſailed under the conduct of ſir Eraſmus Gower. He reached the yellow ſea in ſafety, paſſed up the white river to Tong-choo-ſoo, and thence proceeded by land to the metropolis of China. Tchien-Lung, the aged emperor, was then at the palace

of

of Zhe-hol, beyond the celebrated wall which had been erected as a barrier againſt the incurſions of the Tartars. A garden belonging to this manſion was the ſcene of formal preſentation. Here, in a ſplendid tent, the ambaſſador delivered a letter from the Britiſh ſovereign in a box of gold, adorned with jewels; and he was gratified with a reception which the Chineſe conſidered as particularly gracious and honourable. But his interviews with Tchien-Lung were not productive of an alliance. A ſpirit of jealouſy diſinclined the emperor to a treaty; and, after the exchange of mutual preſents, it was hinted that the departure of the ſtrangers would be agreeable. See the particulars of this celebrated embaſſy under the article CHINA, vol. iv. p. 468—498.

When the parliamentary ſeſſion commenced, December 30, the ſpeech from the throne, after an alluſion to the diſappointments and reverſes of the late campaign, ſignified his majeſty's conviction of the neceſſity of perſiſting in the war, as perſeverance alone could produce a ſecure peace; repeated the remark of the violent and unnatural ſyſtem purſued by the republican leaders; and deprecated an imitation of the negociatory and ſubmiſſive example of Holland, as it would involve the ſacrifice of our honour and ſafety to an enemy whoſe chief animoſity was avowedly directed againſt theſe kingdoms.

In this memorable ſeſſion, the very ſingular loan to the emperor, in ſterling money, which drained England of its gold, and occaſioned the bank to ſtop, was, after a long and acrimonious debate, voted, to enable the emperor to employ two hundred thouſand men againſt the French. Mr. Fox ſaid, that the recent defalcation of the king of Pruſſia, immediately after pocketing the Engliſh gold, ought to operate as a caution againſt all advances of money to German princes; and he had no confidence in the efficacy of the propoſed loan; but ſir William Pulteney entertained a high opinion of its probable utility. Lord Grenville had ſo much reliance on the promiſed exertions of his imperial majeſty, that he would rather conſent to make a preſent of the deſired ſum, than loſe the chance of expected benefit. (A preſent indeed it proved.) The marquis of Lanſdown diſapproved all connections with German princes; but lord Hawkeſbury and other peers were more credulous and confident. The loan amounted to 4,600,000l. ſhipped to the continent in ſterling gold! See BANK OF ENGLAND, vol. ii. p. 676.

The long trial of Mr. Haſtings was now brought to a concluſion. After the peers had inveſtigated former modes of proceeding, the lord chancellor diſcuſſed the Benares charge. He conſidered Mr. Haſtings as having acted againſt Cheyt Sing under the influence of perſonal reſentment, (ſee p. 760,) and under the unwarrantable idea of poſſeſſing an unlimited right of exaction in times of emergency; and therefore concluded that the commons had made good that article of accuſation. Lord Thurlow diſputed this opinion, and vindicated the governor-general in elaborate detail, but not always on conſtitutional principles. The earl of Caernarvon ſtrongly contended for his delinquency; while the earl of Mansfield, the marquis of Lanſdown, and the biſhop of Rocheſter, maintained his innocence, and extolled his ſervices. The deciſion of the committee, on different parts of this charge, was, however, favourable to Mr. Haſtings.

In the conſideration of the other charges, lord Thurlow was the chief defender of the governor-general. He maintained that the reſumption of the jaghiers, on the part of the nabob, was a meaſure of ſound policy; that the ſteps taken by Mr. Haſtings to compel that prince to execute a ſcheme which, though it was originally propoſed by himſelf, he was afterwards unwilling to enforce, were meritorious rather than criminal; and that his conſent to the ſeizure of the treaſures involved no criminality, as they were public property. The lord chancellor condemned the concern of Mr. Haſtings in thoſe meaſures, and denied that the begums or their eunuchs had been guilty of rebellious acts. Lord Thurlow entered very fully into the charge reſpecting preſents, controverting the ſtatements and concluſions of the managers. The chancellor alſo differed from the proſecutors with regard to the early preſents; but he agreed with them in the ſubſequent part of the charge. The archbiſhop of York ridiculed this branch of accuſation as frivolous, and lamented the ill return made for the ſplendid ſervices of Mr. Haſtings. The article of contracts did not appear to lord Thurlow in that criminal light in which the managers viewed it; and the biſhop of Rocheſter, though he thought there was ſomething objectionable in the opium contract, did not conſider that point, or any other part of this charge, as criminal: but the chancellor contended that, in moſt of the contracts and agencies, Mr. Haſtings had been profuſe and improvident, and was alſo guilty of diſobedience to the expreſs orders of the directors. When every part of the accuſation had been diſallowed by the committee, the report was reviewed by the houſe; and, after ſome debates on the mode of proceeding, it was reſolved that the queſtion ſhould be ſeparately put on ſixteen points. The greateſt number of peers who voted the defendant guilty in any one reſpect, did not exceed ſix: the votes of innocence, in ſome of the charges, were twenty-ſix; in others, twenty-three; in one, nineteen. The chancellor intimated the deciſion of the court to Mr. Haſtings, on the 23d of April, 1795, who received it in ſilence, bowed, and retired from the bar.

The propriety of this ſentence was chiefly diſputed by the advocates of ſtrict juſtice. The public in general, entertaining leſs rigid notions, ſeemed to be pleaſed with the acquittal of one who had ſuffered ſo long an arraignment, yet had conducted the affairs of his government with ſpirit and ſucceſs, and who, though he had on ſome occaſions diſregarded the duties of morality, the dictates of virtuous policy, or the ſentiments of humanity and moderation, had promoted the intereſts of his employers, ſecured their authority, and eſtabliſhed their dominion.

When the requiſite parliamentary buſineſs was concluded, his majeſty, in his ſpeech, June 27, 1795, acknowledged the zealous and uniform regard which both houſes had ſhown to the general intereſts of the nation, and the prudent, firm, and ſpirited ſupport, which they had continued to afford him in the proſecution of the war. "It is impoſſible, (ſaid the king,) to contemplate the internal ſituation of the enemy with whom we are contending, without indulging a hope, that the preſent circumſtances of France may in their effects haſten the return of ſuch a ſtate of order and regular government as may be capable of maintaining the accuſtomed relations of amity and peace with other powers. The iſſue, however, of theſe extraordinary tranſactions, is out of the reach of human foreſight."

The third year of the war between England and the French republic, commenced with the brilliant ſucceſs which attended the exertions of a ſquadron commanded by lord Bridport (formerly ſir Alexander Hood), early in 1795. That officer attacked the French with an inferior force, and would probably have captured or deſtroyed the greater part of their fleet, if the engagement had been more diſtant from the land; but it occurred near Port l'Orient, and they were conſequently favoured by the fortifications of the place. After an action of almoſt four hours, three of their ſhips ſtruck, and were ſecured in ſpite of all the dangers of a lee-ſhore. This engagement was ſoon followed by another, alike honourable to the Britiſh navy. Vice-admiral Hotham purſued to the Genoeſe coaſt a French fleet, which had ſailed from Toulon with troops intended for the recovery of Corſica, and had captured one of his detached ſhips. He, with great difficulty, brought the enemy to a partial engagement, on the 14th of March, and took two ſail of the line; but he loſt one of the ſhips of his van, in conſequence of the great damage ſhe had received in the action.

Vice-admiral Cornwallis was cruiſing near the Penmarks with eight ſhips, including frigates, when thirteen French

ſail of the line and fourteen frigates made their appearance. The large ſhips came up in ſucceſſion, June 27, and ſlightly fired upon ſome of his veſſels. An attack apparently more ſerious was made upon one which had fallen to leeward; but, even in this ſhip, not a man was killed. Before ſun-ſet, the firing ceaſed; and the timid enemy tacked and ſtood off. The Britiſh fleet, by the exerciſe of a ſmall degree of courage and dexterity on the part of the French, might have been brought to a general action; but their dominion is not on the ſeas: and, as they declined the riſk, it would have been an act of deſperation in the vice-admiral to encounter ſo great a force. His men, far from wiſhing to avoid an action, were eager to engage; but he was not ſo raſh as to let looſe their valour, and rather thought that the eſcape was a fair ground of congratulation, than that the loſs of ſuch an opportunity of exertion was to be regretted. His character, far from ſuffering on this critical occaſion, acquired reputation and praiſe. In the month of July, 1795, the French were again attacked by vice-admiral Hotham, and a ſhip of conſiderable force was taken from them; but it ſoon blew up, with the loſs of about 350 of the crew. After ſome intervening captures on both ſides, the French recovered a ſhip of the line, and took thirty ſail of a valuable Engliſh fleet returning from the Mediterranean. They alſo made prize of part of a Jamaica fleet; and indeed, both in this and the preceding year, the Britiſh trade ſuffered immenſely from their attacks, while their own declining commerce preſented few objects of repriſal for our cruiſers and privateers.

Though the French had been very ſucceſsful on the continent, they were by no means unwilling to diminiſh, by negociation, the number of their enemies. They courted the king of Pruſſia into forbearance, and perſuaded him that his ſafety and intereſt required peace. Satisfied with his rapacious acquiſitions in Poland, and deſpairing of the ſubverſion of the French republic, that prince ſeceded from the confederacy, and concluded a treaty, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which he relinquiſhed his poſſeſſions on the left bank of the Rhine. By another agreement, he ſecured the neutrality, and provided for the peace, of the north of Germany. The king of Spain was alſo induced to agree to a pacification with the victorious republic. In the former part of the year, the French met with great ſucceſs over the troops of the Spaniſh monarch, and threatened him not only with the loſs of conſiderable provinces, but with the propagation of revolutionary doctrines among his people. To avert theſe dangers, the king of Spain purchaſed peace by the reſignation of that part of the iſland of St. Domingo which the Spaniards had poſſeſſed ever ſince the time of Columbus. Even the elector of Hanover, though he remained the moſt active member of the confederacy in his capacity of king of Great Britain, nevertheleſs ordered a treaty of peace to be ſigned with the French, as far as related to the electorate; as did alſo the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel.

The endeavours of the French convention to reſtore peace and order to thoſe weſtern departments which had bitterly experienced both the dreadful effects of inteſtine war, and the ſanguinary rage of the officers of the government, were ſo far ſucceſsful, that Charette, and other leaders of the mal-contents, ſubmitted to the republic. The peace, however, was of ſhort duration. The ſtandard of royalty was again erected; and the people were invited to promote the claim of Louis XVIII. (for ſo was the count de Provence ſtyled, immediately after the death of the ſon of Louis XVI.) to the throne of France. The Britiſh government favoured the inſurgents with various ſupplies, and ſent a body of emigrants to their aid. But this expedition, which was planned by Mr. Windham, was ill-concerted and diſaſtrous. The royaliſts poſſeſſed no towns on the coaſt, and were too cloſely watched by the republicans to be ready to co-operate effectually with the expected auxiliaries. The ſquadron having reached the bay of Quiberon, the troops landed on the peninſula, reduced fort Penthièvre, and raiſed entrenchments for their defence. The count d'Hervilly advanced into the country with a body of the inſurgents; but they manifeſted no courage, and fled before a ſmall party of the enemy. About five thouſand men afterwards attacked the redoubts which guarded the paſſage to the main land. Two of theſe works were forced; but, in the progreſs of the aſſailing corps, a maſked battery played with ſuch vigour as to produce great confuſion. A rapid retreat enſued; and, if the fire of ſome of the veſſels had not checked the purſuers, the fugitives would perhaps have been completely cruſhed. Many of the French priſoners who had engaged in the expedition, now deſerted the cauſe, and repaired to the ſtandard of the convention, communicating to general Hoche and his officers ſuch information as was calculated to promote the republican intereſt. That commander, profiting by the treachery of his own countrymen, ſurpriſed the fort in the night of July 21, and prepared to attack the camp. While many of the royaliſts, commanded by Puyſaye, diſperſed themſelves over the neighbouring country, the gallant Sombreuil animated the emigrants to a ſpirited reſiſtance: but a conſiderable number refuſed to fight againſt the republic. When the camp was forced after the ſlaughter of many of its defenders, the ſurvivors retired toward the extremity of the peninſula. One body of the enemy approached them in front, while two diviſions marched to the right and left to preclude their eſcape. The Engliſh brought off as many as could reach the veſſels, amounting to about nine hundred of the men who had ſailed from England, and fifteen hundred of the inhabitants. The reſt (about four thouſand in number) being expoſed to extreme danger, deſired to capitulate; but Hoche would only promiſe that they ſhould be treated as priſoners of war, if the convention ſhould approve that indulgence. To this conditional engagement they were obliged to ſubmit; and many of theſe unfortunate men were afterwards ſacrificed by the vindictive ſpirit of the republicans.

The great exertions of the early part of the campaign having rendered a reſpite expedient, it was late in the year before any operations of moment diſtinguiſhed the war in Germany. Jourdan then forced his way over the Rhine, ſtormed the citadel of Duſſeldorff, and reduced the greater part of the duchy of Berg. Pichegru paſſed the ſame river near Manheim, and took poſſeſſion of that garriſon. The former general, having croſſed the Lahn, was attacked by the Auſtrians, and obliged to retreat. They again encountered his army, made a forcible impreſſion on his rear, took four thouſand of his men, and drove him back over the Rhine. General Wurmſer was repelled by the French near Manheim; but his troops returned to the charge, and became victorious. The republican camp near Mentz was attacked by Clairfait, and forced after a ſpirited reſiſtance. Manheim was retaken; and the French were alſo diſpoſſeſſed of ſeveral other towns which they had ſeized in Germany. Some of the rencontres in Italy were unfavourable to the French arms; but the battle of Loano was attended with loſs and diſgrace to the Piedmonteſe and Auſtrians; and the victors were enabled to make effectual incurſions into the adjacent country.

As the Dutch, though nominally independent allies of the French, were eaſily induced to become the enemies of their former friends, letters of marque and repriſal were iſſued againſt them by Great Britain; and directions were given for the ſeizure of their colonial territories, which, however, the king profeſſed his intention of reſtoring, whenever the ſtadtholderian government ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed. Vice-admiral Elphinſtone appeared with a fleet in Simon's-bay, near the Cape of Good Hope; and, as it was ſuſpected that the governor intended to ſet fire to Simon's-town, from which he had ordered all the inhabitants to retire, major-general Craig landed, and took poſſeſſion of the place, but prohibited his men from committing any other act of hoſtility. When the militia, however,

however, fired from the neighbouring hills, it was thought proper to retaliate; and an attack was meditated upon the paſs of Muyſenberg. While a ſelect body advanced with that view, the well-directed fire of ſome veſſels occaſioned an evacuation of the poſt; and a ſpirited aſſault ſoon diſlodged the enemy from a rocky eminence which might have been long defended. After ſome weeks of inaction, an attempt to ſurpriſe the moſt conſiderable of the outpoſts failed; and, though the Engliſh repelled a fierce attack, their efforts did not deter their adverſaries from preparing for a general engagement. At this criſis, the appearance of a Britiſh reinforcement at ſea checked the eagerneſs of the enemy. This force was commanded by major-general Clarke, who, as ſoon as he had made proper arrangements, marched toward Cape-town. At Wynberg, the Dutch made a ſhow of reſiſtance; but they were ſoon driven from the poſt; and, when the vice-admiral had detached four veſſels to bombard that ſide of the town, the governor propoſed a ceſſation of hoſtilities, and terms of capitulation were adjuſted. It was agreed, September 16, that the troops in garriſon ſhould be priſoners of war, and that the property of the Dutch Eaſt-India company ſhould be delivered up to the captors of the ſettlement; but private poſſeſſions and civil rights were left inviolate. Some of the Aſiatic ſettlements of the Hollanders were alſo ſeized by the Engliſh. Trincomalè, in the iſle of Ceylon, was taken by a ſmall armament; and the fort of Ooſtenborg was ſoon after reduced, with Jaffnapatam, and other towns. To theſe acquiſitions were added the colonial diſtricts of the Malay peninſula; and, on the coaſt of Malabar, Cochin was ſeized by a detachment from Bombay.

The Dutch territories in the Weſt Indies were not reduced in this year, as the Engliſh found greater difficulty than they expected in defending the iſlands which they had taken from the French, and in ſecuring thoſe which they poſſeſſed at the beginning of the war. In Grenada, an inſurrection was excited by the arts of the enemy. Many of the French inhabitants and negroes were encouraged to revolt by promiſes of aid; and, on the arrival of a ſmall body of ſoldiers from Guadaloupe, they perpetrated many acts of violence. Their camp was aſſaulted without effect; but they were not ſo ſucceſsful on other occaſions as to be induced to prolong offenſive hoſtilities. In Dominique, likewiſe, an inſurrection took place, and a party of French landed; but the rebels were reduced to ſubmiſſion, and the invaders were either killed or made priſoners. In the iſland of St. Vincent the Caribs roſe in arms, and committed many brutal ravages; and, being joined by the majority of the French coloniſts, they boldly withſtood the efforts of the Engliſh. In St. Lucia ſimilar diſturbances aroſe; and the new poſſeſſors were at length conſtrained to relinquiſh the iſland to the French. Even Jamaica was not free from commotion; for the Maroons were guilty of many cruel depredations, and were not ſubdued till they were hunted down with blood-hounds.

Among the negociations of the year 1795, were an agreement with Spain, and treaties with Ruſſia and Auſtria. His catholic majeſty, before he concluded peace with France, ordered the ſurrender of the lands which (in repugnance to the former convention) he had retained at Nootka. With the court of Peterſburg the king of Great Britain entered into new ſtipulations of alliance; but the only fruit was the appearance of a Ruſſian fleet in the channel. The emperor of Germany was more earneſt than the czarina in the cauſe of the confederacy; and on his engagements the Britiſh court more confidently relied. The Germanic body, wiſhing for the termination of a calamitous war, deſired the emperor to treat with France, under the mediation of the king of Pruſſia. He promiſed to forward the object of this requiſition; but, in reality, he rather checked than promoted it; and the French executive directory refuſed to agree to an armiſtice which was propoſed by the mediator, as a preliminary ſtep to a congreſs.

The probability of ſubduing the French now became very remote and imperfect. They were much more powerful at this time than they had been at the commencement of the conteſt. They were complete maſters of the Netherlands, had a controuling influence over the United Provinces, and had acquired valuable territories in Germany and in Italy. They had alſo ſtrengthened themſelves, in the way of negative ſucceſs, by detaching two powerful princes from the hoſtile confederacy. Yet all theſe conſiderations did not prevent his Britannic majeſty from affirming, in his ſpeech to the two houſes of parliament, October 29, that the proſpect reſulting from the general ſtate of affairs had in ſome important reſpects been materially improved in the courſe of the year. He was of opinion, that the ſucceſs of the French on particular occaſions, and the advantages which they had derived from the concluſion of ſeparate treaties with ſome of the belligerent powers, were far from compenſating the evils which they experienced from the continuance of the war. He ſpoke of "the deſtruction of their commerce, the diminution of their maritime power, and the unparalleled embarraſſment and diſtreſs of their internal ſituation;" yet he did not think that their rulers were ſo humbled by the increaſing preſſure of difficulties, as to be diſpoſed to "negociate for a general peace on juſt and ſuitable terms:" it therefore ſeemed neceſſary to proſecute the war with the utmoſt energy and vigour.

Great Britain, in the campaign of 1796, furniſhed few troops for the continental war, but overwhelmed the emperor with freſh ſupplies of money. In the Weſt Indies, the exertions of the Engliſh were productive of great benefit. They recovered Port-Royal, in Grenada, from the inſurgents, whom they reduced to uncontrouled ſubmiſſion. An armament under ſir Ralph Abercrombie and ſir Hugh Chriſtian ſailed to St. Lucia; and, though the troops failed in an attack of ſome batteries, they carried on their operations againſt the principal fortreſs, which ſurrendered May 15; but not without the loſs of many brave men. In the following month, the poſt of the Vigie, in St. Vincent's, was reduced, and the whole iſland replaced under the Britiſh government.

In South America ſome territorial advantages accrued to this country; for Demerara and Eſſequibo were wreſted from the hands of the Dutch, as was alſo the colony of Berbice. On the other hand, a French ſquadron, ſailing to North America, captured or deſtroyed a conſiderable portion of mercantile property in Newfoundland. In Aſia likewiſe, new conqueſts gratified both the deſire of power and the ſpirit of commerce. Colombo, the capital of the Dutch government in Ceylon, was eaſily reduced; and the valuable iſlands of Amboyna and Banda were likewiſe ſurrendered to Great Britain.

The Dutch alſo ſuffered another loſs not inconſiderable. For the recovery of the Cape of Good Hope, they ſent out a ſquadron with troops on board, which reached Saldanha bay unmoleſted. Sir George Elphinſton failed with as great haſte as the ſtormy weather would allow, and, having anchored within ſhot of the enemy, demanded a ſurrender of the ſhips. As his fleet was far ſuperior to that of the Hollanders, and major-general Craig had made proper diſpoſitions for co-operating by land, the demand was not reſiſted by rear-admiral Lucas, who, Auguſt 17, delivered up his own ſhip of ſixty-ſix guns, two other ſhips of the line, four frigates, a ſloop, and a ſtore-veſſel.

The Engliſh were leſs ſucceſsful in the Mediterranean, being reduced to the neceſſity of evacuating Corſica, which, from the intrigues of the French, the viceroy found great difficulty in retaining. After the retreat of the Engliſh from Leghorn, where the French exerciſed a conſiderable influence, ſir Gilbert Eliot quitted Baſtia, and paſſed over to the iſle of Elba, where Porto-Ferraio had been lately ſeized and garriſoned by his order. Corſica was immediately re-occupied by a body of French republicans, to whom the natives readily ſubmitted.

Military incidents, and attendant negociations, render this period important in the hiſtory of the continent; but as thoſe events come more properly under the reſpective heads or titles of thoſe countries to which they particularly appertain, we ſhall in this place only take a ſlight ſurvey of them. While general Hoche was acting with vigour and ſucceſs againſt the royaliſts of La Vendée, whoſe chiefs, Stoſſlet and Charette, were put to death as rebels, Napoleone Bonaparte carried into the Italian ſtates the terror of the French arms. He engaged the Auſtrians at Montenotte, and, with the aid of Berthier and Maſſena, put them to a total rout. He alſo obtained another victory, of which the Piedmonteſe felt the bitter effects. In a third conflict, he met with ſimilar ſucceſs. Mondovi and other towns were reduced by his active troops; and the king of Sardinia was ſo diſcouraged, that, to procure a ceſſation of hoſtilities, he delivered up ſome of his principal fortreſſes to the victorious army. A peace was ſoon concluded between him and the French, to whom he ceded the duchy of Savoy and county of Nice. The dukes of Parma and Modena, and the king of Naples, alſo purchaſed an armiſtice; and treaties of pacification with thoſe princes followed. Advancing to Lodi, the French encountered general Beaulieu; but they were oppoſed by ſuch ſtrenuous efforts, and ſo tremendous a fire, that victory ſeemed to promiſe itſelf to the Auſtrian battalions. At length, however, the bridge was forced, and the republican army bore down all before it. By this victory Bonaparte gained poſſeſſion of the greater part of the Milaneſe; and, after having quelled an inſurrection of the new ſubjects of France at Pavia, he alarmed the pope by an invaſion of his territories. After thus diſproving his infallibity, he granted the favour of a truce to the pontiff, and proceeded to cover the ſiege of Mantua. The Auſtrians, under the command of general Wurmſer, now obtained ſome advantages over his troops, and compelled him to raiſe the ſiege; but he ſoon retaliated with ſuperior effect. He prevailed in the moſt obſtinate conflicts, and eventually conſtrained Wurmſer to take refuge within the fortifications of Mantua. On the banks of the Brenta, Bonaparte was nearly defeated by Alvinzi; and, at Arcole, he was involved in the greateſt danger; but he finally diſlodged the foe, and after great loſs had been ſuſtained on both ſides, he completely triumphed over the empire of ancient Rome.

The campaign of 1796, in Germany, was opened with ſucceſs on the part of the French, who, led by Jourdan and Kleber, gained the battle of Altenkirchen. The republicans were leſs fortunate in an engagement near the Lahn; but, proceeding to the Mayne, they reduced Franckfort, Wurtzburg, and ſome other conſiderable towns. In the autumn, they were defeated in ſeveral actions, and obliged to recroſs the Rhine with marks of diſgrace. Moreau, who commanded on the Upper Rhine, took the fort of Kehl, and made great progreſs in the enemy's country. At Rhenchen he put the Auſtrians to flight: at Raſtadt he was alſo victorious. He compelled the duke of Wirtemberg to relinquiſh all oppoſition to the French cauſe, and to ſue to the directory for peace, which was granted both to him and the margrave of Baden. He penetrated to the Bavarian capital, and exacted large contributions from the elector, with whom he agreed to a truce. Finding that the emperor was marching againſt him with augmented forces, he commenced a retreat, which he executed with great ſkill and extraordinary judgment. He was expoſed to various difficulties and frequent attacks; but he ſurmounted every obſtacle, and continued his perilous retreat from the Leeh to the Rhine, exciting alike the admiration of his aſtoniſhed adverſaries.

In conformity with the intimations his Britannic majeſty had given of a deſire of reſtoring the bleſſings of peace, he made dignified propoſitions for negociatory conferences; and the French directory, after various ſubterfuges and evaſions, agreed to the propoſal, but did not in the mean time neglect the progreſs of hoſtility, as preparations were ordered for a deſcent on the coaſt of Ireland. While preparations were thus going on for vigorous hoſtility, lord Malmſbury (formerly ſir James Harris) was engaged at Paris in the taſk of negociation with M. Delacroix, the French miniſter. When he had propoſed that a general principle ſhould be eſtabliſhed, as the baſis of definitive agreement, it was long evaded by his diplomatic adverſary; and, when the directory aſſented to its adoption, there was no intention of obſerving the promiſe. Its purport was, that compenſation ſhould be made to France by proportional reſtitutions of conqueſt for thoſe arrangements to which ſhe might be deſired to conſent, in order to ſatisfy the juſt pretenſions of the allies of Great Britain, and to preſerve the political balance of Europe. In conformity with this principle, lord Malmſbury required, That the emperor ſhould be reinſtated in the full poſſeſſion of his dominions; that peace ſhould be ſettled with the Germanic body on a baſis which might not injure or weaken the general ſafety of Europe; that the *ſtatus ante bellum* ſhould, as far as practicability would allow, take place in Italy; and that Ruſſia and Portugal ſhould enjoy the benefit of the negociation, if they were ſo inclined. On theſe conditions the king promiſed to reſtore all the territories which his armies had taken from the French ſince the beginning of the war. With regard to the Dutch, he would not engage for the reſtitution of conqueſts, unleſs the political ſituation in which they ſtood before the war ſhould be reeſtabliſhed.

Some of theſe terms were declared by M. Delacroix to be inadmiſſible, as they would unreaſonably diminiſh that degree of power to which France, in conſideration of the increaſing ſtrength of other European ſtates, was fairly entitled; and he particularly oppoſed the disjunction of the Netherlands from the French dominions. On this demand lord Malmſbury peremptorily inſiſted, though he hinted that France might be allowed to retain a part of her German conqueſts, beſides Savoy and Nice. After a long conference on theſe points, he received a note, requiring the delivery of an ultimatum within twenty-four hours. He remonſtrated againſt this arbitrary preclufion of deliberate negociation, and requeſted a *contre-projet* on the part of the directory, that the propoſals of both parties might be fairly weighed, and mutually diſcuſſed with conciliatory candour. This reaſonable requeſt was anſwered, December 19, 1796, by a determined refuſal of reſtoring any country which had been conſtitutionally annexed to the republic; accompanied with an order for his departure from Paris within two days, and his expeditious retreat from the French territories. This inſult was qualified by alleging that his part in the negociation was merely paſſive, as he was obliged to ſend, on every occaſion, for the advice of his court, and that a negociation might eaſily be carried on by the channel of couriers.

While the people lamented the failure of the negociation, they were pleaſed at the ill ſucceſs of the French ſcheme of invaſion. Seventeen ſhips of the line, and many ſmaller veſſels, ſailed from the coaſt of France, with an army exceeding eighteen thouſand men. An application had been made to the directory by the republican ſociety of United Iriſhmen, whoſe agents repreſented in perſuaſive terms the probability of a general inſurrection againſt the government. Deluded by this exaggeration, the French ſent out their fleet, and intruſted Hoche with the command of the troops. A part of the armament caſt anchor in Bantry-bay, and remained there for ſome days, without an attempt to invade the country. Having waited in vain for the reſt of the fleet, the ſhips ſailed away. Others afterwards made their appearance; but the violence of the wind prevented that rendezvous which was neceſſary for the ſucceſs of a deſcent; and the continuance of ſtormy weather defeated the views of the

enemy.

enemy. A frigate was taken by the Engliſh; two others foundered at ſea; one ſhip of the line was alſo loſt; and another, running on-ſhore, was deſtroyed.

An invaſion of Wales was next attempted; but it excited ridicule rather than terror. About 1250 men diſembarked in the county of Pembroke, February 22, 1797; and, as the ſhips in which they arrived left them unprotected, they ſubmitted to a demand of lord Cawdor for their ſurrender. Of the four veſſels which thus inſulted our weſtern coaſt, two were taken by our cruiſers.

An extraordinary meaſure followed the meeting of parliament. The unbounded remittances, in *caſh*, to the emperor, and other foreign princes, and the recal of caſh from all the banking-houſes for the purpoſe of raiſing the ſums required, had alarmingly diminiſhed the circulation of coin; and, after frequent conſultations with the directors of the bank, the embarraſſed directors and miniſters diſcuſſed the affair in council. From theſe deliberations reſulted an order, February 26, 1797, againſt the iſſue of caſh from the bank; an act of policy which, though it did not demonſtrate inſolvency, filled the minds of the timid with the dread of national bankruptcy. See the article BANK OF ENGLAND, vol. ii. p. 676.

When French influence, operating on the fears of the Spaniſh monarch, had produced a peace between the nations, there was reaſon to ſuppoſe that the artful republicans would lead that paſſive prince into a cloſe alliance, and endeavour to render his arms ſubſervient to the views of France. This effect did not immediately follow, as the Spaniards were not very eager to commence hoſtilities againſt their late allies; but a treaty of confederacy was at length concluded, and war was declared againſt Great Britain by his catholic majeſty, on frivolous and abſurd pretences, on the 5th of October, 1796.

Naval and military preparations were expedited; and, while an army threatened an irruption into the Portugueſe territories, a conſiderable fleet ſailed from Cadiz to join a French ſquadron. Sir John Jervis deſcried this fleet to the ſouth-weſt of Cape St. Vincent, February 14, 1797; and, though he had only fifteen ſail of the line, he reſolved to riſque an engagement. He was ſo fortunate as to reach the enemy before a regular line could be formed to oppoſe him; and, by a ſkilful manœuvre he ſeparated one third of the enemy's ſhips from the main body. The intrepid Nelſon and Troubridge, in the Captain and Culloden men of war, highly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in this action. For ſome time, their ſhips were engaged with ſix of the Spaniſh veſſels, out of twenty-ſeven ſail of the line. At length they were aſſiſted by the Blenheim; and the exertions of captain Collingwood, in the Excellent, greatly contributed to make them victorious. Nelſon, when his ſhip was diſabled, prepared to board the San Nicolas; and his orders for that purpoſe were executed with promptitude and alacrity. The cabin door was forced by ſome marines; and, ruſhing upon the quarter deck, he found that captain Berry was nearly maſter of the ſhip. When all oppoſition was ſubdued in this veſſel, the San Joſef was boarded; and the commodore received the ſwords of the Spaniſh officers. The conflict was but partial, though other ſhips, beſides thoſe which we have particularized, had a ſhare in it; and, when the action ceaſed, four ſhips from 74 to 112 guns were prizes to the Britiſh fleet. In the Engliſh ſhips 73 were killed and 227 wounded; while, in the captured veſſels, above 600 are ſaid to have ſuffered. The conduct of the victorious admiral was honoured with general applauſe; and he was advanced to the peerage with a title drawn from the cape near which he triumphed.

Nearly at the ſame time, a Britiſh armament appeared before Trinidad, a conſiderable iſland to the ſouthward of Tobago. Four Spaniſh ſhips of the line and a frigate being ſeen in the bay, apparently ready for ſailing, diſpoſitions were made to obſtruct their eſcape. In the night, one veſſel was perceived to be on fire; three others were ſoon after involved in the flames and deſtroyed, while one, of ſeventy-four guns, was taken by the Engliſh. The troops under ſir Ralph Abercromby landed without oppoſition: the chief town was not defended; and the governor tamely reſigned the whole iſland, February 18, 1797. The ſame ſucceſs did not occur at Porto-Rico; for, though a deſcent took place on the main iſland, the troops were unable to force a paſſage to the iſle on which the capital is ſituated: they therefore retired, after an ineffective bombardment of the garriſon.

The exertions of the Britiſh navy during the war, had been highly uſeful and important; and, as their merit was a conſtant theme of univerſal praiſe, they were induced to take the opportunity of demanding not only an advance of wages proportioned to the increaſed price of the articles which they were obliged to purchaſe, but alſo an enlargement of the quantity of proviſions allowed to them by government. An application to lord Howe being diſregarded, they reſolved to enforce redreſs by ſpirited behaviour. When orders were given to prepare for putting to ſea, the crew of the Queen Charlotte, and other ſhips lying at Spithead, refuſed to act; and, treating with contempt the remonſtrances of the officers, they made choice of delegates, who, after a formal conſultation, drew up petitions to the board of admiralty and the houſe of commons. Earl Spencer, the naval miniſter, dreading a mutiny, and not thinking the demands unreaſonable, promiſed compliance; and the king offered full pardon to all who ſhould immediately return to their duty. The ſeamen, however, would not declare their ſatisfaction before the parliament had confirmed the promiſes of the lords of the admiralty; and, as this ſanction was unneceſſarily delayed, the irritation of their minds led to a conteſt with vice-admiral Colpoys, May 7, in which ſome lives were loſt. A bill was in conſequence enacted for relief of the ſeamen, in point of pay and allowance; and ſubordination was happily reſtored at Spithead and at Plymouth.

The grant of theſe claims, however, encouraged the ſeamen at the Nore to inſiſt on a greater freedom of abſence from their ſhips while in harbour; on a more punctual diſcharge of arrears; a more juſt diſtribution of prize-money; and a general abatement of the rigours of diſcipline. The chief fabricator of theſe demands was Richard Parker, a man of a daring ſpirit, who acted as preſident of the ſeamen's council of delegates. Having received an unſatisfactory anſwer from the board of admiralty through the medium of vice-admiral Buckner, he boldly ſuperſeded the authority of that commander, and the other officers of the ſquadron, and conducted himſelf with ſingular arrogance. He required the perſonal attendance of ſome of the lords of the admiralty at Sheerneſs, and to ſignify their aſſent to the new demands; but, as they gave no hopes of conceſſion, he treated them with rudeneſs and inſolence. He prevailed upon the men to reject the repeated offers of pardon: he robbed two merchant ſhips of their proviſions, and obſtructed commerce by the detention of others; and he fired on ſome men of war that refuſed to accede to the mutinous combination.

The parliament being requeſted to interfere on this alarming occaſion, a bill was propoſed for the infliction of capital puniſhment on every one who ſhould hold communication or intercourſe with the crew of ſhips declared to be in a ſtate of rebellious mutiny, as well as on all who, after ſuch declaration, ſhould voluntarily continue on-board. This bill, and one equally ſevere againſt all attempts to ſeduce ſeamen or ſoldiers into mutinous practices, was paſſed on the 6th of June. Theſe acts, concurring with the ſtrong diſapprobation with which the public in general viewed the conduct of the mutineers at the Nore, accelerated the ſuppreſſion of the diſturbances. A returning ſenſe of loyalty, and the hope of obtaining that indulgence which the lords of the admiralty were authoriſed to grant at their diſcretion, produced a ſeparation of ſome of the ſhips from the reſt, and

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the mutiny gradually ſubſided. Parker, when the crew of the Sandwich ceaſed to ſupport him, was taken into cuſtody; and, being tried by a court-martial, was condemned to death. He was hanged at the yard-arm, June 30, in the ſhip which had been the ſcene of his defection. Seven of the delinquents were afterwards put to death; and, at different times, the ſame fate attended others; but a pardon was granted to the far greater number of thoſe who were condemned. The French, whoſe revolutionary principles had certainly ſome weight in producing theſe commotions, exulted at the intelligence of the mutiny; and, while they lamented its extinction, conceived hopes of the eruption of future diſcontent in the ſame branch of the ſervice, or in the military department; but the true-hearted ſeamen reſumed their habits of order and ſubmiſſion, and the ſoldiers, who alſo received an augmentation of pay, preſerved their loyalty unimpaired.

The ſailors in the fleet of the earl of St. Vincent were totally uninfected with the mutinous ſpirit which had appeared at the Nore. After the defeat of the Spaniſh ſquadron, they blocked up Cadiz, and captured the ſtraggling ſhips of the enemy. Rear-admiral Nelſon repelled an armed flotilla, and bombarded the town with ſpirit. Being ſent by the earl to Teneriffe, he projected a nocturnal attack upon the town of Santa Cruz. The mole was ſtormed, July 25; but the aſſailants could not reduce the fort; and the danger of continuing on the iſland induced them to aſk for a ſafe retreat, which the governor, intimidated by their menaces, allowed. In this bold enterpriſe, captain Bowen was drowned, as were alſo about one hundred ſeamen and marines; the rear-admiral Nelſon on this occaſion loſt his arm; and 150 men were killed or wounded in the aſſault.

Though the diſcomfiture of the Spaniards off Cape St. Vincent baffled the maritime views of the French, the ſucceſs of the continental war afforded them ample compenſation. In the firſt month of the year, Bonaparte repeatedly triumphed over the Auſtrians in the Veroneſe, particularly near the lake of Garda. Mantua, after a long and murderous ſiege, was obliged to ſurrender; and the general then directed his courſe toward the papal dominions. He received the ſubmiſſion of the whole country in his progreſs, and compelled his holineſs the pope to cede Ferrara and other provinces, and grant a conſiderable ſum of money, beſides valuable pictures, ſtatues, and manuſcripts, as the only terms of being ſuffered to retain the reſt of his territories. Returning towards the dependencies of the Venetian ſtate, Bonaparte advanced againſt the archduke Charles, who, after he had diſpoſſeſſed the French of Fort-Kehl, had aſſumed the command of the Auſtrian army in Italy. He croſſed the Piavè with little difficulty; but the Tagliamento was defended againſt him by the bold efforts of the archduke, who could not, however, ſecure a victory. The French now ruſhed into the hereditary dominions of the emperor, and reduced Gradiſca, Goritz, and Trieſte. Having invaded Carinthia, Maſſena defeated the archduke at Tarvis, while Joubert met with uninterrupted ſucceſs in the Tyrol. Laubach, the capital of Carniola, was taken; the province of Styria was threatened with an overwhelming torrent; and the circle of Auſtria trembled to its centre. Yet, affecting a ſpirit of peace and philanthropy, the French commander made overtures of accommodation to the archduke. The terrified court of Vienna aſſented to an armiſtice; and preliminaries of peace were ſigned near Leoben, on the 18th of April, to the great diſguſt of the Britiſh miniſtry, without whoſe knowledge and concurrence they were adjuſted, though the war had been carried on wholly at their expence.

The Venetian government having teſtified a partiality for the Auſtrians, and encouraged the hoſtilities of its ſubjects againſt the French, Bonaparte reſolved to revolutioniſe that ſtate. Many of the inhabitants of the capital anticipated his views; and ſome democratic innovations were in force when the French arrived. That conſtitution which had long been the boaſt of Italy was eaſily ſubverted; and an executive directory, under Gallic influence, aſſumed the adminiſtration. The Genoeſe ſtate was democratiſed with equal facility; and the Ciſalpine republic, which the French general had erected on the conqueſt of the duchy of Milan, was enlarged and ſtrengthened by his victories and vigilance.—Yet let it be ever recollected, that the Italians *would not fight*; their degeneration from the ancient Roman invincible ſpirit, was never ſo conſpicuouſly demonſtrated; and Bonaparte might be truly ſaid to have gained rapid conqueſts over whole provinces that *courted a revolution*, and that *rejoiced in being beaten*.

At a time when the moderate party prevailed in the two councils at Paris, the Engliſh court, in conformity with the wiſhes of the people, again offered to negociate; and lord Malmſbury and Le-Tourneur met at Liſle for that purpoſe. The former, in lieu of the territories which were to be conceded to the French, demanded the ceſſion of Trinidad, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, and the ſettlement of Cochin; but the French miniſter replied, that the republic would not allow Great Britain to retain any one of theſe conqueſts; upon which, September 5, the negociation was diſmiſſed. A declaration from the king of Great Britain announced to the world this new proof of the hoſtile ſpirit of the rulers of France, and aſſerted his eager deſire of putting an end to a war "ſo deſtructive in its progreſs, and ſo burthenſome even in its ſucceſs." He added, that, though "his claims had been ſtrengthened and confirmed" by a recent victory, he was "yet ready (if the calamities of war could then be cloſed) to conclude peace on the ſame moderate and equitable principles and terms which he had before propoſed."

The victory to which his majeſty referred, was that of the fleet which engaged the Dutch. Admiral Duncan, during the ſummer, had blocked up the ſhips of that nation in the harbour of the Texel. When he retired for a ſhort time, admiral de Winter ſailed out with a view of reinforcing the French, and flattered himſelf with the hope of eluding the Engliſh; but captain Trollope, October 11, diſcerned the fleet in its progreſs, and his ſignals were obſerved with joy by admiral Duncan, who inſtantly ordered a general chaſe. Finding that an engagement could not with honour or ſafety be avoided, the brave de Winter formed a line at no great diſtance from the land between Camperdown and Egmont. Senſible of the advantage of getting between the Dutch ſhips and the ſhore, the Britiſh commander made ſignals for bearing up, breaking the line of his adverſaries, and engaging them to leeward. The conflict began with an attack upon the enemy's rear, by that diviſion which was under vice-admiral Onſlow; and both parties fought with great courage. The admiral, encountering the van, ſoon paſſed through the line, and was cloſely engaged for two hours. The ſhip occupied by de Winter contended at one time with two, and afterwards with three, of the Britiſh ſhips. About 250 of her men were killed or wounded; and ſhe was diſmaſted and a wreck before ſhe ſurrendered. Vice-admiral Reyntjes was wounded, and obliged to ſtrike to his antagoniſt, Onſlow. One of the Dutch ſhips took fire; but the flames were happily extinguiſhed, and ſhe was captured. Six other ſhips of the line and two frigates were taken, out of twenty-one; to which ſixteen Engliſh ſhips, excluſive of frigates, had been oppoſed. Above 750 of the Engliſh were killed or wounded; and the loſs of captain Burgeſs, who brought the Ardent into action in the moſt gallant and maſterly manner, was moſt particularly regretted.

In the week which followed this memorable engagement, a definitive treaty, between the emperor and the French republic, as hinted above, was ſigned, October 17, at Campo-Formio, near Udina. The Netherlands were ceded by the emperor; who alſo conſented that the Venetian iſlands in the Levant, and territories in Albania, ſhould

ſhould be poſſeſſed by the French, on condition of his enjoyment of the city of Venice, and the chief dominions of that ſtate. Renouncing all right to the Milaneſe, he acknowledged the independence of the Ciſalpine republic. By ſecret articles, the left bank of the Rhine was allowed as a boundary to France; a part of Bavaria was aſſigned to the houſe of Auſtria; and the princes injured by theſe arrangements were to be indemnified by the grant of other territories within the empire. On the injuſtice of the contracting parties, in combining to degrade and plunder the Venetians, ſtrong cenſures may be laviſhed without the imputation of ſeverity.

As the peace with the emperor left ſeveral French armies unemployed, the directory proclaimed an intention of ſending a conſiderable force to attempt a deſcent on the Britiſh coaſt; and, while preparations were expedited in the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland, as if ſuch an intention really prevailed, the parliament of England aſſembled, on the 2d of November, 1797. In the ſpeech from the throne, the long delay and final breaking up of the negociation, were attributed to "the evaſive conduct, the unwarrantable pretenſions, and the inordinate ambition, of the French; and, in particular, to their inveterate animoſity againſt theſe kingdoms." Being thus compelled to perſevere in hoſtilities, his majeſty had the ſatisfaction of knowing that the country poſſeſſed means and reſources proportioned to the nature and demands of the conteſt. The ſtate of the war, he thought, would admit ſome diminution of charges: but a heavy expence was ſtill unavoidable; and the "true value of any temporary ſacrifices could only be eſtimated by comparing them with the importance of effectually ſupporting public credit," and convincing the enemy of the unconquerable ſpirit and undiminiſhed power of the nation.

In the mean while an inſurrection, fomented by the French, broke out in Ireland, the ſecret plans of which were imparted to the lord-lieutenant by ſome of the conſpirators, by whoſe means the capital was preſerved from danger. But, in other parts of the province of Leinſter, rebellion diſplayed its horrid features, and ſcenes of ſanguinary havoc aroſe. A body of catholics, on May 24, 1798, chiefly armed with pikes, ſurpriſed a ſmall town called Proſperous, and maſſacred many of its inhabitants. Another party attacked Naas; but the aſſailants were ſpeedily repelled, with the loſs of above one hundred of their number. The rebels were alſo defeated in an engagement near Kilcullen. A more important affair happened near Dunlavin, where they are ſaid to have loſt three hundred men. On the hill of Taragh, an action proved fatal to three hundred and fifty of the inſurgents; and, at Catherlogh, four hundred periſhed, with little injury to the defenders of the town. Near Kildare, above two hundred of the rebels were killed, principally in conſequence of a miſtake, when they were on the point of ſubmitting; and the number of victims would have been conſiderably greater, if a prohibition of ſlaughter had not humanely arrived from lieutenant-general Dundas.

The catholics of Wexford commenced hoſtilities under the conduct of a prieſt; and, having cruſhed a party of militia, attacked Enniſcorthy, of which they gained poſſeſſion with the loſs of about three hundred men. Wexford, being weakly garriſoned, was now a ſcene of alarm and confuſion, particularly as many of the inhabitants were ſuppoſed to be diſaffected; and the troops took an opportunity of evacuating the dangerous poſt. The roads were covered with men, women, and children, ſeeking refuge from rebellious fury; and, as the inſurgents were reinforced in their progreſs, a general conſternation prevailed. A numerous body of revolters made an attack upon Roſs, June 5, and were not defeated without great difficulty. About fifteen hundred of their number fell on this occaſion, and two hundred and thirty of the loyal party were killed. An atrocious maſſacre was committed by a party of rebels who fled from the field. Above two hundred proteſtants, confined at Scullabogue, were pierced with pikes, or burnt alive.

The town of Arklow was ſo vigorouſly aſſaulted, that a retreat was meditated by the loyal forces; but a more manly reſolution was ſoon adopted; and perſeverance put the rebels to the rout, after the fall of 350 of their aſſociates. The Durham fencibles acquired great reputation by their courage and firmneſs on this occaſion. In this part of Ireland, the war ſeemed to take a religious turn, the inſurgents being more intent on the ruin of the proteſtants than on political reform. But, in the north, the latter object was predominant. A party of rebels, chiefly proteſtant diſſenters, took poſſeſſion of Antrim, which, however, they ſoon loſt. At Ballinah-inch, about four thouſand men were routed by fifteen hundred under major-general Nugent; and the northern inſurrection was now quickly ſuppreſſed.

Vinegar-hill, near Enniſcorthy, was for ſome weeks the chief ſtation of the ſouthern revolters, and the ſcene of their vindictive barbarities. Being attacked by general Lake, it was forced with unexpected facility, June 21; but the far greater part of the rebel army avoided deſtruction by flight. At Goff's-bridge, a well-conteſted battle terminated in the flight of the king's enemies; and, on the approach of a reſpectable force, Wexford was quitted by its inhuman captors, after the ſacrifice of many of the friends of government. A rapid diſperſion took place; yet acts of hoſtility and outrage were not wholly diſcontinued. A ſyſtem of moderation ſoon followed the appearance of the marquis Cornwallis in Ireland. After the capital puniſhment of the ring-leaders Harvey and Colclough, (who were taken in a cave formed in one of the Saltee iſlands,) and of other active encouragers of the revolt, a proclamation of pardon was iſſued, which, though it made ſome exceptions, happily promoted the reſtoration of tranquillity.

When only the faint ſparks of expiring rebellion could be perceived, Auguſt 22, 1798, three frigates appeared in the bay of Killalla, having above one thouſand French ſoldiers on board, under the command of Humbert, who had riſen from the ranks to the dignity of a field-officer. This petty invaſion diffuſed great terror over the country; but the enemy had no reaſon to expect important advantages, as they were joined by few of the natives. Humbert boldly marched to Caſtlebar, where a battle enſued, Auguſt 28. He profited by the conſternation which the exaggerated report of the number of his army had produced; and his opponents, though they were commanded by general Lake, yielded to the impetuoſity of his attack. He was favoured by the treachery of many whoſe duty it was to reſiſt the enemy with vigour, but who took an opportunity of deſerting. After this exploit, Humbert advanced toward Sligo, and routed a detachment near Colloony; but here his ſucceſs ended. While the marquis Cornwallis was approaching with a great army, general Lake took another route for the interception of the invaders. A part of his force, overtaking the French rear-guard at Ballinamuck, September 8, made a briſk attack, upon which two hundred threw down their arms. Some officers were riding up to ſummon the reſt to follow this example, when a fire of cannon and muſquetry ſeemed to announce an intention of reſiſtance. A battalion of light infantry immediately attacked the invaders; and, after a ſhort action, the appearance of the remainder of the troops intimidated the French into an unconditional ſurrender. The rebel Iriſh, at the ſame time, fled in all directions; and they ſuffered ſeverely in their confuſed retreat. Only three Britiſh ſoldiers were killed in this engagement; and very few were wounded.

A more conſiderable invaſion would certainly have been attempted by the French, if ſir John Borlaſe Warren had not diſcovered the hoſtile armament, compoſed of a ſhip of the line and eight frigates, carrying a military force

and a great quantity of ſtores for Ireland. He loſt no time in commencing an engagement, and was ſo ſucceſsful as to capture, October 12, the principal ſhip, and ſix frigates. Wolfe Tone, one of the founders of the ſeditious ſociety, being taken with the French, was condemned by a court-martial to the death of a traitor; but he avoided the ſentence by ſuicide.

The terror of the Britiſh arms, in the campaign of 1798, did not operate with important effect on the affairs of the continent. The weak remains of influence, enjoyed in Holland by the ſtadtholder, could not prevent the French from drawing their Batavian allies into a ſtate of more implicit ſubmiſſion than that which had been adjuſted at the firſt offer of democratic fraternity. Nor could the menaces of the Britiſh cabinet ſecure the cantons of Swiſſerland from that yoke to which, after a fruitleſs reſiſtance to an invaſion from France, they were unjuſtly ſubjected. The ſame thirſt of dominion prompted the French to violate their engagements with the pope, and erect the territories of the church into a commonwealth dependent on their power. With their uſual oſtentation, they boaſted of their glorious efforts for the ruin of a tyrannical theocracy, and the revival of the Roman republic. The depoſed pontiff, exiled from his country, died a priſoner in France. Among the numerous changes which had occurred from the time of the French revolution, theſe events were not undiſtinguiſhed; they were, indeed, momentous and memorable; but their details belong to other departments of this work. See the articles FRANCE, SWISSERLAND, ROME, &c.

An expedition was undertaken in the ſpring of 1798, againſt the Netherlands. Major-general Coote landed with a ſmall force near Oſtend, and prepared to deſtroy the ſluices of the Bruges canal. This ſervice was executed; but, as the wind and ſurf prevented the re-embarkation of the troops, it became neceſſary to form a defenſive poſt on the ſand hills. An attack was made upon the invaders by a body which far out-numbered them; and, though they fought with diſtinguiſhed courage, their front was broken, and their flanks were completely turned. In this perilous ſtate, their commander, who was wounded, called major general Burrard to a conſultation; and it was reſolved that a general ſurrender ſhould take place. About fifty men were killed, and above eleven hundred ſubmitted themſelves priſoners of war.

This trivial diſgrace was ſoon compenſated by a ſignal victory obtained in the ſummer of 1798, over the French fleet, on a coaſt rarely viſited by Britiſh ſhips of war. Deſirous of ſeizing Egypt, and ſubjecting that rich province to the dominion of France, the directory ſent out a fleet of thirteen ſhips of the line for that purpoſe, with many frigates and ſloops, and tranſports containing a numerous army, under the command of Bonaparte. The advantageous ſituation of Malta prompted the general firſt to aim at the reduction of that iſland; and, being favoured by the treachery of a garriſon which might have reſiſted the beſiegers for many months, he procured from the Malteſe knights a ſurrender of their whole territory. Proceeding to the Egyptian coaſt, he hoped there to eſtabliſh ſuch a baſis of military, naval, and commercial, ſtrength, as might eventually lead to the ruin of the Britiſh power in India. But the Britiſh ſquadron, commanded by rear-admiral ſir Horatio Nelſon, after a long ſearch for the fleet of the republic, diſcovered it in the bay of Aboukir, Auguſt 1, 1798. An equal number of ſhips of the line appeared on both ſides; but the weight of metal and number of men were decidedly in favour of the French, who had alſo the advantage of ſituation, and the protection of gun-boats and a battery. Captain Foley, in the Goliah, commenced the action near the cloſe of day, by attacking Le Guerrier, which, by broadſides from that and other ſhips, was ſoon diſabled. Le Conquerant was reduced to a ſimilar ſtate, chiefly by the fire of the Goliah. Nelſon's flag-ſhip, the Vanguard, then took an active part in the engagement; and, when he had been wounded in the head, his captain (afterwards ſir Edward Berry) ably ſuperintended the operations. Two veſſels encountered l'Orient, which bore the flag of admiral Brueys; and this large ſhip, which mounted 120 guns, at length took fire, and blew up. The tremendous exploſion produced a momentary ceſſation of firing: but the conflict was again renewed; and it terminated in the capture of nine French ſhips of the line. To which we may add the burning of the Timoleon, and of a frigate, and the ſinking of another ſhip of war. See all the particulars of this expedition and the glorious ſucceſs of the Britiſh arms in Africa, under the article EGYPT, p. 329—343, of this volume.

The grand ſignor, who holds a nominal ſupremacy over Egypt, was provoked by this invaſion to declare war againſt France. But more important benefits were expected from the arms of the Ruſſian emperor Paul, who, now leagued with the Porte, took an active part in the war. His magnanimity was panegyriſed by the king of Great Britain, in a ſpeech to the parliament, and the ſucceſs of his arms for a time excited the admiration of Europe.

In the meanwhile an Engliſh armament failed toward the iſland of Minorca; and a deſcent was made near the creek of Addaya. A body of Spaniards threatened to ſurround the firſt diviſion of the invading army; but they were ſoon repelled; and the Britiſh troops gained a poſition from which they might have attacked the enemy with advantage, if the latter had not retired. The army ſeized the poſt of Mercadal, and a detachment took the town of Mahon and fort Charles. The chief defence was expected at Ciudella, where new works were added to the old fortifications. The approach of the Engliſh drove the Spaniards within the walls of that town; and general Stuart ſummoned the governor to ſurrender without delay. To enforce compliance, two batteries were erected; but, as the invaders had few of the requiſites of a ſiege, their adverſaries might, with a ſmall ſhare of ſpirit, have made a conſiderable reſiſtance. Intimidated, however, by the movements of the troops and the appearance of the ſquadron, the garriſon capitulated, November 15, and the whole iſland was reduced without the loſs of a ſingle man.

In St. Domingo, however, the Engliſh were unable to extend their acquiſitions; and the fury of diſeaſe made alarming havock among them. At length, they reſolved to ſurrender Port au Prince and St. Marc to Touſſaint, a negro commander, who had nearly annihilated the dominion of the French in the iſland; and, in the courſe of the year, they evacuated every other poſt. Such were the chequered ſcenes of the campaign of 1798; but the balance of victory, of diſintereſted policy, and of ſucceſs in arms, (the affairs of Egypt taken into the ſcale,) preponderated greatly in favour of England.

When the emperor of Germany agreed to a pacification with the French, he ſtill cheriſhed the high pretenſions which had urged him to take arms againſt the revolutioniſts; and, in conſenting to a treaty, he rather ſought a reſpite than a durable peace. The French, by their unbounded encroachments on the rights of other nations, gave him a plauſible pretence for re-arming; and the perſuaſions of Great Britain, and the preparations of Ruſſia, confirmed him in reſolutions of hoſtility. While the Ruſſians were on their march, the directory inſiſted on the exertions of the emperor to enforce the retreat of thoſe troops; but as all remonſtrances on this head were diſregarded, one French army recommenced hoſtilities in Germany, while another entered the Griſon territories, and engaged the Auſtrians near Coire. The former hoſt ſuſtained a defeat near Stockach, and ſoon repaſſed the Rhine. The latter ſubdued the Griſons, but afterwards received ſevere checks. A detachment from the army of the archduke Charles drove the French from Schaffhauſen;

hauſen; and ſome ſpirited actions put that prince in poſſeſſion of Zurich. Italy again became the ſcene of remarkable events. In the preceding winter, the French had unjuſtly deprived the king of Sardinia of Piedmont, and formed a republic of that principality; and, as the king of Naples, influenced by the Britiſh court, had attacked their troops in the Roman ſtate, they ruſhed into his dominions, took Capua, and, after a great ſlaughter of his ſubjects, ſeized his capital. In the ſpring, they invaded Tuſcany, and depoſed its ſovereign for pretended acts of perfidy. But their progreſs in the Veroneſe was checked by general Kray, who reſcued Verona from their power, defeated them near Magnan, conſiderably thinned their ranks, and haraſſed them ſeverely by his activity and vigilance.

The Ruſſians, alſo, under Suwarrow, joined by an Auſtrian army, ſtormed the poſts near the Adda, and obtained an important victory over Moreau; and, April 27, 1799, entered Milan in triumph. Having weakened his force by ſending off numerous bodies upon different enterpriſes, the Ruſſian commander encouraged the French to attack him in the Modeneſe; but he prevailed againſt them in an obſtinate conflict, June 19, deſtroying many thouſands of the French troops. Turin, Aleſſandria, and Mantua, were reduced by the confederates, who alſo ſignalized their courage with victorious effect in the battle of Novi. Aſſiſted by Britiſh ſeamen, the Neapolitans acted with unuſual alertneſs againſt their republican oppreſſors. Captain Troubridge reduced fort St. Elmo, took Naples and other towns, and afterwards contributed to a counter-revolution in the Roman ſtate. A ſimilar change was effected in Tuſcany by the ſpirit of an exaſperated people. Suwarrow, after his great ſucceſs in Italy, directed his courſe toward the Swiſs territories. Maſſena, who had defeated an army of the allies near Zurich, encountered the Ruſſian general without diſmay, and impeded his advance. He alſo checked the career of Korſakoff, and ſecured the aſcendancy of the French in Swiſſerland.

While theſe incidents occurred in Europe, a new war broke out in India. It was of very ſhort duration; but its progreſs and reſult were important. On the departure of that fleet which was deſtined for Egypt, the commiſſioners for the affairs of India, apprehending that the company's ſettlements were endangered by the armament, ſent out ſhips of war and troops for the defence of thoſe poſſeſſions. The governor-general, the earl of Mornington, afterwards marquis of Welleſley, who ſucceeded ſir John Shore, had already made diſpoſitions for counteracting the views of Tippoo, as the ſultan had received a ſmall force from the Mauritius, and expected a greater aid for an attack of the Engliſh, againſt whom the immediate hoſtilities of Zeman Shah, king of Candahar, were likewiſe urgently ſolicited. Even after the ſplendid ſucceſs on the Egyptian coaſt, the earl did not ſuffer the leaſt abatement of the ſpirit of military or naval preparation; and, his repeated offers of negociation being evaded by Tippoo, he gave orders for the march of the troops, and ſent intelligence to the commander of the king's ſhips on the coaſt of Malabar, and to the allies of the company, that he conſidered the Britiſh government in India as being at war with that of Myſore. The ſultan now gave a reluctant aſſent to the admiſſion of an envoy; but this was deemed an artifice for the purpoſe of gaining time, as it was known that he had recently diſpatched ambaſſadors to the executive directory of France, to ſupplicate their aid.

About eighteen thouſand effective men, of whom above twelve thouſand were natives of India, advanced from the coaſt of Coromandel under the command of general Harris; and, being joined by the troops of the nizam, reduced ſome ill-defended forts on the frontiers of Myſore. Tippoo, in the mean time, attacked at Sidaſir a brigade of the army which had been put in motion by the governor of Bombay, and of which lieutenant-general James Stuart had the command. The great ſuperiority of the aſſailants, in point of number, did not enſure to them the victory which they expected to obtain. They were routed on the 6th of March, 1799, with a loſs which very far exceeded that of ſir James, whoſe ſucceſs entitled him to high praiſe.

The ſultan now haſtened to meet the grand army, and encountered the right wing near Malavelli. The engagement, which was not very ſanguinary, ended in the defeat of the Myſorians. When general Harris approached Seringapatam, another conflict favourable to his army occurred. He then commenced the ſiege of that town; and the Bombay force zealouſly promoted the ſucceſs of the enterpriſe. Tippoo had not taken proper meaſures for obſtructing the march of his enemies, or intercepting their ſupplies of proviſion; and, during the ſiege, he did not act in the moſt judicious manner for the defence of the town or the ſupport of his beſt intereſts. The beſiegers profited by his inattention, and carried on their operations with vigor and alacrity. As ſoon as a breach was perceived, arrangements were made for an aſſault. The battalions advanced in the heat of the day, May 4, when the beſieged were leaſt prepared for oppoſition; and, having paſſed the Caveri, approached the rampart. Sergeant Graham led the forlorn hope with an animated countenance; but, while he was fixing the colour-ſtaff on the breach, he was ſhot through the head. The alarm having rouſed the ſultan, he haſtened along the rampart, and found his men purſued by the grenadiers who had ruſhed through the breach. He endeavoured to rally the fugitives; and the intruders were checked for a time; but their impetuoſity ſubdued the ſpirit of reſiſtance. Retiring to the gate of the inner fort, the haraſſed prince received ſeveral wounds; and, in aiming a blow at a ſoldier who was ſeizing his ſword-belt, he was killed by a ball which ſtruck him in the temple. When the oppoſition of the garriſon had ceaſed, the victorious officers eagerly repreſſed the violence of their men. In a town abounding with wealth, deſultory acts of depredation could not be prevented; but the riches of the palace were reſerved for regular diſtribution.

A quadruple diviſion of the conquered country now took place. The territories of the company were conſiderably augmented; the nizam and the Mahrattas obtained additional parts of Tippoo's dominions; and the remaining portion was given to a prince of that family which had loſt its power by Hyder's uſurpation. This extraordinary ſucceſs fixed the Britiſh power in the Eaſt on a firm baſis, and gave it a deciſive ſway over the princes of India. See the article HINDOOSTAN.

Before the report of this rapid conqueſt reached Great Britain, an expedition was planned for the reſcue of the United Provinces from French tyranny. After a long courſe of preparation, a deſcent was made, Auguſt 27, 1799, on the coaſt of North-Holland. A body of ſeven thouſand men, French and Dutch, encountered the Engliſh, who with difficulty gained the advantage. Above one thouſand of the enemy were killed or wounded, and of the Britiſh about 450. It was the intention of ſir Ralph Abercrombie to attack the Helder fort the next morning; but it was evacuated in the night, and he found in it a conſiderable train of artillery. A naval magazine was alſo abandoned; and thirteen ſhips of war, beſides three Indiamen, were taken without reſiſtance. Vice-admiral Mitchell then made judicious arrangements for entering the harbour of the Texel; and the approach of the veſſels which he ſelected for that ſervice aſtoniſhed the Hollanders. Having ſummoned the commander of the Dutch fleet to hoiſt the flag of the prince of Orange, and accept the friendſhip of Great Britain, he received an anſwer from rear admiral Story, promiſing to deliver up his ſquadron, as the men refuſed to fight. The ſhips were twelve in number, and eight of them mounted from fifty-four to ſeventy-four guns.

For ſeveral days the invading army had no other ſhelter than could be obtained by digging trenches in the ſand; but

but they found better quarters in their progreſs. While they waited for the arrival of reinforcements, about twelve thouſand French and Dutch attacked them with vigour, September 10; but ſo ſtrong was the poſt of the Zuyp, and ſo firmly did the Engliſh defend it, that about eight hundred of the aſſailants were killed or wounded, while only two hundred ſuffered on the part of their opponents. The guards diſtinguiſhed themſelves in this engagement, and made great impreſſion on a column of French. The duke of York now landed with three brigades, and a Ruſſian army alſo diſembarked. As the allied army amounted to thirty-five thouſand men, the duke, and general d'Hermann, ventured upon a ſpeedy action. The Ruſſians, by an impetuous onſet, September 19, made great havock, and puſhed forward to Bergen. Abercrombie's column penetrated to Hoorn; and the two other columns were ſucceſsful in their attacks; but the raſh confidence of the Ruſſians expoſed them to ſuch danger, that the retreat of the whole force ſoon became neceſſary. About three thouſand of the enemy are ſaid to have been made priſoners, and two thouſand were killed or wounded; of the Britiſh ſoldiers, above one thouſand were killed, wounded, or captured; and of the Ruſſians about two thouſand.

When the weather permitted, the army moved forward, in four columns, to the battle of Egmont, October 2. The Engliſh and Ruſſians were commanded by generals Abercrombie, d'Eſſen, Dundas, and Pulteney. The hoſtile force conſiſted of twenty-five thouſand men, of which number about three-fifths were French, who were under the orders of general Brune, while Daendels had the command of the Dutch. The main body of the firſt column did not meet with great reſiſtance in the early part of the day; but when ſir Ralph approached Egmont, he was warmly oppoſed by a ſtrong corps of French infantry, who were ſupported by a conſiderable body of cavalry and a train of artillery upon the beach. A part of the ſame column, under colonel Macdonald, had driven the enemy from Campe and the neighbouring ſand hills; and ſome brigades of the ſecond and third diviſions forced Schorel and other poſts. The vicinity of Bergen was a ſcene of briſk conflict. The brigades of major-general Coote and the earl of Chatham charged the enemy in flank and rear, and produced a confuſed retreat; but they could not prevent their adverſaries from re-occupying the village in force, though they defended with effect ſome heights which they had ſeiſed. Colonel Macdonald being cloſely engaged with a reſolute body, lieutenant-general Dundas ſent a corps to aſſiſt that officer, and thus enabled him to proceed to the aid of ſir Ralph, who had been contending for ſome hours with a very ſuperior force. At length the cavalry were baffled in an attack upon the Britiſh artillery, and, being charged with ſpirit by lord Paget, were driven towards Egmont with conſiderable loſs. The evening put an end to the engagement; and the troops reſted upon their arms. At day-break, the retreat of the enemy gave the Engliſh and Ruſſians an opportunity of taking ſeveral poſts; but, though they puſhed forward for that purpoſe, they were precluded by fatigue from effectually haraſſing the republican troops. The killed and wounded of the Britiſh were about 1350 by ſome accounts, and 1550 by others. Of the Ruſſians about 600 ſuffered or were captured. The loſs of the French and Dutch roſe far beyond theſe calculations. The enemy ſeem to have marked out the Engliſh officers, as an unuſual proportion received wounds. The enemy having taken a very ſtrong poſition, and being in expectation of a reinforcement, the duke of York reſolved upon another attack before the erection of new works, and when he had no knowledge of the arrival of freſh troops to oppoſe him. The Ruſſians had a greater concern in this action of October 6, than in the preceding; and they were ſo vigorouſly reſiſted; that ſir Ralph Abercrombie was obliged to advance with a ſtrong body to their relief. The whole hoſtile force then put itſelf in motion, and the action became general along the line from Limmen to the ſea. It terminated to the honour of the invaders, as they were left maſters of the field. The Ruſſians killed were above 380; and 735 were wounded. The Britiſh loſt about 100 in killed; 725 were wounded; and above 600 were miſſing.

A conſiderable body of freſh troops joined the army of general Brune after this action; and he ſtationed his force ſo ſtrongly, as to render a renewal of attack highly dangerous. This conſideration, added to the ruined ſtate of the roads, and the difficulty of procuring ſupplies neceſſary for the accommodation of the ſoldiery, produced in the minds of the chief officers a conviction of the prudence of a retreat. This determination was executed without diſorder, and with ſmall loſs. A convention was adjuſted, October 18, between the commanders of the oppoſite armies, providing for the ſpeedy departure of the Engliſh and Ruſſians, prohibiting the commiſſion of any injury by the retiring hoſt, and requiring the delivery of eight thouſand French and Dutch priſoners of war, who had been taken before the preſent campaign. It was in the power of the invaders to ſecure a retreat to their ſhips by inundating North Holland; but, as this was a meaſure which would have greatly diſtreſſed or ruined the inhabitants, the duke of York abſtained from this inhumanity, by the ſurrender of priſoners without exchange.

Though the French preſerved their influence in Holland unimpaired, their own government now ſuffered a great change. The two councils had lately humbled the directory, and thus adhered to the conſtitution of 1795; but they were expoſed to a violent attack from the ambition of Bonaparte. Returning ſuddenly from Egypt, he ſtrengthened his intereſt among the ſoldiery and the people; and, having procured an appointment to the command of the Pariſian guard, he forcibly diſſolved the two aſſemblies, November 10, 1799, and became in effect ſovereign of France, under the title of *Firſt Conſul*. His popularity, and the terror of his name, ſecured the aſſent of the people to the new conſtitution; and he prepared to impreſs other nations with a ſenſe of his importance and a reſpect for his dignity. To give the greater weight to his new character, he ſuggeſted, by a letter under his own hand, to the king of Great Britain, a pompous propoſition for a general peace; but the offer was rejected, and vigorous preparations were made for the campaign of 1800.

During the winter, the temporary danger of the ſovereign greatly alarmed his loyal ſubjects. Hadfield, who had ſerved his country as a ſoldier, fired a piſtol at the king in one of the theatres; but fortunately no injury reſulted from the daring attempt. As evident proofs of inſanity were adduced, the maniac was acquitted.

The moſt important event which took place in the year 1800, was the union of Great Britain with the kingdom of Ireland. Upon this occaſion the king declared, that he ſhould "ever conſider this great meaſure as the happieſt event of his reign." That it was one of the moſt judicious acts of the government, few will be diſpoſed to deny; and the mode in which it was conducted, without aſperity or rancour, and in a moment ſo critical to the peace and ſafety of Ireland, will ever reflect the higheſt credit on the miniſter, Mr. Pitt, under whoſe auſpices the enactment of union took place, on the 2d of July in England, and the 1ſt of Auguſt in Ireland, ſo nearly at the completion of the eighteenth century.

The new conſul, finding his deſire of being the pacificator of Europe rejected by the king of Great Britain, propoſed to the court of Vienna a renewal of a ſeparate negociation; but the influence of the Britiſh miniſtry, and the ſucceſs of the late campaign, induced the emperor to continue the war. His troops gained ſome advantages in the ſpring, when they attacked the French in the Ligurian territories. After ſeveral engagements, general Melas encountered Maſſena near Voltri; and, having prevailed in a conflict which proved fatal to a vaſt number

of

of men, he confined the enemy within the walls of Genoa. In the blockade of that city a Britiſh ſquadron aſſiſted; and the want of proviſions reduced the defenders to moſt ſevere difficulties. Sickneſs became ſo prevalent, and hunger ſo urgent, that Maſſena was at length obliged to ſue for the indulgence of an unmoleſted retreat.

As it was the earneſt wiſh of Bonaparte to ſtrike a deciſive blow in Italy, he ſent forward a conſiderable army under Berthier, to prepare the way for his own perſonal operations. Penetrating into Piedmont over the mountain of St. Bernard, the French drove their alarmed adverſaries, before them; and, advancing into the Milaneſe, ſpeedily re-took ſome of the chief towns. At Caſteggio, they met with important ſucceſs; but their moſt ſignal triumph was on June 14, at Marengo. Here the vigour of the Auſtrians ſeemed long to promiſe victory to their efforts. They turned the wings of the French, and forced the centre to fall back; and Melas even flattered himſelf with the hope of cutting off the retreat of the diſordered troops. But, when the chief conſul, who was in the heat of action, almoſt deſpaired of ſucceſs, the celebrated Deſaix appeared with a corps de reſerve, and changed the fortune of the day. A new line was formed; the Auſtrians were checked in their career; and, though they ſtill exhibited marks of obſtinate courage, they were at length totally routed. About nine thouſand of their number were killed, wounded, or made priſoners, but not without the loſs of many lives on the part of the conquerors. This defeat ruined the hopes of the emperor. It was followed by a propoſal from the vanquiſhed general for an armiſtice, which he purchaſed by the reſtitution of Genoa, and the ſurrender of the citadels of Milan, Turin, Tortona, and other fortreſſes.

The French alſo acted with ſimilar vigour in Germany. Moreau engaged general Kray at Moſkirch; but a Bavarian force, ſubſidiſed by Great Britain, contributed to prevent the republicans from being completely victorious on this occaſion. Several other obſtinate battles took place, with conſiderable loſs on both ſides; and, after the victory of Oberhauſen, the French took poſſeſſion of Munich, and other Bavarian towns; but their progreſs was arreſted by a truce. The emperor conſented to a negociation, July 28, which produced preliminaries founded on the treaty of Campo Formio.

The hoſtilities of the Engliſh during the year 1800, were chiefly connected with the maritime ſervice. A deſcent being made on the coaſt of Bretagne, the forts of Quiberon were deſtroyed; and other debarkations were injurious to the French. From the Dutch the African iſle of Goree was taken, as was alſo the American iſland of Curaçoa. And after a very long blockade, in which the Portugueſe aſſiſted, the French were compelled to relinquiſh Malta, on September 5, to the great joy and reputation of the Britiſh court. Ferrol was for ſome time threatened by a Britiſh armament; but, though the invaders gained the neighbouring heights by repelling the Spaniards, they had no encouragement to attack the place. Cadiz was likewiſe menaced, and was ſaved by the ſame improbability of ſucceſs, added to the riſque of being infected with a contagious diſeaſe, then prevailing among the garriſon and the inhabitants.

On the cloſe of the campaign of the year 1800, the emperor of Ruſſia withdrew his arms from the confederacy. Not content with this manifeſtation of his deſertion of the common cauſe, he expreſſed ſtrong reſentment againſt England, complaining of her maritime encroachments; and he ſtopped all the Britiſh veſſels in his ports, before the diſpute reſpecting Malta gave him even a pretence for diſpleaſure. He, however, removed the embargo; but again renewed it, on the idle allegation of the detention of Malta, to which he claimed a right, in conſequence of the aſſumed authority of grand maſter of the order of knights of St. John of Jeruſalem. He even ſent the ſeamen into confinement, and haraſſed them with arbitrary rigour. To the Daniſh court, and alſo to that of Sweden, he propoſed a renewal of thoſe engagements of armed neutrality which the empreſs Catharine had framed during the American war; and a convention to that effect was ſigned at Peterſburg, December 16, 1800. Reſenting this ungenerous conduct, the Britiſh court ſubjected Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh ſhips, to an embargo, January 14, 1801, and prepared for vigorous hoſtilities.

While this ſtorm impended over Great Britain from the north, her Auſtrian ally was perſuaded to renounce the late preliminaries, and again renew the war. But the ſignal defeat of the Auſtrian army at Hohenlinden by the ſkill of Moreau, the ſucceſs of Augereau in Franconia, and the progreſs of the republicans in Italy, induced the emperor to ſue for peace; and, being releaſed from the obligation of treating in concert with Britain, he authoriſed count Cobentzel to ſign a treaty at Luneville. By this treaty, he confirmed the ceſſion of the Belgic provinces to the French: he alſo ceded to them the county of Falkenſtein, the Frichtal, and all the Auſtrian territory on the left bank of the Rhine between Zurzach and Baſle; and engaged to give up the Briſgaw to the duke of Modena. He conſented to the renunciation of Tuſcany by the grand duke, who was to be ſucceeded by the heir of the duchy of Parma, and was to be indemnified by German grants. He ſanctioned the agreement of the deputies of the empire, who had aſſented, in the congreſs at Raſtadt, to the French demand of the permanent poſſeſſion of the countries ſituated on the left bank of the Rhine, from the point where it leaves the Helvetic territory to the ſpot where it enters the Batavian confines. The republic waved all pretenſions to the right bank of that river, and promiſed to reſtore the fortreſſes of Duſſeldorff, Ehrenbreitſtein, Philipſburg, Caſſel, and Old Briſach, on condition of their remaining in the ſame ſtate in which they ſhould be found at the time of their evacuation; and it was alſo agreed, that the former aſſignment of Venetian territories to the emperor ſhould be eſtabliſhed.

In this ſtate of affairs the parliament aſſembled, February 2, 1801. Addreſſing the two houſes, the king obſerved, that, at a criſis ſo important to the intereſts of his people, he derived great ſatisfaction from being enabled, for the firſt time, to avail himſelf of the advice and aſſiſtance of the united parliament. "This memorable era, (he ſaid,) diſtinguiſhed by the accompliſhment of a meaſure calculated to augment and conſolidate the ſtrength and reſources of the empire, and to cement more cloſely the intereſts and affections of my ſubjects, will, I truſt, be equally marked by that vigour, energy, and firmneſs, which the circumſtances of our preſent ſituation peculiarly require."

The moſt remarkable debate in this meeting of the parliament, related to the caſe of the Iriſh catholics, whoſe claims, after the completion of the act of union, formed a particular ſubject of diſcuſſion in the cabinet. Mr. Pitt and lord Grenville repreſented an acquieſcence in the wiſhes of thoſe ſectaries as neceſſary for the perfect conſolidation of the intereſts of the united kingdom, and affirmed, that, as no danger could ariſe from it, policy required the conceſſion. Several of the privy council expreſſed oppoſite ſentiments; and his majeſty took a decided part in the diſpute, alleging that the oath taken by him at his coronation precluded his aſſent to a ſcheme which might, in its conſequences, endanger the religious eſtabliſhment. As this repugnance obſtructed the recommendation of the meaſure to the parliament, and diminiſhed the probability of its ſucceſs, Mr. Pitt declared that he conceived himſelf bound by his duty, his conſcience, and his honour, to reſign that ſituation in which he was not at full liberty to purſue his ideas of equity and public benefit. His reſignation was accepted, as was alſo that of lord Grenville; and earl Spencer, at the ſame time, relinquiſhed all concern in the affairs of the admiralty.

After ſome deliberation, his majeſty ſelected Mr. Addington for the office of his firſt miniſter. That gentle-

man had long been an intimate friend of Mr. Pitt, whoſe influence had placed him in the chair of the houſe of commons, which he filled with high reputation. Lord Hawkeſbury was ſelected for the vacancy occaſioned by the reſignation of lord Grenville; and the earl of St. Vincent was made ſucceſſor to earl Spencer, as firſt lord of the admiralty.

A febrile indiſpoſition with which the king was ſeized, retarded the public buſineſs. It was apprehended that a regency would be neceſſary; but the return of health, after an illneſs of three weeks, enabled his majeſty to renew his attention to affairs of ſtate. On the 17th of March he honoured Mr. Addington with a formal appointment to the two offices which Mr. Pitt had ſo long enjoyed; ſubſtituted lord Hobart and Mr. Charles Yorke in lieu of Mr. Dundas and Mr. Wyndham, and deputed the earl of Hardwicke to Ireland as lord-lieutenant.

The orders which the late miniſtry had iſſued for vigorous operations againſt the Danes and Swedes in the Weſt Indies, were now carried into effect. Lieutenant-general Trigge and rear-admiral Duckworth ſailed from Antigua with a ſmall fleet and about fifteen hundred ſoldiers, and ſteered to the Swediſh iſle of St. Bartholomew. The governor, having no means of effectual defence, acquieſced in the demand of an immediate ſurrender. Leaving a garriſon in the chief town, the aſſociated commanders would have proceeded without delay to the iſle of St. Thomas; but the appearance of a reinforcement from England induced them to extend their views to the reduction of St. Martin, though an attempt upon this iſland was not included in the inſtructions which they had received. One brigade landed in the Dutch quarter, and another in the French territory, March 24, 1801. The former, in approaching the heights near Fort Amſterdam, met with ſome reſiſtance, but prevailed in every ſkirmiſh. The enemy, having attacked one of the poſitions occupied by the Engliſh, a ſpirited conflict enſued, which terminated in the defeat of the enemy; and a capitulation was ſigned the next morning.

The Daniſh iſlands were the next objects of attack. The fleet ſailing to the weſtward, the iſles of St. Thomas and St. John were taken without oppoſition; and St. Croix (or Santa Cruz) was added with facility to the Britiſh conqueſts. Some veſſels were found in the harbours of theſe iſlands; but they were not large or valuable. As it was not ſuppoſed that theſe acquiſitions would be durable, the ſucceſs made little impreſſion on the public: but the expedition tended to prove the determination of the cabinet to maintain the naval authority of Great Britain.

This authority was further eſtabliſhed in a moſt honourable and glorious manner by the Britiſh fleet, which was purſuing its courſe toward the Sound. The commandant of the caſtle of Cronenburg having intimated that he would not ſuffer the Engliſh ſhips to paſs, this anſwer to an application from ſir Hyde Parker was conſidered as a declaration of war, though the admiral aſſured the Dane that he was ready to attend to any conciliatory propoſals. The cannonade began from the fortreſs, but was not very injurious to the fleet, which ſoon reached the iſle of Huene. From this ſtation ſir Hyde reconnoitred the Daniſh line of ſhips, radeaux, pontoons, galleys, fire-ſhips, and gun-boats. The approaches to Copenhagen were fortified with ſkill; batteries of cannon and mortars were erected on every part of the ſhore where they were likely to be efficacious; the Crown iſlands and that of Amak were ſtrengthened by a variety of works; the mouth of the harbour was protected by a chain and by a fort built on piles; and a line of ſhipping added to the natural ſtrength of the place. The admiral, on the 2d of April, having ordered an attack from the ſouthward, lord Nelſon advanced with twelve ſail of the line, four frigates, ſome ſloops, fire-ſhips, and bomb-veſſels; but, from the intricacy of the navigation, two of the largeſt ſhips ran aground, and another was obliged to caſt anchor far from her appointed ſtation. Captain Murray, in the Edgar, led the van with great intrepidity. The Monarque ſuſtained the moſt deſtructive fire; and her commander, captain Moſſe, loſt his life, with above fifty of his men. Captain Riou was alſo killed, while he was attacking the ſhips at the entrance of the harbour. The battle raged for four hours, with great ſlaughter on both ſides. The number of killed, on the part of the Engliſh, exceeded 250; and on the ſide of the Danes, above 500. Almoſt 700 men in the Engliſh ſhips, and about 1500 of the Danes were wounded. Seventeen Daniſh veſſels, floating batteries included, were ſunk, burned, or captured. Immediately after the victory, lord Nelſon threatened to burn all the floating batteries which he had taken, without ſaving the priſoners who were on-board, if the enemy ſhould continue the leaſt firing. This menace produced a ceſſation of hoſtilities: lord Nelſon landed, and conferred with the prince of Denmark; and a convention was ſigned for a regular armiſtice.

The death of the Ruſſian emperor Paul, haſtened this agreement; and, if that event had been known before the ſanguinary conflict occurred, the Danes would probably have ſubmitted without a blow. His violent death ſeemed unlamented; and his ſon Alexander aſcended the throne amidſt the congratulations of his people. An extraordinary change followed this unexpected event. The new emperor diſclaimed the politics of his predeceſſor, and aſſured the Britiſh court of his pacific intentions. The court of Copenhagen relaxed in its zeal for the armed neutrality; that of Stockholm breathed forbearance; and the king of Pruſſia, who had ſeized Hanover, aſſumed a leſs imperious tone. At the requeſt of Alexander, the Britiſh admiral forbore to obſtruct the Ruſſian or Swediſh trade and navigation. Lord St. Helen's was ſent to Peterſburgh to negociate; the reſpective embargoes were taken off; and the ſtorm in the north ſubſided in April, giving place to the milder influence of the month of May.

A convention was now adjuſted, by the interference of Ruſſia, between all the belligerent powers. By the third article of this agreement it was ſtipulated, that effects embarked in neutral veſſels ſhould be free, with the exception of contraband ſtores of war and the property of an enemy; that the latter deſignation ſhould not include the merchandiſe of the produce, growth, or manufacture, of the countries at war, acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral ſtate, and tranſported on their account; that the commodities prohibited ſhould be ſuch only as were declared contraband by the treaty of commerce concluded between Great Britain and Ruſſia in 1797; that a port ſhould be conſidered as under blockade, when the ſhips of a belligerent power ſhould be ſo ſtationed as to render it evidently dangerous to enter; that the neutral veſſels ſhould not be ſtopped except upon ſtrong grounds, and that the proceedings ſhould be uniform, prompt, and legal. The next article provided, that the right of ſearching mercantile veſſels ſailing under convoy of a ſhip of war ſhould only be exerciſed by the ſhips of the government, not by thoſe of private adventurers. Thus the chief points in diſpute were ſettled in favour of thoſe modes which had been long adopted in the commercial intercourſe and connections with Great Britain.

As the north of Europe had thus witneſſed the triumph of the Britiſh navy, ſo did the ſouth feel the effects of its thunder. Rear-admiral ſir James Saumarez was cruiſing near Cadiz, when it was reported to him that three French ſhips of the line and a frigate had been ſeen near Gibraltar. He immediately directed his courſe to the entrance of the ſtrait; and, finding that the ſhips which he wiſhed to engage had anchored in the bay of Algeſiras, he ſent the Venerable man of war to begin the attack. Rear-admiral Linois now drew his ſhips in a cloſer line, and warped them near the batteries which defended the bay; and a briſk fire was opened, on July 6, not only from the ſhips, but alſo from the fortifications, and from a number

of

of gun-boats ſo diſpoſed as to rake the Engliſh ſquadron. Captain Stirling, in the Pompée, made a great impreſſion on the flag-ſhip of Linois, till a change of wind prevented him from acting. As ſoon as the wind favoured, the Hannibal, captain Ferris, puſhed forward in the hope of paſſing between the French ſhips and the batteries; an attempt which, he thought, might lead to a complete triumph. But his ſhip happened to take the ground under one of the batteries; and, as no efforts could extricate her, he was obliged to give her up, after a conſiderable loſs of men and the deſtruction of a great number of his adverſaries. A breeze having enabled two other ſhips to approach the enemy, they kept up for a time a heavy fire, which, if the wind had not declined, would have enforced the ſurrender of the oppoſing veſſels. The impracticability of a cloſe action at length induced ſir James to withdraw his force, when above 360 of his men had been killed or wounded. This diſappointment ſerved only to ſtimulate the eagerneſs of the Britiſh ſeamen for another conteſt. The ſhips were repaired with great expedition; and, when the French, joined by a Spaniſh ſquadron, were ſailing toward Cadiz, the rear of the united fleet was attacked, on July 12, by the Superbe. This veſſel having fired between the Spaniſh admiral's ſhip and another of 112 guns, and then retiring, a mutual error (amidſt the darkneſs of the night) occaſioned a conflict between thoſe two enemy's ſhips. One of them ſuddenly took fire; the flames rapidly extended to the other; and both blew up, with the loſs of about two thouſand men. This melancholy accident diſcouraged Linois and his aſſociates, and tended to accelerate their retreat. The San Antonio, of ſeventy-four guns, was taken; but the Formidable baffled a ſevere attack from captain Hood, whoſe ſhip ſtruck upon a rock, and was with difficulty towed off in a diſabled ſtate. The enemy reached Cadiz without further moleſtation; and admiral Saumarez ſailed with his prize to Gibraltar.

But while theſe partial conflicts were going on in the vicinity of the Britiſh territories in Europe, the deciſive battle was fought before Alexandria in Egypt, which gave peace and glory to England; (ſee the article EGYPT, p. 336;) and when this ſucceſs was announced in England, the general joy was accelerated by a two-fold cauſe. M. Otto had been for ſome time negociating with lord Hawkeſbury, on the ſubject of a general peace, the preliminary articles of which were ſigned October 1, 1801. It was ſtipulated, that the king of Great Britain ſhould reſtore all the poſſeſſions and colonies occupied or conquered by his forces in the courſe of the war, except the iſland of Trinidad, and that part of Ceylon which lately belonged to the Dutch; that, in the port of the Cape of Good Hope, each of the contracting parties ſhould enjoy the ſame advantages; that the territories of the Ottoman emperor, including Egypt, ſhould be maintained entire, as they were before the war; that the French ſhould recogniſe the republic of the Seven United Iſlands: theſe were Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, &c. which, having been taken by the Ruſſians and Turks, had been formed into a republic under their protection. That Malta ſhould be again poſſeſſed by the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem; that the kingdom of Naples and the Roman ſtate ſhould be evacuated by the French troops; and that the queen of Portugal ſhould not loſe any part of her dominions, but remain as before the war. For a completion of theſe articles, it was agreed that Engliſh and French plenipotentiaries ſhould ſpeedily repair to Amiens, and treat in concert with the reſpective allies of the two powers.

While the definitive treaty was yet unadjuſted, a great force was deemed neceſſary for the national defence, as doubts were ſtill entertained of the pacific inclinations of the firſt conſul of France. From the eagerneſs of the public for a general peace, the interval of negociation ſeemed a tedious delay; but the anxiety of ſuſpenſe was at length removed. The treaty was finally ſigned at Amiens by the marquis Cornwallis and Joſeph Bonaparte, March 27, 1802; differing from the preliminaries only in the following points: A part of Portugueſe Guiana was given up to the French by a new adjuſtment of boundaries. With regard to Malta, it was ſtipulated that no French or Engliſh tongue, or claſs of knights, ſhould be allowed; that one-half of the ſoldiers in garriſon ſhould be natives, and that the reſt ſhould be furniſhed for a time by the king of Naples; that the independence of the iſland under the ſway of the knights ſhould be guaranteed by France, Great Britain, Auſtria, Spain, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia; and that its ports ſhould be free to all nations. It was agreed, that the prince of Orange ſhould receive compenſation for his loſs of property and of power. Perſons who might hereafter be accuſed of murder, forgery, and fraudulent bankruptcy, were to be ſurrendered to the demands of each of the reſpective powers.

It was never expected that this peace would be of permanent duration; the unſettled ſtate of the government of France, and the partial and intereſted views of the firſt conſul, plainly indicated that the preſent pacification was intended only as a grand pauſe—a ceſſation from hoſtilities merely to take breath—while plans of greater aggrandiſement and ambition were fabricating, and to ariſe out of the ſcourges of a new war. This diſpoſition too ſoon manifeſted itſelf in the imperious manners and arbitrary conduct of Bonaparte, who affected to treat with contempt and deriſion, at Paris, ſeveral of the ambaſſadors from thoſe powers who had oppoſed France in her late revolutionary ſyſtem. The moſt marked indignities were caſt upon lord Whitworth, ambaſſador from the court of London, boldly charging his ſovereign with an infraction of the treaty of peace, by keeping poſſeſſion of the iſland of Malta. Lord Whitworth, in his turn, demanded an explanation of the ſecret views of France in her extraordinary armaments, and in her political connections with thoſe powers inimical to Great Britain; and in failure of a ſatisfactory anſwer, his lordſhip gave notice of his determination to quit Paris, as the prelude to freſh hoſtilities. To this requiſition the firſt conſul loudly and haughtily replied, in the face of his whole levee, "That France was prepared, and the battle ſhould be fought on Engliſh ground." Lord Whitworth immediately quitted Paris, and a new war commenced between France and England, May 12, 1803, juſt thirteen months and fifteen days after ſigning the definitive articles of the peace of Amiens.

The only meaſure hitherto adopted on the part of France, has been the old and ſtale threat of an invaſion of England; while, on the other hand, the ports of France have been ſo cloſely blockaded by the fleets and ſquadrons of Great Britain, that ſcarcely a French veſſel has dared to put to ſea but by ſtealth; the whole naval power of France has been thus confined to their own harbours, and their commerce virtually annihilated. But the very unhandſome detention of a number of Engliſh gentlemen who were ſpending their money in France, was a ſpecies of unmanly and impotent revenge, totally unworthy of the head of a great nation.

Though from the cauſe above-mentioned, no general action at ſea has hitherto taken place, nor can perhaps be expected, yet the Engliſh cruizers have been ſo ſucceſsful in the only warfare that has been carried on, that not leſs than a hundred and five prizes were carried into one ſingle port (Plymouth), in the ſpace of three weeks after the commencement of hoſtilities. No time was loſt in ſending notice of the event to the Britiſh fleets on the Eaſt and Weſt India ſtations; and the iſlands which had been ceded to France at the peace, with ſeveral others, were again quickly in our poſſeſſion. St. Lucia was taken by the forces under lieutenant-general Grinfield and commodore Hood, on the 22d of June, 1803; Tobago on the 1ſt of July; Demarara and Eſſequibo on the 19th of September; and Berbice on the 25th; the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were taken by captain Malbon on the 30th of June. In the month of May, 1804, we captured

tured the ſettlement of Surinam, in Dutch Guiana. The enterprize was under the command of major-general ſir Charles Green, aſſiſted by commodore Hood, who ſailed for this purpoſe from Barbadoes on the 6th of April, and reached the mouth of the Surinam river on the 25th of the ſame month. The number of troops amounted to about fifteen hundred, and the total of the enemy's force averaged a number conſiderably ſuperior. The governor refuſed at firſt to capitulate; but, from the activity of the Britiſh troops, he at laſt found himſelf compelled to ſubmit. The conteſt, in the interim, was by no means bloodleſs. It commenced on the 29th of April, and conſiſted of various ſkirmiſhes, which continued till the 4th of May, on which day the enemy diſpatched a flag of truce with propoſals to ſurrender. The terms were honourable to both ſides. The priſoners captured, including ſeamen, excluſive of the ſtaff and departments, amounted to 2100; the ſtores conſiderable and valuable. In November, 1803, the iſland of St. Domingo became an independent black republic: the ſhips and veſſels, commanded by the French general Rochambeau, were taken poſſeſſion of by the Britiſh admiral Duckworth; and Cape Town and the forts were delivered up to the black general Deſſalines; and the place is now reſtored to its ancient name of Hayti. On the other hand, the French general Berthier ſeized upon the electorate of Hanover, on the 5th of June, and and laid it under heavy contributions.

The renewal of the war occaſioned Mr. Addington, in the ſummer of 1803, to revive the income-tax, but under a different form, and at a lower rate, than it had been laid during Mr. Pitt's firſt adminiſtration. The next important meaſure was the bill for the general defence of the nation, the intent of which was to embody the entire effective ſtrength of the country; but the laudable ſpirit of the nation rendered it unneceſſary to enforce the act; for a body of men fully adequate to every purpoſe of defence ſpontaneouſly armed and clothed themſelves at their own expence, and thus nobly contributed *once more* to the ſafety of their country.

The rebellion again broke out in Ireland in July; and might have been attended with very fatal conſequences; but that by ſome fortunate accident the riſing was premature, and the rebels did not act in concert. Nevertheleſs, a very worthy nobleman, lord Kilwarden, was cruelly murdered; but the rebellion was ſoon quelled, and the diligence of the government *afterwards* brought moſt of the ringleaders to public juſtice.

A Mahratta war broke out in India, in September, 1803; but the rapid ſucceſſes of generals Welleſley and Lake, brought about a peace in the month of December of the ſame year. For the cauſes and progreſs of that war, ſee HINDOOSTAN.

At a moment when both king and people appeared well ſatisfied with the perſons who were conducting the affairs of the government; at a moment when the prime miniſter, Mr. Addington, ſeemed to poſſeſs the confidence and good-will of the country; a party, or a co-operation of diſcordant parties, ſuddenly appeared, *in the parliament only*, and determined to impede the adminiſtration of affairs, by enforcing a change in the miniſtry. His majeſty at length conſented to a change; Mr. Pitt became prime miniſter for a ſecond time on the 12th of May, 1804, and Mr. Addington retired, with the greateſt honour to himſelf, untitled, and unpenſioned.

The laſt important meaſure we have to notice in the politics of Europe, is the aſſumption of the title of Emperor by Napoleon Bonaparte, firſt conſul of France. This new dignity was broached in April, and actually took place on the 28th of May, 1804. The title and power is decreed to be inherited for ever by Bonaparte's own male iſſue; or he may adopt the children or grand-children of his brothers, provided they have attained the age of eighteen years complete, and he himſelf have no children. In default of a natural and legitimate heir of the preſent emperor, or of an adopted heir, the empire will be transferred to Joſeph Bonaparte, and his deſcendants; and in default of Joſeph Bonaparte and his deſcendants, to Louis Bonaparte and his deſcendants; in caſe of failure of the heirs of Joſeph and Louis Bonaparte, the ſenate is to appoint an emperor. The members of the imperial family, in the order of inheritance, are to bear the title of French princes. The eldeſt ſon of the emperor is to bear the title of *imperial prince*. The ſalic law is revived, and females are excluded from inheriting the crown, or from being regent in the caſe of the minority of an emperor.

To many thinking people this meaſure will appear a change which adds to the odium of his government, without ſtrenthening the reputation of it; ſince republicans have now to chooſe between the old hereditary ſucceſſion and that of the new. Thus ended the republican form of government in France, after a duration of eleven years and a half. How this bold uſurpation of the rightful inheritance of the unfortunate royal family of France, will be received by the other conſiderable powers of the civilized world—how it may affect the conduct of the war, or accelerate the return of peace; remain to be developed from the boſom of time; and will be diſcuſſed under the article FRANCE, in our ſeventh volume, to which we ſhall beg to refer the reader; and alſo to the article GREAT BRITAIN.

ANTIQUITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

To trace back the antiquities of England, or to fix the era at which our reſearches ought to begin, is a taſk of no ſmall labour and difficulty. That this beautiful iſland was inhabited many ages before it was noticed by Julius Cæſar, and had been conſequently the ſcene of many wars, revolutions, and other important events, there can be no reaſonable doubt; although the antiquarian, in ſuch remote enquiries, is often bewildered and miſled by the fabulous and imperfect accounts of thoſe dark ages.

The ancient monuments which are found in England, may be claſſed in ſix diviſions. 1. Thoſe belonging to the primitive Celtic inhabitants. 2. Thoſe of the Belgic colonies, which followed. 3. Thoſe belonging to the Romans. 4. Thoſe erected by the Saxons. 5. Relics of the Daniſh ſovereignty. 6. Monuments of ſtructures of Norman original. Few of theſe remains, it muſt be confeſſed, throw much light upon hiſtory; but many of them, being intereſting and curious in themſelves, deſerve the attention of the Engliſh traveller. Among the firſt and ſecond claſſes we recognize the curious ſtructure of Stone-henge, and all the other circular temples, rocking-ſtones, barrows, cairns, cromlechs, &c. uſually, and perhaps very erroneouſly, attributed to the Druids. See the article DRUID, p. 88, of this volume.

The Belgic relics were followed by thoſe of the Romans, which are ſtill numerous in different parts of England. Amphitheatres are ſaid to be ſtill diſcernible at Silcheſter, in Hampſhire, and ſome other places. The Roman caſtle at Richborough, the ancient Rutupiæ in Kent, preſents conſiderable remains of a maſſy wall, cemented with ſurpriſing firmneſs. Theſe Roman ruins are commonly compoſed of ſtone or flint, with ſtrata of flat bricks at conſiderable intervals. The moſaic pavements, hypocauſts, &c. are generally the remains of the villas of opulent Roman families, ſcattered over the country. The greateſt number of Roman inſcriptions, altars, &c. has been found in the north, along the great frontier wall, which extended from the weſtern ſea, to the eſtuary of Tyne. This vaſt wall is juſtly eſteemed the moſt important remain of Roman antiquity in England, as that of Antoninus is in Scotland. The extent of the former was about ſeventy miles; of the latter about thirty-ſeven, as deſcribed under the article ANTONINUS, vol. i. p. 781. Numerous are the more minute relics of the Roman power in England, as coins, gems, weapons, ornaments, &c.

One of the grand cauſes of the civilization introduced

by that people into the conquered ſtates, was the highways, which form, indeed, the firſt germ of national induſtry, and without which neither commerce nor ſociety could ever make any conſiderable progreſs. Conſcious of this truth, the Romans ſeem to have lent particular attention to the conſtruction of roads in the diſtant provinces; and thoſe of England, which may ſtill be traced in various ramifications, preſent a laſting monument of the juſtice of their conceptions, the extent of their views, and the utility of their power. A grand trunk, as it may be called, paſſed from the ſouth to the north, and another to the weſt, with branches in almoſt every direction that general convenience and expedition could require. What is called the Watling-ſtreet, led from Richborough, in Kent, the ancient Rutupiæ, north-weſt through London to Cheſter. The Ermin-ſtreet paſſed from London to Lincoln, thence to Carliſle, and into Scotland, the name being ſuppoſed to be corrupted from *Herman*, which means warrior, as the chief wars lay in the north. The Foſſeway is ſuppoſed to have led from Bath and the weſtern regions, north-eaſt, till it joined the Ermin-ſtreet. The laſt celebrated road was the Ikenild, or Ikencld, ſuppoſed to have extended from near Norwich, ſouth-weſt, into Hampſhire and Dorſetſhire. Of the original Britiſh towns we have no certain account; but thoſe of the Romans are well authenticated. The termination *cheſter*, which is common to ſo many towns in England, is thought to be derived from the Latin *caſtra*, they having been places of Roman encampments. LONDINUM, London, was early remarkable for the great reſort of merchants. *Camalodunum*, Malden, or according to others Colcheſter, was the firſt Roman colony in Britain. The port moſt frequented under the emperors, was, *Rutupiæ*, Richborough, in Kent; the *Portus Dubris*, or Dover, was afterwards more famous: and *Lemanis*, Lime, near which Cæſar is ſuppoſed to have firſt landed. Other remarkable places were, *Durovernum*, Canterbury; *Durobrivis*, Rocheſter; *Venta Belgarum*, Wincheſter; *Durnium* or *Durnovaria*, Dorcheſter; *Iſca*, Exeter; *Verulamiam*, Verulam, near St. Alban's; *Aquæ Solis* or *Calidæ*, Bath; *Clanum*, Glouceſter; *Deva*, Cheſter, on the river Dee, where the ancient walls and fortifications ſtill remain; *Lindum Colonia*, Lincoln; *Eboracum*, York; *Luguvallum*, Carliſle; *Alatra caſtra*, ſuppoſed to be Edinburgh, called anciently *Edenodunum*, from its Celtic appellation, *Dune Aidan*, the eminence or citadel of Aidan, its proprietor; *burg*, is Saxon, anſwering to *dune* in the Celtic; or rather, according to others, from *Eden*, a Northumbrian king, who either built or poſſeſſed it. See EDINBURGH, in this volume.

The Saxon antiquities in England are chiefly edifices, ſacred or ſecular; many churches remain which were altogether, or for the moſt part, conſtructed in the Saxon period; and ſome are extant of the tenth, or perhaps the ninth, century. The vaults erected by Grimbald, at Oxford, in the reign of Alfred, are juſtly eſteemed curious relics of Saxon architecture. One of the rudeſt ſpecimens of their ancient caſtles, is Coningſburg-caſtle in Yorkſhire; but, as that region was ſubject to the Danes till the middle of the tenth century, it may perhaps be Daniſh. Among the ſmaller remains of Saxon art, may be mentioned the ſhrines for preſerving relics, which ſome ſuppoſe to preſent the diminutive rudiments of what is ſtyled the Gothic architecture; and the illuminated manuſcripts which often afford curious memorials of the ſtate of manners and knowledge.

The Daniſh power in England, though of conſiderable duration in the north, was in the ſouth brief and tranſitory. The camps or fortifications of that nation were circular, like thoſe of the Belgæ and Saxons, while thoſe of Roman armies are diſtinguiſhed by the ſquare form: and it is believed that the only diſtinct relics of the Danes, are ſome caſtles to the north of the Humber, and a few ſtones with Runic inſcriptions.

The monuments ſtyled Norman, rather to diſtinguiſh their epoch than from any information that Norman architects were employed, are reputed to commence after the conqueſt, and to extend to the fourteenth century; when what is called the rich Gothic ornamented ſtyle began to appear, which, in the ſixteenth century, was ſupplanted by the mixed; and this in its turn yielded to the Grecian. See the article ARCHITECTURE, vol. ii. p. 78–94.

Ancient authors affirm, that king Alfred inſtituted the firſt diviſion of England into ſhires, ſo denominated from a Saxon word, ſignifying parts cut off, or diviſions. They are alſo denominated counties, as having been each governed by a diſtinct *ealdorman*, correſponding with the Latin word *comes*, or count; and ſometimes tranſlated *conſul*, and ſometimes *comes*, by thoſe Anglo-Saxon authors who wrote in Latin. After the Daniſh conqueſt, this officer was known by another appellation, that of *earl*, from the Daniſh *iarl*; which, like the word *baron*, in its original acceptation, implied ſimply, but by way of great eminence, a man. About the eleventh century theſe titles became hereditary dignities; and the government of the ſhire devolved upon the earl's deputy, the *vice-comes*, *ſhire-reeve*, ſheriff, or manager of the ſhire. A remarkable ſubdiviſion prevails in the extenſive county of York, which was divided into three parts, implied in the Saxon word *trythings*, now corruptly called *ridings*. It is alſo generally believed that Alfred was the author of the ſubdiviſions of counties, called hundreds and tythings, now ſeldom mentioned except in legal proceedings, and in topographical deſcriptions.—For the names of the counties, and their particular privileges, ſee the article COUNTY, vol. v. p. 289–290. It is probable that the *hundred*, originally contained one hundred farms; while the *tything* was reſtricted to ten. Such are the chief features of the Saxon diviſions of England. The capital of the ſeveral heptarchic kingdoms varied at the will of the ſovereign. London, which belonged to the Eaſt Saxons, maintained in ſome degree its Roman fame and eminence; but on the termination of the heptarchy, Wincheſter was regarded as the capital of England.

It muſt not however be forgotten, that the kingdom of Northumbria, compriſing the regions north of the Humber, exiſted till the year 950, under its peculiar ſovereigns, the laſt of whom was Eric: and that even Domeſday-book, which was compiled in the time of William the Conqueror, excludes the three counties of modern Northumberland, Cumberland, and Weſtmoreland, then regarded as part of Scotland. Durham, the patrimony of St. Cuthbert, is alſo omitted; and Lancaſhire is arranged under the diviſions of Yorkſhire and Cheſhire. The kingdom of Bernicia at one period extended to the Frith of Forth; but in the latter Saxon times the boundaries of England on the north fell conſiderably ſhort of their preſent extent. On the weſt, Offa king of Mercia reſtricted the Welſh by an extenſive barrier, the remains of which are ſtill called Offa's dyke. It extended from the river Wye, along the counties of Hereford and Radnor into that of Montgomery, where it enters North Wales. It afterwards paſſes by Chirk-caſtle to the river Dee, and ends in the pariſh of Mold.

Few alterations of any conſequence appear to have been made in the Norman period. The northern limits were however extended to their preſent circuit. Cumberland and Weſtmoreland were wreſted from the Scots, and the provinces north of the Humber were completely incorporated. On the weſt, Henry I. about the year 1120, having conquered a part of Wales, invited and eſtabliſhed a Flemiſh colony in Pembrokeſhire, and one or two others of the moſt ſouthern counties, which afterwards became remarkable for induſtry; a ſingular fact, and for that period a remarkable exertion of political wiſdom. The ſubſequent conqueſt of Wales by Edward I. and its gradual aſſimilation and aſſociation with England, have been already ſtated.

The population of England by the Celts, may be regarded as its firſt hiſtorical epoch. The ſecond is formed

by the Belgic colonies; who, perhaps about three centuries before the Chriſtian era, ſeized the ſouthern and eaſtern ſhores, and advancing by degrees reſtricted the Celts to the weſt. The Belgic colonization of England is important in many points of view, as eſtabliſhing the primitive germ of the preſent Engliſh nation, and as introducing agriculture, which was not practiſed by the hunting and paſtoral tribes of the Celts: nor is it improbable that ſome of the fertile diſtricts of England have known cultivation for the ſpace of two thouſand years. The third hiſtorical epoch is the ſubjugation of England by Julius Cæſar.

After a duration of four centuries, the Roman domination yielded to that of the Saxons and Angles, nations congenerous with the Belgæ. This revolution has indelibly impreſſed the name, character, language, laws, manners, and cuſtoms, of the people; and forms the fourth hiſtorical epoch. The fifth commences with the ſovereignty of the Danes, in the year 1016.

On the death of Edward the Confeſſor, what is called the epoch of the conqueſt of England, took place in 1066. As the Normans had been ſettled in the north of France for a long time, they introduced the French language among people of rank, and even into legal procedure; a ſervile badge, not even yet completely eradicated. The great charter granted by king John at Runnymede, is deſervedly eſteemed a memorable epoch of Engliſh freedom. And the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, may be regarded as the eighth remarkable epoch. Though deſtructive of literature and the arts, they proved the bane of a ferocious ariſtocracy; and eſtabliſhed by degrees the third balance of the Britiſh conſtitution, i. e. the houſe of commons.

The reformation, by delivering the nation from the heavy yoke of ſuperſtition, increaſed the national energies, and imparted freedom of thought, and a ſpirit of independence, to the individual character; which forms the ninth remarkable epoch. The civil wars under Charles I. form the tenth. The revolution under William III. and the laws enacted upon that occaſion, by the unchangeable eſtabliſhment of the proteſtant religion, create the eleventh epocha, which marks the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover to the throne of Great Britain.

GOVERNMENT, CONSTITUTION, LAWS, AND RELIGION.

In almoſt all the ſtates of the world, the will of the prince holds the place of law; but it is the ſingular happineſs of the united kingdom of Great Britain, that the legiſlative power is veſted *ſolely* in the parliament; the conſtituent parts of which are the king, the houſe of lords, and the houſe of commons. The king of Great-Britain, though only one branch of the legiſlature, is nevertheleſs one of the greateſt monarchs reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can of himſelf make no laws, nor raiſe taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it, at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it had paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſes the right of chooſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſehold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whence all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. With all theſe prerogatives, as extenſive and numerous as ever were claimed by the moſt abſolute monarch, yet, ſince only a third branch of the legiſlative authority exiſts in the royal perſon, it is impoſſible for him to exerciſe an arbitrary will—he has indeed the prerogative of commanding armies and equipping fleets; but without the concurrence of his parliament he cannot maintain them. He can beſtow places and employments; but without his parliament he cannot pay the ſalaries attendant on them. He can declare war; but without his parliament it is impoſſible for him to carry it on. In a word, the royal prerogative, deſtitute of the power of impoſing taxes, and with only a ſpecific revenue reſulting from the people, is like a vaſt body, which cannot of itſelf accompliſh its motions; or, it is like a ſhip completely equipped, but from which the parliament can at pleaſure draw off the water, and leave it aground—or ſet it afloat again, by granting the ſupplies.

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſittings muſt not be intermitted above three years. When the three branches are convened, they form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alteration ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And here indeed, conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh conſtitution, that all the parts of the government form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland and Ireland, by election. The number of Engliſh peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown. A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compound conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it aſcends. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and, if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the ſeventeenth century the commons, under Cromwell, had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men, of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every

every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives. In a free ſtate, every man who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as that of Great Britain, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives which it is impracticable to perform in perſon; repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the votes are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt, of the nation. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513; of Scots, 45; and of Iriſh, 100; in all 658. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons. Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject; and theſe conſtituent parts form what has been long called the GLORIOUS CONSTITUTION of Great Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely-concerted balance, maintaining an equipoiſe, that no one part of the three eſtates can overpower or diſtreſs either of the other two.

Originally both the nobles and the commons met in one houſe; and as the greateſt national events often depend on chance, it is not impoſſible that the mere inconvenience of not finding halls large enough for the whole parliament, might have occaſioned the diviſion into two houſes, unknown in any other country, and which in fact may be regarded as the firſt foundation of Engliſh liberty. The houſe of peers may be ſaid to have exiſted from the earlieſt period of our hiſtory. Concerning the commons, authors are diſſentient, ſome aſſerting that they formed a part of the *Wettena-ge-Mot*, or aſſembly of ſages; and it is not improbable that commoners of diſtinguiſhed ability might have been admitted to that great council, which conſiſted principally of military chiefs. But it ſeems improbable that delegates from towns ſhould have been then known, as the idea ſeems too complex for a rude people; nor have we any traces of it in our ancient records. However this be, the preſent conſtitution of the parliament of England, may certainly be traced to near the middle of the thirteenth century; but it remains unknown at what preciſe time happened the important ſeparation of the commons from the peers.

The peers of England only require the full age of twenty-one years, to become hereditary ſenators in their ſeveral degrees of duke, marquis, earl, viſcount, and baron, formerly created by inveſtiture, or ſymbolic forms, but latterly by patent. Every peer may appoint a proxy to vote for him in the ſenate, a privilege unknown to the commons. In the houſe of peers is placed the royal throne; but the monarch never attends, except at the meeting or prorogation of parliament, when he proceeds to the houſe in great ſtate; the attendance of the commons is commanded, who ſtand below the bar, and the king pronounces his ſpeech, uſually the compoſition of the miniſter. The arrangement of the houſe of peers is well conceived, and produces a grand effect. The wool-ſacks upon which the chancellor, and the judges when called for their advice, are ſeated, conſtitute a remarkable feature, ſymbolic of the ſtaple commodity of England. The appearance is yet more magnificent, when the peers ſit as judges in Weſtminſter-hall; the greatneſs of the perſons, and the ſolemnity of the occaſions, exciting impreſſions of ſingular national ſublimity.

The houſe of commons conſiſts alone of the repreſentatives of the people. Notwithſtanding any place of dignity or truſt allotted to particular members by the king, ſtill they have no power to ſit, unleſs deputed by the electors, their conſtituents: and with a view to keep this franchiſe for ever inviolate, the wiſdom of our anceſtors laid it down as a fundamental law, that every member of the houſe of commons, accepting a place of truſt or profit under the king or the government, whereby his judgment or conduct might be liable to bias, ſhould to all intents and purpoſes vacate his ſeat in parliament, nor be ſuffered to ſit again, unleſs afterwards re-choſen by his conſtituents. To reſtrict the tumult of popular election, it was enacted by Henry VI. that none ſhould vote for a knight of the ſhire, except freeholders worth forty ſhillings a-year, which at the preſent value of money may be computed at twenty or thirty pounds. It is ſingular that copyholders were excluded. The elections for the cities and boroughs, are regulated by their charters and cuſtoms. The commons form the grand inqueſt of the realm, and may impeach or accuſe the greateſt peers; but their chief privilege, and upon which their whole power depends, is the levying of money, in which they are deſervedly ſo jealous, that they will not permit the ſmalleſt alteration in a money-bill. This amounts to an almoſt abſolute *veto* on any public meaſure, and eſpecially on war. A ſpeaker, or preſident, is choſen at the meeting of every new parliament; an office which requires a competent knowledge of eſtabliſhed forms and ancient uſages of the houſe. Acts of parliament, which conſtitute the ſtatute law of the kingdom, may originate in either houſe; but they commonly make their firſt appearance in the houſe of commons.

To aſſiſt the king in the more critical and important tranſactions of the ſtate, a privy council is appointed. Under whatever form of monarchy, privy councils are found to be coeval with the ſtate. It is impoſſible for one man, however tranſcendent his abilities, to manage alone the multifarious buſineſs of the government. The members are choſen by the king; and on changes of adminiſtration are ſeldom eraſed, though entirely at the pleaſure of the king. A privy council is ſeldom or never held without the preſence of at leaſt one of the ſecretaries of ſtate; who, till the reign of Elizabeth, uſed to ſtand by the royal chair, but have ſince been allowed to ſit at the board.

The judicature of England is worthy of the higheſt applauſe, with regard to preciſion and purity. It is, indeed, to be regretted, that the vaſt number and confuſion of the ſtatutes, render the ſtudy of the laws peculiarly difficult, and that the number of retainers on the courts of juſtice, ſwells the expences of a ſuit to an enormous ſum. But hardly can a country be named on the face of the globe, in which juſtice, civil or criminal, is adminiſtered with more integrity: bribes, ſo frequent in other countries, are totally unknown; and the ſaving of this expence ought to be candidly poiſed againſt other legal diſburſements. The trial by jury is the moſt glorious feature of Engliſh juriſprudence, handed down from the Saxon times, and is juſtly regarded as the ſafeguard of the lives, liberties, and properties, of the nation. Its excellence has been reſpected by the Daniſh and Norman conquerors; and, it is hoped, will be venerated to the lateſt poſterity.

The laws of England in general, form a noble code for the preſervation of juſtice and equity. Engliſh juriſprudence regards the civil code as a relic of deſpotiſm; and therefore rarely liſtens to the papal voice of the canon law. The moſt ſingular uſages are what was termed *borough Engliſh*, by which the youngeſt ſon, or in defect of iſſue, the youngeſt brother, was to enjoy the heritage; as it was to be preſumed that his elder brethren had learned their father's buſineſs. That of *gavel-kind* is ſcarcely known except in Kent, and has three branches: the heirs male ſhare all the land alike; each heir may ſell or alienate at the age of fifteen; and, though the father be attainted of treaſon, the inheritance paſſes to the progeny. See theſe cuſtoms and uſages under their reſpective heads in this work.

Of

Of the Engliſh courts of law, the next in dignity to the houſe of lords is the court of king's bench, ſo called becauſe the ſovereign was underſtood to judge in perſon, and its juriſdiction of courſe extends to the whole kingdom. The preſiding judge is denominated lord-chief-juſtice of England. Here are chiefly determined what are called pleas of the crown; and appeals lie from ſeveral other courts. The court of chancery judges cauſes in equity, to moderate the rigour of the law, and defend the helpleſs from oppreſſion, and eſpecially to extend relief in three caſes; fraud, accident, and breach of truſt. The chancellor himſelf is the ſupreme judge. The maſter of the rolls, or keeper of the important papers enrolled in chancery, is an officer of great dignity, and conſiderable patronage. The office of the rolls contains the charters, &c. granted by Richard III. and his ſucceſſors; thoſe of more remote antiquity being lodged in the Tower. The court of common pleas judges, as the name imports, of the common ſuits between ſubject and ſubject; and tries all civil cauſes, real, perſonal, or mingled, according to the preciſe precepts of the law. The court of exchequer, ſo termed from the ancient mode of accounting upon a checquered board, decides all cauſes relating to the royal treaſury or revenue. See the article COURTS OF LAW, vol. v. p. 297—306.

For the more commodious and general diſtribution of juſtice, the kingdom is divided into ſix circuits, which are viſited by the judges in ſpring and autumn, when they ſit and determine all cauſes of importance, civil and criminal. See the article CIRCUIT, vol. iv. p. 610. The more minute caſes are determined by juſtices of the peace, who may be traced as far back as the fourth year of Edward III. Their office is chiefly to commit criminals to priſon, and to inſpect the execution of particular laws, relating to the poor, highways, peace, decorum, and orderly behaviour of alehouſe-keepers, labourers, artificers, &c. They have a commiſſion under the great ſeal, and the moſt reſpectable are ſtyled juſtices of the quorum, from the words in the commiſſion, *Quorum* A. B. *unum eſſe volumus*. The *cuſtos rotulorum*, or keeper of the rolls, produces them at the quarter ſeſſions, where the juſtices meet once in three months: the grand inqueſt, or jury of the county, is here ſummoned, which enquires concerning all crimes and miſdemeanours within its juriſdiction.

The office of ſheriff, or præfect of the county, is to execute the royal mandates, to impannel juries, to bring perſons to trial, and to ſee the ſentences executed, to collect fines, and remit them to the exchequer, and to preſerve the tranquillity of the ſhire. On the circuits he meets and attends the judges, with a gallant train of officers and ſervants. The ſheriffs are annually pricked with a golden needle, by the king, out of a liſt of ſix gentlemen of the county, drawn up by the judges.

The proteſtant religion forms the eſtabliſhed doctrine of the church of England, founded upon a moſt peculiar baſis, and truly characteriſtic of a moderate and judicious people. It is the only reformed church which has retained epiſcopacy in its ancient ſplendour: for though biſhops may alſo be found in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, &c. they are rather inſpectors of the conduct of the clergy, and of the modes of education, than prelates endowed with ſenatorial rank and dignity. In England, on the contrary, the biſhops are peers of parliament, and have the ſtyle and importance of nobility. Yet the creed of the Engliſh church is rather Calviniſtic than Lutheran. But the ſpecial tenets of the Engliſh church are ſufficiently explained in the thirty-nine articles.

The orders of biſhops, prieſts, and deacons, compoſe the body of the Engliſh clergy. Upon his diſpute with the pontiff, to avoid any claims whatever of ſuperiority, Henry VIII. aſſumed the title of ſupreme head of the national church, and iſſued ſeveral medallions with inſcriptions in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, to commemorate this new prerogative, which is, indeed, important, as it blends the eccleſiaſtic with the civil adminiſtration. Next in dignity and power to the king, are the archbiſhops of Canterbury and York. The firſt is ſtyled primate of all England, and precedes all perſons except the royal family. The archbiſhop of York is alſo ſtyled primate of England, but in prerogative and juriſdiction yields to the firſt metropolitan. The archiepiſcopal office is rather a dignity than a juriſdiction, and the primates rarely interfere in any dioceſe except their own. They are appointed by the king, in the ſame manner as the biſhops, by what is called a *congé d'élire*.

The biſhops ordain deacons and prieſts, dedicate churches and burial grounds, and adminiſter confirmation. In former times, epiſcopal juriſdiction extended to the licenſing of phyſicians, ſurgeons, and ſchoolmaſters, and to the uniting of ſmall pariſhes. At preſent, it chiefly embraces queſtions of births, marriages, deaths, and teſtaments, and any delinquencies of the clergy; to which body, indeed, their attention is now chiefly confined, and they rarely, except in parliament, interfere in ſecular ſubjects. The biſhop of Sodor and Man has no place in parliament. All the other biſhops are barons, and peers of the realm, by three different claims; in right of the baronies attached to their ſees, as barons ſummoned by writ, and as barons by patent; a form which accompanies their conſecration. Their privileges approach the regal; they are the ſole judges in their own courts, and iſſue writs in their own names, not in the royal ſtyle uſed by other courts. They can depute their authority, which no other judge can; and their epiſcopal power of conferring orders, &c. may be exerted in any Chriſtian country, while lay peers are only acknowledged in the country whence they derive their dignities. For the particular functions and privileges of the archbiſhops and biſhops, and number of biſhoprics, with their value in the king's books, and the era of their foundation, ſee vol. ii. p. 46, 47. Vol. iii. p. 65—68. Vol. iv. p. 660. Vol. v. p. 290, 300, 629, and 833.

Thoſe who differ in tenets or forms from the eſtabliſhed church of England, may, in general, be ſtyled diſſenters; though the term be more ſtrictly applied to the preſbyterians and independents. The other principal claſſes of diſſidents, are the catholics, methodiſts, quakers, anabaptiſts, Swedenborgians, and unitarians; the laſt claſs deny the trinity, and believe only in one God. Upon the whole, it muſt be admitted as a ſtriking feature of the Engliſh government, that as far as prudence and diſcretion goes, after contemplating its political hiſtory, it has no diſpoſition to fetter men's minds, but allows an ample toleration, and the free and uninterrupted exerciſe of their religion, to diſſenters of every kind.

ARMY AND NAVY.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitutions of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons. It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers. See p. 550. In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Wincheſter obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed

by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Philip and Mary, c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice: but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual, from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5th of Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Philip and Mary, c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger. Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia, now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which, is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom; the militia, however, cannot be called forth and embodied but by an act of the legiſlature.

But, as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years, (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourſe to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe,) it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces of theſe kingdoms, in the time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, ſince the commencement of the preſent war, 139,000 men, beſides 60,000 militia. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and ſoldier ſhall excite or join in any mutiny, or knowing of it ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer; or ſhall deſert, or liſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer, or ſhall diſobey his lawful command; ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court-martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

Officers and ſoldiers that have been in the king's ſervice, are, by ſeveral ſtatutes enacted at the cloſe of ſeveral wars, at liberty to uſe any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom, (except the two univerſities,) notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter, to the contrary. And ſoldiers, in actual military ſervice, may make verbal wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other caſes.

At the breaking out of the preſent war, an invaſion of this country by the French being daily expected, an act was brought in for the defence of the kingdom, commonly called the General Defence Act, by which all the effective men were made liable to be called out in claſſes, enrolled, and exerciſed in their pariſhes, or otherwiſe, ſo as to be ready to march in caſe of actual invaſion. But the law was not acted upon, in conſequence of the public ſpirit of the nation, which induced perſons to come forward *voluntarily*, ſo as to anſwer every intent required by the defence act. The liſts however were made out, in caſe it ſhould hereafter be neceſſary to enforce the act; and by the abſtract laid before the houſe of commons, in June, 1804, it appears that the following are the total numbers of each claſs:

Number in 1ſt claſs effective	552,619
——— in 2d claſs effective	138,752
——— in 3d claſs effective	315,653
——— in 4th claſs effective	794,291
Voluntary ſervice	482,761
Army, marines, volunteer corps, ſea fencibles	176,780
Clergy, licenſed teachers, medical men, and conſtables	29,878
Infirm	118,322
Total	2,609,056

And in the houſe of commons, in the month of April, 1804, Mr. Addington, then chancellor of the exchequer, ſtated our army in round numbers, as follows:

Regulars, including militia and cavalry	184,000
Volunteers	400,000
Total	584,000

The maritime ſtate is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty: and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all the marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that even in the reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of thirty-three ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute called the Navigation-act; whereby the conſtant

increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with any Engliſh plantations, without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Charles II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects. The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have formerly amounted to 80,000 men; and, after the commencement of the preſent war, they amounted to 102,000 men, including marines, which was 2000 beyond the number voted by parliament.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

Many laws have been made for the ſupply of the royal navy with ſeamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them, during and after the ſervice.

1. For their ſupply. The power of impreſſing men, for the ſea ſervice, by the king's commiſſion, has been a matter of ſome diſpute, and ſubmitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very learnedly been ſhewn by ſir Michael Forſter, that the practice of impreſſing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpoſe, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular ſeries of precedents, to the preſent time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty ariſes from hence, that no ſtatute, or act of parliament, has expreſsly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very ſtrongly imply it. It has alſo been ſuppoſed, that a practice ſo unfavourable to the liberty of the ſubject, and to common principles of juſtice and humanity, could not be ſolidly ſupported without ſome clear, poſitive, and unequivocal, law. Beſides this method of impreſſing, (which even if legal, is only defenſible from public neceſſity, ſuch as an actual rebellion or invaſion of the kingdom, to which all private conſiderations muſt give way,) the principal trading cities, and ſometimes the government, offer bounty money to ſeamen who enter voluntarily into his majeſty's ſervice; and every foreign ſeamen who, during a war, ſhall ſerve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipſo facto*.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, articles, and orders, firſt enacted by the authority of parliament, ſoon after the reſtoration; but new modelled and altered ſince the peace of Aix la Chapelle, to remedy ſome defects which were of fatal conſequence in conducting the preceding war. In theſe articles of the navy, almoſt every poſſible offence is ſet down, and the puniſhment thereof annexed; in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice, whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are pretty much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed, or wounded, or ſuperannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates, or from the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; they are alſo allowed the exerciſe of trades in corporations, and the power of making teſtaments; and, further, no ſeamen on-board his majeſty's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs the ſame be ſworn to amount to at leaſt twenty pounds; though, by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value, but not for leſs amount.

We ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act, that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer, who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. Thoſe civil magiſtrates who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are, however, extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or upon any commotion whatever: and, indeed with good reaſon; for, the frequent employment of the military power, in a free government, is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with two much caution.

The following is a ſtatement of the numbers and diſtribution of the Britiſh naval force, in Auguſt, 1804, excluſive of the hired armed veſſels, which are chiefly employed in protecting the coaſting trade.

	Line.	50 to 44.	Frigates	Slps, &c.	Total
In Port and fitting	11	4	26	69	110
Guard-ſhips	6	3	7	4	20
In the Engliſh & Iriſh Channels	31	2	26	72	131
On the Downs and North-Sea Stations	13	5	20	115	153
At the Weſt-India Iſlands, and on the Paſſage	2	2	14	23	41
On the Jamaica Station	6	0	10	21	37
American and Newfoundland Stations	0	2	5	1	8
Cape of Good Hope, Eaſt Indies, and on the Paſſage	9	3	9	7	28
Coaſt of Africa	0	0	1	1	2
Spain, Portugal, & Gibraltar	4	0	1	3	8
Mediterranean, and on Paſſage	12	0	15	14	41
Hoſpital and Priſon Ships	12	1	3	0	16
Total in Commiſſion	106	22	137	330	595
Receiving Ships	5	2	5	0	12
Serviceable, and repairing for Service	10	3	5	5	23
In Ordinary	51	11	44	19	125
Building	15	0	23	48	86
Totals	187	38	214	402	841

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, PUBLIC REVENUE, AND PRESENT STATE.

It was not till the reign of queen Elizabeth, that the commerce of England firſt began to make a figure in the trade of Europe. In the ſecond year of her reign, the queen cauſed gunpowder to be made in England, which, till this time, had been ſupplied by the German Steel-yard company; ſhe alſo cauſed braſs and iron ordnance to be caſt, and built a conſiderable number of ſhips of war, forming the moſt important fleet that England had ever ſeen; inſomuch, that foreigners ſtyled her "the reſterer of naval glory, and queen of the northern ſeas." Her wealthieſt merchants alſo, after her example, began to build ſhips with great alacrity; and, on any emergency, readily joined them with the national fleet, which enabled her to ſend out twenty thouſand fighting men for ſea ſervice. Amidſt this proſperity, it was no ſmall mortification to the queen, that, having no military ſtores of her own production, ſhe was ſtill neceſſitated to obtain them of the German Steel-yard merchants, at their own prices, there being then but few Engliſh merchants dealing in that way; and this was one of her greateſt inducements for encouraging commercial companies amongſt her own ſubjects. To ſhew that this period was but the dawning of the day of Britiſh commerce, we may here remark, that queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, was preſented, by her ſilk woman, Mrs. Montague, with a pair of black knit ſilk ſtockings, the firſt of the ſort known in England; and thenceforth ſhe never wore cloth ones any more. Dr. Howell, in his Hiſtory of the World, relates, that Henry VIII. that magnificent and expenſive prince, generally wore cloth hoſe, except there came from Spain, by great chance, a pair of ſilk ſtockings; for Spain very early abounded in ſilk. His ſon, Edward VI. was preſented with a pair of long Spaniſh ſilk ſtockings by ſir Thomas Greſham; and the preſent was much taken notice of at court. From henceforward, not only trade and commerce, but every ſpecies of domeſtic convenience and national advantage, was wiſely and liberally promoted. The manufacture of alum was alſo, in 1608, firſt invented, and ſucceſsfully practiſed in England, under the patronage of James I. by lord Sheffield and ſir John Bourchier, who opened manufactories of this article in Yorkſhire, and warehouſes in London, which were greatly encouraged by government. The king alſo, in 1610, built the largeſt and fineſt ſhip of war, that ever England had before ſeen, carrying ſixty-four cannon, and of fourteen hundred tons burthen. Thus, we may in part ſee, by what gradual ſteps the royal navy of England arrived at its preſent magnitude and grandeur.

The commerce of the world being in perpetual fluctuation, we can never be too watchful, not only for preſerving the invaluable portion we are now in poſſeſſion of, but for availing ourſelves of the miſtakes or negligences of other nations, in order to acquire new branches of it. See the article COMMERCE, vol. iv. p. 856. Who could have imagined, three hundred years ago, that thoſe ports of the Levant, from whence, by means of the Venetians, England, and almoſt all the reſt of Chriſtendom, were ſupplied with the ſpices, drugs, &c. of India and China, ſhould one day come themſelves to be ſupplied with thoſe very articles by the remote countries of England and Holland, at an eaſier rate than they were uſed to have them directly from the eaſt? or, that Venice ſhould afterwards loſe to Liſbon the lucrative trade of ſupplying the reſt of Europe with them? or, laſtly, that Liſbon ſhould afterwards loſe the ſame to Amſterdam: or that Amſterdam and Haerlem ſhould gradually loſe, as in great part they have done, their famous fine linen manufactures to Ireland and Scotland? At preſent, our woollen manufacture is the nobleſt in the univerſe; and ſecond to it is our metallic manufacture of iron, ſteel, tin, copper, lead, and braſs, which is ſuppoſed to employ upwards of half a million of people. Our unmanufactured wool alone, of one year's produce or growth, has been lately eſtimated to be worth two millions of money ſterling; and, when manufactured it is valued at ſix millions more, and is thought to employ upwards of a million of our people in its manufacture; whereas in former times all our wool was exported to foreign countries unmanufactured, and our own people remained at home unemployed.

Our trade to the Eaſt Indies alone, conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. See EAST-INDIA COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 875. Without entering into the hiſtory of the trade, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of the peninſula of Aſia, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament; they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened in Hindooſtan, and the ambition or avarice of their ſervants and officers, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as render them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ſince the demolition of Carthage. For the Britiſh arms have lately been carried by generals Welleſley and Lake, further than ever Alexander the Great penetrated in India. Theſe happy ſucceſſes were followed by a peace ſigned between the Eaſt India company and the rajah of Berar, on the 17th of December, 1803; and with the chief of the Mahrattas on the 30th of the ſame month.

The manufactures and commerce of England at the preſent day, form ſo extenſive an income to the nation at large, and produce ſuch a conſiderable revenue by the cuſtoms and exciſe, that the unparalleled proſperity of the government ſeems to have ariſen in great meaſure from this unbounded ſource of wealth. Whenever money is wanted by the miniſter, the commercial men are applied to; and theſe *monied men*, as they are called, have it always ready to advance; be the millions what they may, of which the loan conſiſts; an evident proof of the riches ſtill acquired by individuals from trade and commerce, in ſpite of the heavy duties and taxes with which they are burthened. To trace the origin of our commerce, we muſt obſerve, that the earlieſt ſtaple commodity of England was tin, a metal rarely found in other countries. The Phœnicians at a very remote era firſt introduced it into commerce, and their extenſive trade ſoon diffuſed it among the Oriental nations. The Romans, upon their conqueſt of theſe regions, did not neglect this ſource of wealth; but as Cornwall was not conquered by the Anglo-Saxons till the reign of Athelſtan, we know not whether the Corniſh Briſons carried on any conſiderable traffic in this commodity, though it is probable that it was at leaſt exchanged for the wines of France. The ſingularity and importance of this firſt national ſtaple, has not been ſufficiently noticed by the Engliſh hiſtorians. Wool had been regarded as the grand ſtaple of England, as early as the twelfth century, but was chiefly exported in a crude ſtate, till Edward III. encouraged ſettlements of Flemiſh manufacturers. Wool then became the ſtandard of private property, and the prime article of commerce. Taxes and foreign ſubſidies were eſtimated by ſacks of this commodity. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanſe Towns; but queen Elizabeth cauſed it to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloths was then valued at a million and a half annually.

In recent times, the manufactures of iron and copper, as native minerals, have become great ſources of national wealth; nor ſhould the new and extenſive exportation of elegant porcelain be forgotten. The cotton manufacture is diffuſed far and wide, forming a grand ſource of national induſtry and proſperity. That of linen is not ſo much cultivated in England as in Ireland and Scotland; though nature would rather demand that flax ſhould be more cultivated in this fertile country, while ſheep and wool were reſtricted to the alpine paſtures of Scotland. The

manufactures of glafs and fine fteel, clocks, watches, &c. are defervedly eminent and extenfive. As the nation is indebted to Wedgewood for converting clay into gold, fo to the engraving artifts we owe another elegant branch of modern exportation, that of beautiful prints.

The Englifh manufactures, in their prefent ftate, are eftimated at the annual value of 63,600,000l. and are fuppofed to employ 1,585,000 perfons. Of thefe the woollen manufacture is fuppofed to yield in round fums, 15,000,000l. the leather 10,000,000l. the iron, tin, and lead 10,000,000l. the cotton 9,000,000l. The other chief manufactures, which yield from 1 to 4,000,000l. may be thus arranged, according to their confequence, fteel, plating, &c. copper and brafs, filk, potteries, linen and flax, hemp, glafs, paper.

The commerce of England, in the prefent period, may be faid to extend to every region of the globe. It was conceived that the defection of the American colonies, would have proved detrimental in this view; but the commercial confequences have been more beneficial; which ftrongly proves the aflertion of Dr. Adam Smith, "that a free trade is ever moft productive." The trade with the Weft Indies furnifhes another grand refource; while that with the eaftern world would have aftonifhed the moft celebrated trading cities of antiquity. The following Table will prefent a more complete epitome of the fubject, than could otherwife be conveyed. It fhews, at one view, the progreffive increafe of the Exports and Imports of Great Britain for the whole of the laft century.

YEARS.	IMPORTS. £.	s.	d.	EXPORTS. £.	s.	d.
1700	5,970,175	1	10	7,302,716	8	7
1701	5,869,606	9	10	7,621,053	6	5
1702	4,159,304	16	0	5,235,874	0	5
1703	4,526,596	11	1	6,644,103	6	0
1704	5,383,200	16	5	6,552,019	18	2
1705	4,031,649	14	10	5,501,677	11	2
1706	4,113,933	3	3	6,512,086	17	1
1707	4,274,055	10	4	6,767,178	8	6
1708	4,698,663	11	8	6,969,089	19	1
1709	4,510,593	11	8	6,627,045	17	6
1710	4,011,341	7	4	6,590,828	15	2
1711	4,685,785	17	7	6,447,170	16	3
1712	4,454,682	11	6	7,468,857	5	1
1713	5,811,077	16	6	7,352,655	12	2
1714	5,929,227	0	8	8,361,638	3	3
1715	5,640,943	16	5	7,379,409	0	8
1716	5,800,258	7	8	7,614,085	6	11
1717	6,346,768	1	6	9,147,700	2	4
1718	6,669,390	1	1	8,255,302	14	5
1719	5,367,499	8	3	7,709,528	1	7
1720	6,090,083	15	1	7,936,728	16	6
1721	5,768,510	16	7	8,681,200	17	4
1722	6,378,098	19	1	9,630,789	17	10
1723	6,505,676	6	8	9,489,811	16	7
1724	7,394,405	2	5	9,143,356	12	7
1725	7,094,708	8	6	11,352,480	11	4
1726	6,677,865	13	4	9,406,731	10	10
1727	6,798,908	4	2	9,553,043	18	3
1728	7,569,299	1	9	11,631,383	1	11
1729	7,540,620	10	5	11,475,771	16	8
1730	7,780,019	9	2	11,974,135	14	11
1731	6,991,500	3	11	11,167,380	10	6
1732	7,087,914	5	0	11,786,658	13	0
1733	8,016,814	2	2	11,777,306	6	7
1734	7,095,861	8	4	11,000,645	2	2
1735	8,160,184	0	11	13,544,144	7	0
1736	7,307,966	12	10	11,616,356	10	2
1737	7,073,638	3	6	11,842,320	17	0
1738	7,438,960	4	7	12,289,495	7	1
1739	7,829,373	8	11	9,495,366	14	3
1740	6,703,778	10	6	8,869,939	15	5
1741	7,936,084	18	7	11,469,872	8	2
1742	6,866,864	13	0	11,584,427	2	4
1743	7,802,353	6	6	14,623,653	9	6
1744	6,362,971	6	6	11,429,628	10	3
1745	7,847,123	3	3	10,497,329	17	0
1746	6,205,687	15	8	11,360,792	16	2
1747	7,116,757	5	6	11,442,049	1	6
1748	8,136,408	19	6	12,351,433	12	11
1749	7,917,804	10	4	14,099,366	11	0
1750	7,772,039	12	5	15,132,004	3	1
1751	7,943,436	4	5	13,967,811	8	7
1752	7,889,369	9	3	13,221,116	3	11
1753	8,625,029	4	3	14,264,614	3	11
1754	8,093,472	15	0	13,396,853	9	7
1755	8,772,865	2	10	12,182,255	17	6
1756	7,961,603	8	10	12,517,640	8	3
1757	9,253,317	14	9	13,438,285	1	0
1758	8,415,025	4	10	15,034,994	10	7
1759	8,922,976	1	4	14,696,892	7	1
1760	9,832,802	11	1	15,579,073	0	5
1761	9,543,901	14	4	16,365,953	0	7
1762	8,870,234	14	3	14,134,093	3	6
1763	11,665,036	0	9	16,160,181	16	3
1764	10,364,307	12	3	16,512,403	16	3
1765	10,889,742	13	10	14,550,507	1	8
1766	11,475,775	5	8	14,024,964	2	8
1767	12,073,956	0	11	13,844,511	1	
1768	11,878,661	2	7	15,117,982	16	1
1769	11,908,560	16	5	13,438,236	6	11
1770	12,216,937	14	3	14,266,653	17	5
1771	12,821,995	16	9	17,161,146	14	2
1772	14,508,715	16	9	18,732,379	5	8
1773	12,522,643	7	0	16,654,052	5	8
1774	14,548,902	16	1	17,607,447	4	0
1775	14,816,955	17	2	16,946,523	18	4
1776	12,449,189	17	11	15,685,107	16	7
1777	12,643,834	7	8	14,152,243	6	1
1778	10,975,533	1	0	12,375,712	12	11
1779	11,435,263	13	5	13,597,771	4	2
1780	11,714,967	7	11	13,689,073	12	6
1781	12,723,613	16	1	11,470,388	14	8
1782	10,341,628	15	6	13,224,637	10	11
1783	13,122,235	7	6	15,450,778	12	9
1784	15,272,802	0	3	14,961,074	11	9
1785	16,279,490	1	6	16,770,239	7	9
1786	15,786,072	7	5	16,300,730	12	5
1787	17,804,024	16	1	18,296,166	12	11
1790	19,130,886	0	0	20,120,121	0	0
1791	19,669,782	13	7	22,731,995	7	3
1792	19,659,358	6	7	24,905,200	3	5
1793	19,256,717	9	8	20,390,180	6	10
1794	22,288,894	0	5	26,748,083	8	10
1795				27,270,553	2	5
1796				30,424,184	0	0
1797	21,013,000	0	0	28,917,000	0	0
1799	25,000,000	0	0	33,000,000	0	0
1800	29,925,000	0	0	39,471,203	0	0
1801	30,000,000	0	0	44,770,354	0	0
1802	30,300,000	0	0	48,500,663	0	0

The net produce of the Duties of Cuftoms, for three years, ending the 5th of January, 1802, was as follows:

1799	£8,556,598	8	3½
1800	8,125,036	19	5
1801	8,804,226	4	11

The aggregate value of goods imported into London in one year . . .	£29,706,476	17	4
Britifh manufactures exported	11,396,539	13	8
Foreign merchandize do.	14,208,925	14	6
Value of goods imported in upwards of 9000 coafting veffels, averaged at 500l. each	4,500,000	0	0
Value of goods exported coaftways in about 7000 veffels, at 1000l. each .	7,000,000	0	0
Total amount of property fhipped and unfhipped in the river Thames, in the courfe of a year, is thus eftimated at	£66,811,942	5	6

If

If to this eſtimate be added thoſe of the ports of Liverpool, Briſtol, &c. how enormous muſt be the amount!

On the introduction of the income tax, in the year 1798, Mr. Pitt gave the following eſtimate of the annual rental of Great Britain:

The land rental, after deducting one-fifth	£20,000,000
Tenant's rental of land, deducting two-thirds of the rack-rent	6,000,000
Amount of tythes, deducting one-fifth	4,000,000
Produce of mines, canal navigation, &c. deducting one-fifth	3,000,000
Rental of houſes, deducting one-fifth	5,000,000
Profits of profeſſions	2,000,000
Rental of Scotland, taking it at one-eighth of that of England	5,000,000
Income of perſons reſident in Great-Britain, drawn from poſſeſſions beyond the ſeas	5,000,000
Amount of annuities from the public funds, after deducting one-fifth for exemptions and modifications	12,000,000
Profits on the capital employed in our foreign commerce	12,000,000
Profits on the capital in domeſtic trade, and the profits of ſkill and induſtry	28,000,000
Total	£102,000,000

By others, the landed property of Great Britain has been computed at the rental of 33,000,000l. which, at thirty years purchaſe, would yield 990,000,000l.; the rental of houſes in England and Wales, at 7,436,000l. and eſtimating that of Scotland at about a ſixth, the value at fifteen years purchaſe, might be about 130,000,000l. The cattle and farming-ſtock, about 100,000,000l. the furniture, apparel, &c. 26,000,000l. The navy and merchant-ſhips have been valued at 16,000,000l.; the goods in the hands of merchants and wholeſale dealers, more than 13,000,000l. and thoſe in the hands of manufacturers and retail traders, more than 22,000,000l. Including the money, of which the eſtimate is far from certain, the whole capital of Great Britain may be calculated at more than one thouſand two hundred millions. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, Gregory King eſtimated the value of England and Wales at 650,000,000l. *MS. Harl.* No. 1,898. Againſt the preceding rental and total valuation, is to be placed the national debt, which is now (July, 1804,) 484,162,622l. 7s. 3¾d.

The national debt, is the principal money due from the government to the public, borrowed through the medium of the joint ſtock companies, to anſwer the immediate exigencies of the ſtate. In order to trace the origin of this debt, we muſt recollect, that after the revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree; inſomuch that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould cruſh the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to mortgage the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed; by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time, and in any quantity. A ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its origin in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000l. ſterling; and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically, a mount or bank; the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtock. This laid the foundation of what is called the national debt: and the example then ſet, has been ſo cloſely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince her time to the preſent, that its amount is become a moſt enormous ſum. In order that every reader may form a competent idea of this intereſting ſubject, we ſhall ſtate its progreſs.

In the year 1740, immediately before the commencement of the war, the principal money of the national debt amounted to	£46,382,650
In 1749, immediately after the war	78,166,906
Diminiſhed by the peace from 1749 to 1755	3,089,641
Amount at the beginning of the war, in 1755	75,077,264
At the termination of that war, in 1763	122,603,336
In the year 1786, it was	266,755,203
In 1793	227,989,000
In 1801, excluſive of imperial loan, &c.	400,709,000
In July, 1804	481,162,622

The intereſt of which is 16,045,691l. annually.

The certain revenues of the kings of England, were anciently greater than thoſe of any king in Europe; and till the time of the civil wars, they enjoyed in domains and fee-farm rents almoſt enough to diſcharge all the ordinary expences of the crown, without any tax or impoſition on the ſubject. The revenues which the Britiſh conſtitution hath veſted in the royal perſon, in order to ſupport his dignity, and maintain his power, are either *ordinary* or *extraordinary*; and of the ordinary revenues there are four of an eccleſiaſtical kind: as, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. Theſe corodies are due of common right, but are now diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt-fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that thoſe four branches afford little or no revenue. The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c. Such is the king's ordinary revenue, or the proper patrimony of the crown, which was formerly of a magnitude truly formidable; but, fortunately for the liberty of the ſubject, this *hereditary landed revenue* is now ſunk almoſt to nothing; and the caſual profits, ariſing from the other branches of the *cenſus regalis*, are likewiſe moſt of them alienated from the crown. In order to ſupply the deficiencies of which, we have now recourſe to methods of raiſing money, which conſtitute the king's *extraordinary* revenue; which are called by the ſynonymous names of aids, ſubſidies, ſupplies, &c. and are granted by the commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled; and that part which goes to the maintenance of the royal perſon, with all its contingencies, is called the *civil liſt*. Theſe contingent expences are all thoſe which in any ſhape relate to civil government; ſuch as the expences of the houſehold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous out-goings; as ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other gratuities. Hence the *civil liſt* is properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity;

city; the reſt being rather the revenue of the nation; ſeeing his preſent majeſty, ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, ſpontaneouſly reſigned his own hereditary revenues into the hands of the public, and accepted in lieu of them the ſpecific ſum of 800,000l. per annum; ſo that the hereditary revenues are now carried into, and made part of the annual income of the country; and as 800,000l. was found barely ſufficient to ſupport the ſtate and dignity of the ſovereign, an additional 100,000l. has ſince been added to it; ſo that the *civil liſt*, or income of the king, is now 900,000l. per annum, which is always provided in the annual taxes and ſupplies. The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt tax, being an annual exciſe upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry. The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5 The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions; with a variety of new taxes ſince impoſed. The clear net produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is called *The annual revenue of the nation*, out of which is paid the intereſt of the different ſtocks compoſing the national debt, the civil liſt, the navy, ordnance, and army expenditures, and every other ſpecies of claim that can be made upon the the public. To illuſtrate this ſubject more extenſively, we have ſubjoined the following correct ſtatement of the annual income of the nation, calculated from the average of ſeven years receipts and diſburſements, as delivered in by the ſelect committee of finance, to the houſe of commons.

The INCOME, or net produce of the *permanent taxes*, (excluſive of land and malt,) exiſting *previous* to 5th January, 1793, was,

In the year ending	5th January, 1793 . .	£14,284,000
	on 5th January, 1794 . .	13,941,000
	on 5th January, 1795 . .	13,858,000
	on 5th January, 1796 . .	13,557,000
	on 5th January, 1797 . .	14,292,000
	on 5th January, 1798 . .	13,332,000
	on 5th January, 1799 . .	14,275,000
	on 5th January, 1800 . .	15,743,109
	on 5th January, 1801 . .	14,194,539
	on 5th January, 1802 . .	14,497,226
	on 5th January, 1803 . .	15,425,000
	and on 5th January, 1804 . .	14,900,000

The *total* net produce of the permanent taxes, in the year ending 5th January, 1803, amounted to 28,246,681l. and, on the 5th January, 1804, the total net produce of the permanent taxes amounted to 30,754,724l. Add to either of theſe ſums 2,750,000l. for the *annual taxes* of land and malt, and the income or revenue of the nation for that year will be ſeen.

Recapitulation reſpecting the Conſolidated Fund, and the net produce of the Permanent Taxes of Great Britain, for the year 1804, from Mr. Pitt's financial ſtatements in July, 1804.

	£.	s.	d.
Total Income of the Conſolidated Fund, in the year ended 5th Jan. 1804, was	31,862,961	15	3¼
Total of the actual Payments out of the Conſolidated Fund, for the year ended 5th Jan. 1804, was	26,700,533	1	3¼
The future Annual Charge upon that Fund, as it ſtood on the 5th Jan. 1804, amounts to	26,433,874	0	7
The Total Amount of the net Produce of Permanent Taxes, in the year ended 5th Jan. 1803	28,246,681	0	0
Ditto, ditto, in the year ended 5th Jan. 1804	30,754,700	0	0
Total of the Capital redeemed by the Commiſſioners for liquidating the National Debt of Great Britain, from 1ſt Aug. 1786, to 1ſt Feb. 1804	77,698,467	0	0
For which redemption the total of ſums paid was	49,243,965	10	8
Total of Debt unredeemed 1ſt Feb. 1804	484,162,622	7	3¾
Total of Sums annually applicable to the reduction of the Public Debt of Great Britain	6,851,192	0	0
Total Amount of the Public Debt of Ireland redeemed to the 1ſt Feb. 1804	1,595,671	0	0
Total Sums paid for its Redemption	983,631	6	9
Total unredeemed 1ſt Feb. 1804 . .	43,000,000	0	0
On the 20th of June 1804, it was . .	52,500,000	0	0
Total Sums annually applicable to reduction of ditto	305,230	1	10
Total Amount of the Imperial Debt redeemed, 1ſt Feb. 1804	459,828	0	0
Total Sum paid for its Redemption	265,939	4	2
Total Debt unredeemed, 1ſt Feb. 1804	7,042,805	0	0
Sum annually applicable for its Redemption	50,487	16	9

The national EXPENDITURE, during the undermentioned years, under the heads of Intereſt and Charges of the National Debt; Intereſt of Exchequer Bills; Civil Liſt; Charges on the Aggregate and Conſolidated Funds; Navy; Army; Ordnance; Militia; Miſcellaneous Services; and Appropriated Duties, was as follows:

For the year 1786	£15,720,543
1787	15,620,783
1788	15,800,796
1789	16,030,204
1790	15,912,597
1804	33,700,679

The amount voted for the Service of the preſent Year 1804.

Navy (excluſive of 325,000l. Ordnance Sea Service)		£11,715,000
Army (England)	£15,256,000	
—— (Ireland)	3,887,000	
		19,143,000
Ordnance (England)	3,693,000	
—— (Ireland)	369,000	
		4,062,000
Vote of Credit, including 800,000l. for Ireland		2,500,000
Miſcellaneous (England) including 40,000l. for Services not yet voted	617,000	
Ditto (Ireland) including 50,000l. to be voted for Civil Contingencies	266,000	
		883,000
Iriſh Permanent Grants		400,000
Joint Charge of England and Ireland		38,703,000
Add England ſeparate Charges.		
Toulonese Ships	£ 265,000	
Deficiency of Malt Duty, 1802 . .	115,000	
American Awards	412,000	
Exchequer Bills, V. C. 1803 . .	1,500,000	
		2,292,000
Total Supplies		40,995,000
Deduct on Account of Ireland . .		4,711,652
On Account of England .		36,283,348

Ways

Ways and Means to provide for the same.

Malt Duty		£ 750,000
Duty on Penſions, Offices, &c.		2,000,000
Surplus, Ways and Means, 1803		1,370,000
War Taxes, to April 5, 1805.		
Cuſtoms and Exciſe	£ 8,200,000	
Property Tax	7,000,000	
	15,200,000	
Deduct, wanting to complete Grants, 1803	760,000	
	14,440,000	
Additional War Taxes, on Wine, Imports, Stamps	1,000,000	
		15,440,000
Surplus Conſolidated Fund, to April 5, 1805		5,000,000
Lottery		250,000
Vote of Credit		1,700,000
Loan		10,000,000
		36,510,000

That ſuch ſums ſhould be ſo eaſily raiſed, and ſo little felt, by the bulk of the people, can only be accounted for from the unbounded extent of the Britiſh commerce, and the increaſing population of the country. Hence the population of England, as in moſt other countries, becomes the beſt criterion of its proſperity and power. It has generally been eſtimated at eight millions; but ſome writers raiſe it to a much greater amount. That of the city of London has been ſwelled to a million, though reduced by more preciſe calculations to about ſeven hundred thouſand.

The cuſtoms and manners of the people of England, have always been remarked and admired for their frankneſs and ſimplicity. The plainneſs and neatneſs of their dreſs, devoid of ermin, furbelow, and gold lace, avoided by every gentleman, except on court-days and extraordinary occaſions, is no leſs ſurpriſing to the gaudy foreigner, than the ſplendid plainneſs of the muſlin dreſſes of the ladies, who have long abandoned the tight unnatural form, ſo prejudicial to health, and have aſſumed much of the Grecian eaſe and elegance.

The ſimplicity of the Engliſh cookery, alſo ſtrikes foreigners as much as that of the dreſs. A Frenchman drinks his wine during dinner; but the late Mr. Gibbon has juſtly remarked, that the luxury of a daily table in England, permits a gentleman to taſte half a dozen ſorts of wine during dinner, and to drink his bottle of claret afterwards. The red wine of Portugal is, however, a greater favourite than that of France, as its aſtringent and antiſeptic qualities, are found highly ſalutary in a moiſt climate. The houſes in England are peculiarly commodious, neat, and cleanly; and domeſtic architecture, as well as the grand and magnificent, ſeems to have arrived at the higheſt pitch of perfection.

The amuſements of the theatre and of the field, and various games of ſkill or chance, are common here, as in moſt other refined nations. Prior to the middle of the ſixteenth century, the Engliſh and French were alike regarded as barbarous nations by the more poliſhed Italians. But though the Engliſh literature was at that period confeſſedly in a rude and unpoliſhed ſtate, yet Engliſh integrity was even then conſidered as a genuine attribute of the people, and which has carried their credit and commerce to an extent before unknown in the hiſtory of nations.

The conſtruction of the Engliſh language is peculiar, and renders the ſtudy of it very difficult to foreigners. The German, and other Gothic dialects, preſent declenſions of nouns, and other correſpondencies with the Latin; while in the Engliſh all ſuch objects are accompliſhed by prefixes.—See the articles GRAMMAR and LANGUAGE. Anomalies alſo abound, and are too deeply rooted ever to be eradicated by grammatical rules; yet Engliſh literature is now become a vaſt and inviting ſource of information, amuſement, and delight.

The preſent ſtate of the arts in England, is highly worthy of ſo opulent and refined a country, and the progreſs has been rapid beyond example. The late Horace Walpole, earl of Orford, has delineated from the papers of the induſtrious Vertue, a pleaſing and animated picture of the hiſtory of the arts in this country, to which we feel great pleaſure in referring the inquiſitive reader. Education, too, forms one of the moſt important objects of an enlightened people; and it has been attended to accordingly, as the eſſence and well-being of the community. The education of the lower claſſes in England, had become extremely neglected, before the benevolent inſtitution of the ſunday ſchools. There can be no doubt that where the common people are the beſt inſtructed, there they will be found the moſt contented, orderly, and virtuous; as they feel a conſcious ſelf-reſpect, are accuſtomed to be treated with regard by each other, and will cheerfully extend the ſame reverential conduct towards their ſuperiors. A practical eſtimate of the advantages of general education, may be formed by comparing the neglected peaſantry of Ireland, with the peaceable and induſtrious Highlanders of Scotland, where public ſchools exiſt in every pariſh. The middle and higher ranks of Engliſh, much to their praiſe, ſpare no expence in the education of their children. The moſt eminent public ſchools, are thoſe of St. Paul's, Weſtminſter, Eton, and Winchester; and from them have ariſen ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed ornaments of this country. The ſcholars in due time proceed to the univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, foundations of an extent and grandeur that impreſs deſerved veneration.—See the article EDUCATION, in this volume.

The climate of England, though perhaps more variable than that of any other country on the globe, occaſioned by the drying winds of the eaſtern continent oppoſing ſo vehemently the vapours of the Atlantic Ocean; yet its vegetable productions, from the great improvements made in horticulture and huſbandry, are more than ample for all the demands of home conſumption, and are excellent in their kinds. The tender wall-fruits, however, are very ſubject to fail, from the great prevalence of that moſt undefinable of evils, called the *blight*; for the ſuppoſed cauſes of which ſee vol. iii. p. 110.—The humidity of the climate, indeed, clothes the face of the country with a rich and luxuriant verdure; but it is injurious to the health of the inhabitants, by cauſing colds and catarrhs, the frequent ſources of conſumptions, which are fatal to many of the Engliſh in the prime of youth. The moiſt and foggy climate alſo conſpires with the great uſe of animal food, to produce that melancholic reſerve which is eſteemed by foreigners a national characteriſtic. In conſequence of the mutability of the climate, the ſeaſons too are always more or leſs uncertain. Many obſervers, endowed with philoſophical ſkill and candid judgment, have agreed, that ſince the year 1775, a conſiderable change ſeems to have taken place in the temperature of the ſeaſons both in Great Britain and Ireland. The winters in general have been more moiſt and mild, and the ſummers more humid and more cold, than will be found on an average of preceding years. What is called the ſpring, dawns in April, commonly indeed a mild month; but the eaſtern winds ſtill prevalent in May, ſeem commiſſioned to ruin the efforts of reviving nature, and nip the tender buds and fruits. June, July, Auguſt, and September, are uſually warm ſummer months; but a night of froſt is not unknown even in Auguſt, and ſometimes a cold eaſt wind will then blow for ſeveral days together; nor of late years are ſummers unknown of almoſt conſtant rain. The winter may be ſaid to commence with the beginning of October, at which time domeſtic fires become neceſſary; but there is ſeldom any ſevere froſt till Chriſtmas, and January is the moſt ſtern month of the year. Yet, as our ſummers often produce

ſpecimens of winter, ſo now and then gleams of warm ſunſhine illuminate the darker months. However, under all the inconveniences of our climate, it appears not that the human ſpecies in any country can boaſt of greater happineſs or longevity than the people of England; or that the comforts of life, or bleſſings of plenty, are enjoyed under the ſolace of ſofter climes with more heart-felt gratification and domeſtic felicity than in this country. Even thoſe ſucceſsful adventurers who acquire princely fortunes, we know not how, in the luxuriant regions of Aſia, fatigued with the toils of ſtate, and ſatiated with the voluptuous pleaſures of Hindooſtan, return with anxious haſte to the ſterner climate of England, to ſeek that more ſolid and rational enjoyment, which they have ſought in vain amongſt foreign nations.

London, the capital of England, may now with truth be called the METROPOLIS OF THE WORLD; ſince no city at this time exiſting can be compared with it in magnitude, riches, ſplendid ſtreets and ſquares, magnificent architecture, trade, or commerce, which is extended into almoſt every known region of the univerſe. Many others of the towns and cities of England juſtly merit regard for their magnitude, opulence, induſtry, and elegance. Briſtol for its manufactures and foreign trade ranks high, as does Bath for its ſuperior magnificence; while York, Liverpool, Mancheſter, Birmingham, Sheffield, Nottingham, Exeter, Saliſbury, Winchester, Portſmouth, Plymouth, Southampton, Poole, Canterbury, Hereford, Glouceſter, Worceſter, Coventry, Shrewſbury, Norwich, Newcaſtle, Yarmouth, Lincoln, Cheſter, Lancaſter, Hull, Leeds, Durham, Carliſle, Whitehaven, Brighthelmſtone, Lewes, Dorcheſter, Weymouth, Newport in the Iſle of Wight, &c. are celebrious in various ways, as particularized under each of their reſpective heads in this work. Thoſe which are ſea-ports, moſtly enjoy an extenſive and increaſing commerce; whilſt thoſe which are inland, and noted for their valuable mineral productions and manufactures, are extremely benefited and enriched by the great extenſion of inland navigation through every part of the kingdom.—See CANAL NAVIGATION, vol. iii. p. 675.

The bulk of the Engliſh people have received from different hiſtorians, as much praiſe for their united induſtry, hoſpitality, and orderly deportment, as for their magnanimity and unſhaken courage in times of danger. Many and various have alſo been the general characteriſtic features drawn of the Engliſh nation; the neateſt of which, we think, is that of Dr. Wendeborn, a German author, in his "View of England at the cloſe of the Eighteenth Century;" and, falling from the pen of a foreigner, devoid alike of prejudice and predilection, would appear moſt juſt. "In my opinion, (ſays this writer,) the Engliſh, of all cultivated nations, approach the neareſt to what man, in reality, ought to be; and this, I think, is their chief characteriſtic."

EN'GLAND (New). See NEW ENGLAND.

EN'GLE, *ſ.* [from the French *engluer*, to catch with birdlime.] A gull, a put, a bubble, a ſnare. *Hanmer.*

EN'GLECERY, or ENGLESCHIRE, *ſ.* [*Engleceria*, Lat.] In our ancient laws, a word ſignifying the being an *Engliſhman*. When Canute the Dane came to be king of *England*, he at the requeſt of the nobility ſent back his army into *Denmark*, but kept ſome Danes to be a guard to his perſon; and he made a law for the preſervation of his Danes (who were often privately made away with by the Engliſh), that if an *Engliſhman* killed a Dane, he ſhould be tried for the murder; or if he eſcaped, the town or hundred where the fact was done, was to be amerced ſixty-ſix marks to the king: ſo that after this law, whenever a murder was committed, it was neceſſary to prove the party ſlain to be an Engliſhman, that the town might be exempted from the amercement; which proof was called *Englecery*, or *Engleſchire*. And whereas, if a perſon were privately ſlain, he was in ancient time accounted *Francigena*, which word comprehended every alien, eſpecially the Danes: it was therefore ordained, that where any perſon was murdered, he ſhould be adjudged *Francigena*, unleſs *Englecery* were proved, and that it was made manifeſt he was an Engliſhman. The manner of proving the perſon killed to be an Engliſhman, was by two witneſſes who knew the father and mother, before the coroner. *Fleta*, l. 1. c. 30. 7 *Rep.* 16. *Englecery*, by reaſon of the great abuſes and trouble that afterwards were perceived to grow by it, was utterly taken away by ſtat. 14 Edw. III. c. 4.

ENGLESQUEVIL'LE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Arques.

EN'GLISH, *adj.* [engleſ, Sax.] Belonging to England; thence *Engliſh* is the language of England. See the article LANGUAGE.

EN'GLISH, *ſ.* [the adj. by ellipſis, for] The Engliſh language.—I can ſpeak *Engliſh*, lord, as well as you. *Shakeſpeare.*—There are in *Engliſh* twenty-ſix letters. *Lowth.*

To EN'GLISH, *v. a.* To tranſlate into Engliſh.—The hollow inſtrument terebra, we may *engliſh* piercer. *Bacon.*

EN'GLISH BANK, a remarkable ſhoal in the Indian Ocean, is ſituate in lat. 17. 56. N. and lon. 39. 3. E.

EN'GLISH BAR, an extenſive ſand-bank on the weſt coaſt of France, called by the French *la Barre Anglois*, which runs off for near a league from Point Terre Negree towards Point de la Coubre, which are the two points of a large bay that affords anchorage in five fathoms water. It is on the north coaſt of the river of Bourdeaux, and almoſt north from the tower of Cordovan.

EN'GLISH BAY, a ſpacious bay on the weſt coaſt of the gulf of Manar, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated on the coaſt to the north-eaſt from Cape Comorin, or the ſouthern point of the peninſula of India. It is not far from the Dutch ſtation for carrying on the pearl fiſhery, and is formed by two points of land, projecting out in ſuch a manner as to ſhape a kind of baſon. Lat. 8. 45. N. lon. 76. 50. E.

EN'GLISH CHANNEL, all that ſpace of ſea which runs between the ſouth coaſt of England and the north coaſt of France, opening or entering from Uſhant to the Scilly Iſlands, which is called the *Chops of the Channel.*

EN'GLISH COVE, a harbour or bay, on the coaſt of New Ireland, about three or four miles from Cape St. George.

EN'GLISH COVE, a commodious bay in the iſland of Minorca, a little below the town of Mahon. It is the watering-place for the navy, where the harbour is nearly a mile over, which is almoſt the greateſt breadth of the harbour; and is about half a mile above Bloody Iſland, which is ſituated nearly in the middle of the channel.

EN'GLISH CREEK, a ſmall cove near the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland of Martinico in the Weſt Indies, a little to the north-eaſt from Point Salines, or the moſt ſoutherly cape of the iſland.

EN'GLISH HARBOUR, a commodious bay of the river St. Lawrence, in North America, eight leagues weſt-by-ſouth from Trinity Point. Lat. 49. 29. N. lon. 67. 0. W.

EN'GLISH HARBOUR, a fiſhing cove near the extreme limit of the large and deep bay called Trinity Bay, on the eaſt coaſt of Newfoundland, and contiguous to Trinity Harbour.

EN'GLISH HARBOUR, a large bay on the north-weſt of Cape Raphael, on the eaſt part of St. Domingo or Hiſpaniola, in the Weſt Indies. On a rock near the entrance of this harbour the Scipion, of ſeventy-four guns, was loſt, in running for the harbour, after having had an engagement with the London, of ninety guns, in the month of October, 1782. Lat. 19. 8. N. lon. 68. 25. W.

EN'GLISH HARBOUR, a large bay on the ſouth coaſt of the iſland of Antigua, in the Weſt Indies, and the beſt port of the whole iſland. At a very great expence it has been rendered capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips

of

of war, and is provided with a dock-yard, and all the ſtores and materials neceſſary for repairing and careening veſſels.

EN'GLISH ISLANDS, ſmall iſlands ſituate on the ſouth point of Engliſh Creek, near the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland of Martinico, in the Weſt Indies.

EN'GLISH MERCURY. See CHENOPODIUM.

EN'GLISH POINT, a cape in the river St. Lawrence, on the coaſt of Canada. Lat. 49. 40. N. lon. 61. 45. W. Greenwich.

EN'GLISH REACH, a reach in the Straits of Magellan, about three leagues over, between Cape Gallant and Cape Holland.

EN'GLISH ROAD, a road in the iſland of Eooa, or Middleburgh, in the South Pacific Ocean, with twenty-five fathoms water. Lat. 21. 20. S. lon. 174. 34. W. Greenwich.

EN'GLISH-TOWN, a town of the American States, in New Jerſey: ſix miles north-eaſt of Philadelphia, and eighteen eaſt of Prince-town.

ENGLOTTOGAS'TOR, *ſ.* [from εν, γλωτ̃η, Gr. the tongue, and γαστηρ, the belly.] One who ſpeaks from his belly; a ventriloquiſt.

EN'GLSTAIN, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles north-weſt of Zwetl.

To ENGLU'T, *v. a.* [*engloutir*, Fr.] To ſwallow up. *It is now little uſed:*

How many prodigal bits have ſlaves and peaſants
This night *englutted!* *Shakeſpeare.*

To fill; to glut; to pamper.—Being once *englutted* with vanity, he will ſtraightway loath all learning. *Aſcham.*

To ENGLU'TE, *v. a.* [from *gluten*, Lat. glue.] To glue or faſten together.

ENGOMPHO'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, and γομφος, Gr. a nail.] In anatomy that ſpecies of articulation which reſembles a nail driven into wood, as a tooth in its ſocket.

ENGO'NASIS, *ſ.* [εγγονασις, Gr. a bowing of the knee.] In aſtronomy, the ſame as Hercules, one of the northern conſtellations, ſo called from the figure of Hercules bearing upon his right knee, and endeavouring to bruiſe a dragon's head with his left foot. See HERCULES.

To ENGO'RE, *v. a.* To pierce; to prick. *Not uſed:*

As ſavage bull, whom two fierce maſtiffs bait,
When rancour doth with rage him once *engore*,
Forgets with wary ward them to await,
But with his dreadful horns them drives afore. *Spenſer.*

To ENGO'RGE, *v. a.* [from *gorge*, Fr. a throat.] To ſwallow; to devour; to gorge:

That is the gulf of greedineſs, they ſay,
That deep *engorgeth* all this world's prey. *Spenſer.*

To ENGO'RGE, *v. n.* To devour; to feed with eagerneſs and voracity; to riot:

Greedily ſhe *engorg'd* without reſtraint,
And knew not eating death! *Milton.*

To ENGRA'IL, *v. a.* [from *grele*, Fr. hail.] To variegate; to ſpot as with hail. A word now uſed only in heraldry, for to indent in curve lines.

To ENGRA'IN, *v. a.* To die deep; to die in grain:

See thou how freſh my flowers being ſpread,
Dyed in lilie white and crimſon red,
With leaves *engrain'd* in luſty green. *Spenſer.*

To ENGRAP'PLE, *v. a.* To cloſe with; to contend with hold on each other:

There ſhall young Hotſpur, with a fury led,
Engrapple with thy ſon, as fierce as he. *Daniel.*

To ENGRASP', *v. a.* To ſeize; to hold faſt in the hand; to gripe:

Now 'gan Pyrocles wax as wood as he,
And him affronted with impatient might;
And both together fierce *engraſped* be,
Whiles Guyon ſtanding by, their uncouth ſtrife doth ſee. *Spenſer.*

To ENGRA'VE, *v. a.* preter. *engraved*; part. paſſ. *engraved* or *engraven*; [*engraver*, Fr.] To picture by inciſions in any matter;

O'er all, the heav'n's refulgent image ſhines;
On either gate were fix *engraven* ſigns. *Addiſon.*

To mark wood or ſtone.—*Engrave* the two ſtones with the names. *Ex.* xxviii. 11.—To impreſs deeply; to imprint.—It will ſcarce ſeem poſſible, that God ſhould *engrave* principles, in men's minds, in words of uncertain ſignification. *Locke.*

Sounds which addreſs the ear, are loſt and die
In one ſhort hour; but that which ſtrikes the eye,
Lives long upon the mind: the faithful ſight
Engraves the knowledge with a beam of light. *Watts.*

[from *grave.*] To bury; to inhume; to inter:

The ſon had charge of them, now being dead,
In ſeemly ſort their corſes to *engrave*,
And deck with dainty flowers their bridal bed. *Spenſer.*

ENGRA'VER, *ſ.* A cutter in ſtone or other matter. It is univerſally applied to thoſe artiſts who engrave copper-plates for books and prints, &c.—Images are not made in the brain itſelf, as the pencil of a painter or *engraver* makes the images in the table, but are imprinted in a wonderful method in the ſoul. *Hale.*

ENGRAVING, *ſ.* The art of forming any device, figure, picture, ornament, or writing, by ſinking or cutting the ſame on metal, wood, ſtone, glaſs, &c. whereby prints or impreſſions may be taken, and multiplied at pleaſure. It is, ſtrictly ſpeaking, a branch of ſculpture. Among the elegant arts engraving copper-plates has at length arrived at ſuch a degree of perfection, and contributes ſo much to the rational amuſement of cultivated life, that eminent engravers have the faireſt claim to be honourably recorded in the faithful page of biography. This reward, not unfrequently the only one obtained by genius, ought ſo much the rather to be beſtowed, as it frequently operates as an encouragement to the young artiſt, and inſpires him with that glow of ambition, without which no maſterpiece was ever accompliſhed. Indeed, when the anxious ſtudent ſees with how much veneration great artiſts and their productions are mentioned, the importance of the art will neceſſarily riſe in his opinion. When he conſiders with what perſeverance the moſt eminent engravers have toiled till they arrived at the ſummit of the art; and that the moſt fatiguing labour, the moſt formidable obſtacles, and the moſt depreſſing poverty, have operated only as a ſtimulus to employ every expedient for obtaining their great end: theſe reflections will not fail to rouſe and ſtimulate him, and induce him to take advantage of every hour in the day, and devote every minute of his time to exertion! In the ſame manner, the inſtances of adverſe fortune, under which more than one great maſter have laboured, may ſerve as wholeſome advice to him, and ſhew how eſſential it is to add morality and prudence to genius and talents, in order to procure ſolid happineſs by the ſucceſsful practice of ſo honourable a profeſſion. And, let it be remembered by thoſe who, not much to the credit of their diſcernment, affect to rail at virtuoſi, that nothing is better calculated to form our taſte than the ſtudy of good engravings. They pleaſingly introduce us to the fine arts, and pave the way for a knowledge of pictures; if examined attentively, they ſoon teach the beholder to diſcover the peculiar manner of each particular maſter and ſchool; and they give us an idea, and put us, as it were, in poſſeſſion of an infinite number of paintings, which we could not have acquired without the aid of immenſe ſums of money. Beſides theſe effects, which are general, every one may derive from this branch of the arts individual advantages, according to the extent of his taſte, attainments, and inclination. Every perſon, of whatſoever profeſſion, may deduce great benefit and inſtruction from engravings; which, ever ſince their invention, have been copied and

multiplied from ſuch a variety of objects, that nearly all neceſſary information reſpecting the form and conſtruction of the remoteſt and moſt complicated things, may be acquired by their aſſiſtance.

From the facility with which copper-plate impreſſions are multiplied, prints have derived an advantage over paintings by no means inconſiderable. They are found to be more durable; which, however, muſt be attributed to the different methods in which they are preſerved. Many of the beſt-paintings of the early maſters have generally had the misfortune to be either painted on walls, or depoſited in large and unfrequented, and conſequently damp and deſtructive, buildings; whilſt a print, paſſing, at diſtant intervals, from the *porte feuille* of one collector to that of another, is preſerved without any great exertion of its owner: and hence it happens, that whilſt the pictures of Raphael have mouldered from their walls, or deſerted their canvas, the prints of his friend and cotemporary Mark Antonio Raimondi continue in full perfection to this day, and give us a lively idea of the beauties of thoſe paintings, which without their aſſiſtance, had been loſt to us for ever; or at leaſt, could have been only known to us, like thoſe of Zeuxis and Apelles, by the deſcriptions which former writers on theſe ſubjects have left us. Independent of the advantages which prints afford us, when conſidered as accurate repreſentations of paintings, and imitations of ſuperior productions, they are no leſs valuable for their poſitive merit, as immediate repreſentations of nature. For it muſt be recollected, that the art of engraving has not always been confined to the copying other productions, but has frequently itſelf aſpired to originality, and has, in this light, produced more inſtances of its excellence than in the other. Albert Durer, Goltzius, and Rembrandt, amongſt the Dutch and Germans; Parmegiano and Della Bella amongſt the Italians, and Callot amongſt the French, have publiſhed many prints, the ſubjects of which, there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe, were never painted. Theſe prints may therefore be conſidered as original pictures of thoſe maſters, deficient only in thoſe particulars in which a print muſt ever neceſſarily be inferior to a painting.

The art of engraving on copper appears comparatively to be only a modern invention, having had its riſe no earlier than about the commencement of the 15th century. The ancients, it is true, practiſed engraving on precious ſtones and cryſtals, called *gems*, with very good ſucceſs; and there are ſtill many of their works remaining equal to any production of the later ages. See the article EGYPT, p. 374, of this volume. But the art of engraving on plates and blocks of wood, to afford prints or impreſſions, was not known till very long after the invention of painting in oil.

The different modes of engraving are the following: In ſtrokes cut through a thin wax, laid upon the copper, with a needle; and theſe ſtrokes bitten or corroded into the copper with aquafortis; called *etching*. In ſtrokes with the graver alone, unaſſiſted by aquafortis. In this the deſign is traced with a ſharp tool, called a *dry point*, upon the plate; and the ſtrokes are cut upon the copper with the inſtrument called a *graver*. In ſtrokes firſt etched, and afterwards finiſhed with the graver: by this expedient the two former methods are united. In dots without ſtrokes, which are executed with the point upon the wax or ground, bitten in with the aquafortis, and afterwards harmonized with the graver. In mezzotinto, which is performed by a dark ground being raiſed uniformly upon the plate with a barbed tool. The deſign being traced upon the plate, the light parts are ſcraped off by inſtruments for that purpoſe, in proportion as the effect requires. In aquatinta, where the outline is firſt etched, and afterwards a ſort of waſh is laid by the aquafortis upon the plate, reſembling drawings in Indian ink, &c. On wood, performed with a ſingle block, on which the deſign is traced with a pen, and thoſe parts which ſhould be white carefully hollowed out; and this block is afterwards printed by the letter-preſs printers, in the ſame manner as they print a book. On wood, performed with two, three, or more, blocks; the firſt having the outlines cut upon it; the ſecond is reſerved for the darker ſhadows; and the third for the ſhadows which terminate upon the lights; and theſe are ſubſtituted in their turn, each print receiving an impreſſion from every block. This mode of engraving is called *chiaro ſcuro*, and was deſigned to repreſent the drawings of the old maſters.

Of all theſe modes of engraving, for the purpoſe of giving impreſſions on paper, the moſt ancient is that on *wood*. It appears that we are indebted to the makers of playing cards for this invention, who practiſed the art in Germany prior to the 15th century. From that time it continued in an improving ſtate; and towards the end of the 15th, and beginning of the 16th century, it became cuſtomary for almoſt every one of the German engravers on copper to engrave on wood alſo. The works of Albert Durer and Holbein, in this ſtyle of engraving, are juſtly held in the higheſt eſteem. Italy, France, and Holland, have produced many capital artiſts of this kind; but for boldneſs and ſpirit, we muſt prefer the prints of Chriſtopher Jegher, who worked under the direction of Rubens, and was without doubt aſſiſted by that great maſter.

The invention of that ſpecies of engraving diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *chiaro-ſcuro*, ſeems alſo to be juſtly claimed by the Germans, and was firſt practiſed by Mair; one of whoſe prints of this kind is dated 1499. Many excellent works in chiaro-ſcuro have been produced in France; and in Italy it was honoured with the performances of Titian and Parmegiano. To this invention of cutting or engraving blocks of wood, we are indebted for the devices and ornaments on paper-hangings, and printed cottons and chintz.

In Germany, about the year 1450, prints from engraved *copper* firſt made their appearance. The earlieſt date hitherto found on a copperplate print, is 1461; but however faulty this print may be with reſpect to the drawing, or defective in point of taſte, the mechanical part of the execution of it has by no means the appearance of being one of the *firſt* productions of the graver. We have alſo ſeveral other engravings, evidently the work of the ſame maſter; in which the impreſſions are ſo neatly taken from the plates, and the engravings ſo clearly printed in every part, that, according to all appearance, they could not be executed in a much better manner in the preſent day, with all the conveniences which the copperplate printers now poſſeſs, and the additional knowledge they muſt neceſſarily have acquired in the courſe of more than three centuries. Hence we may fairly conclude, that if they were not the firſt ſpecimens of the engraver's workmanſhip, they were much leſs the firſt efforts of the copper-plate printer's ability. The earlieſt prints that are known to be Italian, are a ſet of the ſeven planets, and an almanack by way of frontiſpiece; on which are directions for finding Eaſter from the year 1465 to 1517 inclusive. The three earlieſt *Italian* engravers are, Finiguerra, Boticelli, and Baldini.

With reſpect to the invention of *etching*, it ſeems to be not well known to whom it is to be aſcribed. One of the moſt early ſpecimens is of a print by Albert Durer, known by the name of the *Cannon*, dated 1518. Another etching by the ſame artiſt is Moſes receiving the Tables of the Law, dated 1524. It was alſo practiſed in Italy ſoon after this by Parmegiano, in whoſe etchings we diſcover the hand of the artiſt working out a ſyſtem as it were entirely from his own imagination. We ſee plainly the difficulty he laboured under; and cannot doubt, from the examination of the mechanical part of the execution, that he had no inſtruction; and that it was an operation quite new to him. As to that ſpecies of engraving in which the *etching* and *cutting* with the graver are united, it muſt have taken place immediately upon the invention of etching; it was, however, firſt carried to perfection by G. Audran,

G. Audran, and is now almoſt univerſally practiſed, whether the work be in ſtrokes or in dots.

Engraving in *dots*, now ſo highly improved under the name of *ſtibbling*, or *chalk*, is a very old invention, and the only mode diſcovered by the Italians. Agoſtino de Muſis, commonly called *Auguſtine of Venice*, a pupil of Marc Antonio, uſed it in ſeveral of his earlieſt works, but confined it to the fleſh. He flouriſhed from 1509 to 1536. We alſo find it in a print by Giulio Campagnola, about the year 1516. The back ground is executed with round dots, made apparently with a dry point.

In the conduct of the graver and dry point, conſiſts all the excellence of this valuable art; for which there are no rules to be given; all depending on the habitude, diſpoſition, and genius, of the artiſt. However, as the principles of engraving are the ſame with thoſe of painting, a perſon cannot expect to attain any conſiderable degree of eminence, who is not a good maſter of deſign; and therefore he ought to be well acquainted with perſpective and architecture: the former, by the proper gradations of ſtrong and faint colours, will enable him to throw backwards the figures and other objects of the picture or deſign which he propoſes to imitate; and the latter will teach him to preſerve the due proportion of its ſeveral orders, which the painter often entruſts to the diſcretion of the engraver. In order to preſerve equality and union in his works, the engraver ſhould always ſketch out the principal objects of his piece before he undertakes to finiſh them. In working, the ſtrokes of the graver ſhould never be croſſed too much in a lozenge manner, particularly in the repreſentation of fleſh, becauſe ſharp angles produce the unpleaſing effect of lattice-work, and take from the eye the repoſe which is agreeable to it in all kinds of picturеſque deſigns: we ſhould except the caſe of clouds, tempeſts, waves of the ſea, the ſkins of hairy animals, or the leaves of trees, where this method of croſſing may be admitted. But in avoiding the lozenge, it is not proper to get entirely into the ſquare, which would give too much of the hardneſs of ſtone. In conducting the ſtrokes, the action of the figures, and of all their parts, ſhould be conſidered; and it ſhould be obſerved how they advance towards, or recede from, the eye; and the graver ſhould be guided according to the riſings or cavities of the muſcles or folds, making the ſtrokes wider and fainter in the light, and cloſer and firmer in the ſhades. Thus the figures will not appear jagged; and the hand ſhould be lightened in ſuch a manner, that the outlines may be formed and terminated without being cut too hard; however, though the ſtrokes break off where the muſcle begins, yet they ought always to have a certain connection with each other, ſo that the firſt ſtroke may often ſerve by its return to make the ſecond, which will ſhow the freedom of the engraver. But to excel in producing a powerful imitation of fleſh, and in giving a ſoft and delicate turn to the muſcular fibre, it is neceſſary that the artiſt ſhould cloſely ſtudy the ſtructure of the human body; and in order to give energy and true character to ſtill life, he ſhould ſtudy the general phyſiology of man and animals.

ETCHING, or the artifice of working with aquafortis, has been of late ſo much improved, that inſtead of being now deemed a coarſe or ſpurious kind of engraving, it evidently appears the foundation of an excellence in many modern works, that could never have been produced without it. There are two methods practiſed of engraving in this way; the one with a hard varniſh or ground, the other with a ſoft. The firſt was formerly much uſed, being better accommodated to the intention of imitating the engraving with the tool; as the firmneſs of the body of the varniſh gave more opportunity of retouching the lines, or enlarging them with the oval-pointed needles, called by the French *echoppes*, as was practiſed by Le Boſſe and others for that purpoſe. The latter has now almoſt wholly ſuperſeded the uſe of the other, by the free manner of working it admits of; which affords a power of expreſſion incompatible with the greater inflexibility of the hard varniſh, that confines the lines and hatches to ſuch a regularity and ſameneſs, as gives a ſtiffneſs of manner and coldneſs of effect to the work.

The mixture of the uſe of the tool and aquafortis, which are thus both employed, has obviouſly given that perfection to engraving which it poſſeſſes at preſent. The truth and ſpirit of the outline that the method of working with aquafortis affords, and the variety of ſhades produced in this way, as well as other means of expreſſing the peculiar appearance and character of particular ſubjects, furniſh what was defective in the ſole uſe of the tool; while, on the other hand, the exactneſs and regularity of the lines, which are required for finiſhing many kinds of deſigns, are ſupplied by the graver; and by a judicious application of both, that complete finiſhing is obtained, which either of them alone would neceſſarily want.

The manner by which this art is performed, is the covering the ſurface of the plate with a proper varniſh or ground, as it is called, which is capable of reſiſting aquafortis; and then ſcoring or ſcraping away, by inſtruments reſembling needles, the parts of this varniſh or ground, in the places where the ſtrokes or hatches of the engraving are intended to be: then, the plate being covered with aquafortis, the parts that are laid naked and expoſed by removing the ground or varniſh, are corroded or eaten away by it; while the reſt, being ſecured and defended, remain untouched. But the varniſh ought always to be harder in ſummer than in winter. For the moſt approved kinds, ſee the article VARNISH.

The plate being thus prepared, and an exact drawing of the outlines of the deſign made upon thin paper, the other ſide of the paper muſt be rubbed over with red chalk ſcraped to a powder; and the looſe chalk cleared off with a linen rag: then the ſtained ſide of the paper is laid upon the varniſh, fixing the corners to the plate with wax or wafers, to prevent its moving; and with a blunted needle or point the drawing is ſlightly traced, and communicates to the varniſh an exact outline of the deſign to be etched. If any ſcratches or falſe ſtrokes happen in the working, they are to be ſtopped up with a hair-pencil dipped in Venetian varniſh, mixed with lamb-black, by which means theſe places will be defended from the action of the aquafortis. The next operation is to make a border of ſoft wax round the plate about an inch high, to contain the aquafortis. At one of the corners of this border a gutter is uſually made, which ſerves for pouring the aquafortis off the plate. The plate being thus bordered, the *etching* is to be made as follows: Take a due quantity of the refiners aquafortis; mix it with half its quantity of common water; and pour it gently on, till it riſe above a finger's breadth above the ſurface of the plate; when, if all things have been rightly conducted, it will be ſeen that the aquafortis will ſoon exert its action in the hatches or parts which have been ſtrongly touched; but thoſe more weakly engraved will appear at firſt clear, and of the colour of the copper. The menſtruum muſt therefore be ſuffered to continue on the plate till its effects become viſible on the more tender parts: then the aquafortis ſhould be poured off, the plate waſhed with clean water, and dried before the fire: then take a ſmall pencil dipped into the Venetian varniſh, and cover with it the lighter parts of the plate. This being done, the aquafortis muſt again be poured on, and ſuffered to continue a longer or ſhorter time, according to the ſtrength of the menſtruum, or the nature of the engraving; when it muſt be again poured off as before, and the plate immediately waſhed with water. It may not be improper to obſerve, that, when the aquafortis is on the plate, a feather ſhould be uſed to cleanſe away the foulneſs of the verdigris that gathers in the hatches when the aquafortis operates on them, and to give it more room to exert its action; for by moving the aquafortis to and fro on the plate by the feather, and bruſhing away the black ſaline matter

matter where it appears to be formed, the hatches will be cleanſed and the aquafortis exert its whole force equally on every part. The border of wax is then to be removed, the plate waſhed, and rubbed over with oil of olives; after which a more elegant finiſh is given with the graver.

The art of engraving in MEZZOTINTO is calculated to form prints in imitation of drawings in Indian ink. The invention has been uſually attributed to prince Rupert. But baron Heinikin aſſerts, with great appearance of truth, that it was lieutenant-colonel de Siegan, an officer in the ſervice of the landgrave of Heſſe, who firſt engraved in this manner; and that the print which he produced was a portrait of the princeſs Amelia Elizabeth of Heſſe, engraved in 1643. Prince Rupert learned the ſecret from this gentleman, and brought it into England when he came over the ſecond time with Charles II. Prince Rupert's print of an executioner holding a ſword in one hand and a head in the other, from Spagnoletto, is dated 1658. It is remarkable that this art has never been cultivated with ſucceſs in any country but England.

This method is very different from the common way of engraving. To perform it, they rake, hatch, or line, the ſurface of the plate all over with a knife, or inſtrument made for the purpoſe, firſt one way, then the other, acroſs, &c. till the ſurface of the plate be thus entirely covered with lines or furrows, cloſe to each other; ſo that, if an impreſſion was then taken from it, it would be one uniform patch of ſmut. This done, the deſign is drawn or marked on the ſame ſurface; after which, they proceed with burniſhers, ſcrapers, &c. to expunge the dents or furrows, in all the parts where the lights of the piece are to be; leaving thoſe parts black which are to repreſent the dark ſhadows of the draught. As it is much eaſier to ſcrape or burniſh away parts of a dark ground correſponding with the outline of any deſign ſketched upon it, than to form ſhades upon a light ground by an infinite number of hatches, ſtrokes, and points, which muſt all terminate with exactneſs on the outline, as well as differ in their force and manner; the method of *ſcraping*, as it is called, in mezzotinto, conſequently becomes much more eaſy and expeditious than any other method of engraving. The inſtruments uſed in this work are cradles, ſcrapers, and burniſhers.

In this engraving, the plate muſt be prepared and poliſhed in the ſame manner as for other engraving; and afterwards divided equally by lines parallel to each other, and traced out with very ſoft chalk. The diſtance of theſe lines ſhould be about one-third of the length of the face of the cradle which is to be uſed, and theſe lines ſhould be marked with capital letters, or ſtrokes of the chalk. The cradle is then to be placed exactly betwixt the two firſt lines, and paſſed forwards in the ſame direction; being kept as ſteady as poſſible, and preſſed upon with a moderate force. The ſame operation muſt be repeated with reſpect to all the other lines; till the inſtrument has thus paſſed over the whole ſurface of the plate. Other lines muſt be then drawn from the extremities of the other two ſides, in the ſame manner; which, interſecting the firſt at right angles, will with them form ſquares; and the ſame operation muſt be repeated with the cradle as in the caſe of the firſt. New lines muſt then be drawn diagonally, and the cradle paſſed betwixt them as before; and when the firſt diagonal operation is performed, the lines muſt be croſſed at right angles as the former, and the cradles paſſed betwixt them in the ſame manner. The plate having undergone the action of the cradle, according to the diſpoſition of the firſt order of lines, a ſecond ſet muſt be formed, having the ſame diſtances from each other as the firſt. But they muſt be ſo placed as to divide thoſe already made into ſpaces one-third leſs than their whole extent; *i. e.* every one after the firſt on each ſide will take in one-third of that before it, *e. g.* beginning at A, of which the firſt third muſt be left out; a third of B will conſequently be taken in, and ſo of the reſt. Theſe lines of the ſecond order muſt be marked with ſmall letters, or leſſer ſtrokes, to diſtinguiſh them from the firſt: and the ſame treatment of the plate muſt be purſued with reſpect to them as was practiſed for the others. When this ſecond operation is finiſhed, a third order of lines muſt be made; the firſt of which, *e. g.* in A, muſt omit two-thirds of it, and conſequently take in two-thirds of B, &c. By theſe means, the original ſpaces will be exactly divided into equal thirds; and the cradle muſt be again employed betwixt theſe lines as before. When the whole of this operation is finiſhed, it is called *one turn*; but in order to produce a very dark and uniform ground, the plate muſt undergo the repetition of all theſe ſeveral operations for above twenty times; beginning to paſs the cradle again betwixt the firſt lines, and proceeding in the ſame manner through all the reſt. When the plate is prepared with a proper ground, the ſketch muſt be chalked on it, by rubbing the paper on the backſide with chalk. It is alſo proper to overtrace it afterwards with black lead or Indian ink. The ſcraping is then performed, by paring or cutting away the grain of the ground in various degrees; ſo that none of it is left in the original ſtate except in the touches of the ſtrongeſt ſhade. The general manner of proceeding is the ſame as drawing with white upon black paper. The maſſes of light are firſt begun with; and thoſe parts which go off into light in their upper part, but are brown below: the reflections are then entered upon; after which the plate is blackened with a printer's blacking-ball made of felt, in order to diſcover the effect: and then the work is proceeded with; obſerving always to begin every part in the places where the ſtrongeſt lights are to be.

The art of ſcraping mezzotintoes has been applied to the printing with a variety of colours, in order to produce the reſemblance of paintings. The inventor of the method of doing this was J. C. Le Blon, a native of Frankfort, and pupil of Carlo Maratta, between the years 1720 and 1730. It was eſtabliſhed by the inventor on this principle, that there are three primitive colours, of which all the reſt may be compoſed by mixing them in various proportions; and that three plates were neceſſary, exactly of the ſame kind, to impreſs the three colours, by laying one over the other, the laſt of which was to be charged with the brighteſt tints. Modern improvement has, however, ſuperſeded this tedious method, and the colours are now all laid upon one plate, which gives the impreſſion at once in a very correct and beautiful manner, and is called *printing in colours*.

Engraving in *Aquatinta*, is of a very modern date, and is admirably calculated for landſcape, coſtume, and other light ſubjects. See the method deſcribed under AQUATINTA, vol. i. p. 840.

Thoſe who ſhall invent, deſign, and engrave, prints, are to have the ſole right of printing them for fourteen years, but which ſhall be engraved with the names of the proprietors; and others copying, and ſelling ſuch prints, though by varying, &c. without their conſent, ſhall forfeit five pounds for every print, and alſo the plates and impreſſions. 8 *Geo.* II. c. 13.

The art of engraving on precious ſtones or gems, called *pietrè durè*, is one of thoſe wherein the ancients excelled; there being many antique agates, cornelians, and onyxes, which greatly ſurpaſs any thing of that kind produced by the moderns. Prygoteles among the Greeks, and Dioſcorides under the firſt emperors of Rome, are the moſt eminent of theſe engravers recorded in hiſtory: the former was ſo eſteemed by Alexander, that he forbad any body elſe to engrave his head; and Auguſtus's head, engraved by the latter, was deemed ſo beautiful, that the ſucceeding emperors choſe it for their ſeal. The polite arts having been buried under the ruins of the Roman empire, the art of engraving on gems met with the ſame fate. It was retrieved in Italy at the beginning of the fifteenth century, when John of Florence, and after him Dominic of Milan, performed works of this kind no way to be

deſpiſed.

deſpiſed. From that time, ſuch ſculptures and ſeals became common in Europe, and particularly in Germany, whence great numbers were ſent into other countries: but they were far ſhort of the beauty of thoſe of the ancients. The number of engraved gems has been ſo great, that the collection made by Mr. Taſſie, in Leiceſter-ſquare, London, alone occupies two large quarto volumes, in the mere recital.

The diamond, which is the hardeſt of all gems, is only cut by itſelf, or with its own matter. The firſt thing in this branch of engraving is, to cement two rough diamonds to the ends of two ſticks big enough to hold them ſteady in the hand, and to rub or grind them againſt each other till they be brought to the form deſired. The duſt or powder that is rubbed off ſerves afterwards to poliſh them, which is performed with a kind of mill that turns a wheel of ſoft iron. The diamond is fixed in a braſs diſh; and, thus applied to the wheel, is covered with diamond duſt, mixed up with oil of olives. Rubies, ſapphires, and topazes, are cut and formed the ſame way on a copper wheel, and poliſhed with tripoli diluted in water. Agates, amethyſts, emeralds, hyacinths, granites, rubies, and others of the ſofter ſtones, are cut on a leaden wheel, moiſtened with emery and water, and poliſhed with tripoli on a pewter wheel. Lapis-lazuli, opal, &c. are poliſhed on a wooden wheel. To faſhion and engrave vaſes of agate, cryſtal, lapis-lazuli, &c. they make uſe of a kind of lathe, like that uſed by pewterers, to hold the veſſels, which are to be wrought with proper tools: that of the engraver generally holds the tools, which are turned by a wheel; and a veſſel is held to them to be cut and engraved, either in relievo or otherwiſe; the tools being moiſtened from time to time with diamond duſt and oil, or with emery and water. To engrave figures or devices on any of theſe ſtones, when poliſhed, ſuch as medals, ſeals, &c. they uſe a little iron wheel, the ends of whoſe axis are received within two pieces of iron, placed upright, as in the turner's lathe; and to be brought cloſer, or ſet further apart, at pleaſure; at one end of the axis are fitted the proper tools, being kept tight by a ſcrew. The wheel is turned by the foot, and the ſtone applied by the hand to the tool, and is ſhifted and conducted as occaſion requires.

The art of engraving upon glaſs appears to be no new diſcovery. It is certain that the ancient Greek artiſts formed upon glaſs, both raiſed and engraved figures; as may be ſeen by articles ſtill preſerved in collections, though it is probable that many pieces of glaſs may have been moulded like paſte; for that art alſo is of very great antiquity. It appears likewiſe that they cut upon plates of glaſs and hollow glaſs veſſels all kinds of figures and ornaments, in the ſame manner as names, coats of arms, flowers, landſcapes, &c. are cut upon drinking-glaſſes at preſent. If we can believe that learned engraver in ſtone, the celebrated Natter, the ancients employed the ſame kind of inſtruments for this purpoſe as thoſe uſed by the moderns. They undoubtedly had in like manner a wheel which moved round in a horizontal direction above the work-table, or that machine which by writers is called a lapidary's wheel.

Many, however, affirm, that the art of glaſs-cutting, together with the neceſſary inſtruments, was firſt invented in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. The inventor is ſaid to have been Caſpar Lehmann, who originally was a cutter of ſteel and iron; and who made an attempt, which ſucceeded, of cutting cryſtal, and afterwards glaſs, in the like manner. He was in the ſervice of the emperor Rodolphus II. who, in 1609, conferred on him the title of lapidary and glaſs-cutter to the court, and gave him a patent by which every one except himſelf was forbidden to exerciſe this new art. He worked at Prague, where he had an aſſiſtant named Zacharias Belzer; but George Schwanhard the elder, one of his ſcholars, carried on the ſame buſineſs to a far greater extent. The latter, in 1618, went to Prague to learn the art of glaſs-cutting from Lehmann. By his good behaviour he ſo much gained the eſteem of his maſter, who died a bachelor in 1622, that he was left his heir; and obtained from the emperor Rodolphus a continuation of Lehmann's patent. Schwanhard, however, removed to Nuremberg, where he worked for many of the principal nobility; and by theſe means procured to that city the honour of being accounted the birth-place of this new art. That engraving on glaſs is of ſo modern a date, is alſo attempted to be confirmed by Zahn, who ſpeaks of it as of a new employment carried on, at that time, particularly at Nuremberg. He deſcribes the work-table, as well as the other inſtruments; and gives a figure of the whole, which he appears to have conſidered as the firſt. It may be ſeen, however, that this invention does not belong entirely to the moderns; and, to deny that the ancients were altogether unacquainted with it, would be doing them an injuſtice. It was forgotten, and again revived; which is proved by count Caylus. Before this invention, with a wheel, there were artiſts who, with a diamond, engraved figures on glaſs, which were every where admired. The firſt mention of a diamond being uſed among the moderns for cutting or writing on glaſs, occurs in the ſixteenth century. Francis I. of France, who was fond of the arts, wrote the following lines with his diamond ring upon a pane of glaſs, at the caſtle of Chambord, in order to let Anne de Piſſeleu, ducheſs of Eſtampes, know that he was jealous:

Souvent femme varie,
Mal habil qui s'y fie.

Put no truſt in womankind;
Fickle as the waves and wind.

The hiſtorian recorded this not ſo much on account of the admonition, as becauſe it was then thought very ingenious to write upon glaſs. About the year 1562, feſtoons and other ornaments, cut with a diamond, were extremely common on Venetian glaſſes, which, at that period, were accounted the beſt. George Schwanhard the elder was a great maſter in this art; and, in more modern times, John Koſt, an artiſt of Augſburg, ornamented, in a very curious manner with a diamond pencil, ſome drinking-glaſſes which were purchaſed by the emperor Charles VI.

The art of *etching* on glaſs, ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered in 1771 by Scheele the chemiſt, can be proved to have been in uſe ſo early as the year 1670, by the beforementioned artiſt, Henry Schwanhard. We are told, that ſome aqua regia having fallen by accident upon his ſpectacles, the glaſs was corroded by it; and that he thence learned to make a liquid by which he could etch writing, and figures of men, animals, plants, and flowers, upon plates of glaſs. It is very probable that his preparation was the ſame as that known to ſome artiſts as a ſecret in 1721.

The preſent mode of etching on glaſs is as follows: the plate or veſſel of glaſs is to be completely covered with melted wax or maſtic; and when the coating becomes hard, it is to be engraved upon by a very ſharp-pointed needle or other inſtrument of that kind, as in common etching. A mixture of oil of vitriol and fluor acid is then to be poured upon the plate, and the whole covered with an inverted China veſſel, to prevent the evaporation of the fluor acid. In two days the glaſs plate may be cleared of its coating, when all the traces of the needle will be found eaten in, or etched upon it. Thus by the action of the fluor acid, a ſkilful artiſt can engrave upon the hardeſt glaſs, in the ſame manner as he can engrave upon copper with aquafortis.—In the "Memoirs of the National Inſtitute at Paris," publiſhed in 1802, a favourable report was made by the preſident Camus, of ſome attempts to ſubſtitute prepared plates of glaſs for engravings, inſtead of thoſe of planiſhed copper. The proceſs is yet in its infancy: but the Inſtitute entertain ſanguine hopes of its being ſpeedily brought to maturity. The ſuperiority of the one ſubſtance over the other, if it can

be made to reſiſt the requiſite preſſure of the rolling-preſs, is too obvious to need being ſtated:—the plate would not wear out, and it would paſs to poſterity unaffected by ruſt or canker, while each impreſſion would be equally good.

The manufacturing of veſſels with engraved ornaments of every kind, upon ſolid ſparry fluor, was begun in Derbyſhire, in 1765. The articles formed of it are called ſpar ornaments, and ſometimes blue-john. Many beautiful colours are produced; and the diſcovery has at once afforded a valuable acquiſition to our commerce, and an elegant addition to the equipage of the table.

ENGRAVING on STEEL is chiefly employed in cutting ſeals, punches, matrices, and dyes, proper for ſtriking coins, medals, and counters. The method of engraving with the inſtruments, &c. is the ſame for coins as for medals and counters: all the difference conſiſts in their greater or leſs relievo; the relievo of coins being much leſs conſiderable than that of medals, and that of counters ſtill leſs than that of coins. Engravers in ſteel commonly begin with punches, which are in relievo, and ſerve for making the creux or cavities of the matrices and dyes. The firſt thing done, is that of deſigning the figures; the next is the moulding them in wax, of the ſize and depth they are to lie, and from this wax the punch is engraved. When the punch is finiſhed, it receives a very high temper, that it may the better bear the blow of the hammer with which it is ſtruck, to give the impreſſion to the matrice. The ſteel is made hot to ſoften it, that it may the more readily take the impreſſion of the punch; and after ſtriking the punch on it in this ſtate, they proceed to touch up or finiſh any thing defective, with ſteel gravers of different kinds. For many purpoſes of an inferior kind, ſuch as the engravings or chaſings on the ornaments of coaches and coach-harneſs, &c. an ingenious method has been invented by Mr. James Yates, of Bordſley near Birmingham; for which, in 1788, he obtained a patent. The deſign is firſt engraved on a ſolid block of ſteel, made to the form or ſize required. It is then fixed in a die, which has a ring or collar round it, ſo as to form a kind of diſh, the ring on the outſide of it riſing higher than the engraved block; a forcer or block of metal is then impreſſed upon the engraving, and, with thin plates of ſoft tin, or lead, or mixed metal, is laid under a ſtamp or preſs, by the force of which a perfect impreſſion is ſtruck from the engraved block. Thin plates of gold, ſilver, plated metal, copper, braſs, or other mixed metals, are thus impreſſed, or ſtamped, and the raiſed ſide of the impreſſion of the engraving is then filled with melted lead, tin, or any other hard cement, to any thickneſs required; ſo that the reverſe ſide has the perfect appearance of the original engraved block. For ſome purpoſes, as ſteel, iron, or other metal roll is engraved, of any deſign required, and an impreſſion taken off, by another counter roll; and thus plates of thin metal, of any kind, are paſſed between the rollers, by the force of a mill, and the raiſed ſide of the impreſſion is afterwards filled with cement, as before deſcribed.

An ingenious method of engraving in oil, and multiplying copies on paper, parchment, linen, or other materials of a flexible texture, has been lately invented by Mr. Samuel Foplis, of Gainſborough. His method is as follows: Prepare a copper, braſs, or other metal plate, well poliſhed; or a piece of ſmooth glazed earthen ware; or a board, previouſly coated with copal, ſhell-lac, or any other hard varniſh: have alſo ready a cuſhion, made of the ſofteſt kind of leather, ſtuffed with wool, or other convenient article. On the cuſhion, ſpread a fine coat of ſtrong printing-ink; or, if that cannot be eaſily procured, uſe paint of any colour, or other ſubſtance of a viſcous nature, of ſuch a conſiſtence as will admit of a ſeparation without running. Take the plate, of whatever ſort, (holding it by the corners alternately,) and ſuffer it to touch the ink, paint, &c. by a gentle compreſſion of the plate, till the whole becomes coated. With a piece of pointed wood, or even a common ſkewer, reduced to a point fit for making proper ſtrokes, write, engrave, or delineate, the ſubject intended; either backwards or forwards, holding a flat ruler in one hand, as a guide, and to prevent injuring the coating while the operation is performing with the other. The plate thus prepared, muſt be taken to a common rolling-preſs, or any other kind of preſs, or, for want of them, placed on a hard piece of ground, or a boarded floor. On the plate lay a moiſt ſheet of paper, ſkin of parchment or leather, piece of ſilk, linen, or other material of flexible texture; on theſe lay a woollen cloth, or piece of blanket, and on that a proper ſized board, flat ſtone, or other ſuch body, giving the required preſſure by your own weight, or by any other effort of art or ſtrength; there will then be found a fair copy of all matters written, engraved, or delineated, on the coated plate, appearing on the paper, &c. in white letters or characters. If more than one copy is required, by this ſimple yet effectual method, the force meant to be applied to the written or engraved plate muſt be divided by the number of copies wanted; three, if not four, are to be had this way, and perhaps a greater number may be obtained by more general practice and experience.

As a diſtinct as well as new branch of the polite and liberal arts, engraving and writing in oil and oil colours may alſo be applied to glaſs, and to earthen ware in general, with peculiar advantage and neatneſs, according to the abilities and genius of the engraver; for which purpoſe the following rule is given, viz. If the letters, devices, ciphers, or other ſignatures, are deſired to be of a colour oppoſite to that of the natural body or ground colour of the veſſel, lay a coat of paint or varniſh upon it; let it become dry or hard, and write or engrave in the ſecond, third, &c. coat: but, if the ground-colour of the veſſel be preferred, one coat, in general, will be found ſufficient, and will be of conſiderable uſe. Moreover, this invention, may ſerve to convey uſeful knowledge, or the delineations of fancy, to the various parts of the habitable globe, in a different and more curious manner than by any other means that have hitherto been practiſed or attempted; as the art may be extended, through the mediums of painting, japanning, calico-printing, &c. to all bodies poſſeſſing plain ſurfaces, of whatever ſhape or uſe, amid our various arts and manufactures; for, amongſt other advantages that will certainly ariſe from it, is the very obvious one of being able to figure that eſſential part of dreſs, printed linens or cottons, in a cheaper and readier way than by any yet adopted. A ſmall thin plate of iron, braſs, &c. will be found extremely uſeful, with paint, or any other ſtaining ſubſtance of a glutinous and drying nature; and an advantage with regard to time, and other important conſiderations, will undoubtedly ariſe from its uſe.

To ENGRIE'VE, *v. a.* To pain; to vex; to afflict; to diſconſolate.—Aches, and hurts, and corns, do *engrieve* either towards rain, or towards ſnow. *Bacon.*

The gnawing anguiſh, and ſharp jealouſy,
Which his ſad ſpeech infixed in my breaſt,
Rankled ſo ſore, and feſter'd inwardly,
That my *engrieved* mind could find no reſt. *Spenſer.*

To ENGRO'SS, *v. a.* [*groſſir*, Fr.] To thicken; to make thick:

The waves ſo ſlow and ſluggiſh were,
Engroſs'd with mud, which did them foul agrieſe,
That every weighty thing they did upbear. *Spenſer.*

To increaſe in bulk.—Though pillars, by channelling, be ſeemingly *engroſſed* to our ſight, yet they are truly weakened in themſelves. *Wotton.*—To fatten; to plump up:

Not ſleeping, to *engroſs* his idle body;
But praying, to enrich his watchful ſoul. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſeize in the groſs; to ſeize the whole of any thing.—Thoſe two things that ſo *engroſs* the deſires of both the nobler and ignobler ſort of mankind, are to be found in religion; namely, wiſdom and pleaſure. *South.*

A

A dog, a parrot, or an ape,
Or ſome worſe brute in human ſhape,
Engroſs the fancies of the fair. *Swift.*

To purchaſe the whole of any commodity for the ſake of ſelling at a high price. To write or copy in a large hand:

Here is th' indictment of the good lord Haſtings,
Which in a ſet hand fairly is *engroſs'd*. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENGROSS'ER, *ſ.* He that purchaſes large quantities of any commodity, in order to ſell it at a high price.—A new ſort of *engroſſers*, or foreſtallers, having the feeding and ſupplying this numerous body of workmen in the woollen manufactures, out of their warehouſes, ſet the price upon the poor landholder. *Locke.*

ENGROSS'MENT, *ſ.* Appropriation of things in the groſs; exorbitant acquiſition.—Thoſe held their immoderate *engroſſments* of power and favour by no other tenure than preſumption. *Swift.*

To ENGUA'RD, *v. a.* To protect; to defend; to ſurround as guards. *Not uſed.*

A hundred knights! yes, that on ev'ry dream,
He may *enguard* his dotage with their pow'rs,
And hold our lives at mercy. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENGUELEGUIN'GIT, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, not far from Mogador.

EN'GYSCOPE, *ſ.* The ſame as microſcope.

ENHAL'LOW, one of the ſmaller Orkney iſlands, between Rowſa and Pamona.

To ENHAN'CE, *v. a.* [*hauſſer*, *enhauſſer*, Fr.] To lift up; to raiſe on high. *A ſenſe now obſolete.*

Both of them high at once their hands *enhanc'd*,
And both at once their huge blows down did ſway. *Spenſer.*

To raiſe; to advance; to heighten in price.—The deſire of money is every where the ſame; its vent varies very little, but as its greater ſcarcity *enhances* its price, and increaſes the ſcramble. *Locke.*—To raiſe in eſteem.—What is it but the experience of want that *enhances* the value of plenty? *L'Eſtrange.*—The remembrance of the difficulties we now undergo, will contribute to *enhance* our pleaſure. *Atterbury.*—To aggravate; to increaſe from bad to worſe.—To believe or pretend that whatever our hearts incite is the will of God within us, is the principle of villainy that hath acted in the children of diſobedience, *enhanced* and improved with circumſtances of greater impudence than the moſt abominable heathens were guilty of. *Hammond.*

ENHAN'CEMENT, *ſ.* Increaſe; augmentation of value.—Their yearly rents are not improved, the landlords making no leſs gain by fines than by *enhancement* of rents. *Bacon.*—Aggravation; increaſe of ill.—Jocular ſlanders have, from the ſlightneſs of the temptation, an *enhancement* of guilt. *Government of the Tongue.*

To ENHAR'BOUR, *v. a.* To harbour in:

O true delight, *enharbouring* the breſts
Of thoſe ſweet creatures with the plumy creſts. *W. Browne.*

ENHARMO'NIC, *adj.* The laſt of the three kinds of muſic. It abounds in dieſes, or the leaſt ſenſible diviſions of a tone. See the article MUSIC.

ENJE'DIM (George), a learned unitarian divine in the ſixteenth century, native of Hungary, whence he removed into Tranſylvania, where he became one of the ſuperintendants of the unitarian churches in that principality. He died in 1597. According to father Simon, he was one of the moſt acute defenders of that ſenſe of ſcripture for which the Socinian writers contend, and was the author of a work entitled *Explicatio Locorum Scripturæ Veteris & Novi Teſtamenti, ex quibus dogma Trinitatis ſtabiliri ſolet*, quarto. The greater part of the firſt impreſſion of this work, which appeared in Tranſylvania, having been burnt through the zeal of ſome advocates for the orthodox faith, a new edition of it was afterwards publiſhed in the Netherlands, where the ſide of the queſtion which it embraces has of courſe many ſupporters.

ENIG'MA, *ſ.* [*ænigma*, Lat. αινιγμα, Gr.] A riddle; an obſcure queſtion; a poſition expreſſed in remote and ambiguous terms.

ENIGMA'TICAL, *adj.* Obſcure; ambiguouſly or darkly expreſſed.—Your anſwer, ſir, is *enigmatical*. *Shakeſpeare.*—Cloudy; obſcurely conceived or apprehended.—Faith here is the aſſent to thoſe things which come to us by hearing, and are ſo believed by adherence, or dark *enigmatical* knowledge, but hereafter are ſeen or known demonſtratively. *Hammond.*

ENIGMA'TICALLY, *adv.* In a ſenſe different from that which the words in their familiar acceptation imply.—Homer ſpeaks *enigmatically*, and intends that theſe monſters are merely the creation of poetry. *Broome.*

ENIG'MATIST, *ſ.* One who deals in obſcure and ambiguous matters; a maker of riddles.—That I may deal more ingenuouſly with my reader than the abovementioned *enigmatiſt* has done, I ſhall preſent him with a key to my riddle. *Addiſon.*

To ENJO'IN, *v. a.* [*enjoindre*, Fr.] To direct; to order; to preſcribe. It is more authoritative than *direct*, and leſs imperious than *command*:

To ſatisfy the good old man,
I would bend under any heavy weight
That he'll *enjoin* me to. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENJOI'NER, *ſ.* One who iſſues injunctions.

ENJOIN'MENT, *ſ.* Direction; command.—Critical trial ſhould be made by public *enjoinment*, whereby determination might be ſettled beyond debate. *Brown.*

To ENJO'Y, *v. a.* [*jouir*, *enjouir*, Fr.] To feel or perceive with pleaſure; to have a pleaſing ſenſe of; to be delighted with:

I could *enjoy* the pangs of death,
And ſmile in agony. *Addiſon.*

To obtain poſſeſſion or fruition of.—Edward the ſaint, in whom it pleaſed God, righteous and juſt, to let England ſee what a bleſſing ſin and iniquity would not ſuffer it to *enjoy*. *Hooker.*

He, who, to *enjoy*
Plato's elyſium, leap'd into the ſea. *Milton.*

To pleaſe; to gladden; to exhilarate; to glad; to delight. This ſenſe is uſual with the reciprocal pronoun, and is derived from *enjouir*.—Creatures are made to *enjoy* themſelves, as well as to ſerve us. *More.*

To ENJO'Y, *v n.* To live in happineſs:

Then I ſhall be no more!
And Adam, wedded to another Eve,
Shall live with her *enjoying*, I extinct. *Milton.*

ENJOY'ER, *ſ.* One that has fruition or poſſeſſion.

ENJOY'MENT, *ſ.* Pleaſure; happineſs; fruition.—His hopes and expectations are bigger than his *enjoyments*. *Tillotſon.*

ENISE'I, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes in the borders of Chineſe Tartary, and taking a northern courſe, runs into the Frozen Ocean. Lat. 72. 20. N. lon. 100. 0. E. Ferro.

ENISEI'SK, a town of Ruſſian Siberia, in the government of Tobolſk, on the river Eniſei; large, populous, and fortified, with an extenſive juriſdiction, which pays annually a tribute in ſkins to the crown of Ruſſia: 400 miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Kollivan, 1692 eaſt-north-eaſt of Aſtrachan, and 2293 caſt-ſouth-eaſt of Peterſburgh. Lat. 58. 16. N. lon. 109. 36. E. Ferro.

E'NIX, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada: eight miles weſt of Almeria.

To ENKIN'DLE, *v. a.* To ſet on fire; to inflame; to put in a flame:

Edmund, *enkindle* all the ſparks of nature
To quit this horrid act. *Shakeſpeare.*

To rouſe paſſions; to ſet the ſoul into a flame. To incite to any act or hope:

Your

Your hand
Gave ſign for me to leave you: ſo I did,
Fearing to ſtrengthen that impatience,
Which ſeem'd too much *enkindled*. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENKIO'PING, a town of Sweden, on the north ſide of the Mœler lake, in the province of Upland: twenty-one miles ſouth-weſt of Upſal.

EN'KIRCH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Sponheim: three miles north of Traarbach.

ENKU'SEN, a town of the iſland of Borneo.

To ENLA'RD, *v. a.* To pamper.—That were to *enlard* his fat-already pride. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENLAR'GE, *v. a.* [*elargir*, Fr.] To make greater in quantity or appearance:

The wall, in luſtre and effect like glaſs,
Which o'er each object caſting various dyes,
Enlarges ſome, and others multiplies. *Pope.*

To increaſe any thing in magnitude, to extend.—Where there is ſomething both laſting and ſcarce, and ſo valuable to be hoarded up, there men will not be apt to *enlarge* their poſſeſſions of land. *Locke.*—To increaſe by repreſentation; to magnify; to exaggerate. To dilate; to expand.—O ye Corinthians, our mouth is open unto you, our mouth is *enlarged*. 2 *Cor.* vi. 11.—To ſet free from limitation.—Though ſhe appear honeſt to me, yet at other places ſhe *enlargeth* her mirth ſo far, that there is ſhrewd conſtruction made of her. *Shakeſpeare.*—To extend to more purpoſes or uſes.—It hath grown from no other root than only a deſire to *enlarge* the neceſſary uſe of the word of God, which deſire hath begotten an error, *enlarging* it farther than ſoundneſs of truth will bear. *Hooker.* To amplify; to aggrandiſe.—This is that ſcience which would truly *enlarge* mens minds, were it ſtudied. *Locke.*—To releaſe from confinement:

Enlarge the man committed yeſterday,
That rail'd againſt our perſon. *Shakeſpeare.*

To diffuſe in eloquence.—They *enlarged* themſelves upon this ſubject with all the invidious inſinuations they could deviſe. *Clarendon.*

To ENLAR'GE, *v. n.* To expatiate; to ſpeak in many words.—They appointed the chancellor of the exchequer to *enlarge* upon any of thoſe particulars. *Clarendon.*—To be further extended.—The caliphs obtained a mighty empire, which was in a fair way to have *enlarged*, until they fell out among themſelves. *Raleigh.*

ENLAR'GEMENT, *ſ.* Increaſe; augmentation; farther extenſion:

The ocean, which ſo long our hopes confin'd,
Could give no limits to his vaſter mind:
Our bounds' *enlargement* was his lateſt toil,
Nor hath he left us pris'ners to our iſle. *Waller.*

Releaſe from confinement or ſervitude.—If thou holdeſt thy peace at the time, then ſhall their *enlargement* and deliverance ariſe to the Jews from another place. *Eſther* iv. 14.—Magnifying repreſentation:

And all who told it, added ſomething new;
And all who heard it, made *enlargements* too. *Pope.*

Expatiating ſpeech; copious diſcourſe.—He concluded with an *enlargement* upon the vices and corruptions which were got into the army. *Clarendon.*

ENLAR'GER, *ſ.* Amplifier; one that increaſes or dilates any thing.—We ſhall not contentiouſly rejoin, but confer what is in us unto his name and honour, ready to be ſwallowed in any worthy *enlarger*. *Brown.*

To ENLI'GHT, *v. a.* To illuminate; to ſupply with light; to enlighten:

Wit from the firſt has ſhone on ages paſt,
Enlights the preſent, and ſhall warm the laſt. *Pope.*

To ENLIGH'TEN, *v. a.* To illuminate; to ſupply with light.—God will *enlighten* my darkneſs. *Pſalms.*—As the ſun ſhineth to the whole world, ſo there is no faith but this one publiſhed, the brightneſs whereof muſt *enlighten* all that come to the knowledge of the truth. *Hooker.*—To quicken in the faculty of viſion.—His eyes were *enlightened*. *Samuel.*

Love never fails to maſter what he finds;
The fool *enlightens*, and the wiſe he blinds. *Dryden.*

To inſtruct; to furniſh with increaſe of knowledge.—This doctrine is ſo agreeable to reaſon, that we meet with it in the writings of the *enlightened* heathens. *Spectator.*—To cheer; to exhilarate; to gladden. To illuminate with divine knowledge.—Thoſe who were once *enlightened*. *Hebrews.*

ENLIGH'TENER, *ſ.* Illuminator; one that gives light. Inſtructor:

O, ſent from heav'n,
Enlight'ner of my darkneſs! gracious things
Thou haſt reveal'd. *Milton.*

To ENLINK', *v. a.* To chain to; to connect.—*Enlinks* to waſte and deſolation. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENLI'VEN, *v. a.* [from *life*, *live*.] To make quick; to make alive; to animate. To make vigorous or active:

Thoſe great orbs thus radically bright,
Primitive founts and origins of light,
Enliven worlds denied to human ſight. *Prior.*

To make ſprightly or vivacious. To make gay or cheerful in appearance.

ENLI'VENER, *ſ.* That which animates; that which puts in motion; that which invigorates:

But fire, th' *enlivener* of the general frame,
Is one, its operation ſtill the ſame:
Its principle is in itſelf; while ours
Works, as confed'rates war, with mingled pow'rs. *Dryden.*

To ENLU'MINE, *v. n.* [*enluminer*, Fr.] To illumine; to illuminate; to enlighten. *Not in uſe:*

For having yet, in his deducted ſpright,
Some ſparks remaining of that heav'nly fire,
He is *enlumin'd* with that goodly light,
Unto like goodly ſemblance to aſpire. *Spenſer.*

EN'MITY, *ſ.* [from *enemy*; as if *enemity*, *inamity*.] Unfriendly diſpoſition; malevolence; averſion.—Their being forced to their books, in an age at *enmity* with all reſtraint, has been the reaſon why many have hated books. *Locke.*—Contrariety of intereſts or inclinations; mutual malignity:

Between thee and the woman I will put
Enmity; and between thine and her ſeed;
Her ſeed ſhall bruiſe thy head, thou bruiſe his heel. *Milton.*

State of oppoſition.—Know ye not that the friendſhip of the world is *enmity* with God? *Jam.* iv. 4.—Malice; miſchievous attempts.—He who performs his duty in a ſtation of great power, muſt needs incur the utter *enmity* of many, and the high diſpleaſure of more. *Atterbury.*

To ENMAR'BLE, *v. a.* To turn to marble; to harden. *Obſolete:*

Their dying to delay,
Thou do'ſt *enmarble* the proud heart of her,
Whoſe love before their life they do prefer. *Spenſer.*

To ENME'SH, *v. a.* To net; to entangle; to intrap:

So will I turn her virtue into pitch;
And out of her own goodneſs make the net
That ſhall *enmeſh* them all. *Shakeſpeare.*

EN'NA, anciently a town of Sicily, ſituated on an eminence to the ſouth of the Chryſas; called the *centre of Sicily*. It was famous for a ſacred grove, in which the rape of Proſerpine happened; for a temple of Ceres, thence ſurnamed *Ennæa*, and *Ennenſis*; and for fine ſprings; whence the name. *Bochart.*

EN'NEAD, *ſ.* [from εννεας, Gr.] The number nine.

ENNEADECA'TERIS, *ſ.* [of εννεα, nine, and δεκατες, Gr. ten.] In chronology, a cycle or period of 19 ſolar

years, being the ſame as the Golden Number, and Lunar Cycle, or Cycle of the Moon. See CHRONOLOGY.

ENNEA'GON, *ſ.* [of εννεα, nine, and γωνια, Gr. an angle.] A plane geometrical figure of 9 ſides and angles; and is otherwiſe called a *nonagon*. If each ſide of this figure be 1, its area will be $6\cdot 1818242 = \frac{9}{4}$ of the tang. of 70 degrees, to the radius 1.

ENNEAHE'DRIA *ſ.* In natural hiſtory, a ſpecies of columnar double pointed ſpars.

ENNE'ALOGUE *ſ.* [from εννεα, nine, and λογος, Gr. a word.] A diſcourſe of nine parts. *Cole.*

ENNEA'LOGY *ſ.* [from εννεα, and λογος, Gr. a word.] A diſcourſe conſiſting of nine points; a treatiſe divided into nine parts. *Scott.*

ENNEAND'RIA, *ſ.* [from εννεα, nine, and ανηρ, a man or huſband.] In botany, the name of the ninth claſs in Linnæus's ſexual ſyſtem, conſiſting of plants which have hermaphrodite flowers with nine ſtamina or male organs. See BOTANY, vol. iii. p. 256.—It is alſo an order in the claſſes *Monadelphia* and *Dioecia*.

ENNEAPE'TALA COROLLA, *ſ.* In botany, a nine-petalled corolla; or, a flower of nine petals: as in *Thea viridis*, *Magnolia*, and *Liriodendron*.

ENNEA'TICAL, *adj.* [from εννεα, Gr.] *Enneatical days*, are every ninth day of a ſickneſs; and *enneatical years*, every ninth year of one's life.

ENNEBACK'A, a town of Norway: twenty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Chriſtiana.

EN'NEL LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Weſtmeath: two miles ſouth of Mullengar.

EN'NERIS, *ſ.* in the naval architecture of the ancients, a galley with nine tires of oars.

ENNEZA'T, a town of France, in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Riom: one league and a half eaſt of Riom.

EN'NIS, a town of Ireland, in the county of Clare, large and populous, ſituated on the Fergus, which is navigable for large boats from the Shannon, which adds greatly to the trade of the town: ſeventeen miles north-weſt of Limerick. Lat. 52. 49. N. lon. 8. 54. W. Greenwich.

ENNISCOR'THY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wexford; where is a manufacture of coarſe woollen cloth, and ſome conſiderable iron works: ten miles north of Wexford, and twenty-ſeven north-eaſt of Waterford.

ENNISKIL'LEN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, ſituated on an iſland in the river Erne, between the two parts of Lough Erne. The linen manufacture flouriſhes here, and produces its principal wealth: thirty-three miles weſt of Armagh, and forty-one ſouth of Londonderry.

EN'NIUS (Quintus), an early Roman poet of great fame, a native of Rudiæ in Calabria, born about the year of Rome 514, before Chriſt 237. He boaſted a deſcent from king Meſſapus, but he appears to have been in an humble condition of life. According to Silius Italicus, he ſerved as a centurion in Sardinia when that iſland was ſubdued by T. Manlius, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour. He probably remained in Sardinia after the war; for we are told by Corn. Nepos, that Cato the cenſor, when prætor, brought back with him from his government of Sardinia, the poet Ennius. He lived on terms of great intimacy with Scipio Naſica, as we learn from a jeſt recorded by Cicero (de Orat. l. ii.) Q. Fulvius, procured for him the citizenſhip of Rome. From the affection borne him by theſe eminent perſons, we may judge favourably of the character and manners of Ennius; though it is probable that his convivial talents carried him beyond the bounds of ſtrict ſobriety, ſince Horace (Epiſt. 19. l. i.) repreſents him as warming his heroic vein by liberal potations. The gout, which tormented his old age, was probably the conſequence of his intemperance; as, perhaps, was alſo his poverty; which evils, however, he bore with great equanimity. He lived to the age of ſeventy. A ſtatue, ſuppoſed to be of him, was extant in the monument of the Scipios, in the time of Livy. Ennius is regarded as the father of Latin epic or heroic poetry, and he appears to have been diſtinguiſhed by that force and vigour, accompanied with ruſticity and negligence, which is generally the character of genius in an unpoliſhed age. This is the idea given of him by Ovid:

Ennius ingenio maximus, arte rudis.
The bard in genius mighty, rude in art.

Lucretius ſpeaks of him as the firſt who brought the muſe to Latium; and Virgil proved his eſteem of him by tranſcribing into his works many whole or half lines from Ennius. It cannot be doubted that his poetry was very popular in Rome, ſince he made the great events of Roman hiſtory his topic in a large performance entitled "Annals," which, by the grammarian Q. Vargunteius, were afterwards divided into eighteen books. He was accuſtomed publicly to recite portions of this poem on certain days; and we learn from Gellius, that recitations from the Annals of Ennius were continued to his time. He alſo compoſed tragedies, comedies, epigrams, and ſatires; and he is praiſed as being the firſt who ventured to deſert the Grecian dramatic ſtories, and take his arguments from Roman hiſtory. Some didactic works of his are alſo mentioned. None of his pieces are come down to us entire, but fragments of ſeveral of them. Theſe have been publiſhed ſeparately, Amſterd. 4to. 1707, and alſo in the Corpus Poetar. of Mattaire.

To ENNO'BLE, *v. a.* [*ennoblir*, Fr.] To raiſe from commonalty to nobility:

Many fair promotions
Are given daily to *ennoble* thoſe,
That ſcarce, ſome two days ſince, were worth a noble.
Shakeſpeare.

To dignify; to aggrandiſe; to exalt; to raiſe.—God raiſed up the ſpirit of this great perſon, and *ennobled* his courage and conduct with the entire overthrow of this mighty hoſt. *South.*

What can *ennoble* ſots, or ſlaves, or cowards?
Alas! not all the blood of all the Howards. *Pope.*

To elevate; to magnify:

None ſo lovely, ſweet, and fair,
Or do more *ennoble* love. *Waller.*

To make famous or illuſtrious.—The Spaniards could not as invaders land in Ireland, but only *ennobled* ſome of the coaſts thereof with ſhipwrecks. *Bacon.*

ENNO'BLEMENT, *ſ.* The act of raiſing to the rank of nobility.—He added, during parliament, to his former creations, the *ennoblement* or advancement in nobility of a few others. *Bacon.*—Exaltation; elevation; dignity.—The eternal wiſdom enriched us with all *ennoblements*, ſuitable to the meaſures of an unreſtrained goodneſs. *Glanville.*

ENNO'DIUS (Magnus Felix), biſhop of Ticinum, now Pavia, in the ſixth century, deſcended from an illuſtrious family among the Gauls, and born in Italy, about the year 473. He was ordained one of the deacons by Epiphanius biſhop of Pavia, with whom he lived in habits of the ſtricteſt intimacy and friendſhip. Having from his early years been much attached to the ſtudy of rhetoric and poetry, he continued to cultivate his taſte for them, in connection with the ſubjects which were more immediately appropriate to his theological profeſſion. He was employed to draw up a Panegyric upon Theodoric king of the Oſtrogoths, in which he diſplayed an extenſive acquaintance with profane hiſtory, much eloquence, and a ſufficient portion of courtly adulation. But his rhetorical talents were exerciſed with more art, and leſs honour, in the Apology which he wrote for the council which acquitted pope Symmachus of the accuſations laid to his charge by Laurentius, his rival candidate for the pontifical chair. In this Apology, the colours of a gaudy rhetoric are artfully made uſe of to diſguiſe the truth; and the author's abilities are proſtituted to ſupport the foundation of that enormous power which the popes of Rome afterwards

wards acquired, by maintaining the doctrine, that the Roman pontiff was anſwerable to none upon earth for his conduct, and ſubject to no human tribunal. He obtained the reward of his ſervices, however, by being promoted to the ſee of Pavia; where he died in 521, aged forty-eight years. Beſides the Panegyric and Apology already mentioned, he was the author of 1. *Epiſtolarum ad Diverſos, Libri* ix. 2. *Vita B. Epiphanii, Epiſcopi Ticinenſis.* 3. *Vita B. Antonii, monachi Lirinenſis.* 4. *Euchariſticon de vita ſua ad Elpidium.* 5. *Dictiones ſacræ.* 6. *Scholaſticæ.* 7. *Ethicæ, &c.* 8. *Poemata.* 9. *Epigrammata, &c.* They were collected and publiſhed by Andrew Schottus, at Tournay, in 1610, 8vo. and by father Sirmond, at Paris, in 1611, 8vo.

ENNUI', *ſ.* [French; a term which ſeems naturalized in modern Engliſh, becauſe we have no word in our language exactly ſynonymous.] Languor or laſſitude of mind; irregularity or perplexity of thought; faſtidiouſneſs of temper. *Ennui* is a diſeaſe to thoſe who are determined to be diſſatisfied with every ſituation or event of human life. To prevent *ennui*, all thoſe employments which awaken ingenuity, which ſmooth the temper, and excite complacency of mind, ſhould be made the firſt rudiments of a liberal education. Chagrin, care, and regret, are commonly the *ennuis* of old age.

E'NO, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Romania; the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop: twenty-eight miles north-weſt of Gallipoli.

E'NO, a river of the American States, in North Carolina, which unites with Little and Flat rivers in Orange county, and forms the Neus, about ſeventeen miles below Hillſborough.

E'NOCH, [חנך Heb. dedicated.] The ſon of Jared, and father of Methuſelah, and the ſeventh man in a lineal deſcent from Adam, born in the year before Chriſt 3382. He was a prophet, eminent for his exalted piety and conſummate virtue in the midſt of a corrupt and vicious race of men; on which account he found ſuch favour in the ſight of God, that he was tranſlated to heaven without undergoing the pains of death, when he was 365 years old, or in the year before Chriſt 3017. St. Jude, in the 14th and 15th verſes of his Epiſtle, has quoted a prediction of this prophet, taken, according to the ſuppoſition of ſome critics, from an ancient book, containing the traditions of the Jewiſh church, which has been long ſince loſt; but according to others, from a work called "The Book, or the Prophecies of Enoch," cited by Irenæus, Clement of Alexandria, Tertullian, Athenagoras, Jerome, and others of the fathers. But whether St. Jude be conſidered as quoting the words of a prophecy preſerved by tradition, or as making uſe of expreſſions taken from ſome uncanonical author, there appears no reaſonable evidence to conclude that in the time of the apoſtles there exiſted any book which was to be aſcribed to the prophet Enoch.

E'NOCH, or CHA'NOCH, the name of a city built by Cain, which he named after his ſon Enoch. This is the firſt city we find mentioned in ſcripture. *Gen.* iv. 17.

E'NOCHS, a town of the American States, in the ſtate of Virginia: 145 miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Virginia.

ENODA'TION, *ſ.* [*enodatio*, Lat.] The act of untying a knot. Solution of a difficulty.

ENO'DUS, *adj.* [from *e*, priv. and *nodus*, a knot.] In botany it means without knots or joints.

ENO'LA, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Lavora: four miles north of Fundi.

ENOMTE'KIS, a town of Swediſh Lapland: 150 miles north of Tornea.

E'NON, [Heb. his fountain.] A town of Paleſtine, ſituated near Salim, where John the Baptiſt exerciſed his functions. *John*, iii. 23.

ENORE'E, a north-weſt branch of Broad River in South Carolina. It ſeparates Pinckney and Ninety-ſix diſtricts of the American States, and joins Broad River about five miles below Tyger River.

ENO'RM, *adj.* [from *enormis*, Lat.] Wicked beyond meaſure:

I will, I will, if your courageous force
Dareth ſo much as it can well perform,
Tear out his curſed heart without remorſe,
The neſt of treaſon falſe, and guile *enorm.* *Fairfax.*

ENOR'MITY, *ſ.* Deviation from rule; irregularity. Deviation from right; depravity; corruption.—That this law will be always ſufficient to bridle or reſtrain *enormity*, no man can warrant. *Hooker.*—Atrocious crime; flagitious villainy; crimes exceeding the common meaſure. In this ſenſe it has a plural.—It is not a bare ſpeculation that kings may run into *enormities*; the practice may be proved by example. *Swift.*

ENOR'MOUS, *adj.* [*enormis*, Lat.] Irregular; out of rule; not regulated by any ſtated meaſure.—Wallowing, unwieldy, *enormous* in their gait. *Milton.*

Nature here
Wanton'd, as in her prime; and plaid at will
Her virgin fancies, pouring forth more ſweets,
Wild above rule, or art, *enormous* bliſs! *Paradiſe Loſt.*

Excurſive; beyond the limits of a regular figure.—The *enormous* part of the light in the circumference of every lucid point, ought to be leſs diſcernible in ſhorter teleſcopes than in longer, becauſe the ſhorter tranſmit leſs light to the eye. *Newton.*—Diſordered; confuſed:

I ſhall find time
From this *enormous* ſtate, and ſeek to give
Loſſes their remedies. *Shakeſpeare.*

Wicked beyond the common meaſure. Exceeding in bulk the common meaſures; always uſed with ſome degree of diſlike, or horror, or wonder:

A giant ſhepherd here his flock maintains,
Far from the reſt, and ſolitary reigns,
A form *enormous!* far unlike the race
Of human birth, in ſtature or in face. *Pope.*

ENOR'MOUSLY, *adv.* Beyond meaſure.—One who could never eſpouſe a notion ſo *enormouſly* abſurd and ſenſeleſs, as that the world was framed by chance. *Woodward.*

ENOR'MOUSNESS, *ſ.* Immeaſurable exceſs.—When thoſe who have no opportunity to examine our faith, ſee the *enormouſneſs* of our works, but what ſhould hinder them from meaſuring the maſter by the diſciple? *Decay of Piety.*

E'NOS, [אנוש Heb. mortal, ſickly, miſerable.] The ſon of Seth, and father of Cainan, born in the year of the world 235. Moſes tells us, Gen. iv. 26. that then "*men* began to call upon the name of the Lord;" or, as others tranſlate it, that "Enos began to call upon the name of the Lord;" denoting, that he was the inventor of religious rites and ceremonies in the external worſhip which was paid to God. This worſhip was kept up in Enos's family, while Cain's family was plunged in all manner of impieties. The Jews are of opinion, that idolatry was at firſt introduced into the world in the time of Enos. They tranſlate the Hebrew thus: "Then men began to *profane* the name of the Lord." Enos died at the great age of 905 years, in the year of the world 1140.

E'NOSBURG, a townſhip of the American States, in Franklin county, Vermont, about eighteen or twenty miles eaſt of Swantown.

ENOTAE'VSK, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Caucaſus, on the Volga: ſeventy-two miles north-north-eaſt of Aſtrachan. Lat. 47. 15. N. lon. 64. 5. E. Ferro.

EN'OVATED, *adj.* Made new, brought up as ſomething new. *Scott.*

ENOUGH', *adj.* [Ðenoh, Sax. *ganah*, Goth. *genoeg*, Dut. It is not eaſy to determine whether this word be an adjective or adverb; perhaps, when it is joined with a ſubſtantive, it is an adjective, of which *enow* is the plural. In other ſituations it ſeems an adverb; except that after the verb *To have*, or *To be*, either expreſſed or underſtood, it may be accounted a ſubſtantive. It is pronounced as if it were written *enuf.*] In a ſufficient meaſure; ſo as may ſatisfy; ſo as may ſuffice.—When there was not room

enough for their herds, they by consent separated, and enlarged their pasture. *Locke.*

Why would'st thou go, with one consent they cry,
When thou hast gold *enough*, and Emily? *Dryden.*

ENOUGH', *s.* Something sufficient in greatness or excellence.—'Tis *enough* for me to have endeavoured the union of my country, whilst I continued in public employments. *Temple.*

Enough for me that to the list'ning swains,
First in those fields I sung the silvan strains. *Pope.*

Something equal to a man's powers or faculties.—Some great defects and main errors in his nature, customs, and proceedings, he had *enough* to do to save and help, with a thousand little industries and watches. *Bacon.*

ENOUGH', *adv.* In a sufficient degree; in a degree that gives satisfaction. It notes a slight augmentation of the positive degree: as, *I am ready* enough *to quarrel*; that is, I am rather quarrelsome than peaceable.—It is sometimes pleasant *enough* to consider the different notions which different persons have of the same thing. *Addison.*—Sometimes it notes diminution; as, the song is well *enough*; that is, not quite well, though not much amiss. An exclamation noting fulness or satiety:

Henceforth, I'll bear
Affliction 'till it do cry out itself,
Enough, enough, and die. *Shakespeare.*

"ENOUGH is as good as a Feast."—The French say, *Qui a assez, n'a plus rien à desirer:* He that has enough has nothing more to desire. The Latins, *Quod satis est, cui contingit, nihil amplius optet*; or, *Satis est quod sufficit*; *nimis est quod suffocat.* The Germans say, *Ein vergnugter muht is taglich, mohl leben:* A contented mind is a daily happiness. The French say likewise, *On est assez riche quand on a le necessaire:* Rich enough who has what is necessary. Proverbial sayings calculated to influence the minds of men to be satisfied with the dispensations of Providence, and content with moderate fortunes. They are likewise incitements to temperance and frugality.

To ENOUN'CE, *v. a.* [*enuncio*, Lat.] To declare.—He does not fear to *enounce* himself with shouts of exultation. *A. Smith.*

Listen to your Maker's voice
Mellifluous, which aloud the mild award
Enounces through your regions. *Bally's Day of Judgment.*

ENOW', the plural of *enough*. In a sufficient number.—There are at Rome *enow* modern works of architecture to employ any reasonable man. *Addison.*

Man had selfish foes *enow* besides,
That, day and night, for his destruction wait. *Milton.*

EN PAS'SANT, *adv.* [Fr.] By the way.

To ENPIE'RCE, *v. a.* To transfix:

I am too sore *enpierced* with his shaft
To soar with his light feathers. *Shakespeare.*

ENQUI'RY. See INQUIRY.

To ENRA'CE, *v. a.* [*enraciner*, Fr.] To root:

Whence he it fetcht out of her native place,
And did in stocke of earthly flesh *enrace*. *Spenser.*

To ENRA'GE, *v. a.* [*enrager*, Fr.] To irritate; to provoke; to make furious; to exasperate:

Enrag'd at this, upon the bawd I flew;
And that which most *enrag'd* me was, 'twas true. *Walsh.*

To ENRAN'GE, *v. a.* To place regularly; to put in order:

As fair Diana, in fresh summer's day,
Beholds her nymphs *enrang'd* in shady wood. *Spenser.*

To ENRAN'GE, *v. n.* To range:

Where, as this day I was *enraunging* it,
I chaunst to meet this knight. *Spenser.*

To ENRAN'K, *v. a.* To place in orderly ranks.—No leisure had he to *enrank* his men. *Shakespeare.*

To ENRAP'T, *v. a.* [from *rapt*: the participle preterite seems to be *enrapt*.] To throw into an extasy; to transport with enthusiasm:

I myself
Am, like a prophet, suddenly *enrapt*
To tell thee, that this day is ominous. *Shakespeare.*

In the following quotation it seems erroneously written for *enwrapt*, involved; wrapt up.—Nor hath he been so *enrapt* in those studies, as to neglect the polite arts of painting and poetry. *Arbuthnot.*

To ENRAP'TURE, *v. a.* To transport with pleasure; to delight highly:

Oft gazing on her shade, th' *enraptur'd* fair
Decreed the substance well deserv'd her care. *Shenstone.*

To ENRA'VISH, *v. a.* To throw into an extasy; to transport with delight:

What wonder,
Frail men, whose eyes seek heavenly things to see,
At sight thereof so much *enravish'd* be? *Spenser.*

ENRA'VISHMENT, *s.* Extasy of delight.—They contract a kind of splendour from the seemingly obscuring vail, which adds to the *enravishments* of her transported admirers. *Glanville.*

To ENRE'GISTER, *v. a.* To register:

And in the same, as in a brasen book,
To read *enregister'd* in every nook
His goodness, which his beauty doth declare. *Spenser.*

To ENRHEU'M, *v. a.* [*enrhumer*, Fr.] To have rheum through cold.—The physician is to enquire where the party hath taken cold or *enrheumed*. *Harvey.*

To ENRI'CH, *v. a.* [*enricher*, Fr.] To make wealthy; to make opulent.—The king will *enrich* him with great riches, and will give him his daughter. 1 *Sam.* xvii. 25.

Henry is able to *enrich* his queen,
And not to seek a queen to make him rich. *Shakespeare.*

To fertilise; to make fruitful:

See the sweet brooks in silver mazes creep,
Enrich the meadows, and supply the deep. *Blackmore.*

To store; to supply with augmentation of any thing desirable.—There is not any one among them that could ever *enrich* his own understanding with any certain truth, or ever edify others therein. *Raleigh.*

ENRICH'MENT, *s.* Augmentation of wealth. Amplification; improvement by addition.—It is a vast hindrance to the *enrichment* of our understandings, if we spend too much of our time and pains among infinites and unsearchables. *Watts.*

To ENRID'GE, *v. a.* To form with longitudinal protuberances or ridges:

He had a thousand noses,
Horns welk'd and wav'd like the *enridged* sea:
It was some fiend. *Shakespeare.*

To ENRIN'G, *v. a.* To bind round; to encircle; to adorn with a ring.—Ivy so *enrings* the barky fingers of the elm. *Shakespeare.*

To ENRI'PEN, *v. a.* To ripen; to mature; to bring to perfection:

The summer, how it *enripen'd* the year;
And autumn, what our golden harvests were. *Donne.*

To ENRI'VE, *v. a.* To force asunder.—And made a grisly wound in his *enriven* side. *Spenser.*

To ENRO'BE, *v. a.* To dress; to clothe; to habit; to invest:

Her mother hath intended,
That, quaint in green, she shall be loose *enrob'd*. *Shakesp.*

To ENROL'L, *v. a.* [*enroller*, Fr.] To insert in a roll, list, or register.—There be *enrolled* amongst the king's forces about thirty thousand men of the Jews. 1 *Mac.* x. 36.

—We find ourſelves *enrolled* in this heavenly family as ſervants, and as ſons. *Spratt.*

Mentes, an ever-honour'd name of old,
High in Ulyſſes' ſocial liſts *enroll'd*. *Pope.*

To record; to leave in writing:

Laws, which none ſhall find
Left them *enroll'd*; or what the ſpirit within
Shall on the heart engrave. *Milton.*

To involve; to inwrap:

From his infernal furnace forth he threw
Huge flame, that dimmed all the heaven's light,
Enroll'd in duſkiſh ſmoak and brimſtone blue. *Spenſer.*

ENROL'LER, *ſ.* He that enrols; he that regiſters.

ENROL'MENT, *ſ.* Regiſter; writing in which any thing is recorded; record.—The king himſelf cauſed to be enrolled, and teſtified by a notary public; and delivered the *enrolments*, with his own hands, to the biſhop of Saliſbury. *Davies on Ireland.*

ENROL'MENT, *ſ.* in law, the regiſtering or entering in the rolls of the chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, or exchequer, or by the clerk of the peace in the records of the quarter ſeſſions, of any lawful act; as a ſtatute or recognizance acknowledged, a deed of bargain and ſale of lands, &c. An enrolment of a deed, may be either by the common law, or according to the ſtatute: and enrolment of deeds ought to be made in parchment, and recorded in court, for perpetuity's ſake. But the enrolling a deed doth not make it a record, though it thereby becomes a deed recorded: for there is a difference between matter of record, and a thing recorded to be kept in memory; a record being the entry in parchment of judicial matters controverted in a court of record, and whereof the court takes notice; whereas an enrolment of a deed is a private act of the parties concerned, of which the court takes no cognizance at the time of doing it, although the court permits it. 2 *Lil. Abr.* 69.

Every deed, before it is enrolled, is to be acknowledged to be the deed of the party before a maſter of the court of chancery, or a judge of the court wherein enrolled; which is the officer's warrant for enrolling of the ſame: and the enrolment of a deed, if it be acknowledged by the grantor, will be good proof of the deed itſelf upon a trial. A deed may be enrolled without the examination of the party himſelf; for it is ſufficient if oath is made of the execution. If two are parties, and the deed is acknowledged by one, the other is bound by it: and if a man lives in New York, &c. and would paſs land in England, a nominal perſon may be joined with him in the deed, who may acknowledge it here, and it will be binding. 1 *Salk.* 389. If the party dies before it is enrolled, it may be enrolled afterwards; and enrolments of deeds operate by virtue of the ſtatute of enrolments; but if livery and ſeiſin be had before the enrolling, it prevents the operation of the enrolment, and the party ſhall be in by that, as the more worthy ceremony to paſs eſtates. 2 *Nelſ. Abr.* 1010.

An indorſement on the back of the deed by the proper officer is ſufficient evidence of the enrolment. *Doug.* 56,8. And by 10 Anne, c. 18, where a bargain and ſale enrolled ſhall be pleaded with a profert, a copy of the enrolment ſigned by the proper officer, and proved on oath to be a true copy, ſhall be of the ſame force as the deed itſelf. Enrolment is ordained in divers caſes by ſtatute; of bargains and ſales by 27 Hen. VIII. c. 16. Deeds in corporations, &c. 34 and 35 Hen. VIII. c. 22. Of writings in the counties of Lancaſter and Cheſter, &c. 5 Eliz. c. 26. Grants from the crown of felons' goods, &c. 4 and 5 Wil. and Mary, c. 22. Alſo, of deeds and wills made of lands of papiſts.

To ENROO'T, *v. a.* To fix by the root; to implant deep:

He cannot ſo preciſely weed this land,
As his miſdoubts preſent occaſion:
His foes are ſo *enrooted* with his friends,
That, plucking to unfix an enemy,
He doth unfaſten ſo and ſhake a friend. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENRO'UND, *v. a.* To environ; to ſurround; to encircle; to incloſe:

Upon his royal face there is no note
How dread an army hath *enrounded* him. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENS, *ſ.* [Lat.] A term for any being or exiſtence. In chemiſtry, ſome things that are ſaid to contain all the qualities or virtues of the ingredients they are drawn from.

ENS, a river of Germany, which riſes about four miles weſt of Raſtadt, in the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, and runs into the Danube at Enns, in the archduchy of Auſtria.

ENS, or ENNS, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, ſituated at the conflux of the Ens and the Danube; founded about the year 900; ſituated on an eminence, well built and ſtrongly fortified; containing a convent, an arſenal, and two caſtles, one of which is ſurrounded with walls, and bears the name of Enſburg: forty-two miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Paſſau, and eighty weſt of Vienna. Lat. 48. 13. N. lon. 32. 13. E. Ferro.

ENS, a town in the ſouthern part of the iſland of Schokland, in the Zuyder Sea: ten miles north-weſt of Campen.

ENS MAR'TIS, *ſ.* A name anciently given to the calx of iron which ariſes in ſublimation, with twice its quantity of ſal ammoniac. Medical practice does not now place this preparation in a higher rank of eſtimation than other calces of iron.

ENS VE'NERIS, *ſ.* The ens martis is in many diſpenſatories called by this name; others direct a ſublimation to be made with ſal ammoniac, and the calx of cupreous vitriol, a proceſs which it is well known affords no flowers, or at leaſt a quantity proportioned merely to the iron with which the vitriol of copper may be contaminated. Hence it appears, that there is really no ens veneris.

ENSAM'PLE, *ſ.* [*eſſempio*, Ital.] Example; pattern; ſubject of imitation. This orthography is now juſtly diſuſed.—Ye have us for an *enſample*. *Phil.* iii. 17.

Such life ſhould be the honour of your light;
Such death, the ſad *enſample* of your night. *Spenſer.*

To ENSAM'PLE, *v. a.* To exemplify; to ſhew by example; to give us a copy.—I have followed all the ancient poets hiſtorical: firſt, Homer, who, in the perſon of Agamemnon, *enſampled* a good governor and a virtuous man. *Spenſer.*

To ENSAN'GUINE, *v. a.* [*ſanguis*, Lat. *enſanglanter*, Fr.] To ſmear with gore; to ſuffuſe with blood:

With cruel tournament the ſquadrons join;
Where cattle paſtur'd late, now ſcatter'd lies,
With carcaſſes and arms, th' *enſanguin'd* field. *Milton.*

ENSA'TÆ, *ſ.* [*enſis*, Lat. a ſword.] In botany, the fifth order in Linnæus's Fragments, and the ſixth in the natural orders at the end of his *Gen. Pl.* containing ſome of the liliaceous plants, which have ſword-ſhaped leaves.

ENSCHE'DE, a town of the United Dutch States in Overiſſel: five miles ſouth from Oldezeel.

To ENSCHE'DULE, *v. a.* To inſert in a ſchedule or writing:

You muſt buy that peace
With full accord to all our juſt demands,
Enſchedul'd here. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENSCON'CE, *v. a.* To cover as with a fort; to ſecure. *Hanmer.*—We make trifles of terrors, *enſconcing* ourſelves in ſeeming knowledge. *Shakeſpeare.*

A ſort of error to *enſconce*
Abſurdity and ignorance. *Hudibras.*

To ENSE'AM, *v. a.* To ſow up; to incloſe by a ſeam or juncture of needlework.—A name engraved in the reveſtiary of the temple, one ſtole away, and *enſeamed* it in his thigh. *Camden.*—To contain:

And bounteous Trent, that in himſelf *enſeames*
Both thirty ſorts of fiſh, and thirty ſundry ſtreams. *Spenſ.*

Upton's gloſſary interprets *enſeam* here by *fatten*; which interpretation, or the reaſons of the gloſſariſt, the compiler can by no means adopt. *Maſon.*

To

To ENSEA'R, *v. a.* To cauteriſe; to ſtanch or ſtop with fire:

Enſear thy fertile and conceptious womb;
Let it no more bring out t' ingrateful man. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENSEI'NT, *adj.* [law Fr.] With child.—A. died without iſſue born, but leaving his wife *enſeint*, or big with child. *Blackſtone.*

EN'SENE, a town of Egypt, on the eaſt ſide of the Nile: 120 miles ſouth of Cairo. Lat. 28. 5. N. lon. 48. 40. E. Ferro.

To ENSHIE'LD, *v. a.* To ſhield; to cover; to protect:

Theſe black maſks
Proclaim an *enſhield* beauty, ten times louder
Than beauty could diſplay. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENSHRI'NE, *v. a.* To encloſe in a cheſt or cabinet; to preſerve and ſecure as a thing ſacred:

Fair fortune next, with looks ſerene and kind,
Receives 'em, in her ancient fane *enſhrin'd*. *Addiſon.*

ENSIF'EROUS, *adj.* [*enſifer*, Lat.] Sword-bearing.

EN'SIFORM, *adj.* [*enſiformis*, Lat.] Having the ſhape of a ſword, as the xiphoeides or *enſiform* cartilage. In botany, it denotes plants with ſword-ſhaped leaves, tapering from the baſe towards the point.

EN'SIGN, *ſ.* [*enſeigne*, Fr.] The flag or ſtandard of a regiment.—Hang up your *enſigns*, let your drums be ſtill. *Shakeſpeare.*—Any ſignal to aſſemble.—He will lift up an *enſign* to the nations from far. *Iſaiah* v.—Badge; or mark of diſtinction, rank, or office.—The marks or *enſigns* of virtues contribute, by their nobleneſs, to the ornament of the figures; as the decorations belonging to the liberal arts, to war, or ſacrifices. *Dryden.*

Princes that fly, their ſceptres left behind,
Contempt or pity, where they travel, find;
The *enſigns* of our pow'r about we bear,
And ev'ry land pays tribute to the fair. *Waller.*

The officer of foot who carries the flag. See the articles FLAG, and STANDARD.

EN'SIGN-BEARER, *ſ.* He that carries the flag; the enſign.—If it be true that the giants ever made war againſt heaven, he had been a fit *enſign-bearer* for that company. *Sidney.*

EN'SISHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Colmar: four leagues ſouth of Colmar.

ENSKY'ED, *part. adj.* Carried to heaven.—I hold you as a thing *enſky'd* and ſainted. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENSLA'VE, *v. a.* To reduce to ſervitude; to deprive of liberty.—While the balance of power is equally held, the ambition of private men gives neither danger nor fear, nor can poſſibly *enſlave* their country. *Swift.*

The conquer'd alſo, and *enſlav'd* by war,
Shall, with their freedom loſt, their virtue loſe. *Milton.*

To make over to another as his ſlave or bondman.—No man can make another man to be his ſlave, unleſs he hath firſt *enſlaved* himſelf to life and death, to pleaſure or pain, to hope or fear; command thoſe paſſions, and you are freer than the Parthian king. *Taylor.*—The more virtuouſly any man lives, and the leſs he is *enſlaved* to any luſt, the more ready he is to entertain the principles of religion. *Tillotſon.*

ENSLA'VEMENT, *ſ.* The ſtate of ſervitude; ſlavery; abject ſubjection.—The children of Iſrael, according to their method of ſinning, after mercies, and thereupon returning to a freſh *enſlavement* to their enemies, had now paſſed ſeven years in cruel ſubjection. *South.*

ENSLA'VER, *ſ.* He that reduces others to a ſtate of ſervitude:

What indignation in her mind,
Againſt *enſlavers* of mankind! *Swift.*

ENSNA'RE. See INSNARE.

To ENSNAR'LE, *v. a.* To entangle.—They in awayt would cloſely him *enſnarle*. *Spenſer.*

To ENSTA'L, &c. See INSTAL.

EN'STORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria and Upper Palatinate: twenty-two miles north of Ratiſbon.

To ENSTY'LE, *v. a.* To denominate:

High on the plains of that renowned ile,
Which all men beauty's garden-plot *enſtyle*. *W. Browne.*

To ENSU'E, *v. a.* [*enſuivre*, Fr.] To follow; to purſue.—Flee evil, and do good; ſeek peace, and *enſue* it. *Common Prayer.*

To ENSU'E, *v. n.* To follow as a conſequence to premiſes.—Let this be granted, and it ſhall hereupon plainly *enſue*, that the light of ſcripture once ſhining in the world, all other light of nature is therewith in ſuch ſort drowned, that now we need it not. *Hooker.*—To ſucceed in a train of events, or courſe of time.—Of worſe deeds worſe ſufferings muſt *enſue*. *Milton.*

Then grave Clariſſa graceful wav'd her fan;
Silence *enſu'd*, and thus the nymph began. *Pope.*

ENSU'RANCE, *ſ.* Exemption from hazard, obtained by the payment of a certain ſum. The ſum paid for ſecurity.

ENSU'RANCER, *ſ.* He who undertakes to exempt from hazard:

The vain *enſurancers* of life,
And they who moſt perform'd, and promis'd leſs,
Ev'n Short and Hobbes, forſook th' unequal ſtrife. *Dryd.*

To ENSU'RE, *v. a.* [from *ſure*, *aſſurer*, Fr.] To aſcertain; to make certain; to ſecure.—It is eaſy to entail debts on ſucceeding ages, but how to *enſure* peace for any term of years is difficult enough. *Swift.*—To exempt any thing from hazard by paying a certain ſum, on condition of being reimburſed for miſcarriage. To promiſe reimburſement of any miſcarriage for a certain reward ſtipulated.—A mendicant contracted with a country fellow for a quantity of corn, to *enſure* his ſheep for that year. *L'Eſtrange.*

ENSU'RER, *ſ.* One who makes contracts of enſurance; one who for a certain ſum exempts any thing from hazard.

ENT (George), a learned phyſician and anatomiſt, born, in 1603, at Sandwich, ſon of a Flemiſh merchant who took refuge in England from the tyranny of the duke of Alva. He was brought up to letters; and after finiſhing his education at Cambridge, went abroad for the ſtudy of phyſic, and took his doctor's degree at Padua, in which, upon his return, he was incorporated at Oxford. He ſettled in London, and was admitted into the college of phyſicians, of which he filled the various offices with great reputation. He firſt made himſelf known as an author by a defence of Harvey's doctrine of the circulation, in a work entitled *Apologia pro Circulatione Sanguinis, qua reſpondetur Æmilio Pariſano*, 1641, reprinted with large additions in 1685. The anatomical reputation he had acquired cauſed him to be appointed one of the lecturers in that ſcience before the college of phyſicians. Charles II. once condeſcended to be his auditor, and after the lecture conferred upon him the honour of knighthood. He was one of the original members of that private philoſophical ſociety, which, after the reſtoration, formed the Royal Society. He publiſhed, in 1679, a controverſial piece, intitled *Antidiatriba in Malachiam Thruſton de Reſpirationis Uſu primario*, containing ſome obſervations upon Dr. Thruſton's work upon reſpiration, which he had firſt communicated to him in manuſcript. Sir George Ent died in 1689, at the age of eighty-ſix.

ENTA'BLATURE, or ENTABLEMENT, *ſ.* [from *table.*] In architecture, that part of an order of column which is over the capital, comprehending the architrave, frize, and cornice. It is alſo uſed for the laſt row of ſtones on the top of the wall of a building, on which the timber and covering

covering reſt; ſometimes called the *drip*, becauſe it projects a little to throw the water off.

ENTA'DA, *ſ.* in botany. See MIMOSA.

ENTA'IL, *ſ.* [*feudum talliatum*, from the Fr. *entaillé*, cut, from *tailler*, to cut.] The eſtate entailed or ſettled, with regard to the rule of its deſcent. The rule of deſcent ſettled for any eſtate. Engraver's work; inlay. *Obſolete:*

Well it appeared to have been of old,
A work of rich *entail*, and curious mold,
Woven with anticks and wild imagery. *Spenſer.*

To ENTA'IL, *v. a.* [*entailler*, Fr. from *tailler*, to cut.] To ſettle the deſcent of any eſtate, ſo that it cannot be by any ſubſequent poſſeſſor bequeathed at pleaſure:

Had Richard unconſtrain'd reſign'd the throne,
A king can give no more than is his own:
The title ſtood *entail'd*, had Richard had a ſon. *Dryden.*

To fix unalienably upon any perſon or thing.—None ever had a privilege of infallibility *entailed* to all he ſaid. *Digby.*—The intemperate and unjuſt tranſmit their bodily infirmities and diſeaſes to their children, and *entail* a ſecret curſe upon their eſtates. *Tillotſon.*—To cut. *Obſolete.* In the following paſſage it is neuter:

The mortal ſteel, diſpiteouſly *entail'd*,
Deep in their fleſh, quite through the iron walls
That a large purple ſtream adown their giambeaux falls.
Spenſer.

To carve for ornament:

All bar'd with golden bendes, which were *entayl'd*
With curious antickes, and full fayre aumayld. *Spenſer.*

To ENTA'ME, *v. a.* To tame; to ſubjugate; to ſubdue:

'Tis not your inky brows, your black ſilk hair,
Your bugle eyeballs, and your cheek of cream,
That can *entame* my ſpirits to your worſhip. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ENTAN'GLE, *v. a.* [A word of uncertain etymology.] To inwrap or inſnare with ſomething not eaſily extricable, as a net; or ſomething adheſive, as briars. To loſe in multiplied involutions; as in a labyrinth. To twiſt, or confuſe in ſuch a manner as that a ſeparation cannot eaſily be made; to make an *entangled* knot. To involve in difficulties; to embarraſs; to perplex.—He knew not how to wreſtle with deſperate contingencies, and ſo abhorred to be *entangled* in ſuch. *Clarendon.*

Now all labour,
Marrs what it does, yea, very force *entangles*
Itſelf with ſtrength. *Shakeſpeare.*

To puzzle; to bewilder.—I ſuppoſe a great part of the difficulties that perplex men's thoughts, and *entangle* their underſtandings, would be eaſily reſolved. *Locke.*—To enſnare by captious queſtions or artful talk.—The phariſees took council how they might *entangle* him in his talk. *Matt.* xxii. 15.—To diſtract with variety of cares.—No man that warreth *entangleth* himſelf with the affairs of this life. 2 *Tim.* ii. 4.—To multiply the intricacies or difficulties of a work.

ENTAN'GLEMENT, *ſ.* Involution of any thing intricate or adheſive. Perplexity; puzzle.—The moſt improved ſpirits are frequently caught in the *entanglements* of a tenacious imagination. *Glanville.*

ENTAN'GLER, *ſ.* One that entangles.

ENTA'TICA, *ſ.* [from ἐντείνω, Gr. to ſtrain.] Provocatives; medicines which create luſt.

ENTELE'CHIA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A word uſed by Ariſtotle to expreſs the human mind.

ENTEL'LUS, a famous athlete among the friends of Æneas. He was intimate with Eryx, and entered the liſts againſt Dares, in the funeral games of Anchiſes, in Sicily. *Virgil.*

To E'NTER, *v. a.* [*entrer*, Fr.] To go or come into any place.

I with the multitude of my redeem'd,
Shall *enter* heav'n long abſent. *Milton.*

To initiate in a buſineſs, method, or ſociety.—The eldeſt being thus *enter'd*, and then made the faſhion, it would be impoſſible to hinder them. *Locke.*—To introduce or admit into any counſel:

They of Rome are *enter'd* in our counſels,
And know how we proceed. *Shakeſpeare.*

To ſet down in writing:

Mr. Phang, have you *enter'd* the action?
—It is *enter'd*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To E'NTER, *v. n.* To come in; to go in.—Be not ſlothful to go and to *enter* to poſſeſs the land. *Judges.*—To penetrate mentally; to make intellectual entrance.—He is particularly pleaſed with Livy for his manner of telling a ſtory, and with Salluſt for his *entering* into eternal principles of action. *Addiſon.*—To engage in.—The French king hath often *entered* on ſeveral expenſive projects, on purpoſe to diſſipate wealth. *Addiſon.*—To be initiated in.—As ſoon as they once *enter'd* into a ſtate of pleaſure, politeneſs, and magnificence, they fell into a thouſand violences, conſpiracies, and diviſions. *Addiſon.*

O pity and ſhame, that thoſe who to live well
Enter'd ſo fair, ſhould turn aſide! *Milton.*

ENTERDE'AL, *ſ.* [*entre* and *deal.*] Reciprocal tranſactions. *Obſolete:*

To learn the *enterdeal* of princes ſtrange,
To mark th' intent of counſels, and the change
Of ſtates. *Hubberd's Tale.*

ENTEREN'CHYTA, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the bowels, and ἐγχυω, Gr. to infuſe into.] An inſtrument for adminiſtering clyſters.

EN'TERING, *ſ.* Entrance; paſſage into a place.—It is laid waſte, ſo that there is no houſe, no *entering* in. *Iſaiah.*

ENTERI'TIS, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, Gr. the bowels.] An inflammation of the bowels.

To ENTERLA'CE, *v. a.* [*entrelaſſer*, Fr.] To intermix; to interweave.—This lady walked outright, 'till we might ſee her enter into a fine cloſe arbour: it was of trees, whoſe branches ſo lovingly *enterlaced* one another, that it could reſiſt the ſtrongeſt violence of the ſight. *Sidney.*

ENTEROCE'LE, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the bowels, and κηλη, Gr. a tumour.] An inteſtinal hernia.

ENTEROEPIPLOCE'LE, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the bowels, ἐπιπλοον, the omentum, and κηλη, Gr. a rupture.] A rupture of the omentum and the inteſtines, in which they protrude themſelves through the integuments of the belly.

ENTEROHYDROCE'LE, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the bowels, and ὑδροκηλη, Gr. a dropſy of the ſcrotum.] A dropſy of the ſcrotum, with a deſcent of the inteſtine.

ENTERO'LOGY, *ſ.* [ἐντερον and λογος, Gr.] The anatomical account of the bowels and internal parts.

ENTEROM'PHALOS, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the inteſtines, and ομφαλος, Gr. the navel.] A rupture of the inteſtines at the navel.

EN'TERON, *ſ.* [from ἐντος, Gr. within.] An inteſtine.

ENTEROSCHEOCE'LE, *ſ.* [from ἐντερα, the inteſtines, and οσχεοκηλη, Gr. a rupture of the ſcrotum.] A rupture of the inteſtines into the ſcrotum.

ENTERPAR'LANCE, *ſ.* [*entre* and *parler*, Fr.] Parley; mutual talk; conference.—During the *enterparlance* the Scots diſcharged againſt the Engliſh, not without breach of the laws of the field. *Hayward.*

ENTERPLE'ADER, in law. See INTERPLEADER.

EN'TERPRISE, *ſ.* [*entrepriſe*, Fr.] An undertaking of hazard; an arduous attempt.—Now is the time to execute mine *enterpriſes* to the deſtruction of the enemies. *Judith* xiii. 5.

The day approach'd, when fortune ſhould decide
The important *enterpriſe*, and give the bride. *Dryden.*

To EN'TERPRISE, *v. a.* To undertake; to attempt; to eſſay.—Princes were only chiefs of thoſe aſſemblies, by whoſe conſultations and authority the great actions were reſolved and enterpriſed. *Temple.*

Haſte then, and loſe no time:
The buſineſs muſt be *enterpris'd* this night;
We muſt ſurpriſe the court in its delight. *Dryden.*

To receive; to entertain. *Obſolete:*

In goodly garments, that her well became,
Fair marching forth in honourable wiſe,
Him at the threſhold met, and well did *enterpriſe*. *Spenſer.*

EN'TERPRISER, *ſ.* A man of enterpriſe; one who undertakes great things; one who engages himſelf in important and dangerous deſigns.—They commonly proved great *enterpriſers* with happy ſucceſs. *Hayward.*

To ENTERTA'IN, *v. a.* [*entretenir*, Fr.] To converſe with; to talk with.—His head was ſo well ſtored a magazine, that nothing could be propoſed which he was not readily furniſhed to *entertain* any one in. *Locke.*—To treat at the table.—You ſhall find an apartment fitted up for you, and ſhall be every day *entertained* with beef or mutton of my own feeding. *Addiſon.*—To receive hoſpitably.—Be not forgetful to *entertain* ſtrangers; for thereby ſome have *entertained* angels unawares. *Heb.* xiii. 2.

Heaven, ſet ope thy everlaſting gates,
To *entertain* my vows of thanks and praiſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

To keep in one's ſervice.—You, ſir, I *entertain* for one of my hundred; only I do not like the faſhion of your garments. *Shakeſpeare.*—To reſerve in the mind.—This purpoſe God can *entertain* towards us. *Decay of Piety.*—To pleaſe; to amuſe; to divert.—The hiſtory of the Royal Society ſhews how well philoſophy becometh a narration! the progreſs of knowledge is as *entertaining* as that of arms. *Felton.*—To admit with ſatisfaction.—Reaſon can never permit the mind to *entertain* probability in oppoſition to knowledge and certainty. *Locke.*—To make choice of:

But when he lookt about on every ſyde,
To weet which way were beſt to *entertaine*,
To bring him to the place where he would faine,
He could no path nor tract of foot deſcry. *Spenſer.*

ENTERTA'IN, *ſ.* Entertainment:

But neede, that anſwers not to all requeſts,
Bad them not looke for better *entertaine*. *Spenſer.*

ENTERTA'INER, *ſ.* He that keeps others in his ſervice.—He was, in his nature and conſtitution of mind, not very apprehenſive or forecaſting of future events afar off, but an *entertainer* of fortune by the day. *Bacon.*—He that treats others at his table.—It is little the ſign of a wiſe or good man to ſuffer temperance to be tranſgreſſed, in order to purchaſe the repute of a generous *entertainer*. *Atterbury.*—He that pleaſes, diverts, or amuſes.

ENTERTA'INMENT, *ſ.* Converſation. Treatment at the table; convivial proviſion:

With Britiſh bounty in his ſhip he feaſts
Th' Heſperian princes, his amazed gueſts,
To find that wat'ry wilderneſs exceed
The *entertainment* of their great Madrid. *Waller.*

Hoſpitable reception. Reception; admiſſion.—It is not eaſy to imagine how it ſhould at firſt gain *entertainment*, but much more difficult to conceive how it ſhould be univerſally propagated. *Tillotſon.*—The ſtate of being in pay as ſoldiers or ſervants.—Have you an army ready, ſay you?——A moſt royal one. The centurions and their charges diſtinctly billetted, already in the *entertainment*, and to be on foot at an hour's warning. *Shakeſpeare.*—Payment of ſoldiers or ſervants. *Now obſolete.*—The captains did covenant with the king to ſerve him with certain numbers of men, for certain wages and *entertainment*. *Davies.*—Amuſement; diverſion.—Paſſions ought to be our ſervants, and not our maſters; to give us ſome agitation for *entertainment*, but never to throw reaſon out of its ſeat. *Temple.*—Dramatic performance; the lower comedy.—A great number of dramatic *entertainments* are not comedies, but five-act farces. *Gay.*

To ENTERTA'KE, *v. a.* To entertain; to receive.—And with more myld aſpect thoſe two to *entertake*. *Spenſer.*

ENTERTIS'SUED, *adj.* [*entre* and *tiſſue*, Fr.] Enterwoven or intermixed with various colours or ſubſtances:

The ſword, the mace, the crown imperial,
The *entertiſſued* robe of gold and pearl. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENTERVIEW', *ſ.* in falconry, is the ſecond year of a hawk's age.

To ENTHAL'MIZE, *v. a.* [from *enthalmizo*, Lat.] To bring the bride and bridegroom to the bedchamber. *Scott. Not much uſed.*

ENTHE'AL, *adj.* [from εν, in, and θεος, Gr. God.] Divinely inſpired.

ENTHEAS'TICAL, or ENTHEATED, *adj.* Inſpired; divinely inſpired. *Scott. Not much uſed.*

ENTHE'MA, *ſ.* [from εν, in, and τιθημι, Gr. to place.] With phyſicians, a medicine to ſtop bleeding.

ENTHE'MATA, *ſ.* [from εν, in, and τιθημι, Gr. to place.] Grafts inſerted into the ſlits of trees. *Not uſed.*

To ENTHRO'NE, *v. a.* To place on a regal ſeat:

Mercy is above this ſcepter'd ſway:
It is *enthroned* in the hearts of kings;
It is an attribute to God himſelf. *Shakeſpeare.*

To inveſt with ſovereign authority.—This pope was no ſooner elected and *enthroned*, but that he began to exerciſe his new rapines. *Ayliffe.*

To ENTHRO'NIZE, *v. a.* To enthrone:

Right princely virtue, fit to reign,
Enthroniz'd in her ſpirit remain. *Davis's Aſtræa.*

ENTHU'SIASM, *ſ.* [*enthuſiaſmus*, Lat. from ενθουσιαζω, Gr. to rave.] A vain belief of private revelation; a vain confidence of divine favour or communication.—*Enthuſiaſm* is founded neither on reaſon nor divine revelation, but riſes from the conceits of a warmed or overweening brain. *Locke.*—Heat of imagination; violence of paſſion; confidence of opinion.—Elevation of fancy; exaltation of ideas.—Imaging is, in itſelf, the very height and life of poetry, which, by a kind of *enthuſiaſm*, or extraordinary emotion of ſoul, makes it ſeem to us that we behold thoſe things which the poet paints. *Dryden.*

ENTHU'SIAST, *ſ.* [ενθουσιαω, Gr.] One who vainly imagines a private revelation, or who has a vain confidence of his intercourſe with God.—Let an *enthuſiaſt* be principled that he or his teacher is inſpired, and acted by an immediate communication of the Divine Spirit, and you in vain bring the evidence of clear reaſon againſt his doctrine. *Locke.*—One of a hot imagination, or violent paſſions.—Chapman ſeems to have been of an arrogant turn, and an *enthuſiaſt* in poetry. *Pope.*—One of elevated fancy, or exalted ideas:

Divine Cecilia came,
Inventreſs of the vocal frame;
The ſweet *enthuſiaſt*, from her ſacred ſtore,
Enlarg'd the former narrow bounds,
And added length to ſolemn ſounds,
With nature's mother-wit, and arts unknown before. *Dryd.*

ENTHUSIAS'TIC, or ENTHUSIASTICAL, *adj.* [from ενθουσιαστικος, Gr.] Perſuaded of ſome communication with the deity.—He pretended not to any ſeraphic *enthuſiaſtical* raptures or inimitable unaccountable tranſports of devotion. *Calamy.*—Vehemently hot in any cauſe. Elevated in fancy; exalted in ideas.—An *enthuſiaſtic* or prophetic ſtyle, by reaſon of the eagerneſs of the fancy, doth not always follow the even thread of diſcourſe. *Burnet.*

At laſt, ſublim'd
To rapture and *enthuſiaſtic* heat,
We feel the preſent Deity. *Thomſon.*

EN'THYMEME, *ſ.* [ενθυμημα, Gr.] In logic, an argument conſiſting only of an antecedent and conſequential propoſition;

propoſition; a ſyllogiſm where the major propoſition is ſuppreſſed, and only the minor and conſequence produced in words.—Playing much upon the ſimple or luſtrative argumentation, to induce their *enthymemes* unto the people, they take up popular conceits. *Brown.*—What is an *enthymeme*, quoth Cornelius? Why an *enthymeme*, replied Crambe, is when the major is indeed married to the minor, but the marriage kept ſecret. *Arbuthnot.*

To ENTI'CE, *v. a.* [of uncertain etymology.] To allure; to attract; to draw by blandiſhments or hopes to ſomething ſinful or deſtructive.—If a man *entice* a maid that is betrothed, he ſhall ſurely endow her to be his wife. *Ex.* xxii. 16.

So ſang the ſyrens with enchanting ſound,
Enticing all to liſten, and be drown'd. *Granville.*

ENTI'CEMENT, *ſ.* The act or practice of alluring to ill.—Suppoſe we that the ſacred word of God can at their hands receive due honour, by whoſe *enticement* the holy ordinances of the church endure every where open contempt? *Hooker.*

And here to every thirſty wanderer,
By ſly *enticement* gives his baneful cup,
With many murmurs mixt. *Milton.*

The means by which one is allured to ill; blandiſhment; allurement.—In all theſe inſtances we muſt ſeparate intreaty and *enticements* from deceit or violence. *Taylor.*

ENTI'CER, *ſ.* One that allures to ill.

ENTI'CINGLY, *adv.* Charmingly; in a winning manner.—She ſtrikes a lute well, and ſings moſt *enticingly*. *Addiſon.*

EN'TIERTY, *ſ.* [*entierté*, Fr.] The whole; not barely a part.—Sometime the attorney thruſteth into the writ the uttermoſt quantity; or, elſe ſetteth down an *entierty*, where but a moiety was to be paſſed. *Bacon.*

ENTI'RE, *adj.* [*entier*, Fr. *integer*, Lat.] Whole; undivided.—It is not ſafe to divide, but to extol the *entire*, ſtill in general. *Bacon.*—Unbroken; complete in its parts.—An antique model of the famous Laocoon is *entire* in thoſe parts where the ſtatue is maimed. *Addiſon on Italy.*—Full; complete; compriſing all requiſites in itſelf.—An action is *entire* when it is complete all its parts: or, as Ariſtotle deſcribes it, when it conſiſts of a beginning, a middle, and an end. *Spectator.*—Sincere; hearty:

Love's not love,
When it is mingled with regard that ſtands
Aloof from the *entire* point. *Shakeſpeare.*

Firm; ſure; ſolid; fixed:

Entire and ſure the monarch's rule muſt prove,
Who founds her greatneſs on her ſubjects' love. *Prior.*

Unmingled; unallayed:

Wrath ſhall be no more
Thenceforth, but in thy preſence joy *entire*. *Milton.*

Honeſt; firmly adherent; faithful.—No man had ever a heart more *entire* to the king, the church, or his country; but he never ſtudied the eaſieſt ways to thoſe ends. *Clarendon.*—In full ſtrength; with vigour unabated; with power unbroken.—Then back to fight again, new breathed and entire. *Spenſer.*—Inward:

Deep in the cloſet of my parts *entire*
Her worth is written with a golden quill. *Spenſer.*

ENTIRE'LY, *adv.* In the whole; without diviſion.—Euphrates, running, ſinketh partly into the lakes of Chaldea, and falls not *entirely* into the Perſian ſea. *Raleigh.*—Chyle may be ſaid to be a vegetable juice in the ſtomach and inteſtines; as it paſſeth into the lacteals it grows ſtill more animal, and when it hath circulated often with the blood, it is *entirely* ſo. *Arbuthnot.*

Completely; fully:

Here finiſh'd he, and all that he had made
View'd; and behold! all was *entirely* good. *Milton.*

With firm adherence; faithfully:

Which when his penſive lady ſaw from far,
Great woe and ſorrow did her ſoul aſſay,
As weening that the ſad end of the war,
And 'gan to higheſt God *entircly* pray. *Spenſer.*

ENTI'RENESS, *ſ.* Totality; completeneſs; fulneſs.—In an arch, each ſingle ſtone, which, if ſevered from the reſt, would be perhaps defenceleſs, is ſufficiently ſecured by the ſolidity and *entireneſs* of the whole fabric, of which it is a part. *Boyle.*—Honeſty; integrity.

ENTI'RETY, *ſ.* Completeneſs.—This is the natural and regular conſequence of the union and *entirety* of their intereſt. *Blackſtone.*

To ENTI'TLE, *v. a.* [*entituler*, Fr.] To grace or dignify with a title or honourable appellation. To give a title or diſcriminative appellation; as, to *entitle* a book.—Beſides the Scripture, the books which they call eccleſiaſtical were thought not unworthy to be brought into public audience, and with that name they *entitled* the books which we term apocryphal. *Hooker.*

Next favourable thou,
Who highly thus to *entitle* me vouchſaf'ſt
Far other name deſerving! *Milton.*

To ſuperſcribe, or prefix as a title.—How ready zeal for party is to *entitle* Chriſtianity to their deſigns, and to charge atheiſm on thoſe who will not ſubmit. *Locke.*—To give a claim to any thing.—God diſcovers the martyr and confeſſor without the trial of flames and tortures; and will hereafter *entitle* many to the rewards of actions which they had never the opportunity of performing. *Addiſon.*—To grant any thing as claimed by a title.—This is to *entitle* God's care how and to what we pleaſe. *Locke.*

EN'TITY, *ſ.* [*entitas*, low Lat.] Something which really is; a real being.—Fortune is no real *entity*, nor phyſical eſſence, but a mere relative ſignification. *Bentley.*

Dear hope, earth's dowry and heaven's debt,
The *entity* of things that are not yet:
Subt'leſt, but ſureſt being. *Craſhaw.*

A particular ſpecies of being.—All eruptions of air, though ſmall and ſlight, give an *entity* of ſound, which we call crackling, puffing, and ſpitting; as in bay ſalt and bay leaves, caſt into the fire. *Bacon.*

ENTLIBU'CH, a town of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Lucern; the principal place of a bailiwic, about nine leagues long, and ſix wide: which applied to the Swiſs to be relieved from the oppreſſions of its lords in the year 1386: twelve miles weſt of Lucern.

ENTO'GANUM, *ſ.* in botany. See MELICOPE.

To ENTO'IL, *v. a.* To enſnare; to entangle; to bring into toils or nets.—He cut off their land forces from their ſhips, and *entoiled* both their navy and their camp with a greater power than theirs, both by ſea and land. *Bacon.*

To ENTO'MB, *v. a.* To put into a tomb; to bury.—Proceſſions were firſt begun for the interring of holy martyrs, and the viſiting of thoſe places where they were *entombed*. *Hooker.*

They within the beaſt's vaſt womb,
The choice and flow'r of all their troops *entomb*. *Denham.*

ENTOMO'LOGY, *ſ.* [from εντομον, an inſect; of εν, in, and τεμνω, to cut, becauſe of the cuts or indented rings on its abdomen; and λογος, Gr. diſcourſe.] The ſcience which inveſtigates the nature, ſtructure, and economy, of inſects; called likewiſe *inſectology*. On the ſlighteſt view of this ſubject, we cannot but be ſtruck with the extenſive range which Providence has aſſigned to theſe diminutive animals, which are found to pervade the whole empire of Nature, in numbers which defy all powers of computation: and in nothing does the immenſity of creation more wonderfully appear, than in the infinite variety and beauty of the inſect tribes. In their manners and habitudes they form reſemblances with almoſt every other animal: ſome walk like quadrupeds, or creep like reptiles;

tiles; others fly like birds, while others again ſwim, and live in the water, like fiſhes. Entomology, therefore, of all the departments of natural hiſtory, preſents the wideſt field for inveſtigation. The number of experiments and obſervations neceſſary to furniſh a complete hiſtory of ſo many tribes of animals, is not only great, but the difficulty of making them is alſo immenſe. The number of ideas with which a ſkilful botaniſt muſt load his memory, before he can acquire an accurate knowledge of plants, is no doubt great: his taſk, however, bears no proportion to that of the entomologiſt; for, amidſt ſo many plants, there is perhaps hardly one that does not furniſh nouriſhment and an habitation to ſeveral inſects; while many, ſuch as the oak, afford a retreat for ſome hundreds of different families. Plants, however, are far from being the only abode of inſects; vaſt numbers reſide upon the larger animals, whom they continually ſuck; many live upon and devour others of their own kind: the earth ſwarms with multitudes, while the air teems with others, too numerous for the imagination to conceive!

But though a completc hiſtory of this large and populous part of nature's empire cannot be expected; yet, ſuch a general outline may be given, as ſhall demonſtrate the exiſtence of that great vivifying principle by which ſhe is animated, and by which ſhe is enabled continually to pour forth into exiſtence ſuch immenſe numbers of organized beings. Such an enquiry will preſent to us a pleaſing view of that protection which Providence affords even to the ſmalleſt of its creatures; of the means it employs for perpetuating them; and of that wonderful arrangement by which one ſet of beings ſubſiſt upon another, and by which life is renovated and held on through every part of the creation, without a pauſe. It is therefore extraordinary that the ſtudy of entomology ſhould have been deemed an employment the moſt uſeleſs and frivolous in which the human mind can be engaged: and it is to be lamented that many have been in conſequence deterred from contemplating the wonders diſplayed by nature, in a kingdom of animals the moſt numerous, diverſified, and ſplendidly adorned, of any on the face of the globe; and hence have deprived themſelves of views of the power and munificence of the Author of Nature, the moſt ſtriking and intereſting that can be preſented to the mind of man.

To thoſe, however, who even derive no pleaſure from the ſtudies of a liberal mind, and who feel no ſatisfaction in any employment that is not attended with immediate profit, the reſearches of the entomologiſt may not be altogether uſeleſs. Had the operations of the ſilkworm never been examined, how could men have availed themſelves of the labour of an inſect that adminiſters ſo profuſely to the richneſs and elegance of our dreſs? It was not to the unobſerving eye that it firſt occurred, that the produce of that animal's labour might be converted into a conſiderable article of commerce, and might give riſe to many arts, and afford ſubſiſtence to thouſands of manufacturers. In the ſame manner, wax and honey enter into the articles of commerce, and add to our luxuries. It cannot, therefore, be denied, but that thoſe naturaliſts were profitably employed who firſt obſerved the induſtry of the bee; who brought that animal from its native woods, introduced it into the hive, and, by domeſticating it there, have rendered it ſubſervient to our enjoyments.

The Chineſe, whoſe progreſs in many of the arts is deſervedly celebrious, avail themſelves of the labours of certain inſects in procuring a rich dye, and an elegant varniſh, which is provided by a certain ſpecies of winged ant. Our fineſt red colours are alſo furniſhed by inſects. The *cochineal* inſect, the extenſive advantages of which have been long known, is propagated with care, and in vaſt numbers, in the kingdom of Mexico, and in many parts of South America. See the article Coccus, vol. iv. p. 721–724, and the correſponding engraving. The *kermes*, or grain of ſcarlet, which was formerly imagined to be one of the galls or excreſcences that are ſeen on ſhrubs, is now found to be an inſect, which attaches itſelf in that form to a ſpecies of the oak.

The medical uſes of the inſect tribes are alſo far from being inconſiderable; and to theſe objects they have long been applied. The valuable purpoſes to which the cantharides has been made ſubſervient, will alone vindicate the utility of thoſe reſearches which have been made concerning this part of the animal kingdom. There are ſtill other uſes to which inſects have been applied, and that from the moſt remote antiquity, which appear of a curious and ſingular nature. Even before the time of Theophraſtus and of Pliny, certain kinds of them were employed in ripening the figs throughout the iſlands of the Archipelago; and it appears from Tournefort, that the ſame practice ſtill ſubſiſts among the inhabitants of thoſe iſlands. There are two kinds of figs cultivated around the Mediterranean; the wild, and the domeſtic. The former produces fruit ſeveral times in the year; and in it are foſtered certain worms, which are afterwards transformed into ſmall flies. It is by the aſſiſtance of theſe little animals that the domeſtic fig is brought to maturity, which would otherwiſe drop from the tree in an unripe ſtate. During the months of June and July, the peaſants are buſily employed in collecting ſuch of the wild figs as abound moſt with theſe inſects, and in placing them near the cultivated fig, that they may co-operate with nature in bringing it to maturity. Similar purpoſes are effected by our gardeners in England, who employ the bees on their firſt coming, and ſhut them into the frames, to transfer the prolific farina of the male bloſſom to that of the female, whereby fructification is inſured, and early cucumbers produced.

But there are other inducements to the ſtudy of entomology, of a nature wholly different from thoſe already mentioned; inducements, founded not on any hope of pecuniary advantage, but of alleviating or preventing the numerous miſchiefs they occaſion. Infinite ſwarms of inſects annually deſolate whole provinces; others attack our gardens and cultivated grounds, where they commit endleſs devaſtations upon the corn, vegetables, and fruit trees. Nor are their depredations confined to the fields; they even enter the habitations of man, pierce the ſoundeſt bottoms of ſhips, and by deſtroying the timbers gradually reduce them to ruin. They injure his books and furniture, and deſtroy his clothing; ſome of them ſpare not even his perſon, tormenting it long before the period which nature has deſtined it to become their legitimate prey. Here, then, by a cloſer examination of the deſtructive powers of inſects, we ſhall have melancholy proofs of their importance in the ſyſtem of nature, and be perſuaded that however trifling they may appear, there is no claſs of animals whoſe hiſtory more nearly concerns us, and which better deſerves the attention of the naturaliſt.

There are four different ſpecies of the locuſt which are remarkably deſtructive. Almoſt every year, whole provinces, the moſt fertile in Aſia and Africa, are laid waſte by their depredation. In Tunis and Algiers, ſwarms of the *gryllus migratorius* appear ſo numerous, that they darken the face of the ſky, like a threatening cloud. Theſe pernicious animals are wafted there by the ſouthern winds in the month of April. In May they take their departure for the interior parts of the country, to propagate their young; theſe make their appearance in their larva or caterpillar ſtate, during the month of June, when they commit vaſt depredations. The firſt columns, which pervade the country like an army, deſtroy every green ſhrub and pile of graſs; and their devaſtation has not ceaſed, when they are ſucceeded by other ſwarms, that preſs upon their rear, devouring the tender branches and ſtalks of plants, which their forerunners had left. This dreadful viſitation, which the language of ſcripture has juſtly deſcribed as a plague, does not terminate till the inſects have paſſed into their winged ſtate, when they fly off, leaving the whole ſurface of the earth naked and brown, as if ſcorched by fire.—See the article Gryllus, with

with the correſponding engravings of the moſt remarkable ſpecies of locuſts.

Little inferior to the locuſt in its deſtructive powers, is the *phalæna graminis* of Linnæus, which deſtroys the meadows in Sweden. There the peaſants are employed in cutting deep ditches in the ſurface to ſtop the progreſs of the larvæ as they paſs along. If the ſwarm be ſmall, this device has the deſired effect; but the numbers of theſe animals are often ſo great, that they fill up the trenches, and paſs along over the dead bodies that are buried in them. The *formica ſacchilifera* is a native of the Weſt Indies, where it pervades the plantations of the ſugar-cane, entering the plants, and deſtroying them when they are tender: after long experience of its depredations, the inhabitants have never been able to invent a method of deſtroying this pernicious animal. In our own country, the turnip-fly, the butterfly, the chafer maggot, the corn inſect, *thrips phyſapus*, and the gooſeberry worm, have long committed depredations in the fields and gardens, which no invention has hitherto been able wholly to prevent. See the article THRIPS, and correſponding engraving of the corn inſect. Another object highly worthy the attention of the entomologiſt, is the means of preſerving corn from the invaſion of inſects, after it is collected into granarics. Our ſubſiſtence, in almoſt every ſtage of its progreſs, is conſtantly expoſed to the intruſions of theſe enemies of human induſtry. Flour, biſcuit, and almoſt every kind of proviſion, even after it is barrelled up for exportation, is liable to be devoured or rendered uſeleſs, by the depredations of the minuteſt animals. See CURCULIO, vol. v. p. 480, and correſponding engraving of the weevil, &c. The patriotiſm of ſtateſmen, and their zeal for the good of mankind, could not receive a nobler or more uſeful direction than in holding out rewards to ſuch as might diſcover the moſt effectual means of preventing the ravages of thoſe animals, which, by the moſt deſtructive activity, are continually converting large ſtores of proviſions into ſo many maſſes of corruption. If we paſs from theſe evils to other inconveniences with which inſects oppreſs the human race, we ſhall find room to commiſerate the inhabitants of many parts of the globe. What an uncomfortable life muſt the poor Laplander lead, ſince, at certain ſeaſons of the year, the number of inſects is ſo great, that a candle is no ſooner lighted than the flame is extinguiſhed by the multitudes that flock to it; where, after millions are deſtroyed, famiſhed millions ſucceed, and renew the unceaſing combat. Leſs injurious, though equally tormenting, are the muſquetos which infeſt the warm climates of Aſia and South America. Even in Britain, which is happily free from theſe unrelenting invaders, much inconvenience is often felt from the ſting of the hornet, the waſp, and the bee; and almoſt as bad from filthy vermin, eſpecially the bug. See the articles CIMEX, vol. iv. p. 598, and CULEX, vol. v. p. 461—463, with the copper-plates of thoſe various inſects. To counteract theſe inveterate enemies of man, and to relieve him from the miſchiefs they occaſion, ought always to be one aim of the entomologiſt: and no perſon will deny, that whoever, by the ſtudy of inſects, has found the means of availing himſelf of the labours of ſuch as are uſeful, or prevent the noxious from doing harm, hath rendered an eſſential ſervice to mankind.

After what has been ſaid, it may appear ſingular, that the ſtudy of entomology was very long before it attracted any conſiderable degree of attention from men of learning. Ariſtotle, the father of naturaliſts, has allotted but a ſmall portion of his works to the hiſtory of inſects; nor does it appear that he has been always ſufficiently attentive to the authorities upon which he inſerts the different facts he relates, or to the order in which they are arranged. The hiſtories of Pliny and Ælian are formed upon the ſame plan, and are liable to ſimilar defects: they conſiſt of a number of obſervations, ill arranged, and inſufficiently authenticated.

During that long ſucceſſion of ages, which was only diſtinguiſhed by ignorance and barbariſm, entomology ſhared the ſame fate with every other ſcience: it was condemned to oblivion. After a taſte for literature had begun to revive, the hiſtory of inſects again attracted the notice of the curious; unhappily, however, for the growth of ſcience, men were then devoted to the ſtudy of the ancients with a blind admiration. It was from their writings that they imagined the moderns were to derive a complete knowledge of all the ſecrets of nature; and Ariſtotle was principally conſulted for the hiſtory of animals. Had Aldrovandus, Geſner, and Mouffet, beſtowed the ſame attention in ſtudying the works of nature, that they employed upon the writings of ancient authors, they would have made a much greater progreſs in real knowledge. The attempts of theſe writers, however, gave birth to the reſearches of others, who were gradually more bold and ſucceſsful, in proportion as their reverence for antiquity was diminiſhed. In 1668, about twelve years after Mouffet publiſhed his *Theatrum Inſectorum*, the experiments and obſervations of the celebrated Rhedi made their appearance in Italy. His inveſtigations were principally directed to the manner of the generation of inſects, with a view to overthrow that abſurd and erroneous doctrine eſtabliſhed by the ancients, of their ariſing fortuitouſly from different bodies in a ſtate of putrefaction. Nothing can more fully demonſtrate the ſtrength of prejudice than thoſe elaborate treatiſes which Malpighi, Swammerdam, and Rhedi, were obliged to compoſe, in order to combat the notion of the ſpontaneous generation of inſects; an opinion which at preſent ſeems as ridiculous and unphiloſophical as it is untrue. Notwithſtanding all their efforts to prove, that the ſmaller animals are produced in the ſame manner with the larger, and that the organization of the body of a mite requires the ſame apparatus of limbs, and the ſame complete ſtructure of parts, as that of an elephant, attempts were ſtill made to revive the ancient error by Kirker, Bonarie, and others. And what is moſt mortifying to human reaſon, the ſame Rhedi, the declared enemy of prejudices, and the man of all others who knew beſt how to combat them, has, upon this very ſubject, fallen into a ſimilar error. In order to produce thoſe inſects which are found upon the ſmall excreſcences of plants and trees, he conferred a vivifying power, a kind of ſoul, upon thoſe vegetables where they were found, and thus laid aſide the ordinary mode of generation, which in other inſtances he had laboured to eſtabliſh.

Swammerdam was the contemporary of Rhedi; and, like him, he poſſeſſed the courage to examine nature, and think for himſelf. This naturaliſt made many anatomical experiments upon inſects, which after his death were publiſhed at Leyden, and laid the foundation of great improvements in entomology. About the ſame period, Mary Sibille Merian, a Dutch lady, contributed largely to bring the hiſtory of inſects into repute, by the beauty of her paintings and drawings. After having executed elegant figures of ſeveral of the inſects of Europe, from a ſingular avidity for entomology ſhe was prompted to croſs the Atlantic, and give paintings of many of thoſe in South America. Having reſided for ſeveral years in Surinam, ſhe returned to Europe with exquiſite drawings of many of the ſplendid inſects of that continent, which were afterwards engraved and publiſhed in Holland; and her work, with the original drawings, are now preſerved as objects of real curioſity in the Britiſh muſeum. From theſe are given many of the beſt engravings which illuſtrate THIS work.

Goedart is another of the firſt authors who adorned the hiſtory of inſects with the labours of the pencil. He paid great attention to the metamorphoſes of the animals, and has painted many of them in the ſeveral forms which they aſſume, from their appearance till their death. His work was originally publiſhed in German, very badly arranged; a new edition in Latin was afterwards given by Dr. Liſter,

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in which many errors were corrected, and a new arrangement made out by that able naturaliſt, who has himſelf written a valuable treatiſe upon the intricate genus of ſpiders. Some of theſe authors, by the extent of their labours, and others by the boldneſs of their genius, had convinced mankind that the ancients were far from attaining that perfect knowledge of nature which they had hitherto imagined. They were now ſo far emboldened by the progreſs they had made, that they truſted to their own judgment and obſervation in examining the works of nature; and many productions far more judicious, accurate, and philoſophical, were offered to the public, than had ever before appeared. Among the firſt of theſe may be ranked that of our celebrated countryman, Mr. Ray, who had, for the greater part of his life, aſſiduouſly examined the economy of inſects. His *Methodus Inſectorum* was not publiſhed till after his death in 1710, and was then the moſt accurate and conciſe performance on the ſubject of entomology. In the meanwhile, there appeared a numerous liſt of authors who treated this claſs of the animal kingdom; Albin deſcribed the inſects of England, while ſir Hans Sloane, Petiver, Cateſby, and Friſch, have detailed the hiſtory of vaſt numbers of exotic animals of this tribe.—In this ſtate of the ſcience, about the year 1754, appeared M. de Reaumur, by far the moſt laborious and indefatigable entomologiſt then in Europe. Almoſt in every part of France this naturaliſt had correſpondents ſtationed to tranſmit him deſcriptions and ſpecimens of every curious inſect that might occur. And in order to examine their inſtincts, their transformations, and mode of generation, he incloſed vaſt numbers of them in a large aviary, conſtructed with a cloſe net, and ſecured below with a pavement overlaid with green turf, and planted with ſhrubs and different kinds of plants. It was there that this unwearied obſerver of nature examined the manners and economy of thoſe inſects, which he has deſcribed in one of the moſt voluminous works that has appeared on entomology. As a writer, he is extremely diffuſe, but always entertaining and inſtructive. The principal defect in his work is the want of a ſyſtematic arrangement, and the ſynonyma of other authors; a precaution that was alone able to have prevented confuſion in ſo large a performance, and amid the vaſt number of inſects which he has deſcribed. Theſe defects, however, were ſoon after remedied by the excellent claſſification of the illuſtrious Swede, whoſe ſyſtem will probably long continue to be a ſtandard to all thoſe who ſhall hereafter attempt to enlarge the boundaries of natural hiſtory.

Since 1715, when the Syſtema Naturæ was firſt publiſhed by ſir Charles Linnæus, various improvements were made on it by that author, who enjoyed the rare felicity, not only of ſeeing his works gain univerſal approbation, but of many opportunities of bringing them nearer to perfection. In the mean time Geoffroy, Scopoli, Wotton, Harvey, Valiſnieri, and many others of conſiderable note, turned their attention to this intereſting part of natural hiſtory; and while they have endeavoured to improve upon the arrangement of the Swediſh naturaliſt without ſucceſs, have nevertheleſs added greatly to the known ſpecies of inſects. Among this number De Geer, a Swediſh nobleman, counſellor to the king, may be ranked in the firſt ſtation: he has publiſhed a large treatiſe upon this ſubject, in which he has not only deſcribed a great number of inſects with accuracy, but has indulged in philoſophical remarks upon their hiſtory, which poſſeſs very conſiderable merit. For correct claſſification, however, and an enumeration of all the ſpecies of inſects at preſent known, Dr. Gmelin's edition of Linnæus, 1793; the Syſtem of Entomology, by Fabricius, 1795; and Dr. Turton's tranſlation of Gmelin, 1800, are by far the moſt complete.—Beſides theſe, a number of entomologiſts have appeared, who have given moſt elegant engravings of inſects; among which are, Knorr, Roeſel, Seba, Leeuwenhoek, Fueſsly, Muller, Cramer, Pallas, Baker, Barbut, Harris, Wilkes, Latreille, Paykull, Coquebert, Boſch, Friſch, Clairville, Detigny, and particularly Drury. Some of theſe have improved this ſcience by microſcopical obſervation: the laſt elegant improvement of which has been recently given by Kanmacher, in his new edition of Mr. Adams's Hiſtory of Inſects, illuſtrated by the miſcroſcope.

Whether we turn our attention to a hot or a cold climate, it is probable that the number of inſects in every country is greater than that of plants. In Sweden there have been enumerated, and pretty accurately deſcribed, about one thouſand ſeven hundred inſects, while the number of plants, though no where more accurately examined than in that kingdom, do not exceed thirteen hundred.—In the neighbourhood of Paris, there have been diſcovered by Geoffroy and Reaumur, upwards of one thouſand four hundred inſects, while the plants of the ſame diſtrict, which have been ſtill more accurately examined than the inſects, do not nearly amount to that number.—The Britiſh inſects have never yet been either fully enumerated, or accurately deſcribed; although the plants of this iſland have been pretty accurately aſcertained, by the indefatigable induſtry of Dr. Withering. Dr. Berkenhout, in his outlines of the natural hiſtory of this iſland, has enumerated five hundred and ſeventy-two different ſpecies. In all probability, a more complete inveſtigation would diſcover three, or perhaps four, times, that number of Britiſh inſects. The nearer any country approaches to the equator, the more numerous will the inſect tribes be found. In theſe northerly climes, however, there is ſtill much room left for entomological inveſtigation and enquiry.

The different operations which inſects are obſerved to perform, oblige the naturaliſt to aſcribe to them a certain degree of intelligence. Yet the various proceſſes through which they paſs are ſo uniform, and that ſucceſſion of actions which we ſee them exhibit are ſo little varied, that nature ſeems to have deſtined them to act a ſubordinate part in the great republic of animals. If their hiſtory ſometimes repreſents them varying their procedure, and accommodating themſelves to circumſtances, the ſphere of their addreſs ſeems to be confined within narrow limits; and it is ſeldom that they attract our admiration by any unuſual efforts of ſagacity. The bee and the ant repreſent ſtriking inſtances of aſſiduity in labour; they have, however, but one ſingle method of operating, and, withdrawn from that, can turn to no other. A bee taken out of the hive is totally helpleſs and inactive; far from diſplaying the ſagacity of the dog, it ſeems incapable of giving the ſmalleſt variation to its inſtincts. In the purſuits of the latter animal, there appears ſomething like choice; in the labours of the former, the whole appears like neceſſity or compulſive inſtinct.

The amazing number of inſects is another argument of their inferiority in the ſentient principle. It is a rule which obtains among the offſpring of nature, that the nobler animals are ſlowly produced, and that, in forming theſe, ſhe acts with a dignified economy; while, in her meaner births, ſhe is often laviſh to profuſion; and thouſands of the more ignoble kinds are produced merely to ſupply the neceſſities of the more favoured and highly organized parts of her creatures. From theſe conſiderations, we are induced to believe, that the degree of intelligence allotted to this claſs of the animal kingdom is but ſmall; and our experience, as far as it goes, coincides with this opinion. While other animals are capable of ſome degree of education, theſe have one invariable mode of operating, which no art can either alter or improve. The dog is taught to carry; the bird to ſing a tune; but thoſe inſects which may be conſidered as completely domeſticated, can by no invention be turned from their inſtinct. The ſilkworm completes its labours, and the ſpider conſtructs its web invariably in the ſame manner. An exiſtence which continues but a ſingle ſeaſon, ſeems too ſhort for the purpoſes of inſtruction, or of learning. Hence the inſects are not only of a rank inferior to the larger animals, but are more nearly allied to the *vermes*,

than to the claſſes above them. Many are attached to one vegetable, ſome to a ſingle leaf, where the period of their lives is completed in a few weeks, or perhaps a few days or hours; and where the pleaſures they enjoyed, or the purpoſes for which they were produced, are in a great meaſure beyond the reach of our faculties to explore.

Of the PARTS of INSECTS.

An inſect is defined to be, an animated being deſtitute of bones; but which, inſtead thereof, is covered with a very hard ſkin which ſupplies the place of oſſification; has ſix or more feet; and breathes through ſpiracula, or pores placed in the ſide of the body: yet inſects are very diſtinct from, and muſt not be confounded with, *vermæ* or worms. Quadrupeds, birds, and fiſhes, have all an internal ſkeleton of bones, to which the muſcles are affixed; but the whole interior of inſects is compoſed of ſoft fleſh, and the muſcles are attached to an external ſhell, which ſerves the double purpoſe of ſkin and bone, completely exemplified in the crab and lobſter.—See the article CANCER, vol. iii. p. 704—707.

Inſects are divided into four principal parts: the *caput*, or head; the *thorax*, or trunk; the *abdomen*, or belly; the *artus*, or limbs. The HEAD is affixed to the thorax by a ſpecies of articulation or joint; it is the principal ſeat of the ſenſes, and, as proved by Fabricius, contains the rudiments of the brain; it is furniſhed with a mouth, eyes, antennæ, a forehead, a throat, and ſtemmata. In the greater part of inſects the head is diſtinctly divided from the thorax, but in others it coaleſces with it. The head of ſome inſects is very large compared with the ſize of their bodies; the proportion between the head of the ſame inſect is not always ſimilar; in the caterpillars with horny heads it is generally ſmall, before they moult or change their ſkin, but much larger after each moulting. The hardneſs of the exterior part of the head prevents its growth before the change; it is, conſequently, in proportion to the body very ſmall; but when the inſect is diſpoſing itſelf for the change, the internal ſubſtance of the head retires inwards to the firſt ring of the neck, where it has room to expand itſelf; ſo that when the animal quits the ſkin, we are ſurpriſed with a head twice the former ſize; and, as the inſect neither eats nor grows while the head is forming, there is this further circumſtance to be remarked, that the body and the head have each their particular time of growth: while the head expands and grows, the body does not grow at all; when the body increaſes, the head remains of the ſame ſize, without any change.

Os, the mouth, is a part of the inſect to which entomologiſts will find it neceſſary to pay a very particular attention. Fabricius goes ſo far as to aſſert that, without a thorough knowledge of the mouth, its form, and various appendages, it will be impoſſible to diſcriminate with accuracy one inſect from another. In the ſtructure of the mouth conſiderable art and wiſdom is diſplayed; the diverſity of the figure is almoſt as great as the variety of ſpecies. It is uſually placed in the forepart of the head, extending ſomewhat downwards: in the chermes, coccus, and ſome other inſects, it is placed under the breaſt. In ſome inſects, the mouth is forcipated, to catch, hold, and tear, the prey; in others, aculeated, to pierce and wound animals, and ſuck their blood; in others, ſtrongly ridged jaws and teeth, to gnaw and ſcrape out their food, carry burdens, perforate the earth, nay the hardeſt wood, and even ſtones, for habitations and neſts for their young. Others are furniſhed with a kind of tube, at one time moveable, at another fixed, with which they ſuck the jnices of the flowers.

Maxillæ, the jaws, are generally two in number; in ſome, four; in others, more. They are ſometimes placed in an horizontal, ſometimes in a tranſverſe, direction; the inner edge is ſerrated, or furniſhed with ſmall teeth, as in the cicada, nepa, notonecta, cimex, aphis, and remarkably ſo in ſome curculeones. They move the jaws from right to left, not up and down, but ſideways.

The *roſtrum*, or proboſcis, is a very curious and complicated organ; it is the mouth drawn out to a rigid point. In many inſects of the hemiptera claſs, it is bent down towards the breaſt and belly. It has by ſome writers been conſidered as ſerving at once the different purpoſes of mouth, noſe, and windpipe, enabling the inſect to extract the juices of plants, communicate the ſenſation of ſmelling, and convey air to the body.

Lingua, the tongue, is a taper and compact inſtrument, by which the inſect obtains the juices of plants. Some can contract or expand it, others roll it up with dexterity; in ſome it is incloſed within a ſheath. It is taper and ſpiral in the butterfly, tubular and fleſhy in the fly; in all affording under the microſcope, a moſt ſingular diſplay of curious mechaniſm. Swammerdam, when ſpeaking of the proboſcis of the butterfly, is full of admiration: "I cannot refrain, (ſays he,) from confeſſing to the glory of the Immenſe and Incomprehenſible Architect, that I have but imperfectly deſcribed and repreſented this ſmall organ; for, to repreſent it to the life in its full perfection, as truly moſt perfect it is, far exceeds the utmoſt efforts of human knowledge." Reaumur breaks out into ſimilar expreſſions, on deſcribing the proboſcis of the bee, with which they take their nouriſhment, and collect the honey. See this inſtrument deſcribed and figured under APIS, vol. i. p. 796. The proboſcis of the bee is ſhaped like a barbed javelin, but that of the butterfly is a ſpiral ſubſtance, ſomewhat reſembling the ſpring of a watch when wound up; as may be ſeen in the butterfly, in the Entomology Plate I. fig. 6. By means of a pin it can be gently pulled out to its full length; it grows gradually tapering from the baſe, at the end it divides or ſeparates into two tubes, each furniſhed with little organs of ſuction; probably, it is by theſe that it extracts the juices on which it feeds, and not by the extreme ends of the tongue. As the butterfly has no mouth, the proboſcis is the only alimentary organ; when ſeparated from the inſect, it will often unroll itſelf, then wind and coil itſelf up again, continuing theſe motions at intervals for a conſiderable time.

The proboſcis of the tabanus, or ox-fly, is alſo of a very ſingular and curious ſtructure. The whole apparatus is compoſed of ſix parts, excluſive of the two guards or feelers, all of which are incloſed in a fleſhy caſe, which opens at the will of the animal, and lets out its weapon, whenever diſpoſed to pierce the hides of cattle, and ſuck their blood. But the moſt ſingular and curious conformation of a proboſcis, if it may be ſo called, is the inflated projection of the head of the lanthorn-fly, which, in luminous ſplendour, ſo far exceeds the refulgence of the glow-worm, as to enable the inhabitants of South America to read by its light, and travellers are even ſaid to be directed on their journey, by fixing one or two of them to the end of a ſtick. See their natural hiſtory, and an engraving of them, under FULGORA, vol. vii.

ANTENNÆ.—Theſe are fine ſlender horns, conſiſting of ſeveral articulations, moveable in various directions, and conſtituting one of the diſcriminating characteriſtics of inſects. They are beautiful in form, and of a very delicate ſtructure, ſo finely articulated, and ſo minutely jointed, as to be inſtantaneouſly moveable in every direction. They are ſituated on the fore part of the head. The ſhape, the length, the number, and kind of articulations, not only vary in different ſpecies, but the antennæ of the male generally differ from thoſe of the female. The greater number of inſects have only two antennæ, but the oniſcus, the pagurus, and aſtacus, have four. Regular rows of minute holes are obſervable in the antennæ, which are ſuppoſed to be naſal apertures, poſſeſſing the faculty of ſcent. Several inſects cover their eyes with the antennæ, while they ſleep. But we are far from being certain of the poſitive uſe of this inſtrument: ſome writers have merely conjectured that they are the organs of ſmell

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and of hearing, others have ſuppoſed them appropriated to a delicate kind of feeling, ſenſible to the leaſt motion or diſturbance in the circumambient fluid in which they move. It is very reaſonable to ſuppoſe they are the organs of ſmelling, ſince we evidently find that many inſects poſſeſs this ſenſe in a very exquiſite degree, and yet we ſee no external organs except theſe to ſerve that purpoſe. The following obſervations may ſerve to throw ſome light on this obſcure ſubject. When a wingleſs inſect is placed at the end of a twig, or in any other ſituation where it meets with a vacuity, it moves the antennæ backward and forward, elevates and depreſſes them from ſide to ſide, and will not advance further leſt it ſhould fall. Place a ſtick or any other ſubſtance near the antennæ, and the inſect immediately applies them to this new object, ſeems to examine whether it be ſufficient to ſupport its weight, and then proceeds on its journey. From theſe obſervations it would appear that the antennæ aſſiſt the inſect in judging of the vicinity of objects, and probably enable them to walk with ſafety in the dark.

That theſe obſervations are not, however, concluſive, appears from an experiment of a very ingenious naturaliſt: being deſirous of aſcertaining the nature and uſe of the antennæ and proboſcis of a butterfly, he gently approached one that was flying about in ſearch of food; he obſerved that it turned the antennæ about every way, till coming within ſcent of a flower, it kept them fixedly bent toward that object, directing its courſe by their guidance, till it arrived at the flower; there they appeared to act as an organ of ſmell, and that the minute holes with which it is furniſhed aſſiſted in promoting this operation. When the creature had reached the flower, it hovered over it as with rapture, poiſing itſelf quietly upon wing, like a kite or hawk in the air; it then dropped ſuddenly, till it was on a level with the flower, when it began to agitate its wings briſkly, and to unroll its ſpiral trunk, thruſting it to the bottom of the flower; in a little time the trunk was rolled up, and again in a moment unrolled; theſe operations it repeated till the flower yielded no more juices, the butterfly then ſought for and alighted on another. But after all, this ſubject muſt for the preſent remain undecided. Indeed, the bodies of inſects are throughout formed of parts ſo different from ours, that we can probably conceive no more idea of the uſe of ſome of their organs, than a man born blind or deaf can of the ſenſes of viſion or hearing. They may have ſenſes different from ours, and theſe may be the inſtruments of them. The differences in the form and conſtruction of the antennæ, are diſtinguiſhed in entomology by the following names:—*Setaceous*, are thoſe formed like a briſtle, gradually tapering towards the point or extremity, as in many of the phalenæ. *Filiform*, are thread-ſhaped, and of an uniform thickneſs. *Moniliform*, are alſo of a regular thickneſs, but are made up of a ſeries of minute knobs, reſembling a necklace of beads, as in the chryſomela. *Clavate*, formed like a club, increaſing gradually from the baſe to the extremity, as in the papilio, or butterfly. *Capitate*, alſo formed like a club, but the laſt articulation is larger than the reſt, finiſhing with a kind of knob or head. *Fiſſile*, are like the former, only that the capitulum or knob is divided longitudinally into three or four parts or laminæ, as in the ſcarabæi. *Perfoliate*, are alſo capitated, but have the knob divided horizontally, and the laminæ connected by a kind of thread paſſing through their center, as in the dermeſtes and dytiſcus. *Pectinate*, ſo called from their ſimilitude to a comb, though they more properly reſemble a feather, as in the phalenæ and elateres; this is moſt obvious in the male. *Ariſtate*, are ſuch as have a lateral hair, which is either naked, or furniſhed with ſmaller hairs, as in the fly.—Beſides the foregoing terms, the antennæ are called *breviores*, or ſhort, when they are ſhorter than the body; *mediocres*, or middling, when they are of the ſame length; and *longiores*, when they are longer.

Near the mouth there is alſo a ſpecies of ſmall filiform articulated antennæ, called the *palpi*, or feelers; they are generally four in number, ſometimes ſix; they are placed under and at the ſides of the mouth, which ſituation, together with their ſize, ſufficiently diſtinguiſh them from the antennæ; they are in continual motion, the animal thruſting them in every matter, as a hog would its noſe, when in ſearch of food. Some have ſuppoſed them to be a kind of hand to aſſiſt in holding the food when it is near the mouth.

Eyes.—The ſtructure of the eye has always been conſidered as a wonderful piece of mechaniſm; the admirable manner in which thoſe of the human ſpecies are formed, and the nature of viſion, are ſpeculations which cannot but excite the attention of every inquiſitive mind. The eyes of inſects, though they differ conſiderably in their conſtruction from thoſe of other animals, are no leſs worthy of our admiration. Indeed, among the exterior parts of inſects, none are more deſerving of minute inveſtigation, and very few perſons are to be found, who can be inſenſible to the beauties of this organ when exhibited under the microſcope; which is the only means of diſcovering the prodigious art employed in their organization, and evidently ſhews how many curious objects eſcape the unaſſiſted ſight. The conſtruction of the eye in inſects is not only diſtinct from that of other animals, but alſo differs in different ſpecies. They vary in number, ſituation, connection, and figure. In other creatures the eyes are moveable, and two in number, one on each ſide of the head: in inſects, the genus of cancri excepted, the eyes are fixed; they have no eye-brows, but the outer coating is hard and tranſparent. The greater part of inſects have two eyes; in the monoculus they approach ſo near to each other, as to appear like one; the gyrinus has four eyes, the ſcorpion ſix, the ſpider eight, and the ſcolopendra three. Of theſe eyes ſome have them ſingle, that is, placed in facets at a ſmall diſtance from each other; while others are furniſhed with an indefinite number of lenſes all placed in one common caſe or ſocket; and termed *reticulated* eyes. Theſe appear like protuberances on the heads of inſects, and we can perceive that they conſiſt of a number of lines croſſing each other like the meſhes of a net. By this we know that they are reticulated ſubſtances; but in what manner they are ſo, can only be ſhewn by the microſcope.

The eyes of the *libellula*, or dragon-fly, are divided into a number of hexagonal cells, each of which forms a complete eye. The external parts of theſe eyes are ſo perfectly ſmooth, and ſo well poliſhed, that, when viewed as opake objects, they will, like ſo many mirrors, reflect the images of all the ſurrounding objects. The figure of a candle may be ſeen on their ſurface multiplied almoſt to infinity, ſhifting its beam to each eye, according to the motion given by the hand of the obſerver. Other creatures are obliged to turn their eyes towards the object they deſire to ſee; but inſects have eyes directed thereto, on whatſoever ſide it may appear; they more than realize the romantic accounts of fabulous hiſtory: poets gave to Argus an hundred eyes; inſects are furniſhed with thouſands, having the benefit of viſion on every ſide with the utmoſt eaſe and ſpeed, though without any motion of the eye, or flexion of the neck. Each of theſe protuberances, in its natural ſtate, is a body cut into a number of faces, like an artificial multiplying glaſs; but with this ſuperiority in the workmanſhip, that, as there every face is plane, here every one is convex, immenſely more numerous, and contained in a much ſmaller ſpace. Each of the eyes is an hexagon, varying in ſize according to its ſituation in the head, and each of them is a diſtinct convex lens, and has the ſame effect in forming the image of an object placed before it.

Hooke, Catalan, and other entomologiſts, have ſhewn that theſe ſmall eyes are furniſhed with every requiſite of viſion, and that each of them has the uſe, the power, and properties, of an eye. But we muſt have recourſe to the works of Swammerdam for a full account of the aſtoniſhing

organization of the eyes of infects. Among other things, he has fhewn, that under each facet there is a pyramid of fibres broad at the bafe, and growing fmaller as it proceeds inwards; the pyramid has the fame number of fides as the eye, and there are as many hexagonal pyramids, as there are fmall facets or eyes in the infect. An innumerable number of pulmonary tubes afcend thefe fibres, terminating in a white fibrous convex membrane; under thefe membranes there is another, ftill more delicate and tranfparent; beneath this, a fecond fpecies of fibres is tranfverfely applied, like fo many beams to fupport the pyramids that are laid upon them. Still we cannot determine with certainty, how thefe numerous inlets to fight operate for the fervice of the animal; they may increafe the field of view, augment the intenfity of light, and be productive of advantages of which we can have no conception. Hooke computed 14,000 of thefe facets in the two eyes of a drone; Leeuwenhoek reckoned 6036 in the two eyes of a filkworm, when in its fly ftate; in the eyes of the libellula he reckoned 12,544 hexangular lenfes. Swammerdam covered the reticulated eyes of certain infects with black paint; in this ftate they flew at random, and feemed to be deprived of their ftrength; when they fettled, they did not avoid the hand that was going to take hold of them. Reaumur made fimilar experiments on the eyes of bees, which concurred with thofe of Swammerdam.

Some ephemera flies have four reticulated eyes, two of which are placed as in the common fly; the other two are placed, one befide the other, upon the upper part of the head, and have the appearance of a kind of mufhroom, the head extended fomewhat beyond the ftalk. The firft pair are of a brown colour, thofe of the mufhroom form are of a very beautiful citron colour. In many of the fly clafs, thefe reticulated eyes are little inferior in colour and brilliance to the brighteft gem. The colour varies in different fpecies; in fome we find it green, in others red, &c. fome have a moft elegant changeable colour thrown over them, partly purple, partly green, and partly of that braffy hue which is feen on the backs of fome of the beetles, and which is not equalled by any other production of art or nature.

It might be imagined, that as every fly has two reticulated eyes, they could not have occafion for more; but fo it has not appeared to that Great Being who formed them, for many are furnifhed befides with other eyes, differing in form and conftruction from thofe that are reticulated. Thefe were firft noticed by M. de la Hire; they are three lucid protuberances placed on the back part of the head of many infects; their furface is glofly, of an hemifpheric figure, and a coal-black colour. They are tranfparent, and difpofed in a triangular form; by modern entomologifts they are termed *ftemmata*. Reaumur made experiments upon thefe eyes, fimilar to thofe he had made on the reticulated ones, and found that when the ftemmata were covered with dark varnifh, the infects flew but to a fmall diftance, and always at random. No infect feems to poffefs both kind of eyes, unlefs in its perfect ftate: there are many fpecies which are not furnifhed with ftemmata, gnats and tipulæ are without them. But the moft extraordinary conftruction of the eye perhaps in the whole tribe of infects, is that of the *diopfis*, or fpectacle-fly. In this infect the eyes are placed on the extremity of two long, folid, inarticulate, filiform horns; the extremities of which form a kind of focket to receive the eyes, which are fpherical, and lucid black. See the article DIOPSIS, and the engraving of the fly, vol. v. p. 842.

BODY.—The trunk or body of the infect is fituated between the head and abdomen. Entomologifts divide it into three parts: the thorax, fcutellum, and fternum. The *thorax* is the part of the body next the head, and is of various fhapes and proportions; the fides and back of it are often armed with points. The *fcutellum*, or efcutcheon, covers the part between the thorax and abdomen, and is generally of a triangular form; though it adheres to the thorax, it is eafily diftinguifhed from it by its figure, and often by an intervening future. It feems intended to affift in expanding the wings. The *fternum* is fituated on the under part of the thorax; in fome fpecies it is pointed behind, as in the elateres; in others, bifid, as in fome of the dytifci. In fhort, the thorax is the ftomach of infects; and is either round, triangular, cylindrical, thick, ftender, &c. It may be confidered as compofed of fix faces, like a cube, which form it fometimes aflumes, and is often terminated by a kind of border, and then called *marginated*.

ABDOMEN.—The abdomen contains the inteftines, airveffels, &c. It is compofed of feveral corneous rings or fegments, fo that it may be moved in various directions, or lengthened and fhortened at pleafure; in fome it is formed of one piece only. It is perforated with fpiraculi, or breathing holes, and is terminated by the tail. The *fpiraculi* are fmall oblong holes or pores placed fingly one on each fide of every ring or fegment; thefe are the means or inftruments of refpiration, which fupply the want of lungs, and form a peculiar characteriftic of infects. The organs of generation are placed in the extremity of the abdomen.

LIMBS.—By the limbs are meant the inftruments ufed by the infect both for motion and defence. They are, *alæ*, the wings; *halteres*, the poifers; *pedes*, the legs; *cauda*, the tail; and *aculeus*, the fting.

The *wings* are thofe inftruments by which the infect is enabled to fly; fome have only two, others are furnifhed with four, two on each fide; thefe are, in fome, of the fame fize; in others, the fuperior ones are much larger than the inferior: Linnæus has made them the foundation of the feven orders into which he has divided this numerous clafs of beings. The variety in the form and ftructure of the wings is almoft infinite; the beauty of their colouring, the art with which they are connected to the body, the delicate manner in which fome are folded up, the fine articulations provided for this purpofe, by which they are laid in their cafes when out of ufe, and yet ready to be extended in a moment for flight, afford an inexhauftible fund of curious inveftigation. The wings of moths and butterflies are moftly farinaceous, covered with a fine duft, which, by the affiftance of the microfcope, appears to be a regular affemblage of organized fcales.

The following terms are applied to the different kinds of wings. They are firft diftinguifhed, with refpect to their furfaces, into fuperior and inferior. The part next the head is called the anterior part; that nearer the tail, the poferior part. The interior part is that next the abdomen; the exterior part is the outermoft edge. Thofe wings are termed *plicate*, which are folded when the infect is at reft, as in the wafp. *Plane*, when incapable of being folded. *Erect*, when the fuperior furfaces are brought in contact when the infect is at reft, as in the ephemera, papiliones, &c. *Patent*, if extended horizontally when the infect is at reft, as in the phalænæ geometræ. *Incumbent*, if when they are not in motion, they cover horizontally the fuperior part of the abdomen. *Deflexed*, are alfo incumbent, but not horizontally, when the outer edges decline towards the fides. *Reverfe*, are alfo deflexed, with this addition, that the edges of the inferior wings project from under the anterior part of the fuperior ones. *Dentate*, when with ferrate or fcolloped edges. *Caudate*, when the fibres of the wings are extended beyond the margin into a kind of tail. *Reticulate*, when the veins or membranes of the wings put on the appearance of net-work.

The wings are further diftinguifhed by their ornaments: when painted with fpots, *maculæ*; bands, *fafciæ*; ftreaks, *ftrigæ*: when thefe are extended lengthways, they are called lines, *linæ*; and if with dots, *punctæ*; one or more rings or fpots are termed eyes, *ocelli*; if the fpots are fhaped like a kidney, they are termed *ftigmata*. Thefe fpots or eyes are moft common to the wings of the butterfly.

The *elytra*, or cruftaceous fhells or cafes of the wings,

are extended when the inſect flies, and ſhut when it reſts, forming a longitudinal future down the middle of the back; they are of various ſhapes, and diſtinguiſhed by the following names:—*Abbreviate*, when ſhorter than the abdomen. *Truncate*, when their extremities terminate in a tranſverſe direct line. *Faſtigiate*, when of equal or greater length than the abdomen, and terminating in a tranſverſe line. *Serrate*, or *toothed*, having their external margins edged with teeth or notches. *Spinoſe*, when their exterior ſurfaces are covered with ſmall ſharp points. *Scabrous*, when very rough. *Striate*, when marked with ſlender longitudinal furrows. *Porcate*, having ſharp longitudinal ridges. *Sulcate*, with deep furrows. They are likewiſe diſtinguiſhed by the denomination of *hemelytra*, when their caſes are neither ſo hard as the elytra, nor ſo delicate as the tranſparent wings.

Under the wings of moſt inſects which have only two, there is a ſmall head placed on a ſtalk, frequently under a little arched ſcale; theſe are called *halteres*, or poiſers; they appear to be rudiments of the hinder wings: it has been ſuppoſed that they ſerve to keep the body in equilibrio when the inſect is flying.

The elytra, or exterior caſes, are much harder and more opake than the wings under them; they are generally highly poliſhed, and often enriched with various colours, adorned with ornamental flutings, and ſtudded with brilliants, whoſe beauties are beyond deſcription. All theſe ornaments are united in the *curculio imperialis*, or diamond beetle, one of the richeſt and moſt magnificent creatures in nature; the head, the wings, the legs, &c. are curiouſly beſet with ſcales of a moſt ſplendid appearance, outvying the ruby, ſaphire, and emerald, forming, under the microſcope, one of the moſt noble phenomena that the colours of light can exhibit. It is ſaid, that in the Brazils, from whence they come, it is almoſt impoſſible to look at them on a funny day, when they are flying in little ſwarms, ſo great is the glowing ſplendour of their heightened colours. For the figure and natural hiſtory of it, ſee the article CURCULIO, vol. v. p. 480.

The ſtrength and hardneſs of the elytra are admirably adapted to the various purpoſes of the inſects to which they are appropriated; at the ſame time that they protect the tender wings beneath them, they ſerve as a ſhield to the body; while the ribs, and other prominences, contribute to leſſen the friction and diminiſh the preſſure to which they are often expoſed. In moſt of theſe inſects, the under wing is longer and larger than the exterior ſhell, ſo that it is obliged to be bent and folded up, in order to lie under the elytra; for this purpoſe they are furniſhed with ſtrong muſcles, and proper articulations to diſplay or conceal them at pleaſure. The united ſtrength and ſplendour of the elytra may be pleaſingly contemplated by referring to that noble inſect the *cerambyx giganteus*, exhibited in the engraving oppoſite CERAMBYX, vol. iv. p. 34.

The wings of moths and butterflies are moſtly imbricate or farinaceous, being covered with a fine duſt, which renders them opake, and produces thoſe beautiful and variegated colours by which they are ſo richly adorned, and ſo profuſely decked. If this be wiped off, we find the naked wing to conſiſt of a number of ribs, like thoſe in the leaves of plants, but of a cruſtaceous nature; the largeſt rib runs along and fortifies the exterior edge of the wing; the interior edge is ſtrengthened hy a ſmaller veſſel or rib. The ribs are all hollow, by which means the wing, though comparatively large, is very light. The The membrane between the ribs, which conſtitutes the body of the wing, is ſurpriſingly thin and tranſparent; and as this is extremely tender, one uſe of the ſcales may be to protect it from injuries. When the moth emerges from the chryſalis, the wings are ſoft and thick, and if they be examined in that ſtate, will be found to conſiſt of two membranes, that may be raiſed up and ſeparated, by blowing between them with a ſmall tube: the ribs lie between theſe membranes. With the aſſiſtance of glaſſes we diſcover certain ſtrait and circular rows of extremely minute holes, running from rib to rib, or forming figures in the intermediate ſpaces, which ſeem to anſwer to the figures and variegations on the complete wing, and are probably the ſockets for the ſtalks or ſtems of the ſmall ſcales.

LEGS.—Theſe are found to vary greatly in different inſects. The moſt general number is ſix; many of the claſs aptera have eight, as the ſpider; the hornet has ten; the oniſcus or wood-louſe fourteen; the julus has from ſeventy to one hundred and twenty on each ſide. The legs of thoſe inſects that have not more than ten, are affixed to the trunk, while thoſe that exceed that number, have part fixed to the trunk, the reſt to the abdomen. The legs of inſects are divided into four parts. The firſt, which is uſually the largeſt, and connected to the body, is called the *femur*; the ſecond, or *tibia*, is joined to the former, and is commonly of the ſame ſize throughout, and longer than the femur; this is followed by the third part, which is diſtinguiſhed by the name of *tarſus*, or foot; it is compoſed of ſeveral joints, the one articulated to the other, the number of rings varying in different inſects; the tarſus is terminated by the *unguis*, or claw.

Entomologiſts, in order to render their deſcriptions clear and accurate, have given ſeveral names to the legs of inſects, from the nature of the motions produced by them. Thus *curſorii*, from that of running; theſe are the moſt numerous. The *ſaltatorii*, thoſe that are uſed for leaping; the thighs of theſe are remarkably large, by which means they poſſeſs conſiderable ſtrength and power to leap to great diſtances; as the graſshopper. The *natatorii*, thoſe that ſerve as oars for ſwimming; the feet of theſe are flat, and edged with hairs, poſſeſſing a proper ſurface to ſtrike againſt the water, as in the dytiſcus, notonecta, &c. Such feet as have no claws are termed *mutici*. The *chelæ*, or claws, are an enlargement of the extremity of the fore feet, each of which is furniſhed with two leſſer claws, which act like a thumb and finger, as in the crab; and are called *chelate*. The under part of the feet in ſome inſects is covered with a kind of bruſh or ſponge, by which they are enabled to walk with eaſe, on the moſt poliſhed ſubſtances, ſuch as panes of glaſs, in every direction.

Many inſects can only move the thigh in a vertical direction, while others can move it in a variety of ways. The progreſſive motion of inſects, and the various methods employed to effect it, will be found a very curious and important ſubject, and well worthy the attention of the naturaliſt. The intelligent mechanic may not find it loſt labour if he beſtow ſome time on the ſame ſubject. Very little has been done on this head, and that principally by Reaumur, in his excellent Memoires; and by M. Weiſs, in a Memoir publiſhed in the Journal de Phyſique for 1771. The reader may alſo conſult Borelli de Motu Animalium.

Cauda, the tail, terminates the abdomen, and is conſtructed in a wonderful manner for anſwering the purpoſes for which it is formed, namely, to direct the motion of the inſect, to ſerve as an inſtrument of defence, or for depoſiting its eggs; the figure and ſize thereof varying in each genus and its ſpecies, and moſtly different in the male and female, and thus ſerving to diſtinguiſh the ſexes. In moſt inſects it is ſimple, and yet capable of being extended or drawn back at pleaſure; in others elongated, as in the crab and ſcorpion; or ſhaped like a briſtle, as in the raphidia; or with three appendages like briſtles, as in the ephemera; in ſome it is forked, as in the podura; and in others it is furniſhed with a pair of forceps, as in the earwig; in the blatta, grylli, and others, it is folioſe, or like a leaf; in the ſcorpion and panorpa it is furniſhed with a dart or ſting.

Aculeus, the ſting, is an inſtrument with which inſects wound and inſtil a poiſon; the ſting generally proceeds from the under part of the laſt ring of the helly; in ſome it is ſharp and pointed, in others ſerrated, or formed like a

ſaw.

saw. It is used by many insects both as an offensive and defensive weapon; by others it is only used to pierce the substances where they mean to deposit their eggs. This instrument cannot be properly seen or known, but with the assistance of a microscope. Of bees, it is only the neuters and the queen that have stings. The apparatus is of a very curious construction, fitted for inflicting a wound, and at the same time conveying poison into that wound.—See a figure and description of it, under APIS, vol. i. p. 796.

It has already been observed, that the bodies of insects are covered with a hard skin, answering the purpose of an internal skeleton, and forming one of the characters by which they are distinguished from other animals. This external covering is very strong in those insects which, from their manner of life, are particularly liable to great friction, or violent compression; but is more tender and delicate in such as are not so exposed. Another distinguishing criterion of insects is the colour of their circulating fluid or blood, which is never red; this, at first sight, seems liable to some objections, on account of the drop of red liquor which is often procured from small insects when squeezed to pieces. It does not appear, however, that this is the blood of the animal; when it existed as a worm there was no such appearance, and when transformed to the perfect, or fly state, it is only found in the eye, and not in the body, which would be the case if it circulated in the veins of the insect. It is probable there is a circulation of some fluid analogous to the blood in most insects: with the assistance of the microscope this circulation may be perceived in many; but the circulating liquor is not red.

The student in entomology, who wishes to attain a proper knowledge of the science, will find it necessary to make himself conversant with the various classes, genera, &c. into which insects have been divided by Linnæus. Every system has its defects, and probably some may be found in that of this truly celebrated naturalist; but the purpose of science is answered by using those discriminations which are generally adopted. We shall therefore state the Linnæan classification, illustrated with the Seven Orders of Insects, in the annexed engraving.

ORDERS AND GENERA.

I. COLEOPTERA, [from κωλεος, a sheath, and πτερον, a wing.] Contains all such insects as have crustaceous elytry or shells, called wing-cases, which shut together, and form a longitudinal suture down the back of the insect. These are divided into the following genera:

Antennæ clavate, thicker towards the tip.—Club lamellate.

Scarabæus. - Fore-shanks toothed.
Lucanus. - Two palpigerous tufts under the lip.
Synodendron. Jaw one-toothed; lip filiform, palpigerous.

Club perfoliate.

Dermestes. - Head inflected under the thorax, which is slightly margined.
Melyris. - - Lip clavate, emarginate.
Byrrhus. - Lip extended, bifid.
Silpha. - - Thorax and shells margined.
Tritoma. - Anterior feelers hatchet-shaped.
Hydrophilus. Feelers filiform: jaw bifid, horny.
Tetratoma. - Feelers unequal: jaw bifid, membranaceous.

Club solid or inflated.

Hister. - - Head retractile within the thorax.
Bostrichus. - Head inflected under the thorax, which is slightly margined.
Anthrenus. - Jaw bifid.
Nitidula. - Thorax and shells margined.
Coccinella. - Anterior feelers hatchet-shaped.
Curculio. - Snout elongated, horny.
Pausus. - - Antennæ two-jointed, the club hooked and inflated.

Antennæ moniliform.

Brentus. - - Snout elongated, horny, straight.
Attelabus. - Snout elongated, incurved.
Erodius. - - Lip horny, emarginate.
Staphylinus. - Shells half the length of the body, covering the wings: above the tail two exsertile vesicles.
Zygia. - - - Lip elongated, membranaceous.
Meloe. - - - Thorax rounded: head gibbous, inflected.
Tenebrio. - - Thorax margined: head exserted: body oblong.
Cassida. - - - Body ovate: shells margined: head covered with a shield.
Opatrum. - - Thorax and shield margined.
Mordella. - - Laminæ at the base of the abdomen: head inflected.
Chrysomela. - Body ovate, immarginate.
Horia. - - - Feelers unequal: jaw bifid: lip rounded.

Antennæ filiform.

Apalus. - - Thorax roundish: head gibbous, inflected.
Manticora. - - Jaws exserted, toothed: eyes rather prominent.
Pimelia. - - Thorax margined: head exserted: body oblong.
Gyrinus. - - Antennæ a little rigid: eyes four.
Cucujus. - - Lip short, bifid, the divisions distant.
Cryptocephalus. Body ovate, immarginate.
Bruchus. - - Antennæ growing larger towards the tip.
Ptinus. - - - Thorax receiving the head: last joints of the antennæ longer.
Hispa. - - - Antennæ stretched forward, approximate, fusiform.
Buprestis. - - Head partly retracted within the thorax.
Necydalis. - - Shells half as long as the body: wings naked.
Lampyris. - Shells flexile: thorax surrounding and concealing the head.
Cantharis. - - Shells flexile: sides of the abdomen edged with folded papillæ.
Notoxus. - - Lip bifid: the divisions connivent, obtuse.
Elater. - - - A pectoral spine springing from an abdominal pore.
Calopus. - - Thorax spinous or gibbous at the sides.
Alurnus. - - Jaw arched: feelers six.
Carabus. - - Thorax obcordate, truncate behind.
Lytta. - - - Thorax roundish: head gibbous, inflected.

Antennæ setaceous.

Serropalpus. - Anterior feelers deeply serrate.
Cerambyx. - - Thorax spinous or gibbous at the sides.
Leptura. - - Shells tapering towards the tip: thorax roundish.
Rhinomacer. - Antennæ seated on the snout.
Zonitis. - - - Lip emarginate.
Cicindela. - Jaws exserted, toothed: eyes a little prominent.
Dytiscus. - - Hind legs fringed, formed for swimming.
Forficula. - - Shells half as long as the body: wings covered: tail forked.

II. HEMIPTERA, [from ημισυς, half, and πτερον, a wing.] These have their upper wings usually half crustaceous and half membranaceous, not divided by a longitudinal suture, but incumbent on each other. This order contains the following genera:

Blatta. - - - Mouth armed with jaws: wings coriaceous, plane: legs formed for running.
Pneumora. - - Mouth armed with jaws: wings membranaceous, deflected: legs formed for running.

Mantis.

Mantis. - - Mouth armed with jaws: fore-feet ferrate, the claw ſingle.
Gryllus. - - Mouth armed with jaws: hind-legs formed for leaping.
Fulgora. - - Snout inflected: front projecting, inflated: antennæ capitate.
Cicada. - - - Snout inflected: hind-legs formed for leaping.
Notonecta. - - Snout inflected: hind-legs ciliate within.
Nepa. - - - Snout inflected: fore-legs cheliform.
Cimex. - - Snout inflected: legs formed for running: antennæ longer than the thorax.
Macrocephalus. Snout inflected: antennæ very ſhort.
Aphis. - - - Snout inflected: abdomen two-horned.
Chermes. - - Snout placed in the breaſt: hind-legs formed for leaping.
Coccus. - - Snout placed in the breaſt: abdomen (in the males) terminating in briſtles.
Thrips. - - Snout obſolete: wings incumbent on the abdomen, which is reflexile.

III. LEPIDOPTERA, [from λεπις, a ſcale, and πτερον, a wing,] are inſects having four wings, covered with fine imbricate ſcales reſembling powder or meal; as in the butterfly, moth, &c. This order contains three genera, viz.
Papilio. - - Antennæ thicker towards the tip.
Sphinx. - - Antennæ thicker in the middle.
Phalæna. - - Antennæ thicker towards the baſe.

IV. NEUROPTERA, [from νευρον, a nerve, and πτερον, a wing.] Theſe have four membranous tranſparent naked wings, generally reticulate, or like net-work. This order contains the following genera:
Libellula. - - Tail forked: mouth with many jaws: wings expanded.
Ephemera. - - Tail with two or three briſtles: mouth without teeth: wings erect.
Myrmeleon. - Tail forked: mouth two-toothed: wings deflected.
Phryganea. - Tail ſimple: mouth without teeth: wings deflected.
Hemerobius. - Tail ſimple: mouth two-toothed: wings deflected.
Panorpa. - - Tail chelate: mouth with an extended ſnout: wings incumbent.
Raphidia. - - Tail ending in a ſingle thread: mouth two-toothed: wings deflected.

V. HYMENOPTERA, [from υμεν, a membrane, and πτερον, a wing,] comprehend inſects with four membranous wings, and a tail. This order contains the following genera:
Cynips. - - - Sting ſpiral.
Tenthredo. - Sting ſerrate, two-valved.
Sirex. - - - Sting ſerrate, projecting from a ſpine under the abdomen.
Ichneumon. - Sting exferted, triple.
Sphex. - - - Sting pungent: wings ſmooth: tongue flat, dilated, nearly entire at the end.
Ammophila. - Sting pungent: wings ſmooth: tongue inflected, bifid.
Scolia. - - - Tongue inflected, trifid: lip membranaceous at the end.
Thynnus. - - Tongue very ſhort, involute: lip trifid.
Leucopſis. - Lip longer than the jaw, notched: antennæ clavate.
Tiphia. - - Lip ſhort, horny, three-toothed.
Chalcis. - - Antennæ ſhort, cylindrical, fuſiform.
Chryſis. - - Sting pungent: abdomen arched beneath.
Veſpa. - - - Sting pungent: upper wings folded.
Apis. - - - Sting pungent: tongue inflected.
Formica. - - Sting obſolete: neuters without wings.
Mutilla. - - Sting pungent: neuters without wings.

VI. DIPTERA, [from δυω, two, and πτερον, a wing,] comprehend all ſuch inſects as have only two wings, and poiſers or balancers. This order contains the following genera:

With proboſcis and ſucker.

Diopſis. - - Head two-horned: eyes terminal.
Tipula. - - Sucker without a ſheath: feelers two, projecting, filiform.
Muſca. - - Sucker without a ſheath, furniſhed with briſtles.
Tabanus. - - Sucker with a ſingle-valved ſheath, furniſhed with briſtles.
Empis. - - Proboſcis inflected.
Conops. - - - Proboſcis projecting, geniculate.

With ſucker, but no proboſcis.

Oeſtrus. - - Sucker retracted within the perforated lips.
Aſilus. - - - Sucker ſtraight, two-valved, gibbous at the baſe.
Stomoxys. - Sucker with a ſingle-valved convolute ſheath, geniculate at the baſe.
Culex. - - Sheath exſerted, one-valved, flexile, with five briſtles.
Bombylus. - Sucker very long, ſtraight, ſetaceous, two-valved.
Hippoboſca. - Sucker ſhort, cylindrical, ſtraight, two-valved.

VII. APTERA, [from α, without, and πτερον, a wing,] inſects having no wings. This order contains the following genera:

Legs ſix: head diſtinct from the thorax.

Lepiſma. - - Tail ending in ſetaceous briſtles.
Podura. - - Tail forked, inflected, elaſtic.
Termes. - - Mouth with two jaws: lip horny, four-cleft.
Pediculus. - Mouth armed with an exſertile ſting.
Pulex. - - Snout inflected, armed with a ſting: feet formed for leaping.

Legs eight to fourteen: head and thorax united.

Acarus. - - Eyes two: legs eight: feelers compreſſed.
Hydrachna. - Eyes two to eight: legs eight: abdomen with textorial papillæ.
Aranea. - - Eyes eight: legs eight: abdomen with textorial papillæ: feelers clubbed.
Phalangium. - Eyes four: legs eight: feelers chelate.
Scorpio. - - Eyes eight: legs eight: feelers chelate.
Cancer. - - Eyes two: legs ten: the firſt pair chelate.
Monoculus. - Eyes two: legs twelve: ten of them chelate.
Oniſcus. - - Eyes two: legs fourteen.

Legs numerous: head diſtinct from the thorax.

Scolopendra. - Body linear.
Julus. - - - Body ſubcylindrical.

The annexed engraving, Entomology Plate I. is calculated to exhibit at one view the conſtruction of the ſeven orders of the INSECTA of Linnæus. Fig 1, a COLEOPTEROUS inſect; the Bupreſtis gigantea. Fig. 2, the female of the ſame. Fig. 3, an HEMIPTEROUS inſect; the Blatta Americana. Fig. 4, the female of the ſame. Under the female at *a*, is ſhewn the egg of the blatta, with a young larva, *b*, juſt quickened, and emerging from it. Fig. 5, a LEPIDOPTEROUS inſect; the Phalæna coſſus, or goat moth. Fig. 6, another LEPIDOPTEROUS inſect; the Papilio vanillæ, or butterfly with ſpiral proboſcis. Fig. 7, a bunch of eggs belonging to the goat-moth. Fig. 8, an unimpregnated egg, magnified; and Fig. 9, two fecundated eggs, alſo magnified, belonging to the butterfly. Fig. 10, a NEUROPTEROUS inſect; the Libellula Carolina, or male dragon-fly of Carolina: Fig. 11, the female of the ſame. Fig. 12, an HYMENOPTEROUS inſect; the Apis muſcorum, or moſſy humming bee.

Fig. 13, the female. Fig. 14, a DIPTEROUS inſect; the Oeſtrus equi. Fig. 15, its female: this produces the *bots* in horſes. Fig. 16, an APTEROUS inſect; the female of the Fermes fatale, or white ant. Fig. 17, the male of the ſame, which being winged, may, while in this ſtate, be conſidered as a Neuropterous inſect. See the *larvæ* and *chryſalides* of theſe ſeven orders of inſects, in the Entomology Plate II.

OF THE TRANSFORMATION OF INSECTS.

Inſects are diſtinguiſhed from other animals by the wonderful changes that all thoſe of the winged ſpecies without exception, and ſome which are deſtitute of wings, neceſſarily paſs through, before they can arrive at the perfection of their nature. Moſt animals retain, during their whole life, the ſame form which they receive at their birth; but inſects go through various exterior and interior changes, inſomuch that the ſame individual, at its birth and middle ſtate, differs eſſentially from that under which it appears when arrived at a ſtate of maturity; and this difference is not confined to marks, colour, or texture, but is extended to their form, proportion, motion, organs, and habits of life. It was not till towards the latter end of the ſeventeenth century, that any juſt conception of this ſubject was formed. By diſſection juſt before their changes, it was readily ſeen that the moth and butterfly grow and ſtrengthen themſelves, that their members are formed and unfolded under the figure of the inſect we call a caterpillar, and that the growth is effected by a developement of parts; conſequently the changes which are apparently ſudden to our eyes, are gradually formed under the ſkin of the animal, and only appear ſudden to us, becauſe the inſect then gets rid of a caſe which had before concealed its members. By this caſe it is preſerved from injuries, till its wings, and every other part of its delicate frame, are in a condition to bear the impulſe of the ſun, and the action of the air; and when all the parts are grown firm, and ready to perform their ſeveral offices, the perfect animal appears in the form of its parents. Theſe transformations clearly prove, that without experience every thing in nature would appear a myſtery; ſo much ſo, that a perſon unacquainted with the tranſformation of the caterpillar to the chryſalis, and of this to the fly, would conſider them as three diſtinct ſpecies of inſects; for who, by the mere light of reaſon unaided by experience, could believe that a butterfly, adorned with four beautiful wings, furniſhed with a long ſpiral proboſcis or tongue, inſtead of a mouth, and with ſix legs, proceeded from a hairy caterpillar, provided with jaws and teeth, and fourteen feet? Without experience, who could imagine that a long white ſoft worm hid under the earth, ſhould be transformed into a cruſtaceous chafer? Nor could any one, from conſidering them in their perfect ſtate, have diſcovered the relation which they bear to the correſponding forms through which they have paſſed, and which are to appearance as diſtinct as difference can make them.

The life of thoſe inſects which paſs through theſe various changes, may be divided into four principal ſtates. The firſt change is from the *egg* into the *larva*; or, as it is more generally called, into the worm or caterpillar. From the *larva* it paſſes into the *pupa*, or chryſalis ſtate. From the *pupa*, into the *imago*, or fly ſtate.

Few ſubjects are more expreſſive of the extenſive goodneſs of Divine Providence, than theſe transformations, in which we find the temporary parts and organs of theſe little animals ſuited and adapted with the moſt minute exactneſs to the manner of their exiſtence; which again are ſhifted and changed, upon the inſects commencing a new ſcene and ſtate of action. In its larva ſtate the inſect appears groveling, heavy, and voracious, in the form of a worm, with a long body compoſed of ſucceſſive rings; crawling along by the aſſiſtance of theſe, or ſmall little hooks, which are placed on the ſide of the body. Its head is armed with ſtrong jaws, its eyes ſmooth, entirely deprived of ſex, the blood circulating from the hind part towards the head. It breathes through ſmall apertures, which are ſituated on each ſide of the body, or through one or more tubes placed in the hinder part thereof. While it is in the larva ſtate, the inſect is as it were maſked, and its true appearance concealed; for under this maſk the more perfect form is hidden from the human eye. In the pupa, or chryſalis ſtate, the inſect may be compared to a child in ſwaddling clothes; its members are all folded together under the breaſt, and incloſed within one or more coverings, remaining there without motion. While in this ſtate, no inſects but thoſe of the hemiptera claſs take any nouriſhment. The change is effected various ways; in ſome inſects the ſkin of the larva opens, and leaves a paſſage, with all its integuments; in others, the ſkin hardens and becomes a ſpecies of cone, which entirely conceals the inſect; others form or ſpin cones for themſelves, and in this ſtate they remain till the parts have acquired ſufficient firmneſs, and are ready to perform their ſeveral offices. The inſect then caſts off the ſpoils of its former ſtate, wakes from a death-like inactivity, breaks the incloſures of its tomb, throws off the duſky ſhroud, and appears in its imago or perfect form; for it has now attained the ſtate of organical perfection, which anſwers to the rank it is to hold in the corporeal world: the ſtructure of the body, the alimentary organs, and thoſe of motion, are materially changed. It is now furniſhed with organs of generation, and with wings magnificently adorned; it ſoars above its former purſuits, plays in the genial air, chooſes its mate, and tranſmits its nature to a ſucceeding race. Thoſe members, which in the preceding ſtate were wrapped up, ſoft, and motionleſs, now diſplay themſelves, grow ſtrong, and are put in exerciſe. The interior changes are as conſiderable as thoſe of the exterior form, and that in proportion as the firſt ſtate differs from the laſt; ſome organs acquire greater ſtrength and firmneſs, others are rendered more delicate; ſome are ſuppreſſed, and ſome unfolded which did not appear to exiſt in the former ſtages of its life.

The greater part of thoſe inſects which come forth in ſpring or ſummer, periſh at the approach of winter; there are very few, the period of whoſe life exceeds that of a year; thoſe which ſurvive the rigours of winter, are buried under ground; many are hid in the bark of trees, and others in the chinks of old walls; ſome, like the caterpillar of the brown-tailed moth, at the approach of winter ſecure and ſtrengthen the web in which the ſociety inhabit, and thus protect themſelves, till the ſpring animates them to new life. Many that are hatched in the autumn, retire and live under the earth during the winter months, but in the ſpring come out, feed, and proceed onward to their ſeveral changes; while no ſmall part paſs the colder months in their chryſalis or pupa ſtate: but the greater number of the caterpillar race remain in the egg, being carefully depoſited by the parent fly in thoſe places where they will be hatched with the greateſt ſafety; in this ſtate the latent principle of life is preſerved till the genial influences of the ſpring call it into action, and bring forth the young inſect to ſhare the banquet that nature there provides.

All caterpillars are hatched from the egg, and when they firſt proceed from it are generally ſmall and feeble, but grow in ſtrength as they increaſe in ſize. The body is divided into twelve rings; the head is connected with the firſt, and is hard and cruſtaceous. No caterpillar of the moth or butterfly has leſs than eight, or more than ſixteen, feet; the ſix firſt are cruſtaceous, pointed, and fixed to the three firſt rings of the body; theſe feet are the covering to the ſix future feet of the moth; the other ſix feet are ſoft and flexible or membranaceous; they vary both in figure and number, and are proper only to the larva ſtate; with reſpect to their external figure, they

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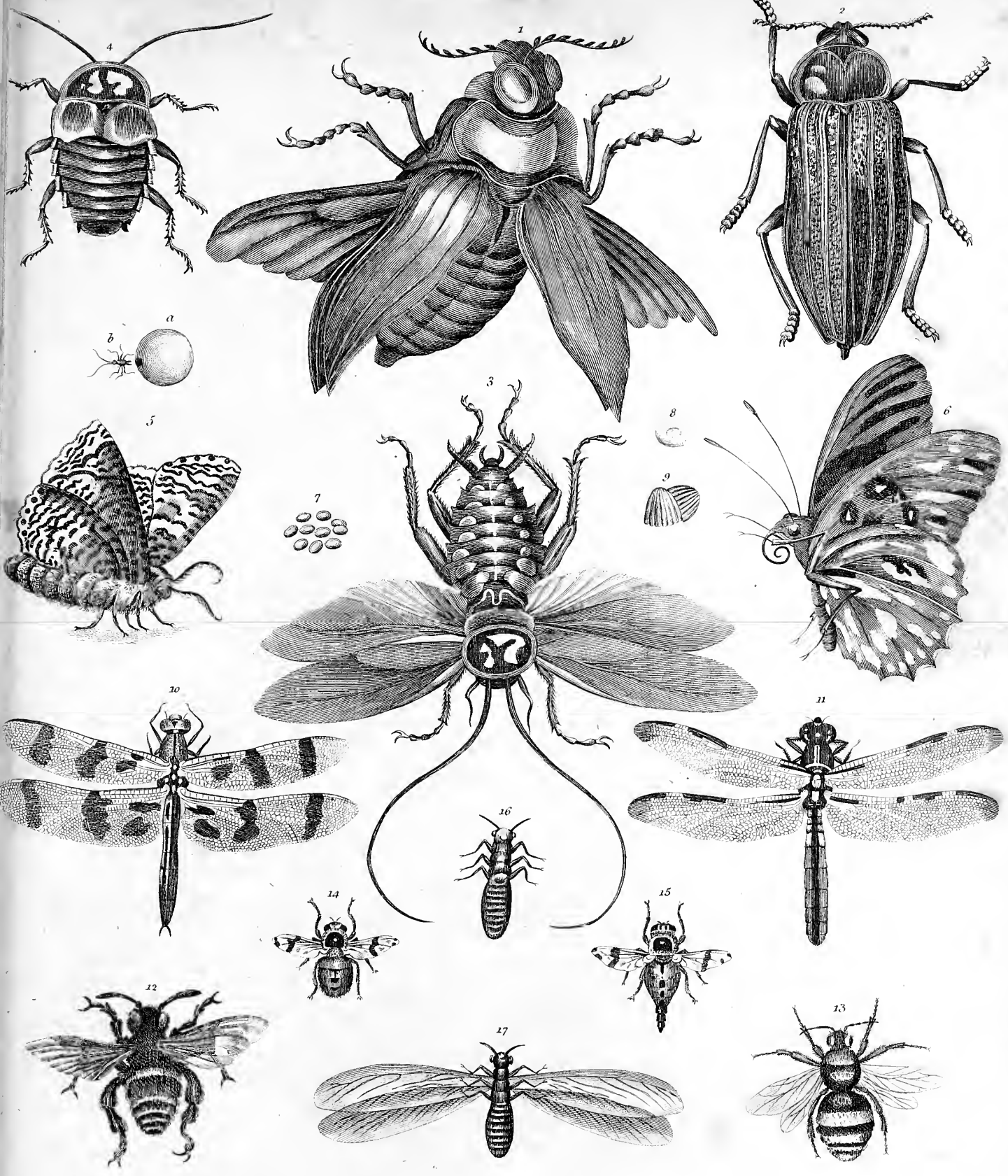

J.Pass sculpt.

The seven Orders of Insects.

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are either ſmooth or hairy, ſoft to the touch, or hard like ſhagreen, beautifully adorned with a great variety of the moſt lively tints; on each ſide of the body nine ſtemmata, or little oval holes, are placed, which are generally conſidered as the organs of reſpiration. There are on each ſide of the head of the caterpillar five or ſix little black ſpots, which are ſuppoſed to be its eyes. Theſe creatures vary in ſize, from half an inch long to four and five inches.

The caterpillar, whoſe life is one continued ſucceſſion of changes, often moults its ſkin before it attains its full growth; not one of them arrives at perfection, without having caſt its ſkin twice or thrice. Theſe changes are the more remarkable, becauſe when the caterpillar moults, it is not ſimply the ſkin that is changed; for we find in the exuvia, the ſkull, the jaws, and all the exterior parts, both ſcaly and membranaceous, which compoſe its upper and under lip, its antennæ, palpi, and even thoſe cruſtaceous pieces within the head, which ſerve as a fixed baſis to a number of muſcles; we further find in the exuvia, the ſpiracula, the claws, and ſheaths of the anterior limbs, and in general all that is viſible of the caterpillar. The new organs appear under the old ones as in a ſheath, ſo that the caterpillar effects the changes by withdrawing itſelf from the old ſkin, when it finds itſelf lodged in too narrow a compaſs. But to produce this change, to puſh off the old covering, and bring forward the new, is a work of labour and time. Thoſe caterpillars who live in ſociety, and have a kind of neſt or habitation, retire there to change their ſkins, fixing the hooks of the feet, during the operation, firmly in the web of their neſt. Some of the ſolitary ſpecies ſpin at this time a ſlender web, to which they affix themſelves. A day or two before the moment approaches, the inſect ceaſes to eat, and loſes its uſual activity; in proportion as the time of change advances, the colour of the caterpillar becomes more opaque; the ſkin hardens and withers, and is ſoon incapable of receiving thoſe juices by which it was heretofore nouriſhed and ſupported. The inſect may now be ſeen, at diſtant intervals, to elevate its back, and ſtretch itſelf to its utmoſt extent; ſometimes to lift up the head, move it a little from ſide to ſide, and then let it reſt again. By repeated exertions, all the veſſels which conveyed the nouriſhment to the exterior ſkin are diſengaged, and ceaſe to act, and a ſlit is made on the back, generally beginning at the ſecond or third ring; the new ſkin may now be juſt perceived, being diſtinguiſhed by the freſhneſs and brightneſs of its colour; the caterpillar then preſſes the body like a wedge into this ſlit, by which means it is ſoon opened from the firſt down to the fourth ring; this renders it large enough to afford the inſect a paſſage, which it ſoon effects in a very curious manner. The caterpillar generally faſts a whole day after each moulting, for it is neceſſary that the parts ſhould acquire a certain degree of conſiſtency, before it can act in its uſual manner; many alſo periſh under the operation. The body having grown under the old ſkin, till the inſect was become too large for it, it always appears much larger after it has quitted the exuvia: now as the growth was gradual, and the parts ſoft, the ſkin preſſed them together, ſo that they lay in a ſmall ſpace; but as ſoon as the ſkin is caſt off, they are as it were liberated from their bounds, and diſtend themſelves conſiderably. Some caterpillars, in changing their ſkin, from ſmooth, become covered with fine hair; while others, that were covered with this fine hair, have the laſt ſkin ſmooth. The ſilkworm, previous to its chryſalis or pupa ſtate, caſts its ſkin four times; the firſt is caſt on the tenth, eleventh, or twelfth, day, according to the nature of the ſeaſon; the ſecond, in five or ſix days after; the third in five or ſix days more, and the fourth and laſt in ſix or ſeven days after the third.

Entomologiſts diſtinguiſh the different appearances of the inſect in its pupa ſtate, as follows: It is called *coarctata*, when it is confined to a caſe of a globular form, without the ſmalleſt reſemblance to the ſtructure of the inſect it contains, as in the diptera. It is called *obtecta*, when the inſect is inveloped in a cruſtaceous covering, conſiſting of two parts, one of which ſurrounds the head and thorax, the other the abdomen. It is termed *incomplete*, when the pupa has perceptible wings and feet, but cannot move them, as in moſt of the hymenoptera. *Semicomplete*, when the pupa can walk or run, having only the rudiments of wings; as in the claſs hemiptera. The difference between the pupa and the larva of this order, is very inconſiderable; as they eat, walk, and act, juſt as they did in their primitive ſtate. *Complete* are thoſe which take their perfect form at their birth, and do not paſs, like other inſects, through a variety of ſtates, though they often change their ſkin; as is the caſe with many of the aptera claſs.

It is a general rule, that all winged inſects neceſſarily paſs through the larva and pupa ſtate, before they aſſume their perfect form: there are alſo inſects which have no wings, and yet undergo ſimilar transformations, as the bed bug, the flea, &c. Other inſects, which have no wings, and which always remain without them, never paſs through the pupa ſtate, but are ſubject to conſiderable changes, as well with reſpect to the number as the figure of their parts; thus mites have four pair of feet, and two ſmaller ones at the fore part of the body, near the head; yet ſome of theſe are born with only three pair of feet, the fourth is not evolved till ſome time after their birth. The figure of the *monoculus quadricornis* changes conſiderably after its birth, The *julus* is an inſect with a great number of feet; and yet theſe at their birth have only three pair, the reſt putting not forth till ſome time after.

When the caterpillar has attained to its full growth, and the parts of the future moth or butterfly are ſufficiently formed beneath its ſkin, it prepares for its change into the pupa ſtate; it ſeeks for a proper place in which to perform the important buſineſs: the different methods employed by theſe little animals to ſecure this ſtate of reſt, may be reduced to four: ſome ſpin follicles or cones, in which they incloſe themſelves; others conceal themſelve in little cells, which they form under ground; ſome ſuſpend themſelves by a glutinous matter at their poſterior extremity; while others are ſuſpended by a girdle that goes round their body. Preparatory to the change, the caterpillar empties itſelf of all the excrementitious matter that is contained in the inteſtines, voiding at the ſame time the membrane which ſerved as a lining to theſe and the ſtomach. The inteſtinal canal is compoſed of two principal tubes, the one inſerted into the other; the external tube is compact and fleſhy, the internal one is thin and tranſparent; it is the inner tube, which lines the ſtomach and inteſtines, that is voided with the excrement before the metamorphoſis. It generally perſeveres in a ſtate of reſt for ſeveral days, which affords the external and internal organs that are under the ſkin an opportunity of gradually unfolding themſelves. In proportion as the change into the pupa form approaches, the body is obſerved often to extend and contract itſelf; the hinder part is that which is firſt diſengaged from the caterpillar ſkin; when this part of the body is free, the animal contracts and draws it up towards the head; it then liberates itſelf in the ſame manner from the two ſucceeding rings, conſequently the inſect is now lodged in the fore part of its caterpillar covering; the half which is abandoned remains flaccid and empty, while the fore part is ſwoln and diſtended. The animal, by ſtrong efforts, ſtill forcing itſelf againſt the fore part of the ſkin, burſts the ſkull into three pieces, and forms a longitudinal opening in the three firſt rings of the body; through this it proceeds, drawing one part after the other, by alternately lengthening and ſhortening, ſwelling and contracting the body and different rings; or elſe, by puſhing back the exuvia, finally gets rid of its reptile form.

The caterpillar, thus ſtripped from its ſkin, now becomes the pupa, nymph, chryſalis, or aurelia, in which the parts of the future moth are incloſed; but are ſo ſoft, that

that the ſlighteſt touch will diſcompoſe them. The exterior part of the chryſalis is at firſt exceedingly tender, ſoft, and partly tranſparent, being covered with a viſcous fluid; this ſoon dries up, thickens, and forms a cruſt round the animal, capable of reſiſting external injuries; a caſe, which is at the ſame time the ſepulchre of the caterpillar, and the cradle of the moth; where, as under a veil, this curious transformation is carried on. The pupa was firſt called a chryſalis, or *creature made of gold*, from the reſplendent yellow colour with which ſome kinds are adorned. Reaumur has ſhewn us whence they derive this rich colour; that it proceeds from two ſkins, the upper one a beautiful brown, which lies upon or covers a highly poliſhed and ſmooth white ſkin; the light reflected from the laſt, in paſſing through, gives it the golden yellow, in the ſame manner as this colour is often given to leather; ſo that the whole appears gilt, although no gold enters into the tincture. The chryſalis of the common white butterfly furniſhes a moſt beautiful object for the lucernal opake microſcope.

Thoſe who are deſirous to diſcover diſtinctly the various members of the moth in the pupa, ſhould examine it before the fore-mentioned fluid is dried up, when it will be found to be only the moth with the members glued together; theſe, by degrees, acquire ſufficient force to break their covering, and diſengage themſelves from the bands which confine them. While in this ſtate, all the parts of the moth may be traced out, though ſo folded and laid together, that it cannot make any uſe of them; nor is it expedient that it ſhould, as they are too ſoft and tender to be uſed, and paſs through this ſtate merely to be hardened and ſtrengthened. To examine the moth concealed under the ſkin of a caterpillar, one of them ſhould be taken at the laſt change; when the ſkin begins to open, it ſhould be drowned in the ſpirit of wine, or brandy, and be left therein for ſome days to harden; the ſkin of the caterpillar may then be eaſily removed: the rudiments of the chryſalis will be firſt diſcovered, after which the tender moth appears; and its wings, legs, antennæ, &c. may be opened and diſplayed by an accurate obſerver.

The time which the moth or butterfly remains in the pupa ſtate is not always the ſame, varying in different ſpecies, and depending alſo upon the warmth of the weather, and other adventitious circumſtances; ſome remain in that ſituation for a few weeks; others do not attain their perfect form for eight, nine, or eleven, months: this often depends on the ſeaſon in which they aſſume the pupa form, or rather on the time of their birth. Some irregularities are alſo occaſioned by the different temperature of the air, by which they are retarded or accelerated, ſo as to be brought forward in the ſeaſon beſt ſuited to their nature and the ends of their exiſtence.

When the moth or butterfly is ſufficiently matured to break the bonds which ſurround it, and of which it ſeems to be informed by its internal ſenſations, it makes a powerful effort to eſcape from its priſon, and view the world with new-formed eyes. A ſmall degree of motion, or a little inflation of the body, is ſufficient to enlarge the hole, and afford the animal room to eſcape from its confinement. When the moth firſt ſees the day, it is humid and moiſt; but this humidity ſoon evaporates, the interior parts dry and harden as well as the exterior; the wings, which are wrinkled, being thick and ſmall, then extend themſelves, and the fibres which were at firſt flexible, become hard and ſtiff. The wings, though at firſt ſcarcely half the length of the body, ſoon acquire their full ſize: nor is it the wings only which are thus rapidly increaſed; all their ſpots and colours are proportionably extended, ſo that what at firſt appeared as ſo many confuſed points, become diſtinct and beautiful ornaments; and thoſe that are furniſhed with a tongue or trunk, curl and coil it up. When the wings are unfolded, the tongue rolled up, the parts ſufficiently dried, and the different members ſtrengthened, it takes its flight. Moſt of them, ſoon after they have attained their perfect ſtate, void an excrementitious ſubſtance; and Reaumur thinks that they eject very little, if any, during the reſt of their lives. If the moth be now opened down the belly, the groſs artery, which is called the heart, will be viſible, and the contractions and dilatations, by which it puſhes forward the liquor it contains, may be eaſily obſerved. One of the moſt remarkable circumſtances is, that the circulation of this fluid in the winged ſtate is directly contrary to that which took place in the caterpillar; in this, the liquor moved from the tail to the head, whereas in the winged ſtate, it moves from the head to the tail; ſo that the fluid which anſwers the purpoſes of blood, goes from the ſuperior towards the inferior parts; but in the caterpillar the order is reverſed: it proceeds from the inferior towards the ſuperior parts.

The induſtry of thoſe moths that ſpin cones or follicles in which they incloſe themſelves for their transformation, is well known and admired; ſince it is from a ſpecies of theſe, the *phalæna mori*, or ſilk-worm, that we derive ſo many benefits to the community. All caterpillars undergo ſimilar changes with it, and many of the genus greatly exceed it in beauty: but the golden tiſſue in which the ſilk-worm wraps itſelf, far ſurpaſſes the ſilky threads of all the other ſpecies: they may indeed come forth with a variety of colours, and wings bedecked with gold and ſcarlet; yet they are but the beings of a ſummer's day; both their life and beauty quickly vaniſh, and leave no remembrance of them; but the ſilk-worm leaves behind it ſuch beneficial monuments, as at once record the wiſdom of its Creator, and his bounty to man. The ſubſtance of which the ſilk is formed, is a fine yellow tranſparent gum, contained in two reſervoirs that wind about the inteſtines, and which, when they are unfolded, are about ten inches long; they terminate in two exceeding ſmall orifices near the mouth, through which the ſilk is drawn, or ſpun to the degree of fineneſs which its occaſions may require.

When the ſilk-worm, or caterpillar of the phalæna mori, is about to enter its pupa ſtate, it ſets to work, firſt ſpinning ſome random threads, which ſerve to ſupport the future ſuperſtructure; upon theſe it forms an oval of a looſe texture, conſiſting of what is called the floſs-ſilk; within this it forms a more conſiſtent ball of ſilk, remaining during the whole buſineſs within the circumference of the ſpheroid that it is forming, reſting on its hinder parts, and with its mouth and fore legs directing and ſecuring the threads. Theſe threads, when meaſured, have been found to be about three hundred yards long, and ſo fine, that eight or ten are generally rolled off into one by the manufacturers. The ſilk-worm uſually employs about three days in finiſhing this cone; the inſide is generally ſmeared with a kind of gum, that is deſigned to keep out the rain: within this cone it aſſumes the pupa form, and remains therein from fifteen to thirty days, according to the warmth of the climate. When the moth is ſufficiently matured, it moiſtens the end of this cone, and by frequent motions of the head looſens the texture of the ſilk, ſo as to form a hole without breaking it, and through which it eſcapes. For more on the natural hiſtory of the moth, and the manufacture of ſilk, ſee the articles PHALÆNA, and SILK.

The coleoptera genus, or beetle, is an inſect alſo diſengaged from the pupa form, before it can attain its winged ſtate. The pupa is a transformation in like manner from the worm or larva, and this derived its exiſtence from the egg; ſo that here, as in the foregoing inſtances, one inſect is exhibited in four different forms, before it acquires its perfect organization, or mature ſtate of life. The worm or grub of the beetle, like other inſects in the larva ſtate, in order to undergo its transformation, diſcharges all its excrement, and forms a convenient hole in the earth; where it caſts not off merely the external covering, but the throat, a part of the ſtomach, and the inward ſurface of the great canal, change at the ſame time their ſkin. After the transformation, the head and teeth

are white and tender, though before as hard as bone; ſo that the larva, when provoked, will attempt to gnaw iron. When the worm aſſumes the pupa ſtate, it forms with the hinder feet a poliſhed cavity, in this it lies for ſome time immoveable; after which, by voiding excrementitious ſubſtances, and by the evaporation of humidity, it becomes thinner and ſhorter, the ſkin more furrowed and wrinkled, ſo that it ſoon appears as if it were ſtarved by degrees. If it be diſſected about this period, the head, the belly, and the thorax, may be clearly diſtinguiſhed. While ſome external and internal parts are changing by a ſlow accretion, others are gently diſtended by the force of the impelled humours. The body contracting itſelf, while the circulating fluid is propelled towards the head, forces the ſkull open in three parts, and the ſkin in the middle of the back is ſeparated by means of an undulating motion of the inciſions of the back; at the ſame time the eyes, the horns, the lips, &c. caſt their exuvia. During this operation, a thin watery humour is diffuſed between the old and new ſkin, which renders the ſeparation eaſier. The proceſs going on gradually, the larva is at laſt diſengaged from its ſkin, and the limbs and parts are, by a continual unfolding, transformed into the pupa ſtate; after which, it twiſts and compreſſes the exuvia by the fundament, and throws it towards the hinder part under the belly. The pupa is at this time very delicate, tender, and flexible; and affords a moſt pleaſing appearance to an attentive obſerver. In it the future parts of the beetle are finely exhibited, ſo diſpoſed and formed, as ſoon to be able to ſerve the creature in a more perfect ſtate of life, and to put on a more elegant form.

The pupa of this inſect weighs, a little after its change, much heavier than it does in its beetle ſtate; this is alſo the caſe with the pupa of the bee and hornet. The latter has been found to weigh ten times as much as the hornet itſelf; this is probably occaſioned by a ſuperabundant moiſture, by which theſe inſects are maintained and nouriſhed during their torpid ſtate. How long the ſcene of mutation continues is not known; ſome remain during the whole winter, more particularly thoſe which quit the larva ſtate in autumn, when a ſudden cold checks their further operations, and conſequently they remain a pupa for ſeveral months. Some ſpecies of the beetle tribe go through all the ſtages of their exiſtence in a ſeaſon, while others employ near four years in the proceſs, and live as winged inſects a year.

When the proper time for the final change arrives, all the muſcular parts grow ſtrong, and are thus more able to ſhake off their laſt integuments, which is performed exactly in the ſame manner as in the paſſage of the inſect from the larva to the pupa ſtate; ſo that in this laſt ſkin, which is extremely delicate, the traces of the pulmonary tubes, that have been pulled off and turned out, again become viſible. All parts of the inſect, and more particularly the wings and their caſes, are at this period ſwelled and extended by the air and fluids which are driven into them through the arteries and pulmonary tubes; the wings are now ſoft as wet paper, and the circulating fluid iſſues from them on the leaſt wound; but when they have acquired their proper conſiſtency, which in the elytra is very conſiderable, they do not exhibit the leaſt ſign of any fluid within them, though cut or torn almoſt aſunder.—The pupa being diſengaged from its ſkin, aſſumes the form of a beetle, and acquires a diſtinction of ſex, being either male or female. The inſect now enters on its laſt ſtate of exiſtence; raiſes itſelf towards the ſkies, plays in the ſunbeam, propagates its like, depoſits the eggs for a new progeny in a ſecure place, and dies.

Such is the proceſs of the transformation of thoſe inſects whoſe habitudes confine them to dry land. We ſhall now deſcribe the metamorphoſis of an aquatic inſect, the *muſca chamæleon*. In the worm or larva condition it lives in the water, breathes by the tail, and carries its legs within a little trunk near its mouth. When the time arrives for its pupa ſtate, it goes through the change without caſting off the ſkin of the larva. But in the imago, or fly ſtate, it would infallibly periſh in the water, was not the larva by nature inſtructed how to chooſe a ſuitable ſituation for its approaching transformation. The larva of this inſect appears to conſiſt of twelve annular diviſions; by theſe it is ſeparated into a head, thorax, and abdomen; but as the ſtomach and inteſtines lie equally in the thorax and abdomen, it is not eaſy to diſtinguiſh their limits until the inſect approaches the pupa ſtate. The parts moſt worthy of notice, are the tail, and the ſnout or trunk.—The tail is furniſhed with an elegant circle of briſtles, diſpoſed quite round it in annular form; by means of this the tail is ſupported on the ſurface of the water, while the worm or larva is moving therein, the body in the meanwhile hanging towards the bottom in ſearch of food. When it is diſpoſed to ſink to the bottom, it turns the briſtles of the tail towards each other, hollow in the middle, but cloſe towards the extremity; by theſe means a conical ſpace is formed, and the bladder of air pent up in it looks like a pearl. It is by the aſſiſtance of this little balloon, that the inſect raiſes itſelf again to the ſurface. If this bubble eſcape, it can replace it from the pulmonary tubes; ſometimes large quantities of air may be ſeen to ariſe in bubbles from the tail of the worm to the ſurface of the water, and there mix with the incumbent atmoſphere. This operation may be eaſily ſeen by placing the worm in a tumbler of water, where it will afford a very entertaining ſpectacle. The ſnout or trunk is divided into three parts, of which that in the middle is immoveable; the two other parts grow from the ſides of the former; theſe are moveable, vibrating in a very ſingular manner, like the tongues of lizards and ſerpents. The greateſt ſtrength of the animal reſides in theſe lateral parts of the ſnout; it is on theſe that it walks at the bottom of the water, and alſo on dry land; appearing, as it were, to walk on its mouth, and uſing it as a parrot does its beak, to climb with greater advantage.

Theſe larvæ are generally to be found in ſhallow ſtanding waters, about the beginning of June, ſooner or later, as the ſummer is more or leſs favourable. After a certain period they paſs into the pupa form. When they are about to change, they betake themſelves to the herbs that float on the ſurface of the water, and creep gently thereon, till at length they lie partly on the dry ſurface, and partly on the water; when in the larva or pupa ſtate, they can live in water, but can by no means inhabit there when changed into flies. When theſe worms have found a proper ſituation, they by degrees contract themſelves, and loſe all power of motion. The inward parts of the worm's tail now ſeparate from the outer ſkin, and become greatly contracted; by this contraction, an empty ſpace is left, into which the air ſoon penetrates. Thus this inſect paſſes into the pupa ſtate under its own ſkin, entirely different from that of the caterpillar. This change may often be obſerved to take place in the ſpace of ten or twelve hours; but in what manner it is performed, or how effected, is hidden from our view.

Whilſt the larva is thus changing under the ſkin, the body, the head, and tail, ſeparate inſenſibly from their outward veſture. The legs at this time, and their cartilaginous bones, are, on account of the parts which are withdrawn from them, left empty; the worm loſes alſo the former ſkull, together with the bones belonging thereto, which remain in the ſkin of the exuvia. It is worthy of notice, that the optic nerves ſeparate alſo from the eyes, and no more perform their office. The muſcles of the rings in like manner, and a great part of the pulmonary points of reſpiration, are ſeparated from the external cuticle. Thus the whole body contracts itſelf by degrees into a compact maſs. At this time the gullet and pulmonary tubes caſt a coat within the ſkin. To make this evident, it is neceſſary to open the abdomen; when the pupa, its parts, together with the caſt-off pulmonary pipes, may be clearly diſtinguiſhed.

When the time approaches that the hidden inſect is to attain

attain the imago, or fly ſtate, which generally happens in about eleven days after the preceding change, the ſuperfluous humours are evaporated, and the pupa is contracted into the fifth ring of the ſkin, and the four laſt rings of the abdomen are filled with air, through the aperture in the reſpiratory orifice of the tail. This may be ſeen by expoſing the pupa for a ſhort ſpace to the rays of the ſun, and then putting its tail in water, when it will breathe ſtronger than it did before, and, by expreſſing an air bubble out of its tail, and then ſucking it in again, will manifeſtly perform the action of inſpiration and expiration. If the exterior caſe be opened near this period, a wonderful variety of colours may be perceived through the ſkin which inveſts the pupa. The colonrs of many of the different parts are now changed; ſome parts from aqueous become membranaceous, ſome fleſhy, and others cruſtaceous. When the fly begins to appear, the exterior ſkin is ſeen to move about the third and fourth anterior ring; the inſect then uſes all its efforts to quit the interior and exterior ſkin at one and the ſame time. The exterior ſkin is divided into four parts; the inſect immediately afterwards breaks open its inner coat, and caſting it off, eſcapes from its priſon in the form of a beautiful fly. Having thus acquired its perfect ſtate, the little animal which lived before in water and mud, enters into a new ſcene of life, viſits the fields and meadows, is tranſported through the air on its elegant wings, and ſports in the wide expanſe with unreſtrained freedom. For a view of this inſect in the worm ſtate, ſee the Entomology Plate II. fig. 14. and for its imago or fly ſtate, ſee the engraving to the article MUSCA.

Another very curious aquatic inſect is the *libellula*, or dragon fly. This inſect partakes of almoſt all colours, green, blue, crimſon, ſcarlet, and white; ſome unite a variety of the moſt vivid tints, and exhibit in one animal more different ſhades than are to be found in the rainbow. But it is not to colour alone that their beauty is confined, it is heightened by the brilliancy of their eyes, and the delicate texture and wide expanſion of their wings. The larva of the libellula is an inhabitant of the water, the fly itſelf is generally found hovering on its banks. The dragon fly is exhibited in the Entomology Plate I. fig. 10, 11; and the larva and pupa in Plate II. fig. 15, 16. But for figures of the moſt curious and elegant ſpecies of the fly, ſee the engraving to the article LIBELLULA.

Theſe inſects are produced from an egg, which is depoſited in the water by the parent; the egg ſinks to the bottom, and remains there till the worm finds ſtrength to break the ſhell. The larva is hexapode, and not ſo long as the fly; on the trunk are four prominences or little bunches, which become more apparent as the larva increaſes in ſize, and changes its ſkin. Theſe bunches contain the rudiments of the wings, which adorn the inſect when in its perfect ſtate. The head of the larva is exceedingly ſingular, the whole fore part of it being covered with a maſk, having proper cavities to ſuit the different prominences of the face; it is of a triangular form, growing ſmaller towards the bottom; at this part there is a knuckle that fits a cavity near the neck, on which it turns as on a pivot. The upper part of this maſk is divided into two pieces or ſhutters, which the inſect can open or cloſe at pleaſure; it can alſo let down the whole maſk whenever it pleaſes. The edges of the ſhutters are jagged like a ſaw. It makes uſe of the maſk to ſeize and hold its prey. Theſe larva generally live and feed at the bottom of the water, ſwimming only occaſionally: their manner of moving in the water is curious, being by ſudden jerks; but this motion is not occaſioned by their legs, which at this time are kept cloſe to the body; it is by forcing out a ſtream of water from the tail, that the body is carried forward; this may be eaſily perceived, by placing them in a flat veſſel, in which there is only juſt water enough to cover the bottom. Here the action of the water ſquirted from the tail will be very viſible; it will occaſion a ſmall current, and give a ſenſible motion to any light bodies on the ſurface. This action can only be effected at intervals, becauſe after each expulſion the inſect is obliged to inhale a freſh ſupply of water. The larva will ſometimes turn its tail above the ſurface of the water, and eject a ſmall ſtream from it as from a little fountain, and that with conſiderable force.

The pupa differs but little from the larva; the bunches containing the wings grow large, and begin to appear like four ſhort thick wings. It is full as lively as the larva, ſeeking and enjoying its food in the ſame manner. When arrived at its full growth, and ready to go through its laſt change, it approaches the edge of the water, and fixes itſelf firmly to a piece of wood or other ſubſtance by its claws. It remains for ſome time immoveable; the ſkin then opens down the back, and on the head; through this opening is exhibited the real head and eyes, and at length the legs; it then creeps gradually forward, drawing firſt its wings, and then the body, out of the ſkin. The wings, which are moiſt and folded, ſoon expand themſelves to their real ſize; the body is alſo extended till it has gained its proper length, which extenſion is accompliſhed by the propelling force of the circulating fluids. When the wings and limbs have acquired ſufficient ſtrength, it enters on a more noble ſtate of life: in this new ſcene it enjoys the living fragrance of the richeſt meadows, revels in delight, and, having laid the foundation for its future progeny, ſinks into an eaſy diſſolution. In its mature ſtate the dragon fly is of a ferocious diſpoſition, hovering in the air like a bird of prey, in order to feed on and deſtroy every ſpecies of fly; its appetite is groſs and voracious, not confining itſelf to ſmall flies only, but the large fleſh-fly, moths, and butterflies, are equally ſubject ed to its tyranny. See the article LIBELLULA.

The female of the *cynips* or gall inſect, which has no wings, paſſes through no transformation; while the male, which has four wings, paſſes through the pupa ſtate in order to become a fly. The principal habitude of the female is this, that after impregnation by the male, and with a view to the preſervation of a future progeny, it fixes itſelf to the branch or leaf of a tree, where it makes a puncture, which, from the gelatinous matter thrown out by the inſect, added to the ſap of the vegetable, increaſes in ſize, and becomes a true gall; here the female depoſits an egg, for which the gall firſt ſerves as a nidus, and afterwards as an habitation for the larva. See this curious proceſs deſcribed, with figures of the fly, under the article CYNIPS, vol. v. p. 519.

The *aphides*, or plant lice, to arrive at their reſpective ſtate, paſs through that of the ſemicomplete pupa, and their wings do not appear till they have quitted their pupa ſtate; but, as in all the families of the pucerons there are many which never become winged, we muſt not forget that theſe undergo no transformation, remaining always the ſame, without changing their figure, though they increaſe in ſize and change their ſkin. See the article APHIS, vol. i. p. 789.

An inſect that muſt caſt off its exuvia, or moult five times before it attains the pupa ſtate, as is the caſe with many of the caterpillars, may be conſidered as compoſed of five organized bodies incloſed within each other, and nouriſhed by common viſcera placed in the center: what the bud of the tree is to the inviſible buds it contains, ſuch is the exterior part of the caterpillar to the interior bodies it conceals in its boſom. Four of theſe bodies have the ſame eſſential ſtructure, namely, that which is peculiar to the inſect in its larva or caterpillar ſtate: the fifth body is that of the pupa. The reſpective ſtate of theſe bodies is in proportion to their diſtance from the center of the animal; thoſe that are fartheſt off have moſt conſiſtence, or unfold themſelves ſooneſt. When the exterior body has attained its full growth, that interior one which is next in order is conſiderably unfolded; it is then lodged in too narrow a compaſs, therefore it ſtretches on all ſides the ſheath which covers it; the veſſels which nouriſh the external covering, are broken by this

this violent diſtenſion, and ceaſing to act, the ſkin wrinkles and dries up; at length it opens, and the inſect comes forth with a new ſkin, and new organs. When we have thus formed the idea that all the exterior parts are inlaid, or included one within the other, the production of new organs does not appear ſo embarraſſing, being nothing more than a ſimple developement; but it is more difficult to form any conception of the changes that happen in the viſcera before and after the transformation, the various modifications they undergo eluding our reſeaches. We have already obſerved, that a little before the change the caterpillar rejects the membrane that lines the inteſtinal bag: this bowel has hitherto digeſted only groſs food, whereas it muſt hereafter digeſt that which is very delicate: a fluid that circulates in the caterpillar from the hind part towards the head, circulates a contrary way after transformation. Now if this inverſion is as real as obſervation ſeems to indicate, how amazing the change the interior parts of the animal muſt have undergone!

To give the curious reader a competent idea of the admirable ſtructure of the muſcles and interior mechaniſm of the caterpillar, we have, in the Entomology Plate II. fig. 1, exhibited an anatomical ſection of the caterpillar of the Phalæna coſſus, or goat-moth, conſiderably magnified to ſhew out its parts. The body of this caterpillar, and of inſects in general, includes four principal viſcera; the ſpinal marrow, the inteſtinal bag, the heart, and tracheal veſſels. The ſpinal marrow, or principal trunk of the nerves of inſects, is a whitiſh thread, extended the whole length from the head to the hindermoſt part, furniſhed at intervals with ſmall knots or ganglions. From theſe knots procced the nervous threads that are ſuppoſed to be the inſtruments of ſenſation and motion. On the medullary thread is placed the inteſtinal bag, which is equal to it in length; it is a long gut, in which are contained the oeſophagus, the ſtomach, and inteſtines. Down the back, and parallel to the inteſtinal bag, runs a long thin veſſel, in which may be perceived through the ſkin of the inſect alternate contractions and dilatations; this part is ſuppoſed to perform the functions of the heart. The tracheal veſſels of inſects are very ſimilar to thoſe of plants; are of the ſame ſtructure, colour, and elaſticity, and are, like them, diſperſed through the whole body.

The internal ſtructure of the caterpillar, as repreſented in the Plate, divides itſelf into twelve parts, correſponding to its twelve rings. Each of theſe rings is diſtinguiſhed from that which follows, and that preceding it, by a kind of neck, or ſmall hollow part or ſection. By conceiving a line to paſs through theſe necks, and forming boundaries to the rings, the diviſions become more apparent.

The anatomical delineation of the muſcles of the head; the two palpi; the truncated muſcles of the lower lip, and part of thoſe which give it motion; the two ganglions of the neck united; the two ſilk veſſels which form tubes from the right and left, and paſs through the center of the head; the œſophagus; the two diſſolving veſſels; the cephalic arteries; the ten abductor muſcles of the jaw; the four occipital muſcles; alſo a nerve of the firſt pair, belonging to the ganglion of the neck, may be eaſily traced by contemplating the engraving.

The muſcles of the body of inſects have neither the exterior form, nor the colour, of thoſe of larger animals. In their natural ſtate they are ſoft, and have the appearance of a jelly; they are of a greyiſh blue, and the ſilver-coloured appearance of the pulmonary veſſels, which creep over and penetrate their ſubſtance, exhibits under the microſcope a moſt beautiful ſpectacle. When the caterpillar has been ſoaked for ſome time in ſpirit of wine, they loſe their elaſticity and tranſparency, and become firm, opake, and white; the aerial veſſels diſappear. At firſt ſight they might be taken for tendons, as they are of the ſame colour, and poſſeſs almoſt the ſame luſtre. They are generally flat, and of an equal ſize throughout; the middle ſeldom differs either in colour, ſubſtance, or ſize, from the extremities. The ends are fixed to the ſkin; the reſt of the muſcle is generally free and floating; ſeveral of them branch out conſiderably; the branches extend ſometimes ſo far, that it is not always eaſy to diſcover whether they are diſtinct and ſeparate muſcles, or parts of another. They are of a moderate ſtrength; thoſe that have been ſoaked in ſpirit of wine, when examined by the microſcope, will be found to be covered with a membrane which may be ſeparated from them; they then appear to conſiſt of ſeveral parallel bands, diſpoſed according to the length of the muſcle. Theſe, when divided by the aſſiſtance of very fine needles, appear to be compoſed of ſtill ſmaller bundles of fibres, in the ſame direction; which, when examined by a very deep magnifier, and in a favourable light, appear twiſted like a ſmall cord. If the muſcles are ſeparated by means of very fine needles, in a drop of ſome fluid, we find that they are not only compoſed of fibres, membranes, and aerial veſſels, but alſo of nerves; and, from the drops of oil that may be ſeen floating on the fluid, that they are alſo furniſhed with many unctuous particles. The muſcles in the caterpillar are very numerous, exceeding by much thoſe of the human body. They occupy the greateſt part of the head; there is an amazing number at the œſophagus, the inteſtines, &c. the ſkin is as it were lined by different beds of them, placed one over the other, and ranged with wonderful ſymmetry. The number of muſcles is truly aſtoniſhing; there are 228 in the head, 1647 in the body, and 2066 in the inteſtinal tube, making in all 3941!

The ſpinal marrow and the brain of the caterpillar, ſeem to have very little relation to thoſe of man. We find in the head of that which we are deſcribing, a part which ſeems to anſwer the purpoſe of the brain, becauſe the nerves that are diſſeminated through the head are derived from it; but then this part is unprotected, and ſo ſmall, that it does not occupy one-fifth part of the head; the ſurface is ſmooth, and has neither lobes nor anfractuouſneſs; and if we call this a brain, the caterpillar may be ſaid to have thirteen, as there are twelve more ſuch parts following each other in a line; they are nearly of the ſame ſize with that in the head, and of the ſame ſubſtance; and it is from them that the nerves are diſtributed through the whole body. Leſt the idea of thirteen brains might appear abſurd, M. Lyonet has called theſe parts ganglions. The ſpinal marrow in the human ſpecies deſcends down the back, incloſed in a bony caſe; is large with reſpect to its length, and not divided into branches, diminiſhing in thickneſs in proportion as it is removed further from the brain. In the caterpillar, the ſpinal marrow goes along the belly, is not incloſed in any tube, is very ſmall, forks out at intervals, and is nearly of the ſame thickneſs throughout, except at the ganglions. The ſubſtance of the ſpinal marrow, and of the ganglions, is not near ſo tender and eaſily ſeparated as in man; it has a very great degree of tenacity, and does not break without conſiderable tenſion. The ſubſtance of the ganglions differs from that of the ſpinal marrow, as no veſſels can be diſcovered in the latter, whereas the former are full of very delicate ones. The ſkilful anatomiſt of the caterpillar has counted forty-five pair of nerves, and two ſingle ones; ſo that there are ninety-two principal nerves, whoſe ramifications are innumerable.

The tracheal arteries of the caterpillar are two large elaſtic veſſels, which, with their numerous ramifications may be preſſed cloſe together, and drawn out conſiderably, but return immediately to their uſual ſize when the tenſion ceaſes; they creep under the ſkin cloſe to the ſpiracula, one at the right ſide of the inſect, the other at the left, each of them communicating with the atmoſphere, by means of nine ſpiracula; they are nearly as long as the body, beginning at the firſt ſpiraculum, and going a little farther than the laſt, terminating in ſome branches which extend to the extremities of the body. Round

about

about each ſpiraculum the tracheal artery puſhes forth a great number of branches, which are again divided into ſmaller ones; theſe further ſubdivide, and ſpread through the whole body of the caterpillar. This veſſel and its principal branches are compoſed of three coats, which may be ſeparated one from the other. The exterior covering is a thick membrane, furniſhed with a great number of fibres, which deſcribe a vaſt variety of circles round it, communicating with each other by numerous ſhoots. The ſecond is very thin, and tranſparent; no particular veſſel is diſtinguiſhed in it. The third is compoſed of ſcaly threads, which are generally turned in a ſpiral form, and come ſo near each other, as ſcarcely to leave any interval; theſe threads are curiouſly united with the membrane which occupies the intervals, and form a tube which is always open, notwithſtanding the flexure of the veſſel. The principal tracheal veſſels branch out into 236 ſmaller ones, from which there ſpring 1326 different ramifications.

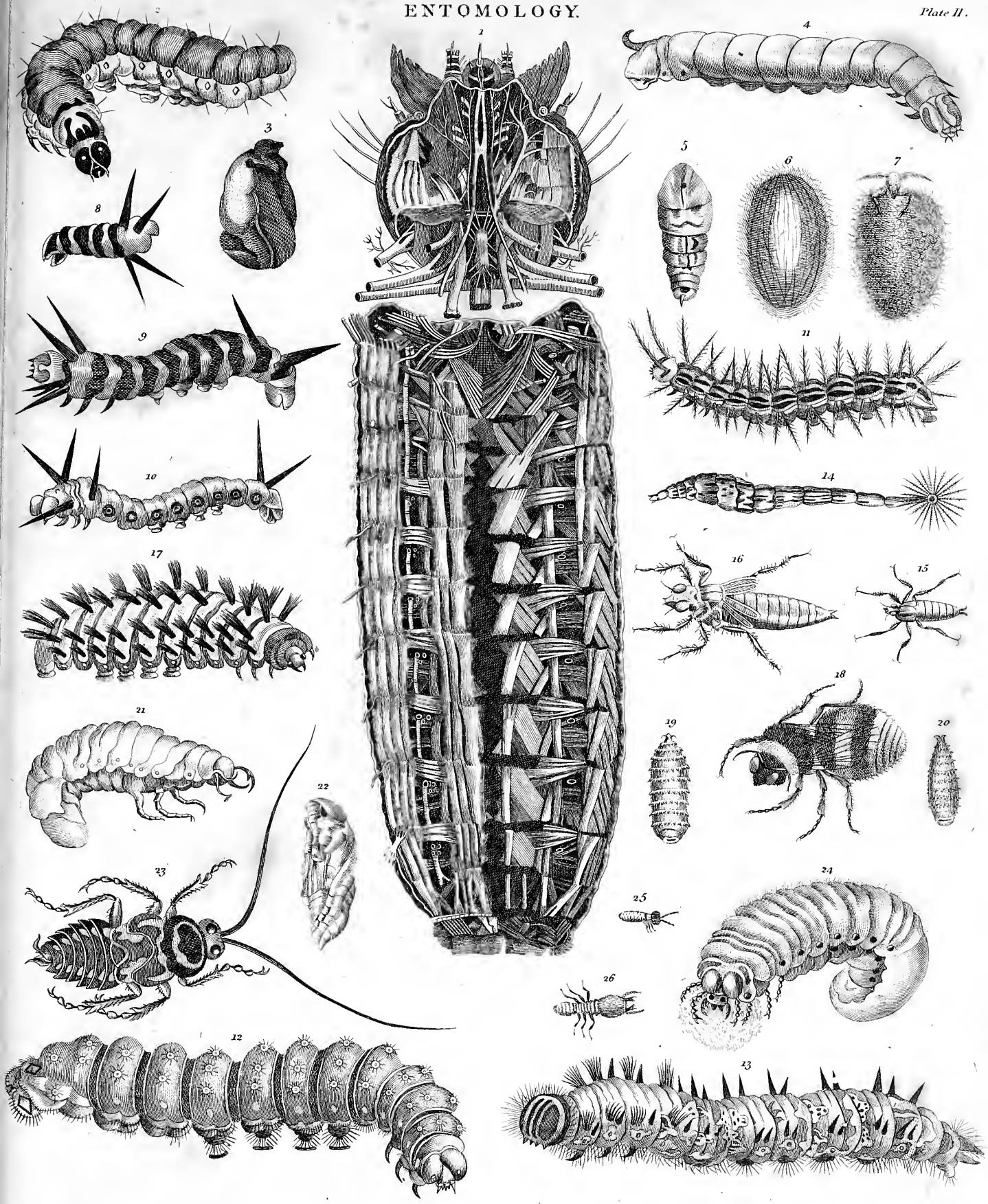
The part of the caterpillar which naturaliſts call the heart, is of a nature very different from that of larger animals. It is almoſt as long as the caterpillar itſelf, lies immediately under the ſkin at the top of the back, entering into the head, and terminating near the mouth. It is large and ſpacious towards the laſt rings of the body, and diminiſhes very much as it approaches the head, from the fourth to the twelfth diviſion; it has on both ſides, at each diviſion, an appendage, which partly covers the muſcles of the back; but, growing narrower as it approaches the lateral line, forms a number of irregular lozenge-ſhaped bodies. This muſcular tube has been deemed the heart of the caterpillar; firſt, becauſe it is generally filled with a kind of lymph, which has been ſuppoſed to be analogous to the blood of larger animals; ſecondly, becauſe in all caterpillars, whoſe ſkin is in ſome degree tranſparent, continual, regular, and alternate, dilatations and contractions may be perceived along the ſuperior line, beginning at the eleventh ring, and going on from ring to ring to the fourth, whence this veſſel has been conſidered as a file of hearts; but ſtill this viſcera ſeems to have very little relation to the heart of larger animals; we find no veſſel opening into it to anſwer the aorta, vena cava, &c. Yet it cannot be of any importance in what manner this organ be formed, any more than that of the brain, ſo that the Great Author of its ſtructure has enabled it to perform its proper office. Near the eighth diviſion are two white oblong maſſes, that join the tube of the heart; they have been called reniform bodies, becauſe they are ſomething ſimilar to a kidney in their ſhape.

The *corpus craſſum* is, with reſpect to volume, the moſt conſiderable part of the whole caterpillar; it is the firſt and only ſubſtance that is ſeen on opening it, forming a kind of ſheath, which envelopes and covers all the entrails, and introducing itſelf into the head, enters all the muſcles of the body, filling the greateſt part of the empty ſpaces in the caterpillar. It is of a milk-white colour. In its configuration it is very ſimilar to the human brain. When the different maſſes of the corpus craſſum which covers the entrails are removed, the largeſt parts are the œſophagus, the ventricle, and the large inteſtines. The *œſophagus* deſcends from the bottom of the mouth to about the fourth diviſion. The anterior part which is in the head is fleſhy, narrow, and fixed by different muſcles to the cruſtaceous parts thereof; the lower part which paſſes into the body is wider, and forms a kind of membranaceous bag, which is covered with very ſmall muſcles; near the ſtomach it is again narrower, and is as it were bridled by a ſtrong nerve, which is fixed to it at diſtant intervals. The *ventricle* begins a little above the fourth diviſion, where the œſophagus finiſhes, and terminates at the tenth diviſion; it is about ſeven times longer than it is broad; the anterior part, which is the broadeſt, is generally folded. The folds diminiſh with the bulk, in proportion as it approaches the inteſtines. An aſſemblage of nerves cover the ſurface; it is ſurrounded by a number of aerial veſſels, and opens into a tube, which M. Lyonet calls the large inteſtine.

There are three of theſe large tubes or inteſtines, each of which differs from the other ſo much, both in ſtructure and character, that they ſhould have a particular name to diſtinguiſh them. As moſt caterpillars are endued with a power or faculty of ſpinning, they are provided with two veſſels where the ſubſtance is prepared, which, when drawn out, and extended in the air, becomes a ſilken thread; theſe two veſſels are termed the ſilk-veſſels or tubes; in the caterpillar of the coſſus they are often above three inches long, and are diſtinguiſhed into three parts, the anterior, the intermediate, and poſterior. It has alſo two other veſſels, which are ſuppoſed to prepare and contain the liquor by which it diſſolves the wood on which it feeds. Such is the wonderful organization of this apparently trifling and imperfect animal. Yet the four-thouſand muſcles employed in the conſtruction of the caterpillar of the coſſus, cannot be conſidered without the deepeſt aſtoniſhment: their admirable co-ordination and junction with other parts equally numerous, yet all harmonizing and acting together as if they were eſſentially one, naturally lead the mind to conſider the nature and perfection of creation, and to perceive that it is an exhibition of the higheſt wiſdom and moſt profound omnipotence.—See Lyonet ſur la Chenille de Saule; and Theologie des Inſectes. Alſo Mr. Adams on the Microſcope, by Kanmacher.

In the Entomology Plate II. are given figures of different caterpillars, and various inſects in their larva and pupa ſtate. Fig. 2, the caterpillar of the phalæna coſſus or goat-moth, of its natural ſize, and the ſame animal as diſſected and magnified at fig. 1. The pupa of this moth is ſhewn at fig. 3. The moth itſelf is ſhewn at fig. 6, in the Entomology Plate I. Fig. 4, the ſilkworm, or caterpillar of the phalæna mori. Fig. 5, the pupa or chryſalis of the ſame moth. Fig. 6, a ſection of the cone or follicle of ſilk, in which the pupa incloſes itſelf. Fig. 7, the cone or follicle, ſhewing the moth in the act of making its way out, and juſt arrived at its imago or fly ſtate. For the phalæna mori, or ſilkworm moth, ſee the article PHALÆNA. Fig. 8, the caterpillar of the phalæna erythrinæ, in its firſt worm ſtate. Fig. 9, the ſame caterpillar, after its firſt moult. Fig. 10, the ſame after its ſecond moult. Fig. 11, the caterpillar of the papilio vanillæ, or butterfly with the ſpiral tongue, ſhewn in Plate I. fig. 6. Fig. 12, caterpillar of the atlas moth. Fig. 13, caterpillar of the Achilles butterfly. See theſe two ſuperb ſpecies in the engravings adapted to the articles PAPILIO, and PHALÆNA. Fig. 14, the larva of the muſca chamæleon. Fig. 15, the larva of the libellula or dragon fly. Fig. 16, the pupa of the ſame, with its wings beginning to evolve. Fig. 17, the palmer or caterpillar of the apis muſcorum, or humming bee. Fig. 18, the pupa of the ſame, with the rudiments of its wings. See the perfect fly, male and female, fig. 12, 13, in Plate I. Fig. 19, the larva of the oeſtrus equi, or grub called the *bot*, voided by horſes. Fig. 20, the pupa of the ſame. For the perfect fly, male and female, ſee fig. 14, 15, in Plate I. Fig. 21, the larva of the lucanus interruptus, or black beetle with yellow wings. Fig. 22, ſame in its pupa ſtate, ſhewing the rudiments of its limbs. For the perfect beetle, ſee the article LUCANUS. Fig. 23, the larva of the blatta Americana; the perfect inſects, male and female, are ſhewn at fig. 3, 4, in Plate I. Fig. 24, the larva of the bupreſtis gigantea. The perfect beetles, male and female, are exhibited at fig. 1 and 2, Plate I. Fig. 25, the larva of the termes fatale, or white ant. Fig. 26, the pupa of the ſame. See the perfect inſects, fig. 16 female, and 17 male, in Plate I. —For the natural hiſtory, and more engravings of all theſe inſects, ſee under their reſpective generic titles in this work.

Of



J. Pass sculp.

Larvæ and Pupæ of the Seven Orders of Insects.

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Of the GENERATION of INSECTS.

One of the greateſt myſteries appertaining to the inſect tribes, is their mode of generation. Many ancient philoſophers imagined that inſects were produced from corrupt and putrefied ſubſtances, and thus owed their origin to mere chance. But they ſhould have taught that every degree of life muſt proceed from the fountain and ſource of all life; and that therefore inſects muſt conform to that general law which runs through the whole of animated nature, namely, that the conjunction of the male and female is neceſſary for the production and propagation of their offspring.

But though inſects are, like larger animals, for this end diſtinguiſhed into male and female, yet in ſome claſſes there appears to be a kind of mules, partaking of neither ſex, though themſelves originating from the conjunction of both; and many other particularities relative to the ſexes of inſects, ſeem equally myſterious and unaccountable: though it is moſt conſonant to reaſon that all ſuch inſects as are termed mules, neuters, or which appear of doubtful or imperfect conformation, are only ſuch whoſe parts are not yet completely evolved, and conſequently not arrived at their laſt or perfect ſtate. It is evident that this is the caſe with what are called *labourers* among the white ants.

In many inſects the male and female are with difficulty diſtinguiſhed; and in ſome they differ ſo widely, that an unſkilful perſon might eaſily take the male and female of the ſame inſect for different ſpecies; as for inſtance, in the phalæna humuli, piniaria, ruſſula, &c. The diſſimilarity is ſtill greater in thoſe inſects in which the male has wings and the female none, as in the coccus lampyris, termes fatale, phalæna antiqua, and many of the hemiptera claſs. The female of the gryllus pedeſtris is quite deſtitute of wings, and paſſed for a gryllus in its larva ſtate, until it was ſeen in copulation, which proved its maturity; for it is an eſtabliſhed fact, that no inſect can propagate, till it arrives at its laſt or perfect ſtate.—"*Pleraque inſectorum genitalia ſua intra anum habent abſcondita, et penes ſolitarios, ſed nonnulla penem habent bifidum: cancri autem et aranei geminos, quemadmodum nonnulla amphibia, et quod mirandum in loco alieno, ut cancer, ſub baſi caudæ. Aranеus mas palpos habet clavatos, qui penes ſunt, juxta os utrinque unicum, quæ clavæ ſexum nec ſpeciem diſtinguunt; et fœmina vulvas ſuas habet in abdomine juxta pectus; heic vero ſi unquam vere dixeris: res plena timoris amor, ſi enim procus inauſpicato acceſſerit fœmina ipſum devorat, quod etiam fit, ſi non ſtatim ſe retraxerit. Libellula fœmina genitale ſuum ſub apice gerit caudæ, et mas ſub pectore, adeo ut cum mas collum fœmina forcipe caudæ arripit, illa caudam ſuam pectori ejus adplicet, ſicque peculiari ratione connexæ volitent.*"

Inſects are either oviparous, or viviparous; in other words, the ſpecies is perpetuated either by their laying of eggs, or bringing forth their young alive. The former is the more general caſe; there are but few inſtances of the latter. Thoſe inſects which paſs through the different transformations already deſcribed, cannot propagate, therefore, till they arrive at their winged ſtate; and we believe there is ſeldom any conjunction of the ſexes in other claſſes till they have moulted, or put off their laſt ſkin, the cancri and monoculi excepted. Reaumur, tom. iv. p. 415, mentions ſeveral ſpecies of two-winged flies that are viviparous, bringing forth worms, which are afterwards tranſformed into flies. The womb of one of theſe is ſingularly curious; it is formed of a band rolled up in a ſpiral form, and about two inches and a half in length; ſo that it is ſeven or eight times longer than the body of the fly, and compoſed of worms placed one on the ſide of the other with wonderful art; and are many thouſands in number.

Among the *aphides*, or pucerons, many bring forth their young alive in ſummer, but in autumn they depoſit eggs upon the branches and bark of trees. The generative habitudes of this genus are very ſingular: an aphis or puceron, hatched from a roſe-leaf, and brought up in the moſt perfect ſolitude from the very moment of its birth, in a few days will be found the parent of a numerous family; repeat the experiment on one of the individuals of this new family, and the ſecond generation will multiply like its parent; and this is found to be the caſe for ten generations, when impregnation by the male appears again neceſſary for another ten years procreation. See theſe facts explained under the article APHIS, vol. i. p. 789.

However ſingular the generation and production of the aphides may appear, that of bees is not leſs ſo.—This little republic has at all times gained univerſal eſteem and admiration; and, though they have attracted the attention of the moſt ingenious inquirers into nature, yet the mode of propagating their ſpecies for a long time baffled the ingenuity of ages, and rendered their attempts to diſcover it abortive. Reaumur was the firſt who removed the veil, and explained their manner of generating: he diſcovered that the queen bee was the only female belonging to a ſwarm or hive, and the mother of the next generation; that the drones are the males by which ſhe is fecundated, and that the working bees, or thoſe that collect wax on the flowers, that knead it, and form from it the combs and cells, which they afterwards fill with honey, are at the time of neither ſex, but *neuters*; and that the neuters afterwards become perfect. The queen bee is diſtinguiſhed by her ſize, being larger than the working bee or the drone. See a full account of their mode of propagation, habits, and economy; with figures of the male, female, and neuters; their various parts, combs, &c. under APIS, vol. i. p. 792—798.

Divine Providence inſtructs the inſects in a moſt remarkable manner to depoſit their eggs, not only in ſafety from their numerous enemies, but alſo in ſituations where a ſufficient quantity of food is on the ſpot to ſupport and nouriſh the larva immediately on breaking the ſhell. The gnat, the ephemera, the phryganea, the libellula, hover over the water all day to drop their eggs, which are hatched in the water, and continue there all the time they are in the larva form. The maſs formed by the gnat reſembles a little veſſel ſet afloat by the inſect; each egg is in the form of a keel, and curiouſly connected together. The gnat lays but one egg at a time, which ſhe depoſits on the water in a very ingenious and ſimple manner; ſhe ſtretches her legs out, and croſſes them, thus forming an angle to receive and hold the firſt egg; a ſecond egg is ſoon placed next the firſt; then a third, and ſo on, till the baſe is capable of ſupporting itſelf; theſe, as they come to maturity, ſink deeper. The ſpawn of this inſect is ſometimes above an inch long, and one-eighth of an inch in diameter, and tied by a little ſtem or ſtalk to ſome ſtick or ſtone. Sometimes they are laid in a ſingle, ſometimes in a double, ſpiral line; ſometimes tranſverſely. Many of the moths cover their offſpring with a thick bed of hair, which they gather from their own body; while others cover them with a glutinous compoſition, which, when hard, protects them from moiſture, rain, and cold. The gall-flies, it has been obſerved, know how to open the nerves of the leaves, to depoſit their eggs in a place which afterwards ſerves them for a lodging and a magazine of food. The ſolitary bees and waſps prepare an habitation for their little ones in the earth, placing there a proper quantity of food for them, when they proceed from the egg. The voracious ſpider is careful of its eggs; the wolf ſpider carries them on its back in a little bag formed of its ſilk, it cannot be ſeparated from them but by violence, and exhibits the moſt marked ſigns of uneaſineſs when deprived of them: a circumſtance the more remarkable, as they love to deſtroy each other, and even carry on their courtſhips with a diffidence and caution unknown in any other ſpecies of animals. See the article ARANEA. The paternal affection and care of the ant is alſo well known. They are not ſatisfied with placing their eggs in ſituations made on purpoſe, and to raiſe or rear them till they come to the nymph or pupa ſtate, but they even extend their care to the pupæ themſelves, removing

them from their neſt to the ſurface of the earth, whenever the weather is fine, that they may receive the benignant influence of the ſun, carrying them back again as ſoon as the air begins to grow cold. If any accident diſturb their neſt, and diſperſe the pupæ, they manifeſt the greateſt ſigns of diſtreſs, ſeeking thoſe which are loſt and ſcattered, placing them in ſome ſheltered place while they repair the neſt, when they again tranſport them to it.

The fecundity of inſects exceeds in an aſtoniſhing degree that of all the productions of nature. Reaumur calculated the fecundity of the queen bee as follows: he found that ſhe laid in the two months of March and April 12,000 eggs, ſo that the ſwarm which left the hive in May, conſiſted of near 12,000 bees, all produced from one mother: but this calculation falls ſhort of that which was made by Leeuwenhoek on a fly, whoſe larva feeds on fleſh, putrid carcaſes, &c. which multiply prodigiouſly, and in a ſhort ſpace of time. One of theſe laid 144 eggs, from which he got as many flies in the firſt month; ſo that, ſuppoſing one-half of theſe to be females, in the third month we ſhall find 746,496, all produced in three months from one fly. M. Lyonet, in order to inveſtigate the generation of a moth, out of 350 eggs produced by a ſingle female, took only 80, from which he obtained, when arrived at their perfect ſtate, 15 females; from whence he deduces the following computation: if 80 eggs give 15 females, the whole brood of 350 would have produced 65; theſe 65, ſuppoſing them as fertile as their mother, would have produced 22,750 caterpillars, among which there would have been at leaſt 4265 females, who would have produced for the third generation 1,492,750 caterpillars. This number would have been much larger, if the number of females among thoſe which were ſelected by M. Lyonet had chanced to have been greater. M. de Geer counted in the belly of a moth 480 eggs; reducing theſe to 400, if ſuppoſing one-fourth only of theſe to be females and as fruitful as their mother, they will give birth to 40,000 caterpillars for the ſecond generation; and for the third, ſuppoſing all things equal, four millions of caterpillars. It is not ſurpriſing, therefore, that they are found ſo numerous in years that are favourable to their propagation. But the Author of Nature has for our ſakes limited this abundant multiplication, and wiſely ordained, that thoſe ſpecies which are the moſt numerous ſhall afford food to the greateſt number of birds, fiſhes, &c. who, though conſtantly employed on the deſtruction of individuals, are unable to effect that of any of the ſpecies; by which means an equilibrium is preſerved, and no one ſpecies preponderates. Few inſects live long after their laſt transformation, but their ſpecies are continued by their amazing fecundity; their growth is completed, and their parts hardened ſooner than thoſe of larger animals, and the duration of their exiſtence is proportionably limited.

In the amours of the inſect tribes, it is extremely curious to obſerve the avidity with which the male and female approach each other. The facility with which the males ſeek out the females, is hardly credible. If a female butterfly be concealed in a box, and there be any males within half a mile of the place, they will directly fly to the ſpot, and hover over it. In ſome genera the males are not ſo active, but are eagerly ſought and careſſed by the females: the incitements of the queen bee to ſtimulate the paſſions of the male, are truly wonderful: ſee APIS, vol. i. p. 793. Their mode of contact is by intromiſſion; an operation which with them requires much time effectually to accompliſh; after which the congreſs continues for many hours. The butterfly and moth are often ſeen in coitu for a whole day; and the common chafer beetle for upwards of twenty-four hours. But this ſurpriſing duration of the ſexual embrace appears to be given them, becauſe it is perhaps the only one of their lives, and ſerves to fecundate the whole maſs of eggs in the ovarium of the female. The male is afterwards ſeen retiring in a very languid ſtate, to ſome obſcure hiding-place, where it ſoon falls a prey to birds or reptiles; the female ſeeks a nidus wherein to depoſit her impregnated ſtore, after which ſhe diſappears, and in like manner falls a victim to death; the ends of her exiſtence having been thus fulfilled. Were not this the caſe, inſects would multiply in ſuch countleſs myriads, that the whole expanſe of our globe, and its ſurrounding atmoſphere, would be found too limited to afford them ſufficient room. The female, by a very ſurpriſing inſtinct, almoſt unerringly depoſits her eggs where ſhe is certain her progeny will be ſafely hatched, and ſupplied with ſuch food, and ſuch means of paſſing through their transformations, as nature has ordained for them. There are a great number of inſects which reject vegetable matter, and ſeek a nidus for their eggs in putrid fleſh, or in living animals. But Reaumur informs us, that thoſe inſects which prefer dead fleſh never attack living animals; the fleſh-fly depoſits her eggs in the bodies of dead carcaſes, where her progeny receive the nouriſhment beſt adapted for them; but this fly never attempts to lay her eggs in the fleſh of ſound and living animals.

The inſects which principally depoſit their impregnated eggs in the fleſh of living animals, and which have not a little perplexed and embarraſſed the reſearches of both ancient and modern naturaliſts, before they could diſcover and aſcertain their real habitudes, are the oeſtri ſpecies, commonly called *gad-fly*. The oeſtrus bovis depoſits its eggs in the back of cattle, under the ſkin; which as they are hatched into larvæ, produce a purulent tumour. By the pain it inflicts, by making a nidus for its eggs, an extreme terror and agitation is occaſioned, and the object of the attack runs bellowing wildly about, with its tail erect, and in a tremulous motion, and communicates the agitation to the whole affrighted herd. The larva is brown, having eleven ſegments, with tranſverſe lines. When ſufficiently matured, they drop from the nidus, to prepare for their winged ſtate. The oeſtrus equi depoſits its eggs on the hairs or cuticle of horſes, and always on thoſe parts which can be licked with the tongue; theſe, in the egg or larva ſtate, are conveyed with the tongue of the horſe, by licking the irritated part, into the ſtomach; and paſſing through the inteſtines with the food, when ſufficiently matured, are diſcharged with the dung. Theſe larvæ are commonly known by the name of bots. See the engraving, fig. 19. The haemorrhoidalis is another kind of equi: it depoſits its eggs on the lips of horſes, occaſioning a titillation, which cauſes the animal, when attacked by it, to move its head violently up and down, and gallop about with every appearance of diſtreſs. The larvæ are conveyed through the inteſtines like thoſe of the other ſpecies.—The oeſtrus ovis depoſits its eggs on the inner margin of the noſtrils of ſheep, occaſioning them to ſhake their heads violently, and hide their noſes in duſt or gravel. The larvæ crawl up into the frontal ſinuſes or horns, and when full fed, are again diſcharged through the noſtrils, to prepare for the fly ſtate.—The oeſtrus cuniculi, in like manner depoſits its eggs in the ſkins of hares and rabbits. But the moſt ſingular of all, is the oeſtrus hominis, which depoſits its eggs under the ſkin on the bellies of the Indians in South America, who go nearly naked. The larva, if diſturbed, penetrates deeper, and produces an ulcer, which not unfrequently becomes fatal.—See the natural hiſtory of theſe inſects, under the article OESTRUS, with correct engravings of the different ſpecies.

Neither the larva, pupa, or even the egg-ſtate of ſome inſects are exempt from the attacks of others, who depoſit their eggs in like manner upon them; theſe, after having paſſed through the uſual transformation, become what is termed the *ichneumon* fly. An ingenious entomologiſt deſcribes the operation as follows: "Obſerving ſome caterpillars feeding on a leaf, my attention was attracted by a little ichneumon fly, which appeared as if deliberating where to ſettle. I was ſurprized to ſee the caterpillars endeavouring by various contortions to get out of its way, and more ſo whenever the fly poiſed on the wing, as if going to drop. At length the paraſite made its choice, and

and ſeated itſelf on the back of one of the largeſt of the cluſter. It was in vain that the caterpillar endeavoured to diſlodge the enemy; and its anguiſh at intervals appeared intolerable, in conſequence of the wounds given by the fly. At every wound the poor caterpillar wreathed and twiſted its whole frame, endeavouring to diſengage the enemy, ſometimes aiming its mouth towards the place, but it was all in vain; its little tormentor ſtill kept its place. When it had inflicted thirty or forty wounds, it took its flight with a viſible triumph; in each of theſe wounds the ichneumon had depoſited an egg. I took the caterpillar home, to obſerve the progreſs of the eggs which were thus placed in its body, taking care to give it a freſh ſupply of leaves from time to time; it recovered to all appearance from the wounds, and from that time, for the ſpace of four or five days, ſeemed to feed with its uſual avidity. The eggs were all hatched into ſmall oblong voracious worms, which fed from the moment of their appearance on the fleſh of the caterpillar, in whoſe body they were incloſed, and ſeemingly without wounding the organs of reſpiration or digeſtion; and when they had arrived at their full growth, they ate their way out of the ſides of the animal. Theſe are what have vulgarly been called *caterpillar-caters*. The caterpillar thus attacked by the larva of the ichneumon never eſcapes, its deſtruction is infallible; but then its life is not taken away at once; the larva, while it is feeding thereon, knows how to ſpare the parts which are eſſential to life, becauſe its own is at that time tied up in that of the caterpillar. No butterfly is produced from the caterpillar; the worms that feed on it are no ſooner out of its body, than every one ſpins its own web, and under this they paſs the pupa ſtate, in order to introduce them to their winged form." The number of inſects which feed upon others, nay, ſome even upon their own ſpecies, is very great: it is among theſe that we find the traces of the greateſt art and cunning, as well in attack as defence. Some indeed uſe main force alone; as does the larva of the cimex merianæ of Surinam, which ſeizes and devours young toads and frogs. See the article CIMEX, and the correſponding engraving, vol. iv. p. 598. Moſt perſons are acquainted with the dexterous arts of the ſpider, the curious conſtruction of the web he ſpins, and the central poſition he takes, in order to watch more effectually the leaſt motion that may be communicated to the meſhes of its net. For their natural hiſtory, particularly of the *tarantula*, ſee the article ARANEA, vol. ii. p. 30—35, and its correſponding engravings.

We cannot diſmiſs this ſubject without remarking on the extraordinary community and generation of the *termes*, or white ants, inſects of the aptera claſs, and far exceeding in wiſdom and policy of the bee, the ant, or the beaver. They are inhabitants of India, Africa, and South America. They build pyramidal ſtructures, ten or twelve feet in height, and divided into appropriate apartments, magazines for proviſions, arched chambers, and galleries of communication. Theſe are ſo firmly cemented, that they eaſily bear four men to ſtand upon them; and in the plains of Senegal, appear like the villages of the native inhabitants. With wonderful dexterity and rapidity they deſtroy food, furniture, books, clothes, and timber, of whatever magnitude, leaving the ſurface a mere ſhell. The larva are ſmall, being not half an inch long, ſix-footed, with a roundiſh teſtaceous head, as ſhewn, fig. 25, in the preceding plate; mandibles ſhort, ſtrong, and toothed; antennæ as long as the thorax, and ovate abdomen. Theſe, like the neutral bees, are only the labourers, who build the ſtructures, procure proviſions for the males and females, and take care of the eggs; they are alſo the moſt numerous. When they reach the pupa ſtate, they are ſtill active, but never work; ſerve as ſuperintendants over the labourers, or as guards to defend their habitations from intruſion and violence. Whenever a breach is made in the dwelling, they ruſh forward and defend the entrance with great ferocity; ſome of them beating with their mandibles againſt any hard ſubſtance, as a ſignal to the other guards, or as encouragement to the labourers; they then retire, and are ſucceeded by the labourers, each with a burthen of tempered mortar in his mouth, and who diligently ſet about to repair whatever injury has been ſuſtained. One of theſe attends every ſix or eight hundred labourers who are building a wall, taking no active part himſelf, but frequently making the ſignal above-mentioned, which is conſtantly anſwered by a loud hiſs from all the labourers, who then evidently redouble their diligence. See this ſtate of the inſect, fig. 26, in the preceding plate.

The male and female are nearly alike; but the male, after paſſing from the pupa ſtate, is furniſhed with four long horizontal wings. See the female, fig. 16, and the male, fig. 17, in the Entomology Plate I. Theſe fly abroad in the night; but ſoon after ſun-riſe, the wings become dry, and they fall on the ground, and are devoured by birds, or fought after by the inhabitants, who roaſt and eat them with great avidity. After impregnation, the abdomen of the female grows to a prodigious bulk, exceeding the reſt of her body nearly two thouſand times: it is then veſicular and white, with tranſverſe brown ſpots, and an undulate or ſlightly lobed margin. In this ſtate it contains an immenſe number of ſmall round brown eggs, which are protruded to the amount of eight thouſand in twenty-four hours. Theſe are inſtantly taken up by the labourers, and conveyed to ſeparate chambers, where after they are hatched, the young are attended and provided for, till they are able to ſhift for themſelves, and take their ſhare in the ſervices of the community.—For their natural hiſtory, and figures of their ſpecies and huts, ſee the article TERMES.

Yet the works of theſe buſy inſects are nothing to the immenſe labours of the little animals which produce the coral rocks, and which form cluſters of iſlands in the ſea. See the articles CORAL, CORAL-ROCKS, and CORALLINA, with the coreſponding engraving, vol. v. p. 187—193.

On the *revivification* of torpid and drowned inſects, many curious facts have been related. Common flies, ſmall beetles, ſpiders, moths, bugs, &c. after being drowned in ſpirit of wine, and continuing apparently dead, have been reſtored to life merely by being thrown among wood-aſhes ſlightly warm. While Dr. Franklin reſided in France, he received from America a quantity of Madeira wine which had been bottled in Virginia. At the bottom of ſome of the bottles he found a few dead flies, which he expoſed to the warm ſun, it being then the month of July; and in leſs than three hours theſe apparently dead animals recovered life, which had been ſo long ſuſpended. At firſt they appeared as if convulſed; they then raiſed themſelves on their legs, waſhed their eyes with their fore feet, dreſſed their wings with thoſe behind, and began in a little time to fly about.

But the moſt extraordinary inſtance of revivification that we have ſeen recorded, is the following: In the warmer parts of France there is an inſect very deſtructive to rye, which ſeems to begin its operations at the root of the plant, and gradually to proceed upwards to the ear. If the plant be completely dried while the inſect is in the root or ſtem, the animal is irrecoverably killed; but after it has reached the grain, the caſe is very different. There have been inſtances, which are noticed in the academy of ſciences at Paris, of theſe inſects being brought to life in a quarter of an hour, by a little warm water, after the grains, in which they were lodged, had been kept dry for thirty years!

Thoſe who wiſh to take inſects for the purpoſe of forming a collection, ſhould be provided with a gauze clap-net conſtructed for that purpoſe. When they are taken, ſtick a pin through the middle of one of the hard wings, and paſs it through the body. They may be killed without injury to their colours or beauty, by immerſion in hot water, or in ſpirit of wine; then ſtick them on a piece of cork, and afterwards carefully place

their legs in a creeping poſition, and let them continue expoſed to the air until all the moiſture is evaporated from their bodies.

Butterflies and moths, as well as all flies with membranaceous wings, ſhould be taken with great care, leſt the beauty of their plumage be injured. When taken, run a pin through the thorax or ſhoulders, between the fore-wings. After this is done, the wings ſhould be expanded, and kept ſo by the preſſure of ſmall ſlips of paper for a day or two. Moths expand their wings when at reſt, and they will naturally take that poſition.

The beſt method of procuring the moſt perfect butterflies is to find out, if poſſible, the larva or caterpillar of each, by examining the plants, ſhrubs, or trees, they uſually feed upon, or by beating the ſhrubs and trees with long poles, and thereby ſhaking the caterpillars into a ſheet ſpread underneath to receive them; to put them into boxes covered with thin canvas, gauze, or cat-gut, and to feed them with the freſh leaves of the tree or herb on which they are found; when they are full grown, they will go into the pupa or chryſalis ſtate, and require then no other care till they come out perfect butterflies.

Moths might likewiſe be procured more perfect, by collecting the caterpillars, and breeding them in the ſame manner. It may be neceſſary to obſerve, that in breeding theſe kinds of inſects, ſome earth ſhould be put into the boxes, as likewiſe ſome rotten wood in the corners; becauſe, when the caterpillars change into the pupa ſtate, ſome go into the earth, and continue under ground for many months before they come out into the moth ſtate; and ſome cover themſelves with a hard cruſt, made up of ſmall pieces of rotten wood.

After the inſects are properly dried, they may be placed in the cabinet or boxes where they are to remain: theſe boxes ſhould be kept dry; and alſo made to ſhut very cloſe, to prevent ſmall inſects from injuring them; the bottoms of the boxes ſhould be covered with green wax, over which paper may be laid; or, which is better, lined with cork, well impregnated with a ſolution of corroſive ſublimate, in a ſaturated ſolution of crude ſal-ammoniac in water, an ounce of which will diſſolve twenty ſcruples of the ſublimate. The fineſt collections have been ruined by the depredations of ſmall inſects; it is impoſſible, therefore, to have the cabinets too ſecure. Such inſects as are thus attacked may be fumigated with ſulphur; if this prove ineffectual, they may be immerſed in ſpirit of wine, without injury. But baking the collection in an oven is the moſt effectual method of extirpating theſe enemies when too numerous for partial applications.—To deſtroy caterpillars and other inſects in gardens, orchards, &c. ſee the article CATERPILLAR, vol. iii. p. 903.

ENTRAC'QUE, a town of Italy, in the principality of Piedmont, on the Geſſo: five miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Demont.

ENTRAI'GUES, a town of France, in the department of the Aveiron, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Mur de Barres: ſix leagues north of Rhodez.

ENTRAI'GUES, a town of France, in the department of the Iſere, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Grenoble: twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Grenoble.

ENTRA'IL, *ſ.* [from *entrelas*, Fr.] A knot:

Whoſe folds diſplaid
Were ſtretcht now forth at length without *entraile*. *Spenſer.*

To ENTRA'IL, *v. a.* [*intralciare*, Ital.] To mingle; to interweave; to diverſify.

Over him, art ſtriving to compare
With nature, did an arbor green diſpred,
Framed of wanton ivy, flow'ring fair,
Through which the fragrant eglantine did ſpread,
His prickling arms *entrail'd* with roſes red. *Spenſer.*

To twiſt together:

Before they faſtened were under her knee
In a rich jewell, and therein *entrayl'd*
The ends of all the knots. *Spenſer.*

EN'TRAILS, *ſ.* without a ſingular, [*entrailles*, Fr. ἐντερα, Gr.] The inteſtines; the inward parts; the guts:

What, hath thy fiery heart ſo parch'd thine *entrails*,
That not a tear can fall? *Shakeſpeare.*

The internal parts.—He had brought to light but little of that treaſure, that lay ſo long hid in the dark *entrails* of America. *Locke.*

The earth hath loſt
Moſt of her ribs, as *entrails*; being now
Wounded no leſs for marble than for gold. *Ben Jonſon.*

ENTRAI'NS, a town of France, in the department of Nyèvre, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Clamecy: three leagues and a half weſt of Clamecy.

EN'TRANCE, *ſ.* [*entrant*, Fr.] The power of entering into a place.—Where diligence opens the door of the underſtanding, and impartially keeps it, truth is ſure to find both an *entrance* and a welcome too. *South.*—The act of entering:

All the world's a ſtage,
And all the men and women merely players;
They have their exits and their *entrances*. *Shakeſpeare.*

The paſſage by which a place is entered; avenue.—Palladio did conclude, that the principal entrance was never to be regulated by any certain dimenſions, but by the dignity of the maſter. *Wotton.*—Initiation; commencement.—This is that which, at firſt *entrance*, baulks and cools them. *Locke.*—Intellectual ingreſs; knowledge.—He that travelleth a country before he hath ſome *entrance* into the language, goeth to ſchool, and not to travel. *Bacon.*—The act of taking poſſeſſion of an office or dignity.—From the firſt *entrance* of this king to his reign, never was king either more loving, or better beloved. *Hayward.*—The beginning of any thing.—St. Auguſtine in the *entrance* of one of his ſermons, makes a kind of apology. *Hakewill.*

To ENTRA'NCE, *v. n.* [from *trance*; *tranſe*, Fr. from *tranſeo*, Lat. to paſs over; to paſs for a time from one region to another.] To put into a trance; to withdraw the ſoul wholly to other regions, while the body appears to lie in dead ſleep. To put into an extaſy; to make inſenſible of preſent objects.—With delight I was *entranced*, and carried ſo far from myſelf, as that I am ſorry that you ended ſo ſoon. *Spenſer.*

And I ſo raviſh'd with her heav'nly note,
I ſtood *entranc'd*, and had no room for thought;
But all o'erpow'r'd with eccſtaſy of bliſs,
Was in a pleaſing dream of paradiſe. *Dryden.*

To ENTRA'P, *v. a.* To enſnare; to catch in a trap or ſnare:

Take heed, mine eyes, how ye do ſtare
Henceforth too raſhly on that guileful net;
In which, if ever eyes *entrapped* are,
Out of her bands ye by no means ſhall get. *Spenſer.*

To involve unexpectedly in difficulties or diſtreſſes; to entangle.—He ſought to *entrap* me by intelligence. *Shakeſpeare.*

Misfortune waits advantage to *entrap*
The man moſt wary, in her whelming lap. *Spenſer.*

To take advantage of.—An injurious perſon lies in wait to *entrap* thee in thy words. *Eccleſ.* viii. 11.

ENTRA'VE, or ENTRAVON, *ſ.* in the manege, a lock for a horſe's paſtern.

EN'TRE AMBOS OS RIOS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho: eight miles ſouth-ſouth-weſt of Amarante.

ENTRE DUERO E MINHO, a province of Portugal, bounded on the north by Galicia, a province of Spain, on the eaſt by the province of Tra-los-Montes and Spain, on the ſouth by the province of Beira, from which it is ſeparated

parated by the river Duero, and on the weſt by the Atlantic. It takes its name from its ſituation between the rivers Duero and Minho, the latter of which waters part of its northern borders, as the former bounds the ſouth; about ſixty miles from north to ſouth, and thirty-five from eaſt to weſt. The ſoil is fertile, and the air pure and healthy. It produces corn, wine, oil, and flax in abundance, with great numbers of ſheep, and plenty of game and fiſh. It is divided into ſix juriſdictions, which contain 1460 churches, 963 pariſhes, 1130 convents, and 504,000 inhabitants; it has ſeveral ſea-ports ſituated on navigable rivers, which render it very commercial. The principal towns are Braga, Porto, Viana, Guimaraens, Amarante, Moncao, Ponte de Lima; the principal rivers are the Minho, Lima, Cavado, Tamega, and Duero.

To ENTRE'AT, *v. a.* [*traiter*, Fr.] To petition; to ſolicit; to importune.—Iſaac *entreated* the Lord for his wife. *Gen.* xxv. 21.—To prevail upon by ſolicitation.—The lord was *entreated* of him, and Rebecca his wife conceived. *Gen.* xxv. 21.—To treat or uſe well or ill.—Whereas thy ſervant worketh truly, *entreat* him not evil. *Eccleſ.* vii. 20.

Well I *entreated* her, who well deſerv'd,
I call'd her often; for ſhe always ſerv'd:
Uſe made her perſon eaſy to my ſight,
And eaſe inſenſibly produc'd delight. *Prior.*

To entertain; to amuſe. *Not uſed.*

My lord, I muſt *entreat* the time alone.
God ſhield I ſhould diſturb devotion. *Shakeſpeare.*

To entertain; to receive. *Not in uſe:*

The garden of Proſerpina this hight;
And in the midſt thereof, a ſilver ſeat,
With a thick arbour goodly overdight,
In which ſhe often us'd, from open heat,
Herſelf to ſhroud, and pleaſures to *entreat*. *Spenſer.*

To ENTRE'AT, *v. n.* To offer a treaty or compact. *Not uſed.*—Alexander was the firſt that *entreated* peace with them. *Mac.*—To treat, to diſcourſe. *Not uſed.*—The moſt admirable myſtery of nature is the turning of iron, touched with the loadſtone, toward the north pole, of which I ſhall have further occaſion to *entreat*. *Hakewill.*—To make a petition.—They charged me, on pain of perpetual diſpleaſure, neither to ſpeak of him, *entreat* for him, or any way ſuſtain him. *Shakeſpeare.*

ENTREAT'ANCE, *ſ.* Petition; entreaty; ſolicitation. *Not uſed:*

Theſe two *entreatance* made they might be heard,
Nor was their juſt petition long deny'd. *Fairfax.*

ENTRE'ATY, *ſ.* Petition; prayer; ſolicitation; ſupplication; requeſt:

If my weak oratory
Can from his mother win the duke of York,
Anon expect him here; but if ſhe be
Obdurate to *entreaties*, God forbid
We ſhould infringe the holy privilege
Of ſanctuary. *Shakeſpeare.*

Treatment:

Yet if thoſe cunning palates hither come,
They ſhall find gueſts' *entreaty*, and good room. *B. Jonſon.*

ENTRECASTEAU'X, a town of France, in the department of the Var, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Barjols: ten miles eaſt of Barjols.

ENTREME'TS, *ſ.* [Fr.] Small plates ſet between the main diſhes.—Chards of beet are plants of white beet tranſplanted, producing great tops, which, in the midſt, have a large white main ſhoot, which is the true chard uſed in pottages and *entremets*. *Mortimer.*

EN'TREPAS, *ſ.* in the manege, a broken pace, a kind of amble.

ENTRESO'LE, *ſ.* in architecture, a kind of little ſtory, raiſed on another ſtory.

ENTREVAU'X, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Caſtellane, on the Var; built near the ruins of the ancient Glandeves: five leagues north-eaſt of Caſtellane.

EN'TROCHUS, *ſ.* [from ἐν, and τροχος, a wheel.] A trochite or jointed petrefaction, found in clay-pits, in the ſhape of a wheel.—ENTROCHI, are a genus of extraneous foſſils, uſually of about an inch in length, and made up of a number of round joints, which, when ſeparate and looſe, are called trochitæ: they are compoſed of the ſame kind of plated ſpar with the foſſil ſhells of the echini, which is uſually of a blueiſh grey colour; and are very bright where freſh broken: they are all ſtriated from the centre to the circumference, and have a cavity in the middle. They ſeem to be the petrified arms of that ſingular ſpecies of the ſea ſtar-fiſh, called Stella arboreſcens.

EN'TRY, *ſ.* [*entrée*, Fr.] The paſſage by which any one enters a houſe.—Some there are that know the reſorts and falls of buſineſs, that cannot ſink into the main of it; like a houſe that hath convenient ſtairs and *entries*, but never a fair room. *Bacon.*

A ſtraight long *entry* to the temple led,
Blind with high walls, and horror over head. *Dryden.*

The act of entrance; ingreſs.—The lake of Conſtance is formed by the *entry* of the Rhine. *Addiſon.*—By the *entry* of the chyle and air into the blood, by the lacteals, the animal may again revive. *Arbuthnot.*—The act of regiſtering or ſetting down in writing.—A notary made an *entry* of this act. *Bacon.*—The act of entering publicly into any city.—The day being come, he made his *entry*: he was a man of middle ſtature and age, and comely. *Bacon.*—A muſical air.—Among the different airs (ſuch as ſonatas, *entrys*, and ſarabands) there are different and diſtinct ſpecies. *Shafteſbury.*

EN'TRY, in law, is the taking poſſeſſion of lands or tenements, where a man hath title of entry: and it is alſo uſed for a writ of poſſeſſion. This entry into lands, is where any man enters into or takes poſſeſſion of any lands, &c. in his proper perſon; and is an actual entry when made by a man's ſelf, or by attorney by warrant from him that hath the right; or it is an entry in law, for a continual claim is an entry implied by law, and has the ſame force with it. *Lit.* 419. There is a right of entry, when the party claiming may for his remedy either enter into the land, or have an action to recover it: and a title of entry, where one hath lawful entry given him in the lands, which another hath, but has no action to recover till he hath entered. *Plowd.* 558. *Finch's Law*, 105.

Entry, may be defined to be an extrajudicial and ſummary remedy, againſt certain ſpecies of injury by ouſter, uſed by the legal owner, when another perſon who hath no right, hath previouſly taken poſſeſſion of lands or tenements. In this caſe, the party entitled may make a formal but peaceable entry thereon, declaring that thereby he takes poſſeſſion; which notorious act of ownerſhip, is equivalent to a feodal inveſtiture by the lord: or he may enter on any part of it in the ſame county, declaring it to be in the name of the whole. But if it lies in different counties, he muſt make different entries; for the notoriety of ſuch entry or claim to the pares or freeholders of Weſtmoreland, is not any notoriety to the pares of freeholders of Suſſex. Alſo if there be two diſſeiſors, the party diſſeiſed muſt make his entry on both; or if one diſſeiſor has conveyed the lands with livery or two diſtinct feoffees, entry muſt be made on both. *Co. Lit.* 252. For as their ſeiſin is diſtinct, ſo alſo muſt be the act which deveſts that ſeiſin. If the claimant be deterred from entering by menaces or bodily fear, he may make claim as near to the eſtate as he can, with the like forms and ſolemnities: which claim is in force for only a year and a day. And this claim, if it be repeated once in the ſpace of every year and day, (which is called continual claim,) has the

ſame effect with, and in all reſpects amounts to, a legal entry. *Ibid.* § 419. See the article CLAIM. Such an entry gives a man ſeiſin; or puts into immediate poſſeſſion, him that hath right of entry on the eſtate; and thereby makes him complete owner, and capable of conveying it from himſelf by either deſcent or purchaſe. *Co. Lit.* 15.

This remedy by entry takes place in three only of the five ſpecies of ouſter, viz. abatement, intruſion, and diſſeiſin; for, as in theſe the original entry of the wrong-doer was unlawful, they may therefore be remedied by the mere entry of him who hath right. But, upon a diſcontinuance, or deforcement, the owner of the eſtate cannot enter, but is driven to his action: for herein the original entry being lawful, and thereby an apparent right of poſſeſſion being gained, the law will not ſuffer that right to be overthrown by the mere act or entry of the claimant. Yet a man may enter on his tenant by ſufferance: for ſuch tenant hath no freehold, but only a bare poſſeſſion; which may be defeated, like a tenancy at will, by the mere entry of the owner. But if the owner thinks it more expedient to ſuppoſe or admit ſuch tenant to have gained a tortious freehold, he is then remediable by writ of entry, *ad terminum qui præterit.* 1 *Inſt.* 57.

On the other hand, in caſe of abatement, intruſion, or diſſeiſin, where entries are generally lawful, this right of entry may be *tolled*, that is, taken away, by deſcent. Deſcents which take away entries, are when any one, ſeiſed by any means whatſoever of the inheritance of a corporeal hereditament, dies, whereby the ſame deſcends to his heir: in this caſe, however feeble the right of the anceſtor might be, the entry of any other perſon who claims title to the freehold is taken away; and he cannot recover poſſeſſion againſt the heir by this ſummary method, but is driven to his action to gain a legal ſeiſin of the eſtate. *Lit.* 385. In general therefore, no man can recover poſſeſſion by mere entry on lands, which another hath by deſcent. Yet this rule hath ſome exceptions; eſpecially if the claimant were under any legal diſabilities, during the life of the anceſtor, either of infancy, coverture, impriſonment, inſanity, or being out of the realm: in all which caſes, there is no neglect or laches in the claimant, and therefore no deſcent ſhall bar, or take away his entry. *Co. Lit.* 246. And this title of taking away entries by deſcent, is ſtill farther narrowed by 32 Hen. VIII. c. 33; which enacts, that if any perſon diſſeiſes or turns another out of poſſeſſion, no deſcent to the heir of the diſſeiſor ſhall take away the entry of him that has right to the land, unleſs the diſſeiſor had peaceable poſſeſſion five years next after the diſſeiſin. But the ſtatute, on feodal reaſons, does not extend to any feoffee or donee of the diſſeiſor, mediate or immediate.

By the ſtatute of limitations, 21 Jac. I. c. 16, it is enacted, that no entry ſhall be made by any man upon lands, unleſs within twenty years after his right ſhall accrue. And by 4 & 5 Anne, c. 16, no entry ſhall be of force to ſatisfy the ſaid ſtatute of limitations, or to avoid a fine levied of lands, unleſs an action be thereupon commenced within one year after, and proſecuted with effect. This remedy by entry muſt be purſued, according to 5 Rich. II. ſt. 1. c. 8, in a peaceable and eaſy manner; and not with force or ſtrong hand. For, if one turns or keeps another out of poſſeſſion forcibly, this is an injury of both a civil and a criminal nature. The civil is remedied by immediate reſtitution, which puts the ancient poſſeſſor in *ſtatu quo*; the criminal injury or public wrong, by breach of the king's peace, is puniſhed by fine to the king. See the article FORCIBLE ENTRY.

The writ of entry is a poſſeſſory remedy which diſproves the title of the tenant or poſſeſſor, by ſhewing the unlawful means by which he entered, or continues poſſeſſion. The writ is directed to the ſheriff, requiring him to "command the tenant of the land, that he render to the demandant the land in queſtion, which he claims to be his right and inheritance; and into which, as he ſaith, the ſaid tenant had not entry, but by (or after) a diſſeiſin, intruſion, or the like, made to the ſaid demandant, within the time limited by law for ſuch actions; or that upon refuſal he do appear in court on ſuch a day, to ſhew wherefore he hath not done it." This is the original proceſs, the præcipe, upon which all the reſt of the ſuit is grounded; wherein it appears, that the tenant is required, either to deliver ſeiſin of the lands, or to ſhew cauſe why he will not. This cauſe may be either a denial of the fact, of having entered by or under ſuch means as are ſuggeſted, or a juſtification of his entry, by reaſon of title in himſelf, or in thoſe under whom he makes claim; whereupon the poſſeſſion of the land is awarded to him who produces the cleareſt right to poſſeſs it.

The writs of entry are of divers kinds, diſtinguiſhed into four degrees, according to which the writs are varied. The firſt degree is a writ of entry *ſur diſſeiſin*, that lieth for the diſſeiſee againſt a diſſeiſor, upon a diſſeiſin done by himſelf; and this is called a writ of entry in the nature of an aſſiſe. Second, A writ of entry *ſur diſſeiſin in le per*, againſt the heir by deſcent, who is ſaid to be in the *per*, as he comes in by his anceſtor; and ſo it is if a diſſeiſor make a feoffment in fee, gift in tail, &c. the feoffee and donee are in the *per* by the diſſeiſor. Third, A writ of entry *ſur diſſeiſin in le per & cui*, where the feoffee of a diſſeiſor maketh a feoffment over to another; when the diſſeiſee ſhall have this writ of entry *ſur diſſeiſin*, &c. of the lands in which ſuch other had no right of entry, but by the feoffee of the diſſeiſor, to whom the diſſeiſor demiſed the ſame, who unjuſtly and without judgment diſſeiſed the demandant. 1 *Inſt.* 238.

Theſe three degrees thus ſtate the original wrong, and the title of the tenant, who claims under ſuch wrong. If more than two degrees (that is two alienations or deſcents) were paſt, there lay no writ of entry at the common law. For, as it was provided for the quietneſs of men's inheritances, that no one, even though he had the true right of poſſeſſion, ſhould enter upon him who had the apparent right by deſcent or otherwiſe, but he was driven to his writ of entry to gain poſſeſſion; ſo, after more than two deſcents, or two conveyances, were paſſed, the demandant, even though he had the right both of poſſeſſion and property, was not allowed this poſſeſſory action, but was driven to his writ of right; a long and final remedy, to puniſh his neglect in not ſooner putting in his claim while the degrees ſubſiſted, and for the ending of ſuits, and quieting of all controverſies. 2 *Inſt.* 153. But by the ſtatute of Marlbridge, 52 Hen. III. c. 30, it was provided, that when the number of alienations or deſcents exceeded the uſual degrees, a new writ ſhould be allowed without any mention of degrees at all. And accordingly,—Fourthly, A new writ has been framed, called a writ of entry in the *poſt*, which only alleges the injury of the wrong-doer, without deducing all the intermediate title from him to the tenant, ſtating it in this manner; that the tenant had not entry, unleſs after, or ſubſequent to, the ouſter, or injury done by the original diſpoſſeſſor; and rightly concluding, that if the original title was wrongful, all claims derived from thence muſt participate of the ſame wrong. Upon the latter of theſe writs it is (the writ of entry *ſur diſſeiſin* in the *poſt*), that the form of our common recoveries of landed eſtates is uſually grounded. See the article FINE AND RECOVERY.

This remedial inſtrument of writ of entry is applicable to all the caſes of ouſter, except that of diſcontinuance of tenant in tail, and ſome peculiar ſpecies of deforcements. Such is that of the deforcement of dower by not aſſigning any dower to the widow within the time limited by the law; for which ſhe has her remedy by writ of dower, *unde nihil habet.* But in general the writ of entry is the univerſal remedy to recover poſſeſſion, when wrongfully withheld from the owner.

Entry ad communem legem. A writ of entry which lies where the tenant for term of life, or for term of another's life,

life, or by the curteſy, &c. aliens, and dies; he in the reverſion ſhall then have this writ againſt whomſoever is in poſſeſſion of the land.

Entry ad terminum qui preteriit. A writ of entry anciently brought againſt tenant for years, who held over his term, and thereby kept out the leſſor. But an ejectment is now the common mode of proceeding; and by 4 Geo. II. c. 28, tenants for term of years, &c. holding over after demand made, are ſubject to double rent.

Entry in caſu conſimili. A writ that lies for him in reverſion by Will. II. c. 24, againſt tenant for life, or tenant by the curteſy, who aliens in fee, &c.

Entry in caſu proviſo. Where a tenant in dower aliens in fee, or for term of life, or of another's life; then he in the reverſion ſhall have this writ, provided by the ſtatute of Glouceſter, 6 Edw. I. c. 7, by which it is enacted, "that if a woman alien her dower in fee, or for life, the next heir, &c. ſhall recover by writ of entry." See the article DOWER. And the writ may be brought againſt the tenant of the freehold of the land, on ſuch alienation, during the life of the tenant in dower, &c.

Entry ſine aſſenſu capituli. A writ of entry that lay where a biſhop, abbot, &c. aliened lands or tenements of the church, without the aſſent of the chapter or convent.

EN'TRY ISLAND, one of the Magdalen iſlands, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Lat. 46. 18. N. lon. 61. 20. W. Greenwich.

EN'TWINE. See INTWINE.

ENT'ZERSTORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles ſouth of Laab.

ENT'ZERSTORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, near the conflux of the rivers Reſtinpach and Reiſenpach: ten miles weſt-north-weſt of Bruck.

ENT'ZERSTORFF IN LANGENTHAL, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: two miles ſouth-eaſt of Corn Neuburg.

ENT'ZERSTORFF, or STATL ENTZERSTORFF, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria, on the north ſide of the Danube, with a caſtle ſurrounded with towers and ditches, belonging to the biſhop of Freyſingen: twenty-four miles weſt of Preſburg, and nine eaſt of Vienna.

To ENU'BILATE, *v. a.* [*e* and *nubile*, Lat.] To clear from clouds.

To ENU'CLEATE, *v. a.* [*enucleo*, Lat.] To ſolve; to clear; to diſentangle.

ENUCLEA'TION, *ſ.* A taking out the kernel; opening or explaining a difficult matter.

ENUDA'TION, *ſ.* [*e*, from, and *nudus*, Lat. naked.] The act of making naked; the act of laying open. *Scott.*

To ENVE'LOP, *v. a.* [*enveloper*, Fr.] To inwrap; to cover; to inveſt with ſome integument. To cover; to hide; to ſurround.—It is but to approach nearer, and that miſt that *enveloped* them will remove. *Locke.*

A cloud of ſmoke *envelops* either hoſt,
And all at once the combatants are loſt:
Darkling they join adverſe, and ſhock unſeen,
Courſes with courſers juſting, men with men. *Dryden.*

To line; to cover on the inſide.

His iron coat, all overgrown with ruſt,
Was underneath *enveloped* with gold,
Darkened with filthy duſt. *Spenſer.*

ENVELO'PE, *ſ.* [Fr.] A wrapper; an outward caſe; an integument; a cover:

Send theſe to paper-ſparing Pope;
And, when he ſits to write,
No letter with an *envelope*
Could give him more delight. *Swift.*

To ENVE'NOM, *v. a.* To tinge with poiſon; to poiſon; to impregnate with venom. It is never uſed of the perſon to whom poiſon is given, but of the draught, meat, or inſtrument, by which it is conveyed:

The treacherous inſtrument is in thy hand,
Unbated and *envenom'd*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Nor with *envenom'd* tongue to blaſt the fame
Of harmleſs men. *Philips.*

To make odious:

Oh, what a world is this, when what is comely
Envenoms him that bears it! *Shakeſpeare.*

To enrage; to exaſperate:

With her full force ſhe threw the pois'nous dart,
And fix'd it deep within Amata's heart;
That thus *envenom'd* ſhe might kindle rage,
And ſacrifice to ſtrife her houſe and huſband's age. *Dryd.*

To ENVER'MEIL, *v. a.* [from *vermeil*, Fr.] To colour as with vermillion:

That lovely dye
That did thy cheek *envermeil*. *Milton.*

EN'VERMEU, or ENVERMEUIL, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Dieppe: eight miles eaſt of Dieppe.

EN'VIABLE, *adj.* Deſerving envy; ſuch as may excite envy.—They, in an *enviable* mediocrity of fortune, do happily poſſeſs themſelves. *Carew.*

EN'VIER, *ſ.* One that envies another; a maligner; one that deſires the downfal of another.—Men had need beware how they be too perfect in compliments; for that *enviers* will give them that attribute, to the diſadvantage of their virtues. *Bacon.*

They ween'd
To win the mount of God, and on his throne
To ſet the *envier* of his ſtate, the proud
Aſpirer; but their thoughts prov'd fond and vain. *Milt.*

EN'VIOUS, *adj.* Infected with envy; pained by the excellence or happineſs of another.—A man of the moſt *envious* diſpoſition that ever infected the air with his breath; whoſe eyes could not look right upon any happy man, nor ears bear the burden of any man's praiſe. *Sidney.*

Still in thy right hand carry gentle peace,
To ſilence *envious* tongues. *Shakeſpeare.*

Sometimes with *againſt*.—Be not thou *envious againſt* evi men. *Prov.* xxiv. 19.—Sometimes with *at*.—Neither be thou *envious at* the wicked. *Prov.* xxiv. 19.—Commonly with *of*:

Sure you miſtake the precept, or the tree;
Heav'n cannot *envious of* his bleſſings be. *Dryden.*

EN'VIOUSLY, *adv.* With envy; with malignity; with ill-will, excited by another's good.—Damned ſpirits, being fallen from heaven, endeavour *enviouſly* to obſtruct the ways that may lead us thither. *Duppa.*

To ENVI'RON, *v. a.* [*environner*, Fr.] To ſurround; to encompaſs; to encircle.—God hath ſcattered ſeveral degrees of pleaſure and pain in all the things that *environ* and affect us, and blended them together in almoſt all our thoughts. *Locke.*

I ſtand as one upon a rock,
Environ'd with a wildernes of ſea. *Shakeſpeare.*

To involve; to envelope:

Since ſhe muſt go, and I muſt mourn, come, night,
Environ me with darkneſs whilſt I write. *Donne.*

To ſurround in a hoſtile manner; to beſiege; to hem in:

Methought a legion of foul fiends
Environ'd me, and howled in mine ears. *Shakeſpeare.*

To incloſe; to inveſt:

The ſoldier, that man of iron,
Whom ribs of horror all *environ*. *Cleaveland.*

EN'VIRONS, *ſ.* [Fr.] The neighbourhood, or neighbouring places round about the country.

EN'ULA, *ſ.* in botany. See INULA.

ENU'LUM, *ſ.* [from ἐν, within, and ὄλον, Gr. the gums.] The fleſh within the mouth. The internal gum.

To

To ENU'MERATE, *v. a.* [*enumero*, Lat.] To reckon up ſingly; to count over diſtinctly; to number.—You muſt not only acknowledge to God that you are a ſinner, but muſt particularly *enumerate* the kinds of ſin whereof you know yourſelf guilty. *Wake's Preparation for Death.*

ENUMERA'TION, *ſ.* [*enumeratio*, Lat.] The act of numbering or counting over; number told out.—Whoſoever reads St. Paul's *enumeration* of duties, muſt conclude, that well nigh the buſineſs of Chriſtianity is laid on charity. *Spratt.*

To ENUN'CIATE, *v. a.* [*enuncio*, Lat.] To declare; to proclaim; to relate; to expreſs.

ENUNCIA'TION, *ſ.* [*enunciatio*, Lat.] Declaration; public atteſtation; open proclamation.—Preaching is to ſtrangers and infants in Chriſt, to produce faith; but this ſacramental *enunciation* is the declaration and confeſſion of it. *Taylor.*—Intelligence; information.—It remembers and retains ſuch things as were never at all in the ſenſe; as the conceptions, *enunciations*, and actions, of the intellect and will. *Hale.*—Expreſſion; manner of utterance.—Without a graceful and pleaſing *enunciation*, all your elegancy of ſtyle in ſpeaking is not worth one farthing. *Cheſterfield.*

ENUN'CIATIVE, *adj.* Declarative; expreſſive.—This preſumption only proceeds in reſpect of the diſpoſitive words, and not in regard of the *enunciative* terms thereof. *Ayliffe.*

ENUN'CIATIVELY, *adv.* Declaratively.

EN'VOY, *ſ.* [*envoye*, Fr.] A public miniſter ſent from one power to another.—Perſeus ſent *envoys* to Carthage, to kindle their hatred againſt the Romans. *Arbuthnot.*—A public meſſenger, in dignity below an ambaſſador. A meſſenger:

The watchful ſentinels at every gate,
At ev'ry paſſage to the ſenſes wait;
Still travel to and fro the nervous way,
And their impreſſions to the brain convey;
Where their report the vital *envoys* make,
And with new orders are commanded back. *Blackmore.*

To ENU'RE, *v. a.* [*en* and *ure*, Lat.] To put in practice; to promote habitually:

The wanton boy was ſhortly well recured
Of this his malady;
But he ſoon after freſh again *enured*
His former cruelty. *Spenſer's Sonnets.*

Ne certes can that friendſhip long endure,
However gay and goodly be the ſtyle,
That doth ill cauſe or evill end *enure*. *Fairy Queen.*

In law it ſignifies to take place, or be available; as for example: a releaſe made to tenant for life, ſhall *enure*, and be of force and effect to him in the reverſion. *Lit.*

ENURE'SIS, *ſ.* [from εν, and ερεω, to excrete the urine.] The malady called an involuntary diſcharge of urine.

To EN'VY, *v. a.* [*envier*, Fr. *invidere*, Lat.] To hate another for excellence, happineſs, or ſucceſs.—*Envy* thou not the oppreſſor, and chuſe none of his ways. *Prov.* iii. 31.—A woman does not *envy* a man for fighting courage, nor a man a woman for her beauty. *Collier.*—To grieve at any qualities of excellence in another.—You cannot *envy* your neighbour's wiſdom, if he gives you good counſel; nor his riches, if he ſupplies you in your wants; nor his greatneſs, if he employs it to your protection. *Swift.*—To grudge; to impart unwillingly; to withhold maliciouſly.—Jonſon, who, by ſtudying Horace, had been acquainted with the rules, ſeemed to *envy* others that knowledge. *Dryden.*—[According to *Spenſer*, who, for rhime's ſake, lays the accent on the laſt ſyllable,] To emulate:

Let later age that noble uſe *envy*,
Vyle rancor to avoid and cruel ſurquedry. *Fairy Queen.*

To EN'VY, *v. n.* To feel envy; to feel pain at the ſight of excellence or felicity: with *at*.—Who would *envy at* the proſperity of the wicked, and the ſucceſs of perſecutors? *Taylor.*—To ſhew ill will:

For that he has from time to time
Envied againſt the people. *Shakeſpeare.*

EN'VY, *ſ.* Pain felt and malignity conceived at the ſight of excellence or happineſs.—*Envy* is a repining at the proſperity or good of another; or anger and diſpleaſure at any good of another which we want, or any advantage another hath above us. *Ray.*

Envy, to which th' ignoble mind's a ſlave,
Is emulation in the learn'd or brave. *Pope.*

It is uſed ſometimes with *of*:

All the conſpirators, ſave only he,
Did that they did in *envy of* great Cæſar. *Shakeſpeare.*

Sometimes with *to*.—Many ſuffered death merely in *envy to* their virtuous and ſuperior genius. *Swift.*—Rivalry; competition.—You may ſee the parliament of women, the little *envies* of them one to another. *Dryden.*—Malice; malignity:

Madam, this is a meer diſtraction;
You turn the good we offer into *envy*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Public odium; ill repute; invidiouſneſs.—Edward Plantagenet ſhould be ſhewed unto the people; to diſcharge the king of the *envy* of that opinion and bruit, how he had been put to death privily. *Bacon.*

"Better ENVIED than pitied."—The French ſay, *Il vaut mieux faire envie que pitié.*—The Italians, *Piu toſto invidia che compaſſione.*—The Greeks, Φθονεϑαι χρηϛον εϛιν η οικτειρεϑαι.—The Latins, *Malo invidiam quam miſericordiam.* This proverb is intended to inculcate, that it is better to be in thoſe circumſtances of life which may raiſe envy, than to be the objects of mere compaſſion. The conſideration of which ought to prove a conſtant admonition to employ our utmoſt diligence, and all lawful means, to attain at leaſt to ſuch a condition of life as may exempt us from pity.

ENWAL'LOWED, *part. adj.* Wallowing.—*Enwallow'd* in his own blacke bloody gore. *Spenſer.*

To ENWHEE'L, *v. a.* To encompaſs; to encircle. A word probably peculiar to Shakeſpeare:

Hail to thee, lady! and the grace of heav'n,
Before, behind thee, and on ev'ry hand
Enwheel thee round. *Othello.*

To ENWO'MB, *v. a.* To make pregnant:

Me then he left *enwombed* of this child,
This luckleſs child, whom thus ye ſee with blood. *Spenſ.*

To bury; to hide as in a womb:

Or as the Afric's Niger ſtream *enwombs*
Itſelf into the earth, and after comes,
Having firſt made a natural bridge to paſs,
For many leagues, far greater than it was;
May't not be ſaid, that her grave ſhall reſtore
Her greater, purer, finer, than before? *Donne.*

ENYS'TRUM, *ſ.* [from ενυω, to perfect.] The laſt ſtomach in animals which chew the cud; ſo called becauſe it completes the digeſtion.

ENZ, a river of Germany, which riſes about ten miles weſt of Altenſtadt, in the circle of Swabia, paſſes by Wildbad, Neuenburg, Pforzheim, &c. and joins the Neckar at Beſſigheim, in the duchy of Wurtemberg.

EN'ZIG, a lake of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and New Mark of Brandenburg: twelve miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Dramberg.

EN'ZINAS (Francis), called alſo DRYANDER, born at Burgos in Spain, about the year 1515. He had a brother, named John, who reſided at Rome, while it appears that Francis had reſorted to Germany for the ſake of purſuing his ſtudies. They had both become converts to the proteſtant religion; and *John* was on the point of ſetting out for

or Germany to join his brother, when ſome expreſſions which he had dropped relative to the corruptions and diſorders of the church, occaſioned his being accuſed of hereſy, and thrown into priſon. Being brought before the pope and cardinals to be examined, he had the boldneſs openly to avow his opinions; and, refuſing to retract, was condemned to the ſtake, and burnt at Rome, in 1545. *Francis* became a diſciple of Melancthon, who entertained a high opinion of his character and abilities. He was the author of a Spaniſh tranſlation of the New Teſtament, printed at Antwerp in 1543, and dedicated to the emperor Charles V. He was alſo the author of a Hiſtory of the State of the Low-countries, and of the Religion of Spain, 8vo. now very ſcarce, and forms a part of the Proteſtant Martyrology, printed in Germany.

ENZO'WAN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz: four miles eaſt of Leitmeritz.

E'O, or MIRANDA, a river of Spain, which riſes in the mountains of Aſturias, ſeparates the province of Aſturias from Galicia, and runs into the Atlantic, a little to the north of Rivadeo.

E'O-TABLE, *ſ.* a very ingenious machine, conſtructed for the purpoſe of gaming. It is of a circular form, ſcooped or hollowed down into a regular concavity, on the exterior border of which is an arrangement of notches cut eſcollop-faſhion to receive a marble, and marked alternately with the letters E and O. In one part of the circle is a receſs or notch without any mark or letter. Oppoſite to this ſits the table-keeper, who conducts the game. As many perſons can play as there are letters E and O marked upon the circle, the number of which depends on the greater or ſmaller ſize of its circumference. Thoſe who play put down their money, half-crowns, half-guineas, guineas, or what pieces, and as many of each, as they chooſe to ſtake, upon either or both the letters, which the table-keeper covers with pieces of the ſame number and value, and then throws the marble, which runs round a circular plane, till it finally ſubſides into one of the notches. If the notch be marked with E, all thoſe who laid on that letter win, and all who laid on O, loſe; and ſo *vice verſa*. By the rules of the game, the table-keeper is allowed to have one chance more than his adverſaries; and as he is at the expence of the table, and plays ſingly againſt as many perſons as the letters on the table will admit of, he ſeems fairly entitled to ſuch ſupernumerary chance; and therefore, as often as the marble falls into the *blank* receſs, he ſweeps all the money from both letters. Hence the game, upon a ſuperficial view, appears fair, and nearly equal. But as chicanery finds its way into every ſpecies of gaming, ſo it happens in this. We are informed, that by the help of an inviſible ſpring placed under the plane on which the marble runs, and moveable by a minute braſs pin known only to the table-keeper, a certain bias is communicated to the marble, ſo as to make it fall into the blank receſs at pleaſure, whereby every player is in one moment defrauded of his money. Theſe tables are much uſed at races, to decoy the unwary; but they are liable to be ſeized and burnt by the magiſtrates, and the owners of them committed to the houſe of correction.—See the article GAMING.

EOBA'NUS (Helius), ſurnamed *Heſſus*, an eminent Latin poet, born in 1488, on the confines of Heſſe, as is ſaid, under a tree; whence his parentage is concluded to have been very obſcure. His proper name was *Elias Bokkendorff*: the Chriſtian name he græciſed, with an alluſion to his being born on a Sunday. He was firſt taught to read by a monk; and, after learning Latin at a neighbouring ſchool, purſued his maturer ſtudies at the univerſity of Erfurt. The biſhop of Riſenburg in Pruſſia, who wiſhed to make him his ſecretary, ſent him for the ſtudy of the civil law to Leipſic; but his paſſion for polite literature cauſed him to quit this place in diſguſt, and ſelling his books, he returned to Erfurt. There he employed himſelf in teaching the belles-lettres, till, in 1526, Philip Melancthon procured him an invitation from the city of Nuremberg. He taught there for ſeven years; and his reputation was ſo high, that, it is ſaid, he had fifteen hundred auditors at a time. Philip landgrave of Heſſe placed him in the univerſity of Marpurg, where he died in 1540. He poſſeſſed a wonderful facility in Latin poetry, whence he has been called the German Ovid, and ſometimes the Chriſtian Ovid, which laſt title he particularly acquired from his *Heroidum Chriſtianorum Epiſtolæ*, in imitation of the Roman poet's heroic epiſtles. He compoſed a great variety of other Latin poems, of which his Elegies have been judged to be the beſt. He likewiſe gained credit by his metrical verſions of ſome of the Greek poets. Among theſe are tranſlations of Homer's Iliad, the Idylls of Theocritus, and the Rape of Helen by Coluthus. His poems have been frequently publiſhed, both ſeparately and collectively. A collection of his epiſtles has alſo been publiſhed, with his life prefixed, by Joachim Camerarius.

EODOR'BRICE, *ſ.* [from eobeŋ, Sax. a hedge, and bpice, *ruptura*.] Hedge-breaking; in which ſenſe it is mentioned in the laws of king Alfred, c. 45.

EO'LIPILE. See ÆOLIPILE, vol. i. p. 139.

E'ON, *ſ.* [from ναν, Gr. a bank.] The whole compaſs of the eye, which is ſurrounded by the eye-lids as by a bank.

E'ON (de l'Etoile), a French fanatic in the twelfth century, who for a time excited much attention, and drew after him numerous followers. He was a native of Lower Bretagne, and a gentleman by birth. His brain, however, was undoubtedly diſordered; for, having heard theſe words in the form of exorciſm, *per Eum qui venturus eſt judicare vivos et mortuos*, from the reſemblance in ſound between the Latin word *Eum* and his own name, he perſuaded himſelf that he was the perſon who was to come to judge the quick and the dead, and of courſe the Meſſiah. This extravagant opinion he preached in various towns and provinces of France, and notwithſtanding its abſurdity and wildneſs, ſucceeded in gaining a vaſt crowd of adherents, who believed him to be the arbiter of their everlaſting deſtiny. He ought to have been conſidered as an unfortunate and crazy enthuſiaſt, and recommended to the care of his friends, and the advice of phyſicians; but the church raiſed againſt him the cry of impiety and hereſy. He was committed to priſon by order of the archbiſhop of Rheims, who, in 1148, brought him to be examined before the council aſſembled in that city, at which pope Eugenius preſided in perſon. The anſwers which Eon made to the queſtions put to him by the pope, afforded evident proof of the derangement of his mind, and ſhould have recommended him to merciful treatment; but being committed to a cloſe priſon, he in a few days died miſerably. The deluded followers of Eon were arreſted and brought before the ſame council, where the option was propoſed to them either of abjuring their maſter's opinions, or of being committed to the flames. But no menaces could induce them to abandon his cauſe; and the council, ſtrangers to the genuine ſpirit of religion, and accuſtomed to perſecute for ſuppoſed errors in judgment, delivered them over to the ſecular arm, by which they were inhumanly burnt in the neighbourhood of Rheims.

E'ON, in mythology. See ÆON.

EO'OA. See EADOWE.

EO'RIA, *ſ.* in mythology, a feaſt celebrated by the Athenians in honour of Erigonus, who by way of puniſhment for their not avenging the death of his father Icarus, engaged the gods to inflict the curſe on their daughters, that they ſhould love men who never returned their paſſion. The feaſt was inſtituted by the order of Apollo.

E'OS, the name of Aurora among the Greeks; whence the epithet *Eous* is applied to all the eaſtern parts of the world. *Ovid.*

EOS'TRE, in mythology, a Saxon goddeſs, to whom ſacrifices were offered in the month of April, called the month of *Eoſtra*; and thence the name *Eaſter*, which the Saxons retained after their converſion to Chriſtianity, ap-

plying it to the feſtival celebrated in commemoration of our Saviour's reſurrection. See EASTER.

EPAC'ME, *ſ.* [from επαχμαζω, Gr. to increaſe.] The increaſe or exacerbation of a diſeaſe.

EP'ACRIS, *ſ.* [from επι, and ακρις, Gr. the ſummit of a mountain; theſe plants growing in that ſituation. *Forſter.*] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of ericæ, *(Juſſ.)* The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, equal, permanent; diviſions lanceolate. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form; tube gradually widening into a five-cleft border; diviſions ovate, acute, villoſe above; nectary five obovate emarginate ſcales, faſtened to the germ, and preſſed cloſe. Stamina: filaments five, very ſhort, in the throat of the corolla; antheræ incumbent. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, five-ſtreaked; ſtyle cylindric, ſhort; ſtigma capitate. Pericarpium: capſule globular-flatted, five-celled, five-valved, gaping. Seeds: numerous, very ſmall.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla funnel-form, villoſe; nectary ſcales faſtened to the germ; capſule five-celled, five-valved.

Species. 1. Epacris longifolia, or long-leaved epacris: arboreous; leaves ſubulate, ſheathing; racemes upright; flowers oppoſite. 2. Epacris juniperina, or juniper epacris: arboreous; leaves ſcattered, linear, acute, ſpreading, ſeſſile; racemes drooping; flowers alternate. 3. Epacris pumila, or dwarf epacris: herbaceous; leaves ovate-oblong, imbricate; flowers ſeſſile, ſubſolitary. 4. Epacris roſmarinifolia, or roſemary-leaved epacris: ſhrubby; leaves linear, obtuſe, rigid, ſheathing; flowers ſolitary, lateral. Theſe are all natives of New Zealand. The fruit of the firſt and ſecond ſpecies is particularly deſcribed by Gærtner. The ſecond is conſidered as comprehending two ſpecies by Forſter.

E'PACT, *ſ.* [επακτη, Gr.] A number, whereby we note the exceſs of the common ſolar year above the lunar, and thereby find out the age of the moon. See the article CHRONOLOGY, vol. iv. p. 536, 537.

EPAGO'GIUM, *ſ.* [from επαγω, Gr. to draw over.] The prepuce, or that part of the penis which is drawn over the glans.

EPAI'GNE, a town of France, in the department of the Eure: five miles ſouth Pont-Audemer.

EPAINE'TIC, *adj.* [from επαινος, Gr. praiſe.] Praiſing; tending to praiſe. *Scott.*

EPAMINON'DAS, a famous Theban, deſcended from the ancient kings of Bœotia. His father's name was Polymnus. He has been celebrated for his private virtues and military accompliſhments. His love of truth was ſo great, that he never diſgraced himſelf by falſehood. He formed a moſt ſacred and inviolable friendſhip with Pelopidas, whoſe life he ſaved in a battle. By his advice Pelopidas delivered Thebes from the power of Lacedæmon. This was the ſignal of war. Epaminondas was ſet at the head of the Theban armies, and defeated the Spartans at the celebrated battle of Leuctra, about 371 years before Chriſt. Epaminondas made a proper uſe of this victorious campaign, and entered the territories of Lacedæmon with 50,000 men. Here he gained many friends and partiſans; but at his return to Thebes he was ſeized as a traitor for violating the laws of his country. While he was making the Theban arms victorious on every ſide, he neglected the law which forbad any citizen to retain in his hands the ſupreme power more than one month, and all his eminent ſervices ſeemed unable to redeem him from death. He paid implicit obedience to the laws of his country, and only begged of his judges that it might be inſcribed on his tomb that he had ſuffered death for ſaving his country from ruin. This animated reproach was felt; he was pardoned, and inveſted again with the ſovereign power. He was ſucceſsful in a war in Theſſaly, and aſſiſted the Eleans againſt the Lacedæmonians. The hoſtile armies met near Mantinea, and while Epaminondas was bravely fighting in the thickeſt of the enemy, he received a fatal wound in the breaſt, and expired exclaiming that he died unconquered, when he heard that the Bœotians obtained the victory, in the 48th of his age, 363 years before Chriſt. The Thebans ſeverely lamented his death; in him their power was extinguiſhed, for only during his life they had enjoyed freedom and independence among the Grecian ſtates. Epaminondas was frugal as well as virtuous, and he refuſed with indignation the rich preſents which were offered to him by Artaxerxes the king of Perſia. He is repreſented by his biographer as an elegant dancer and a ſkilful muſician, accompliſhments highly eſteemed among his countrymen. *Plutarch.*

EPANADIPLO'SIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A rhetorical figure, wherein a ſentence begins and ends with the ſame words.

EPANALEP'SIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A figure in rhetoric, in which the ſame word is, for enforcement ſake, repeated.

EPANAPH'ORA, *ſ.* [Gr.] A figure in which the ſame word begins ſeveral ſentences; as, *Ver adeo Frondi, Ver utile Sylvis.*

EPANAPNE'SIS, *ſ.* [from επι and αναπνεω, Gr. to breathe.] Shortneſs of breath: a quick reſpiration.

EPAN'ODOS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A return; a figure in rhetoric in which the ſame ſound or word is repeated twice in ſeveral ſentences.

EPANOR'THOSIS *ſ.* [Gr.] A correction, an amendment; a figure in rhetoric in which a ſentence too weakly expreſſed is ſtrengthened by the addition of one expreſſed in more forcible terms.

EPAPH'RAS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A man's name,

EPAPHÆ'RESIS, *ſ.* [from επι and αφαιρεω, Gr. to take away.] A repeated evacuation by bleeding.

EP'APHUS, a ſon of Jupiter and Io, who founded a city in Egypt, which he called Memphis, in honour of his wife, who was the daughter of the Nile. He had a daughter called Libya. He was worſhipped as a god at Memphis. *Herodotus.*

EPAPHRODI'TUS, one of the firſt biſhops or miniſters of the Chriſtian church that was founded by St. Paul at Philippi in Macedonia. He was in that ſituation when St. Paul was priſoner at Rome, and was ſent by his church to viſit the apoſtle in his bonds, and to carry him their liberal contributions towards his ſupport and maintenance. He therefore deſerves to have his name recorded with honour among the worthies who, in the early ages of Chriſtianity, when its enemies were active in their endeavours, by perſecution and every ſpecies of diſcouragement, to cruſh the riſing ſect, ſtood forward at all hazards to avow its principles, and to confirm the firſt believers, in a ſtedfaſt adherence to the doctrines and inſtructions of the apoſtles.

E'PARCH, *ſ.* [from επαρχος, Gr.] The preſident of a province.

EPAR'MA, *ſ.* [from επαιρω, Gr. to elevate.] With ſurgeons, an epithet for any kind of tumour.

EPAULET'TE, *ſ.* [Fr.] The ſhoulder-ſtrap of a boddice or ſtays; the ſhoulder-piece of a ſhirt or ſhift; a ribbon tied upon a man's ſhoulder. It is commonly uſed for the ſhoulder-knot of diſtinction in the army, worn both by the officers and private men; and is an ornamental badge now commonly placed on the ſhoulders of menſervants.

EPAUL'MENT, *ſ.* [Fr. from *epaule*, a ſhoulder.] In fortification, a ſidework made either of earth thrown up, of bags of earth, gabions, or of faſcines and earth. It ſometimes denotes a ſemi-baſtion and a ſquare orillion, or maſs of earth faced and lined with a wall, deſigned to cover the cannon of a cazemate. See the article FORTIFICATION.

EPE'E, a port of Africa, in the country of Benin.

EPEN'THESIS, *ſ.* [from επι, to, εν, and τιθημι, Gr. to place.] In grammar, the addition of a letter or ſyllable in the middle of a word, as *relligio* for *religio*, *induperator* for *imperator*.

EPE'RIES, a town of Hungary, celebrated for its

mines of ſalt. It was taken by the malcontents in 1682, and retaken by general Schultz in 1685: twenty miles north of Caſchau.

EPERLE'QUE, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of St. Omer: two leagues north-weſt of St. Omer.

EPERNAY', a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Marne, celebrated for its wine, and manufactures of cloth. It was taken by Henry IV. in the year 1592, when the mareſchal de Biron was killed while the king leaned on his ſhoulder: four leagues and a half ſouth of Rheims, and five and a half weſt of Châlons-ſur-Marne.

EPERNON', a town of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Chartres: four leagues north-eaſt of Chartres.

EPER'VA, *ſ.* in botany. See DIMORPHA.

EPE'US, a ſon of Endymion, brother to Pæon, who reigned in a part of Peloponneſus. His ſubjects were called from him Epei. *Pauſanias.*—A ſon of Panopeus, who was the fabricator of the famous wooden horſe which proved the ruin of Troy. *Virgil.*

E'PHA, *ſ.* [אֵיפָה, Heb.] A meaſure among the Hebrews, containing dry, 3 pecks, 3 pints, 12 ſolid inches, and 4 decimal parts; and in liquid things, 4 gallons, 4 pints, and 15 ſolid inches, wine meaſure. But Taylor, in his Hebrew concordance, ſays, it contains 7 gallons, 2 quarts, and half a pint, wine meaſure.—The *epha* and the bath ſhall be of one meaſure; that the bath may contain the tenth part of an homer, and the *epha* the tenth part of an homer. *Ezekiel.*

E'PHAH, a country mentioned by the prophet Iſaiah, as famous for its dromedaries. *Iſaiah* lx. 6.

EPHEBÆ'UM, *ſ.* [from επι, and ηϐη, Gr. the groin.] The hair upon the pubes.

EPH'EBI, *ſ.* [from εφηϐια, εφηϐος, Gr. a ſtripling.] Among the Athenians, a deſignation given to their young men when they arrived at eighteen years of age, at which time they had their names entered in a public regiſter.

EPH'EDRA, *ſ.* [from εφεζομαι, Gr. to ſit upon.] The protuberant part of the buttocks upon which we ſit.

EPH'EDRA, *ſ.* [from επι, by, and ὑδωρ, Gr. water; expreſſive of the place of growth. *Linn.* According to this derivation, it ſhould be *ephydra.* The true derivation muſt be from εφεδρα, *inſeſſio.*] In botany, a genus of the claſs dioecia, order monadelphia, natural order of coniferæ. The generic characters are—I. Male. Calyx: ament compounded of one-flowered ſcales, few, roundiſh, concave, length of the perianthium; perianthium proper one-leafed, half two-cleft, roundiſh, inflated, ſmall, compreſſed; diviſions obtuſe. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments ſeven, coaleſcing into a ſubulate pillar, divided at the tip, longer than the calyx; antheræ roundiſh, turned outwards, of which four are inferior, the other three ſuperior. II. Female. Calyx: perianthium five-fold, one placed on another, with alternate diviſions, in an ovate figure; each one-leafed, ſomewhat ovate, two-parted; the exterior ones ſmaller. Corolla: none. Piſtillum: germs two, ovate, ſize of the laſt perianthium, on which they are placed; ſtyles ſimple, filiform, ſhort; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: none; calycine ſcales all thickened, ſucculent, conſtituting a divided berry. Seeds: two, ovate-ſharp, on one ſide convex, on the other flat, compreſſed by the calyx covering them on every ſide.—*Eſſential Character.* Male. Calyx of the ament two-cleft; corolla none; ſtamina ſeven; antheræ four inferior, three ſuperior. Female. Calyx two-parted, five-fold; corolla none; piſtillum two; ſeeds two, covered with a berried calyx.

Species. 1. Ephedra diſtachya, great ſhrubby horſe-tail, or ſea-grape: peduncles oppoſite, aments in pairs. 2. Ephedra monoſtachya, or ſmall ſhrubby horſe-tail: peduncles ſeveral, aments ſolitary.

This genus is allied to Equiſetum, as well in its habit and ſheathed joints, as in its ſtaminiferous column; it is perhaps ſtill more nearly allied to gnetum, or ſalicornia. Theſe plants vary extremely. Some, in the ſouth of Europe, are only a hand in height, whilſt others are three feet high. Linnæus ſuſpected that the Siberian plant might not be ſpecifically different from this; and Pallas is decidedly of that opinion: he ſuſpects that Linnæus had received only imperfect ſpecimens from Siberia, and was led by them to make a ſecond ſpecies. Pallas thus deſcribes it: It is a ſhrub, varying wonderfully according to its ſtation, ſometimes a foot or eighteen inches high, ſometimes only a finger's height, or even lower; proſtrate or aſcending. Trunk fibrous-woody, often thicker than a finger, with ſome branches ſpreading on the ground, and others, which are ſhort and woody, riſing, and ſubdivided copiouſly into ruſh-like branchlets. Theſe are jointed, not at all ſucculent, ſufficiently tenacious, glaucous-green, a little ſubdivided, ſometimes more than a ſpan in length, and ſtraight, ſometimes curled in a ſpiral, particularly in dry ſituations. The joints do not readily ſeparate; the internodes are often an inch and half in length, very finely ſtreaked, cylindric, terminated at the top by two membranaceous, pubeſcent, emarginate, ſcales. The plants are never hermaphrodite, but frequently barren, eſpecially in a dry ſoil. The male plant is uſually taller, with the aments of the upper joints commonly in pairs, oppoſite, on a peduncle iſſuing from one of the ſcales. It is found in moſt of the ſouthern parts of the vaſt Ruſſian dominions; is common from the Volga to the Lena, and ſouthward to Perſia and India. The berries ripen in July and Auguſt; they are ſweetiſh, mucoſe, and leave a little heat in the throat: they are eaten by the Ruſſian peaſants, and by the wandering hordes of all Great Tartary; the Calmucs and other Tartars alſo uſe them medicinally, in catarrhs, rheumatiſms, &c. The European plant was cultivated here before 1570, by Matthias de l'Obel, and flowers in June and July. The Siberian was introduced about 1772, by Meſſrs. Kennedy and Lee, and flowers from September to November.

Theſe may be propagated by offſets, which the plants ſend forth in great plenty; for the roots creep under ground, and ſend forth ſuckers, which may be taken off to tranſplant in the ſpring. They love a pretty moiſt ſtrong ſoil, and will endure the cold of our ordinary winters very well in the open air. Some of theſe plants were formerly preſerved in pots, and were houſed in winter, but by later experience they are found to thrive better in the full ground.

EPHE'LIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A ſpot or freckle which proceeds from a ſun-burn.

EPHE'MERA, *ſ.* [from ημερα, Gr. a day.] In medicine, a diary fever, or a fever of one day's continuance only. In this caſe, ſuch a heat as attends an exceſs of wine, a pulſe ſomewhat full and quick, but ſoft and regular, a ſlight head-ach, a nauſea, and reſtleſſneſs, are the ſymptoms, and which terminate without any ſenſible evacuation. If it continue unto the third day, it is not a diary fever; and if the conſtitution is very irritable, an hectic is to be apprehended.

EPHE'MERA, *ſ.* [from επι, and ημερα, a day.] The DAY-FLY; in entomology, a genus belonging to the order of neuroptera. The generic characters are: mouth without mandibles; feelers four, very ſhort, filiform; antennæ ſhort, and filiform; above the eyes are two or three ſtemmata; wings erect, the lower ones ſhorteſt; tail furniſhed ſome with two, ſome with three, briſtles. This is what the Britiſh anglers call the May-fly, from their chicfly abounding towards the middle or end of that month, falling on the waters, where the fiſh eagerly devour them; and on the river ſide, when the angler collects them. Theſe flies, who take their name from the ſhortneſs of their life, are diſtinguiſhed into twenty-one ſpecies. Some live ſeveral days, others do not take flight till the ſetting of the ſun, and live not to ſee the riſing of that luminary. Of this kind is the *Ephoron leukon,* or white fly, lately diſcovered and deſcribed by Dr. William-

ſon.

ſon. Theſe inſects are natives of the river Paſſaic, but their utmoſt range is not above two miles and a half, and within theſe limits they riſe in clouds, and without number. Their firſt appearance every year is about the 20th of July, and they continue riſing every evening, more or leſs, about three weeks. They ſeek the light, for they fly in crowds to a lamp or candle. Some exiſt but one hour, others but half that time; in which ſhort period they comply with the call of nature. With reſpect to thoſe who live ſeveral days, there is a peculiarity obſerved, incident to themſelves alone. They have to caſt off one ſlough more, an operation which ſometimes takes twenty-four hours to complete. To bring this about, they cling faſt to a tree. The ephemeræ, before they flutter in air, have in ſome meaſure been fiſhes. They remain in the ſtates of larvæ and chryſalids for one, two, or three, years. The chryſalis only differs from the larva by there being on its back caſes for wings. Both have on their ſides ſmall ſringes of hair, which, when put into motion, ſerve them as fins. Nothing can be more curious than the plying of theſe little oars in the water. Their abdomen is terminated, as well as in their fly ſtate, by two or three threads or briſtles. Theſe larvæ ſcoop themſelves out dwellings in the banks of rivers; and they are ſmall tubes made like ſiphons, the one ſerving for an entrance, the other affording them an outlet. The banks of ſome rivers are quite perforated with them. When the waters decreaſe, they dig freſh holes lower down, in order to enjoy their element, the water. The ſeaſon and hour when the chryſalids of the different ſpecies of the ephemeræ turn into flies, maintain a kind of regularity. The heat, the riſe or fall of the waters, accelerate, however, or poſtpone, their final diſplay. The ephemeræ of the Rhine appear in the air two hours before ſunſet. Theſe flies are hatched almoſt all at the ſame inſtant in ſuch numbers as to darken the air. The moſt early of thoſe on the Marne and Seine in France do not begin to fly till two hours after the ſetting of the ſun, towards the middle of Auguſt. They are ſeen fluttering and ſporting on the brink of their tomb. The glare of light attracts them, round which they perform a thouſand circles with amazing regularity. Their coming together for the purpoſe of generation can only be ſurmiſed, the ſhortneſs of their life requiring that all its functions ſhould be proportionable to their duration. Some naturaliſts have been of opinion, that the males impregnate the eggs after the manner of fiſhes. The females, by the help of the briſtles of their tail, and the flapping of their wings, ſupport themſelves on the ſurface of the water, and in that almoſt upright ſituation drop their eggs in cluſters. One ſingle female will lay ſeven or eight hundred eggs, which ſink to the bottom. The larvæ that eſcape from the voraciouſneſs of the fiſhes, ſet about the conſtruction of habitations to ſhelter them from every kind of danger. When the flies have propagated, they are ſeen to die and fall by heaps. In Carniola, the land and waters are ſtrewed with them to a conſiderable thickneſs; inſomuch that the peaſants collect them by cart-loads to manure the ground. Trout are not only remarkably fond of this fly, but of the larvæ likewiſe. The fiſhermen conſider theſe multitudes of falling inſects as manna for the fiſhes.—See figures of three ſpecies in the engraving.

EPHE'MERAL, or EPHEMERIC, *adj.* [from επι, upon, and ημερα, Gr. a day.] Diurnal; beginning and ending in a day.—This was no more than a mere bubble or blaſt, and like an *ephemeral* fit of applauſe. *Wotton.*

EPHE'MERIS, or EPHEMERIDES, *ſ.* [*effemaeride*, Ital. εφημεριδες, Gr.] Tables calculated by aſtronomers, ſhewing the preſent ſtate of the heavens for every day at noon; that is, the places in which all the planets are found at that time; differing but little from an aſtronomical almanac. It is from ſuch tables that the eclipſes, conjunctions, and aſpects, of the planets are made out; as alſo horoſcopes, or celeſtial ſchemes, conſtructed, &c. There have been ephemerides of Origan, Kepler, Argoli, Heckerus, Mezzarachis, Wing, Gadbury, Parker, De la Hire, &c. In France the academy of ſciences have publiſhed annually, from the beginning of the eighteenth century, a kind of ephemeris, under the title of *Connoiſſance des Temps*, which is ſtill continued, and is in great eſteem; as are alſo the ephemerides, publiſhed every ten years, by M. Deſplaces, and De la Lande. There are alſo publiſhed ſuch ephemerides by the academies of ſeveral other nations; but that which is in moſt eſteem for its accuracy and uſe in finding the longitude, is the Nautical Almanac, or Aſtronomical Ephemeris, publiſhed in London by the board of longitude, under the direction of the Rev. Dr. Maſkelyne, aſtronomer royal, which commenced in 1767.

EPHE'MERIST, *ſ.* One who conſults the planets; one who ſtudies or practiſes aſtrology.—The night before, he was diſcourſing of and ſlighting the art of fooliſh aſtrologers, and genethliacal *ephemeriſts*, that pry into the horoſcope of nativities. *Howel.*

EPHE'MERUM, *ſ.* in botany. See COMMELINA, ERANTHEMUM, HELONIAS, LYSIMACHIA, and TRADESCANTIA.

E'PHES-DAM'MIM, (or the coaſt of Dammim, called alſo Paſ-dammim,) in Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah; where the Philiſtines encamped previous to the battle in the valley of Elah. 1 *Sam.* xvii. 1. 1 *Chron.* xi. 13.

EPHE'SIAN, *adj.* Belonging to Epheſus.

EPHE'SIAN, *ſ.* A native of Epheſus.

EPHES'TRIS, *ſ.* In antiquity, a garment worn over armour. *Phillips.*

EPH'ESUS, a city of Ionia, in Aſia Minor, built, as Juſtin mentions, by the Amazons; or by Androchus, ſon of Codrus, according to Strabo; or by Epheſus, fabled to be a ſon of the river Cayſter. It is famous for a temple of Diana, which was reckoned one of the ſeven wonders of the world. Mr. Dallaway, who recently viſited Epheſus, and publiſhed his account of it ſo late as 1797, deſcribes it as follows: "At a ruined bridge, on the banks of the Cayſter, the view, infinitely grand, extends from a mount crowned with a ſingle tower, and includes a ſeries of the reliques of ancient Epheſus around mount Prion, flanked by the ſerrated cliffs of mount Correſſus, the dilapidated moſque, village, and caſtle, of Aiaſolûk, ingrafted on a bold faſtneſs, and completing a proſpect of ſuperior intereſt. What it was, when Epheſus flouriſhed, the boaſt of Ionia, imagination muſt now ſupply; nor are all the features of nature ſtill the ſame. Thoſe which are unaltered are upon ſo magnificent a ſcale as ſeldom to occur independent of ſuch accompaniments, however heightened by them. The branch of the ſea which formed its port no longer exiſts, and is ill ſucceeded by a vaſt moraſs of tall reeds. The vale of Epheſus exhibits ſo total a change, that a perfect phenomenon appears to have taken place; although, in the lapſe of ſo many ages, from the ſame cauſe, the ſame effect may have been produced in many countries, the ſtate of which, at as remote a period of time, has not been tranſmitted to us.

An arm of the Ægean ſea furniſhed the city with ſeveral ports, but all were ſhallow and incommodious. Attalus Philadelphus, king of Pergamus, memorable for the magnificence of his public works, was perſuaded by an architect to conſtruct a mole, which ſhould remedy the inconvenience. They did not foreſee that by interrupting the current ſo great a miſchief would enſue; for the accretion of the earth, brought down by a river of torrents, ſoon deſtroyed the port, and the commercial advantages of the place; and in ſucceſſive ages has encroached ſome miles on the dominion of the ſea. The Cayſter now flows through ſedges, ſcarcely viſible; and whoever viſits Epheſus, without previous information, could not ſuppoſe it ever to have had a free communication with the ocean.

In the Grecian hiſtory, the firſt circumſtance recorded of Epheſus, is the ſiege by Cræſus, king of Lydia, at that time a city of the Carians, rendered ſacred by the fame of Diana. To that venerable ſtructure, the Epheſians

fians were proud to owe their ſuperiority over the Ionian cities. The rude object of their primeval worſhip was a block of beech or elm carved into the ſimilitude of Diana, not as the elegant huntreſs, but an Ægyptian hieroglyphic, which we call the goddeſs of nature, with many breaſts, and the lower parts formed into an hermæan ſtatue groteſquely ornamented and diſcovering the feet beneath it. This image was preſerved till the later ages in a ſhrine, on the embelliſhment of which mines of wealth were conſumed, and the genius of Praxiteles exhauſted.

The earlieſt temple was partially burned, and probably the roof of timber only, by Heroſtratus, a philoſopher who choſe that method to inſure to himſelf an immortal name on the very night on which Alexander was born. Twenty years after, that magnificent prince, during his grand expedition for the conqueſt of Perſia, offered to appropriate his ſpoils to the reſtoration of it, if the Epheſians would conſent to allow him the ſole honour; but they rejected the propoſal as diſgraceful for them to accept; and ſo general was the devotion, that the women worked at its materials, and 220 years were ſpent in its completion. The deſigner and original architect was Cteſiphon, a Cnoſſian, aſſiſted by his ſon Metagenes, 541 years before the Chriſtian era; and their plan was continued by Demetrius, a prieſt of Diana; but the whole was completed by Daphnis of Miletus, and a citizen of Epheſus. It was the firſt ſpecimen of the Ionic ſtyle, and in which the fluted column and capital with volutes were originally introduced. Leſt ſo great a ſtructure ſhould be endangered by earthquakes, they ſelected a marſhy ſite for the foundations, which were laid on charred piles and beds of wool. The whole length of the temple was 425 feet, and the breadth 220; with 127 columns of the Ionic order, and Parian marble each of a ſingle ſhaft, and ſixty feet high. It had a double row of columns, fifteen on either ſide; and Vitruvius has not determined if it had a roof; probably, over the cell only. Such dimenſions excite ideas of uncommon grandeur from mere maſſiveneſs; but the notices we collect of its internal ornament will increaſe our admiration. It was the repoſitory in which the great artiſts of antiquity dedicated their moſt perfect works to poſterity. Praxiteles and his ſon Cephiſodorus adorned the ſhrine; Scopas contributed a ſtatue of Hecate; Timarete the daughter of Mycon, the firſt female artiſt upon record, finiſhed a picture of the goddeſs, the moſt ancient in Epheſus; and Parrhaſius and Apelles, both Epheſians, employed their ſkill to embelliſh the pannels of the walls. The excellence of theſe performances may be ſuppoſed to have been proportioned to their price, and a picture of Alexander graſping a thunder-bolt by the latter, was added to this ſuperb collection, at the expence of twenty talents of gold, a ſum, according to certain commentators on Pliny, ſo exorbitant, as ſcarcely to be reconciled to an equivalent value in our money. From theſe imperfect documents we may conjecture what was the ſtate of painting in the flouriſhing ages of Greece, whilſt the admiration of the Italian ſchools may induce a regret, that the opportunity of forming a compariſon is loſt for ever. So great an inferiority exiſts between the deſign and execution of the Freſco paintings in the moſt perfect ſtate diſcovered at Herculaneum and Portici, that it may be preſumed, that many of them were copied from the more famous works of Grecian artiſts at that time imported into Italy.

The prieſts of Diana ſuffered emaſculation, and virgins were devoted to inviolable chaſtity. They were eligible only from the ſuperior ranks, and enjoyed a great revenue with privileges, the eventual abuſe of which induced Auguſtus to reſtrain them. Amongſt others was that of an aſylum for inſolvent debtors. For ſeveral centuries after the poſſeſſion of the Roman emperors, and ſeven ſucceſſive injuries from which it ſuffered almoſt a demolition, the temple retained an undiminiſhed ſplendour; and was finally burnt by the Goths in their third naval invaſion, when the remaining beauty of the Aſiatic cities was totally defaced, and of thoſe in the region of the Troad ſcarcely a veſtige can be diſcovered. The Epheſian games, originally inſtituted by the Ionians in honour of Diana, were frequented as late as the reign of Caracalla. They bore the title of Neocori, in conſequence of having temples and ceremonies dedicated to Claudius and Hadrian.

In the year 409 before Chriſt, the Epheſians ſignalized themſelves by a total defeat of the Athenians under Thraſyllus; and during the Perſian war in 395 B. C. Ageſilaus eſtabliſhed himſelf in their city. The Roman ſenate appointed Attalus king of Pergamus, and his ſucceſſors, guardians of the Aſiatic ſtates; and under the imperial government Epheſus continued to increaſe in opulence and ſplendour; though, of the thirteen cities almoſt deſtroyed by the earthquake in the reign of Tiberius, it did not eſcape without a conſiderable ſhare of the calamity.

Timothy, the colleague of St. Paul, was the firſt biſhop of Epheſus, and eſtabliſhed the Chriſtian faith; and under the auſpices of Conſtantine and Theodoſius new churches were erected and the pagan temples deſpoiled of their ornaments, or accommodated to other worſhip. The edict of the latter emperor, the object of which was the ſubverſion of thoſe magnificent piles which had been conſecrated to the heathen deities, was executed with the moſt laborious deſtruction; and the ruin of the faireſt ſtructures of antiquity originated in the zeal of the early Chriſtians. The immenſe dome of Santa Sophia at Conſtantinople, now riſes from the columns of green jaſper which were originally placed in the temple of Diana at Epheſus, and were taken down by order of Juſtinian. *Procopius de ædificiis Juſtiniani* aſcertains their identity. Two pillars now in the great church at Piſa were likewiſe tranſported from thence. The antiquary is frequently pleaſed to be able to trace theſe ſtupendous ornaments through their whole hiſtory, as compoſing in ſucceſſive ages, the grandeur of temples ſacred to Paganiſm, to Chriſtianity, and the Mahomedan faith.

Circumſtances, not abſolutely to be attributed to any ſingle cauſe, but to thoſe periods of growth and decay which await cities as well as men, involved Epheſus in univerſal depopulation, even before the Greek empire was extinct. The Carian princes founded their citadel and town, about two miles diſtant, at Aiaſoluk; and removed all the materials for that purpoſe, ſo that upon their poſſeſſion of the Aſiatic provinces it was totally deſerted, and the ſite remains to be diſtinguiſhed by numerous and confuſed heaps of disjointed architecture. Among theſe we may notice the range of vaults, once communicating with the harbour as warehouſe, and forming one ſide of an ample ſtreet; above which is the ſtadium, partly raiſed on vaults to render it level with the ſlope of the hill; a high wall at the circular end is perfect, and conſtructed with heavy rough ſtones. The gate of the left wing is of white marble, and nearly entire; but evidently made up of fragments in a latter age. Ignorant of this circumſtance, Tournefort is puzzled with a mutilated inſcription, which is legible. There are others of Greek, but too far diſtant to be tranſcribed. The blocks of marble are ſeveral tons weight. The pavement of a broad ſtreet then interveñes between another eminence of greater height, upon the brow of which, and occupying the whole platform, are the foundations of a ſumptuous arcade, as appears from the baſes of ſeveral columns, traced to a great extent. This has been a ſpacious temple, hitherto unnoticed. Winding round the hill, is the theatre which Pococke conſiders as the inferior of two, if it were not a Naumachia; it has two vaſt gateways, and a regular baſin ſcooped from the marble rock, with the ſubſellia removed. Beyond is a groupe of broken pillars and heaps of architectural fragments near the temple voted to Claudius by the Aſiatic cities, which had a portico of the Corinthian order, raiſed on four columns only, each thirty feet in length, the moſt intire ſhaft of which meaſures more than four feet in diameter, and one broken in two pieces is of more than half its proportions. The point of

the tympanum, with a very rich cornice, conſiſted of blocks ſeveral tons weight, with capitals of carved acanthus, all of white marble, ſupplied by the contiguous quarries of mount Prion. The fronting area of an acre at leaſt was incloſed by a periſtyle of black granite, of which are innumerable veſtiges. It was probably the agora or forum. Farther on, and cloſe upon the brink of the preſent moraſs once covered by the ſea, upon a riſing ground, are accumulated walls of brick faced with large ſlabs of marble, and of ſufficient extent to encourage Tournefort and the Engliſh travellers in a conjecture that this ſtructure was the famed temple of Diana. One common demolition has now, however, overwhelmed the parent city and its temporary rival; and the lapſe of many intermediate ages is not diſcernible from any ſeries of more complete ſtructures.

On the eaſt ſide of mount Prion, there is a cavern as extenſive as ſome of thoſe in Derbyſhire, but not ſo deep; the length is a hundred yards, and the height about as many feet, both apertures being nearly equal. Of theſe there are many curious traditions. In the reign of Julian, a noted ſophiſt named Maximus occupied one of them for the celebration of midnight orgies and the Eleuſinian myſteries, when that emperor was initiated, his inſolent apoſtacy openly profeſſed, and he became, as he wiſhed the world to believe, a follower of Plato.

The legendary miracle of the ſeven ſleepers, who were ſaid to have been immured in one of theſe grottos in the reign of the perſecuting Decius, and to have awakened nearly two centuries after in that of the bigot Theodoſius, has afforded matter for the homilies of the fathers of the Greek church, and the Koran. When the popularity of this ſtory was ſpread through many languages and nations, Mohammed had patiently liſtened to the narrative camel driver, who related it amongſt other tales for the ſolace or the caravan. He then, perhaps, little ſuſpected that he ſhould ever become the leader of millions, and that ſuch a fable would be of conſequence enough to be admitted into the volume which engroſſes the faith of his followers. But ſuch was its acceptation amongſt thoſe whom he determined to conquer or conciliate; and the uſe he as made of it, with the latitude it offered, is no proof of his original genius. Mohammed entitles the eighteenth chapter of the Koran, "the Chapter of the Cave," in which he directs his followers how they are to believe this celebrated miracle. "The infidels ſay they were five, and that their dog was the ſixth: they ſpeak by opinion; but the true believers affirm them to be ſeven, and their dog to be the eighth." Upon a gold coin of the Turks called armoodi, the names of ſeven ſleepers are thus written, "Jemlikà, Meſhelina, Miſlina, Mernoos, Debernoos, Shazenous, and Kepheſtatjoos."

At the foot of mount Prion, under the ſingle tower known by tradition as the priſon of St. Paul, are the veſtiges of many ſumptuous buildings, which muſt have added ſuperior grandeur to the Ionian metropolis. We are told that the tombs of St. John and Timothy were both in that ſpot, decorated with ſtately ſtructures. Farther from the town are many ſmall vaults, originally ſerving as catacombs for families of ſuperior rank.

In the time of the apoſtle Paul, Epheſus retained a great deal of its ancient grandeur. See Acts xviii. 19, &c. Towards the end of the 11th century, a Turkiſh pirate, named *Tangripermes*, ſettled there. But the Greek admiral, John Ducas, defeated him in a bloody battle, and purſued the flying Turks up the Mæander. In 1306, it was among the places which ſuffered from the exactions of the grand-duke Roger; and two years after, it ſurrendered to ſultan Sayſan, who, to prevent future inſurrections, removed moſt of the inhabitants to Tyriæum, where they were maſſacred. Epheſus appears to have ſubſiſted as an inconſiderable place for many centuries. Now the Epheſians are only a few Greek peaſants, living in extreme wretchedneſs, dependence, and inſenſibility; the repreſentative of an illuſtrious people, and inhabiting the wreck of their greatneſs; ſome, the ſubſtructions of the glorious edifices which they raiſed; ſome, beneath the vaults of the Stadium, once the crowded ſcene of their diverſions; and ſome, by the abrupt precipice, in the ſepulchres which received their aſhes.

EPHE'TÆ, a number of magiſtrates at Athens firſt inſtituted by Demophoon, the ſon of Theſeus. They were reduced to the number of fifty-one by Draco, who, according to ſome, firſt eſtabliſhed them. They were ſuperior to the Areopagates, and their privileges were great and numerous. Solon, however, leſſened their power, and entruſted them only with the trial of manſlaughter and conſpiracy againſt the life of a citizen. They were all more than fifty years old, and it was required that their manners ſhould be pure and innocent, and their behaviour auſtere and full of gravity.

EPHIAL'TES, *ſ.* [from ἐφάλλομαι, Gr. to leap upon.] The medical term for the nightmare; ſo called becauſe it was thought a dæmon leaped upon the breaſt.

EPHI'ELIS, *ſ.* [Gr. *calyculus*; ſo called from the nectary forming a ſort of crown to the corolla.] In botany, a genus of the claſs octandria, order monogynia, The generic characters are—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, ſpreading: ſegments roundiſh, acute. Corolla: petals five, having claws, roundiſh, ſpreading, emarginate with a point, the length of the calyx; nectary of ten ſcales, a pair to each petal faſtened to the baſe, roundiſh, villoſe, ſmaller than the petals. Stamina: filaments eight, briſtle-ſhaped, longer than the corolla, inſerted into a gland; anthers four-cornered, roundiſh. Piſtillum: germ ovate, ſurrounded by a gland; ſtyle none, ſtigma blunt. Pericarpium: capſule oblong, compreſſed, grooved on both ſides, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds: two, kidney-form, faſtened to one of the valves in the middle one above the other.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five-parted; petals five, with claws; nectary ten ſcales, two to each petal; capſule oblong, one-celled, two-valved, two-ſeeded.

Ephielis guianenſis, a ſingle ſpecies. It is a tree fifty or ſixty feet high, very much branched at top; the middle branches, or thoſe in the centre, being the higheſt, and ſtanding perpendicular: the lower ones are more inclining and horizontal, and ſpread out to a great diſtance: they divide into many branchlets, furniſhed with alternate leaves, each of which is pinnated: the pinnules oppoſite, from four to ſix in number, entire, oval, pointed, of a ſmooth ſurface, and of a bright green: theſe pinnules or leaflets are ſometimes eight inches in length. The flowers grow from the boſoms of the leaves on long pedicels, divided at their extremities into ſeveral ſmaller ones: theſe flowers are very ſmall, and white. This tree grows in the foreſts of Guiana, and there flowers in the month of October.

EPH'OD, [אפוד, Heb.] A ſort of veſtment worn by the Hebrew prieſts. That worn by the high prieſt was richly compoſed of gold, blue, purple, crimſon, and twiſted cotton; and upon the part which came over his two ſhoulders were two large precious ſtones, upon which were engraven the names of the twelve tribes of Iſrael, upon each ſtone ſix names. Where the ephod croſſed the high prieſt's breaſt, was a ſquare ornament, called the breaſt-plate; in which twelve precious ſtones were ſet, with the names of the twelve tribes of Iſrael engraved on them, one on each ſtone. The ephods worn by the other prieſts were of plain linen. *Calmet.*—He made the *ephod* of gold, blue, and purple, and ſcarlet, and fine twined linen. *Exod.* xxxix. 2.

Aray'd in *ephods*; nor ſo few
As are thoſe pearls of morning dew,
Which hang on herbs and flowers. *Sandys.*

EPH'ODES, *ſ.* [from ἐπὶ and ὁδὸς, Gr. a way.] The ducts or paſſages by which the excrements of the body are evacuated. The acceſs or attack of any thing hurtful.

EPH'ORI,

EPH'ORI, powerful magiſtrates at Sparta, who were firſt created by Lycurgus; or, according to ſome, by Theopompus, before Chriſt 760: they were five in number. Like cenſors in the ſtate, they could check and reſtrain the authority of the kings, and even impriſon them, if guilty of irregularities. They fined Archidamus for marrying a wife of ſmall ſtature, and impriſoned Agis for his unconſtitutional behaviour. They were much the ſame as the tribunes of the people at Rome, created to watch with a jealous eye over the liberties and rights of the people. They had the management of the public money, and were the arbiters of peace and war. Their office was annual, and they had the privilege of convening, proroguing, and diſſolving, the greater and leſs aſſemblies of the people. The former was compoſed of 9000 Spartans, all inhabitants of the city; the latter of 30,000 Lacedæmonians, inhabitants of the inferior towns and villages.

EPH'ORUS, a Greek orator and hiſtorian, native of Cumæ, in Æolia, flouriſhed about 352 before Chriſt. He was a diſciple of Iſocrates, at whoſe inſtigation he undertook to write hiſtory. Judiciouſly avoiding the fabulous periods, he commenced with the return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponneſus, and brought down his narration to the twentieth year of Philip of Macedon. This he divided into thirty books, prefixing to each an introduction. It appears that this work was in conſiderable eſteem among the ancients, and it is frequently quoted by Strabo and other writers; yet its miſtakes and miſrepreſentations were not few, and he was likewiſe charged with many plagiariſms. The total loſs of his work is, however, to be regretted. He wrote ſeveral other books on moral, geographical, and rhetorical, topics, all which have periſhed. He might have had the honour of belonging to the court of Alexander, but declined it.

E'PHRAIM, [אפרים Heb. fruitful.] A proper name of men.

E'PHRAIM, the ſecond ſon of the patriarch Joſeph, and the progenitor of one of the twelve tribes of Iſrael, born in Egypt, of Athenah, the daughter of a prieſt or prince of On, towards the latter end of the ſeventeenth century before Chriſt. He was adopted, together with his brother Manaſſeh, by Jacob, when on his death-bed, who decreed that, in the future diſtributions of inheritance among his deſcendants, they ſhould be entitled to rank with his immediate ſons, and be conſidered as the anceſtors of diſtinct tribes. In the manner of pronouncing his bleſſing on them, however, he propheſied that Ephraim, though the youngeſt of Joſeph's ſons, ſhould have pre-eminence over his brother, by proving the father of a much more numerous poſterity; which prediction was verified in the ſubſequent hiſtory of the Iſraelites.

E'PHRAIM, a province of Paleſtine, occupied by the tribe of that name, ſituated in the diſtrict of Samaria; bounded, on the north, by the half tribe of Manaſſeh weſt of Jordan; on the eaſt, by the river Jordan; on the ſouth, by the tribes of Benjamin, Dan, and Simeon; and on the weſt, by the Mediterranean. In ſcripture, it is frequently ſtyled Mount Ephraim; and after the defection of the ten tribes from the houſe of David, formed a part of the kingdom of Iſrael. It contained a great number of cities, of which Samaria was chief, and the metropolis of that kingdom. *Joſh.* xvi.—Alſo the name of a city of Paleſtine, ſituated in Judea, near the Wilderneſs: here Chriſt retired with his diſciples previous to his laſt viſit to Jeruſalem. *John* xi. 54.

E'PHRAIMITE, a deſcendant from Ephraim.

E'PHRAIN, a city of Paleſtine, belonging to the kingdom of Iſrael at the commencement of that kingdom; taken by Abijam or Abijah king of Judah, who annexed it to his kingdom. 2 *Chron.* xiii. 19.

EPHRA'TA, or DUNKARD TOWN, a town of the American States, in Lancaſter county, Pennſylvania, ſituated on the north-weſt ſide of Calico Creek, which, joining the Coneſtoga, falls into the Suſquehannah; twenty-two miles north of Lancaſter, and upwards of ſixty weſt of Philadelphia. It is ſituated in a romantic and ſequeſtered vale, and poſſeſſed by a religious community called Tunkers, who are moſtly of German deſcent, and believe in general redemption. They uſe great plainneſs of dreſs and language, and will neither ſwear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take intereſt for the money they lend. They have many peculiarities; but their native ſimplicity and innocent manners have acquired them the name of the harmleſs Tunkers. They ſubſiſt by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing-office, a griſt-mill, a paper-mill, an oil-mill, &c. and the ſiſters by ſpinning, weaving, ſewing, &c. Beſides this congregation at Ephrata, there were in 1770, fourteen others of this ſect in various parts of Pennſylvania, and ſome in Maryland. The whole, excluſive of thoſe in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 2000 ſouls.

EPH'RATAH, EPHRATH, BETHLEHEM EPHRATAH, BETHLEHEM JUDAH, or BETHLEHEM, a city of Paleſtine, in the tribe of Judah. Here, in the days of the patriarch Jacob, Rachel died and was buried. It is ſtyled Bethlehem Judah to diſtinguiſh it from another of that name in the tribe of Zebulon: it is likewiſe called the City of David on account of its being the birth-place of that eminent perſon; as it was alſo of David's great antitype and ſucceſſor, the Redeemer of mankind. See BETHLEHEM, vol. ii. p. 930.

EPH'RATH, [Heb. abundance.] The name of a woman.

EPH'RATHITE, a deſcendant of Ephrath the wife of Caleb; an inhabitant of Ephrath; a deſcendant from Ephraim.

E'PHREM (Syrus), a celebrated Chriſtian writer in the fourth century, deacon of Edeſſa, born at Niſibe, in Syria. He was greatly eſteemed by St. Baſil, St. Gregory Nyſſen, and other eminent men. He wrote againſt the opinions of Sabellius, Arius, Apollonarius, the Manichees, &c. and acquired ſuch reputation by his virtue and his works, that he was called the *doctor and the prophet of the Syrians.* He died in 378. The beſt editions of his works are, that of Oxford, in 1708, in folio, and that of Rome, from 1732 to 1736, in Syriac, Greek, and Latin, 6 vols. folio.

EPH'REMOV, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Tula: thirty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Tula.

EPHREMOVSKA'IA, a fortreſs of Ruſſia, in the government of Ekaterinoſlav: 108 miles north-eaſt of Ekaterinoſlav.

E'PHRON, [Heb. duſt.] A city of Paleſtine, ſituated in the extremity of the province of Judah, near a mountain of that name. Here, in the days of Judas Maccabeus, (it being a ſtrong and well fortified place,) was the garriſon of Lyſias, whom Judas attacked and drove from the city; it was alſo remarkable for denying Judas a paſſage through the city, for which he nearly deſtroyed it. *Joſh.* xv. 9. 1 *Macc.* v. 46—51. 2 *Macc.* xii. 27.

EPH'YDOR, *ſ.* in antiquity, an officer in the Athenian courts of juſtice, who was to provide the plaintiff and defendant with equal water hour-glaſſes. When the glaſs was run out, they were not permitted to ſpeak any further.

EPH'YRA, the ancient name of Corinth, which it received from a nymph of the ſame name, and thence Ephyreus is applied to Dyrrhachium, founded by a Grecian colony. *Virgil.*

EPI'ALUS, *ſ.* [from ηπιος, gently, and αλεαζω, Gr. to heat.] A kind of fever, in which the heat of the patient is tempered with a certain degree of coldneſs.

EPIBA'TÆ, *ſ.* [επιβαται, Gr.] Among the Greeks, marines or ſoldiers who ſerved on-board the ſhips of war.

EPIBATE'RION, *ſ.* A poetical compoſition, in uſe among the ancient Greeks.

EPIBATE'RIUM, *ſ.* [from επι and βαινω, Gr. *inſcendo*; this being a climbing plant. Επιβατηριον is a machine for climbing walls.] In botany, a genus of the claſs monoecia, order hexandria. The generic characters are—I. Male flowers. Calyx: perianthium double, deci-

duous; outer ſix-leaved, very ſmall, flat; inner three-leaved, three times the ſize of the other, with ovate, ſpreading, leaflets. Corolla: petals ſix, leſs than the inner calyx, roundiſh; three outer, interpoſed between the calycine leaflets, three inner. Stamina: filaments ſix, capillary, bowed inwards, the length of the petals; antheræ roundiſh. II. Female flowers on the ſame plant. Calyx and corolla as in the male. Piſtillum: germs three, ſubglobular; ſtyles three, bowed inwards, very ſmall; ſtigmas compreſſed, ſpreading. Pericarpium: drupes three, ſubglobular, mucronate, with the permanent ſtyles. Seed: nut kidney-form, compreſſed, ſlightly grooved.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, double; outer ſix-leaved, ſmall; inner three-leaved, large; petals, ſix, three outer, between the calycine leaflets; three inner; drupes three, ſubglobular, mucronate, with the three permanent ſtyles incloſing a kidney-form nut.

Epibaterium pendulum, a ſingle ſpecies, from Forſt. Gen. 108.

EPI'BOLE, *ſ.* [Gr.] The act of throwing in; a figure in rhetoric, in which the repetition of the ſame word occurs at the beginning of ſeveral ſentences; a kind of epanalepſis.

EP'IC, *adj.* [*epicus*, Lat. επος, Gr.] Narrative; compriſing narrations, not acted, but rehearſed. It is uſually ſuppoſed to be heroic, or to contain one great action atchieved by a hero. See POETRY.—From morality they formed that kind of poem and fable which we call *epic. Broome.*

Homer, whoſe name ſhall live in *epic* ſong,
While muſic numbers, or while verſe has feet. *Dryden.*

EPICAR'PIUM, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and καρπος, Gr. the wriſt.] A topical medicine applied to the wriſt.

EP'ICED, *ſ.* [from επικηδιον, Gr.] A funeral ſong:

And on the banks each cypreſs bow'd his head,
To hear the ſwan ſing her own *epiced.* *W. Browne.*

EPICE'DIUM, *ſ.* [from επικηδιος, Gr.] An elegy; a poem upon a funeral:

You from above ſhall hear each day
One dirge diſpatch'd unto your clay;
Theſe, your own anthems ſhall become,
Your laſting *epicedium.* *Sandys.*

EP'ICENE, *adj.* [from επικοινος, Gr.] Common to both ſexes.

EPICERAS'TICS, *ſ.* [from επι, and κερανυμι, Gr. to mix.] Medicines which by mixing with acrimonious juices temper them, and render them leſs troubleſome.

EPICHARI'KAKY, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, χαρα, joy, and κακον, Gr. evil.] A rejoicing at the miſfortunes of others. *Scott.*

EPICHAR'MUS, a philoſopher and writer of comedy, ſuppoſed to have been a native of Cos, but to have been brought very young into Sicily, whence he has uſually paſſed for a Sicilian. He was a diſciple in the Pythagorean ſchool; and upon being prevented by the tyranny of king Hiero from publicly profeſſing philoſophy, he applied to dramatic poetry, and is reckoned by Ariſtotle the earlieſt writer of comedy. He was a fertile compoſer; for Suidas aſſigns to him fifty-two comedies, and the induſtry of modern philologiſts has aſcertained the titles of forty; but of theſe ſome fragments only are left. He taught at Syracuſe, and is ſaid to have been the inventor of the two Greek letters, θ and χ. He wrote alſo commentaries upon phyſical and medical ſubjects. Among his fragments are ſome moral ſentences which do him honour: ſuch are—Be ſober in thought, be ſlow in belief; theſe are the ſinews of wiſdom—The gods ſet up their favours at a price, and induſtry is the purchaſer—Live ſo as to be prepared either for a long life or a ſhort one—He who is naturally inclined to good is noble, though his mother were an Ethiop. He lived to the great age of ninety-ſeven.

EPICHIRE'MA, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and χειρεω, Gr. to labour with the hand.] An attempt, an endeavour; a prolix kind of argument to prove a point.

EPICHI'RESIS, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and χειρεω, Gr. to labour.] An attempt, a dexterity, a readineſs at diſſecting animal bodies.

EPICOPHO'SIS, *ſ.* [from επι, and κωφος, Gr. deaf.] The medical term for a total deafneſs.

EPICRA'SIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A gradual evacuation of bad humours in the blood by degrees.

EPICRI'SIS, *ſ.* [Gr.] A judging of a diſeaſe.

EPICTE'TUS, an eminent philoſopher of the Stoic ſchool, who flouriſhed in the firſt century of the Chriſtian era, born at Hieropolis in Phrygia, in a ſervile condition, and ſold as a ſlave to Epaphroditus, one of Nero's freed-men. Having by ſome means obtained his freedom, Epictetus retired to a little hut, where, enjoying only the bare neceſſaries of life, he cloſely devoted his time to the ſtudy of philoſophy. After a diligent application, by which he became thoroughly converſant in the principles of the Stoic ſect, he commenced his philoſophical lectures, and ſoon acquired great popularity as a moral preceptor. He was an acute and judicious obſerver of manners; bold and animated in his reprehenſions of vice; ſimple, impreſſive, and conciliating, in his precepts and inſtructions; and free from that vanity and rudeneſs which were too commonly affected by philoſophers. The morals which he inculcated were of the pureſt kind; and his life was a ſhining example of true independence of ſpirit, contentment, magnanimity, temperance, humility, and modeſty. He was accuſtomed to ſay, that the ſum of moral inſtruction may be compriſed in two words ανεχε και απεχε, *i. e.* endure and abſtain, or bear and forbear. When the philoſophers were baniſhed from Italy under the tyranny of the monſter Domitian, he was involved in their fate; but he bore his exile with true philoſophic firmneſs, conſidering himſelf as a citizen of the world, and knowing that wherever he went he carried his beſt treaſures along with him. He fixed his reſidence at Nicopolis in Epirus, where he proſecuted the great object to which he had devoted his life, by reproving vice and folly, and expatiating on the true means of attaining contentment and happineſs. We have no certain account either of the time or manner of his death. There ſeems, however, reaſon to conclude, from the mention that is made of him by Aulus Gellius, and by the emperor Marcus Aurelius, that he died towards the cloſe of Adrian's reign. Excepting ſome fragments preſerved by Antoninus, Gellius, Stobæus, and others, the only remains of this philoſopher are to be found in the beautiful manual, or Enchiridion, and the Diſſertations, collected by Arrian, and drawn up from notes taken by himſelf and others from Epictetus's lips. The ſame diſciple wrote alſo a large account of the life and death of Epictetus, which has not reached modern times. Simplicius likewiſe has left a commentary upon his opinions in the eclectic manner. On the whole, the doctrine of Epictetus breathes the genuine ſpirit of the Stoic ſchool. The doctrine of the immortality of the ſoul he firmly maintained, and ſpeaks of the happineſs of good men after death, in terms which might ſuit a better ſyſtem than that of inevitable neceſſity. He ſtrongly oppoſed the opinion which ſome of the Stoics held, reſpecting the lawfulneſs of ſuicide: and it may truly be ſaid, that the ſyſtem of practical virtues which he recommends, approaches nearer than that of any inſtructor, not enlightened by revelation, to the purity of Chriſtian morality. Some of the beſt editions of this philoſopher's remains are thoſe publiſhed at Leyden, in 1670, in octavo, *cum notis variorum*; at Utrecht, in 1711, in quarto; at Oxford, in 1740, in octavo, by Joſeph Simpſon, together with *Cebetis Tabula, Prodici Hercules*, &c. and at London, in 1742, by J. Upton, in two volumes quarto, which is the moſt valuable of them all. They have been tranſlated into various languages; and the edition in this country

moſt

moſt eſteemed, is that by Mrs. Carter, publiſhed in 1758, with notes.

E'PICURE, *ſ.* [*epicureus*, Lat.] A follower of Epicurus; a man given wholly to luxury.—The *epicure* buckles to ſtudy, when ſhame, or the deſire to recommend himſelf to his miſtreſs, ſhall make him uneaſy in the want of any ſort of knowledge. *Locke.*

Then fly falſe thanes,
And mingle with the Engliſh *epicures*. *Shakeſpeare.*

EPICU'REAN, *adj.* Luxurious; contributing to luxury:

Tie up the libertine in a field of feaſts,
Keep his brain fuming; *epicurean* cooks,
Sharpen with cloyleſs ſauce his appetite. *Shakeſpeare.*

Containing, or attached to, the doctrines of Epicurus.—The *Epicurean* doctrine, as explained by Lucretius, though widely different from the Peripatetic in many things, is almoſt the ſame in this. *Reid.*

EPICURE'AN, *ſ.* One of the Epicurean ſect.—Thus the atomiſt or *Epicurean* pleading for a vacuum. *Shafteſbury.*

EPICURE'ANISM, *ſ.* An attachment to Epicurean doctrines.—Theſe lines can never be tortured into *Epicureaniſm*. *Ja. Harris.*

To EPI'CURISE, *v. a.* [from *Epicurus.*] To devour like an epicure. *Not uſed:*

While I could ſee thee full of eager pain
My greedy eyes *epicuris'd* on thine. *Flatman.*

E'PICURISM, *ſ.* Luxury; ſenſual enjoyment; groſs pleaſure.—Some good men have ventured to call munificence, the greateſt ſenſuality, a piece of *epicuriſm*. *Calamy.*

EPICU'RISM, *ſ.* [accented on the third ſyllable.] The principles of Epicurus.—The firſt book of the Enquiry ends with a ſentence far remote from irreligion and *epicuriſm*. *J. Warton's Pope.*

EPICU'RUS, one of the greateſt philoſophers of his age, born at Gargettus, near Athens, in the third year of the 109th olympiad, or 342 before Chriſt. His parents were among the number of Athenian citizens who were ſent to coloniſe the iſland of Samos, after it had been ſubdued by Pericles. Here he is ſaid to have early imbibed a taſte for literature and philoſophy, and to have attended on different maſters at Samos, and the neighbouring iſland of Teos; from whence he removed to Athens. In that city he continued the proſecution of his ſtudies till he was twenty-three years of age; after which he improved himſelf, and enriched his mind by travelling. He firſt opened a ſchool at Mitylene, which he continued for about a year, and then removed it to Lampſacus, where he was attended with diſciples from Colophon and other places. After four years, he became diſſatisfied with the narrow ſphere in which he moved, and determined to fix his reſidence at Athens; to which city he returned when he was about thirty-ſix years old. Upon his arrival at Athens, he purchaſed for his ſchool a pleaſant garden, where he taught his ſyſtem of philoſophy to a great number of diſciples. Hence the Epicureans were called "the philoſophers of the garden." In the ſtate of luxurious refinement which then prevailed at Athens, the new ſyſtem came recommended, to young minds eſpecially, with much more powerful attractions than the very ſubtle and ſevere ſyſtems taught in other ſchools; and the garden was ſoon crowded with ſcholars from all the cities of Greece and Aſia, and even from Egypt. Epicurus diſcarded all unnatural ſeverity; was diſtinguiſhed by a captivating addreſs, and great urbanity of manners; and held it out as the profeſſed deſign of his doctrine, to lead men to true pleaſure, by natural and eaſy ſteps, in the paths of virtue. By thus rendering ſmooth the brow of philoſophy, it is not a matter of wonder that his doctrines became exceedingly popular. From the opening of his philoſophical ſchool at Athens, Epicurus confined himſelf to that city, except when he paid occaſional viſits to his friends in Ionia; and lived there in a ſtate of celibacy, for the ſake of proſecuting his ſtudies with leſs interruption. His conduct, according to the confeſſion of the moſt candid enemies to his opinions, was ſtrictly moral, and exemplary for temperance and abſtemiouſneſs; and he conſtantly inculcated upon his followers the pureſt manners, and the careful government of their paſſions, as the beſt means of enjoying a tranquil and happy life. Through the intenſeneſs of mental application, his conſtitution became enfeebled towards the cloſe of his days, and he was afflicted with the ſtrangury, and a dyſentery. Finding that his end was approaching, he bequeathed his garden, and the buildings belonging to it, to his friend Hermachus, who was his immediate ſucceſſor in his ſchool, and after him to the future profeſſors of his philoſophy. He died in the ſeventy-third year of his age, while exhorting his ſurrounding diſciples not to forget the doctrines which he had taught them. No perſon's memory was ever held in higher reſpect by his followers than that of this philoſopher. They not only celebrated his birth-day, but the whole month in which he was born, as a perpetual feſtival. So great was the regard for his authority, that his ſchool was never divided; and his followers formed a ſort of philoſophical republic, exempt from diſputes and miſunderſtandings, regulated by one judgment, and animated by one ſoul. Epicurus has notwithſtanding been accuſed of impiety; of inſolence and contempt; of being addicted to the vileſt and moſt ſcandalous vices; and of being an enemy to all manly purſuits. But the greater part of theſe accuſations is to be aſcribed either to envy and calumny, or to miſconception and miſrepreſentations of his principles. His doctrine was warmly attacked by the philoſophers of the different ſects, and particularly by the Stoics. They obſerved that he diſgraced the gods by repreſenting them as inactive, given up to pleaſure, and unconcerned with the affairs of mankind. But he refuted all the accuſations of his adverſaries by the purity of his morals, and by his frequent attendance on places of public worſhip. When Leontium, one of his female pupils, was accuſed of proſtituting herſelf to her maſter and to all his diſciples, the philoſopher proved the falſity of the accuſation by ſilence, and an exemplary life. Of all the philoſophers of antiquity, Epicurus is the only one whoſe writings deſerve attention for their number. He wrote no leſs than three hundred volumes, according to Diogenes Laertius; and Chryſippus was ſo jealous of the fecundity of his genius, that no ſooner had Epicurus publiſhed one of his volumes, but he immediately compoſed one, that he might not be overcome in the number of his productions. Epicurus, however, advanced truths and arguments unknown before; but Chryſippus ſaid, what others long ago had ſaid, without ſhewing any thing which might be called originality. The followers of Epicurus were ſo numerous, that his doctrines were rapidly diſſeminated over the world; but, when the gratification of the ſenſe was ſubſtituted to the practice of virtue, the morals of mankind were undermined and deſtroyed. Even Rome, whoſe auſtere ſimplicity had happily nurtured virtue, felt the attack, and was corrupted. When Cyneas ſpoke of the tenets of the Epicureans in the Roman ſenate, Fabricius indeed intreated the gods that all the enemies of the republic might become his followers. But thoſe were the feeble efforts of expiring virtue; and when Lucretius introduced the popular doctrine in his poetical compoſition, the ſmoothneſs and beauty of the numbers contributed, with the effeminacy of the Epicureans, to enervate the conquerors of the world.

The principles of the EPICUREAN PHILOSOPHY, were as follow: No *thing* can ſpring from nothing, nor can any *thing* return to nothing. The univerſe always exiſted, and will always remain; for there is nothing into which it can be changed. There is nothing in nature, nor can any thing be conceived, beſides *body*, and *ſpace*. Body is that which poſſeſſes the properties of bulk, figure, reſiſtance, and gravity; it is this alone which can touch, or be touched. Space, or *vacuum*, deſtitute of the pro-

perties of body, incapable of action or paſſion, is the region which is or may be occupied by body, and which affords it an opportunity of moving freely. That there are bodies in the univerſe, is atteſted by the ſenſes. That there is alſo ſpace, is evident; ſince otherwiſe bodies would have no place in which to move or exiſt; and of their exiſtence and motion we have the certain proof of perception. Beſides theſe, no third nature can be conceived. The univerſe, conſiſting of body and ſpace, is infinite, for it has no limits. Bodies are infinite in multitude; ſpace is infinite in magnitude. The univerſe is to be conceived as immovable, and as eternal and immutable; nevertheleſs, the parts of the univerſe are in motion, and are ſubject to change. All bodies conſiſt of parts, of which they are compoſed, and into which they may be reſolved; and theſe parts are either themſelves ſimple principles, or may be reſolved into ſuch. Theſe firſt principles, or ſimple *atoms*, are diviſible by no force, and therefore muſt be immutable. A finite body cannot conſiſt of parts infinite, either in magnitude or number; diviſibility of bodies *in infinitum* is therefore inconceivable. All atoms are of the ſame nature, or differ in no eſſential qualities. From their different effects upon the ſenſes, it appears, however, that they differ in magnitude, figure, and weight. Gravity muſt be an eſſential property of atoms; for, ſince they are perpetually in motion, or making an effort to move, they muſt be moved by an internal impulſe, which may be called gravity. Atoms, by this internal force, are carried forwards in a direction which is nearly, but not exactly, rectilineal; and whilſt they paſs through free ſpace, this declination from the right line occaſions a caſual concurrence of corpuſcles of different forms. In compound maſſes of atoms, the efforts of ſome of the particles towards motion in different directions being repreſſed by the efforts of others, an univerſal agitation muſt take place. The principle of gravity being eſſential to the primary corpuſcles or atoms, they muſt have been neceſſarily and from eternity in actual motion. Atoms are not only the elements from which all things are compounded, but that energy or principle of motion which eſſentially belongs to them, is the ſole agent in the operations of nature. Every compound body poſſeſſes the energy of all the atoms of which it is compoſed, but variouſly modified according to the reſpective figures and relative ſituations of its component parts. All the changes which take place in the figure, and other properties of bodies, conſiſt in local motion. As different words are formed from the different combinations of the ſame letters, ſo different qualities are produced by the different arrangement of the ſame particles. Bodies are more or leſs rare, in proportion to the magnitude of the vacuities which intercept the ſolid atoms of which they are compoſed. Tranſparency, hardneſs and ſoftneſs, flexibility, ductility, and other qualities, are to be explained upon theſe principles. From the combination of the properties of atoms, and the qualities of bodies already enumerated, ariſe other properties and faculties, which are likewiſe to be traced up to the principle of motion; as heat and cold. Pleaſure and pain, motion and reſt, and even time, are accidents of bodies. The world, or that portion of the univerſe which includes the whole circumference of the heavens, the heavenly bodies, the earth, and all viſible objects, is to be conceived as one whole, on account of the contiguity and relation of its parts; but there is no proof that it is an organiſed and animated body. The world is not eternal, but began at ſome time to exiſt; for, ſince every thing in the world is liable to the viciſſitudes of production and decay, the world itſelf muſt be ſo too. The formation of the world may be conceived to have happened thus: A finite number of that infinite multitude of atoms, which, with infinite ſpace, conſtitute the univerſe, falling fortuitouſly into the region of the world, were in conſequence of their innate motion collected into one rude and indigeſted maſs. In this chaos, the heavieſt and largeſt atoms, or collections of atoms, firſt ſubſided, whilſt the ſmaller, and thoſe which from their form would move moſt freely, were driven upwards. Theſe latter, after many reverberations, roſe into the outer region of the world, and formed the heavens. Thoſe atoms which were by their ſize and figure ſuited to form fiery bodies, collected themſelves into ſtars. Thoſe which were not capable of riſing ſo high in the ſphere of the world, being diſturbed by the fiery particles, formed themſelves into air. At length, from thoſe which ſubſided was produced the earth. By the action of air, agitated by heat from the heavenly bodies upon the mixed maſs of the earth, its ſmoother and lighter particles were ſeparated from the reſt, and water was produced, which flowed by its nature into the loweſt places, in the firſt combination of atoms, which formed the chaos, various ſeeds aroſe; which, being preſerved, and nouriſhed by moiſture and heat, afterwards ſprung forth in organiſed bodies of different kinds. The world is preſerved by the ſame mechanical cauſes by which it was framed; and from the ſame cauſes it will at laſt be diſſolved. The inceſſant motion of atoms, which produced the world, is continually operating towards its diſſolution; for nothing is ſolid and indiſſoluble but atoms. Whence it may be concluded, that the time will come, when nothing will remain but ſeparate atoms and infinite ſpace. The earth, which was formed of heavy particles, ſubſiding to the loweſt place, is ſituated in the middle of the world. Not that there is any point within the earth which is the centre of gravity. The doctrine that there are upon the earth antipodes, is falſe. The earth is in form a circular plane; it is prevented from falling towards the lower region by the air, with which it is congenial, and upon which therefore it does not preſs; their mutual action deſtroying the effect of gravity. Earthquakes are cauſed by the agitation of internal winds and water, or by the decay and ſudden fall of columns, by which portions of the earth's ſurface are ſupported. Or the internal winds may be converted into fires, which may cauſe ſudden and violent eruptions, as in mount Ætna. Foſſils and plants are produced by the neceſſary impulſe of nature, that is, by the motion of atoms, cauſing continual tranſpoſition, accretion, or diminution, in individual bodies. They have no vital principle, and can therefore only be ſaid analogically to live or die. Animals having being once formed, at the beginning of the world, by the caſual conjunction of ſimilar atoms, the production of animal bodies is ſtill continued in a conſtant and determinate order. The parts of animals were not originally framed for the uſes to which they are now applied; but, having been accidentally produced, they were afterwards accidentally employed. The eye, for example, was not made for ſeeing, nor the ear for hearing; but the ſoul, being formed within the body at the ſame time with theſe organs, and connected with them, could not avoid making uſe of them in their reſpective functions. The ſoul is a ſubtle corporeal ſubſtance, compoſed of the fineſt atoms; which, by the extreme tenuity of its particles, is able to penetrate the whole body, and to adhere to all its parts. Notwithſtanding the ſubtlety of its texture, it is compoſed of four diſtinct parts: fire, which cauſes animal heat; an ethereal principle, which is moiſt vapour; air; and a fourth principle, which is the cauſe of ſenſation. This ſentient principle differs eſſentially from the three former; but it is, like the reſt, corporeal, becauſe it is capable both of acting and being acted upon by bodies. Theſe four parts are ſo perfectly combined as to form one ſubtle ſubſtance, which, whilſt it remains in the body, is the cauſe of all its faculties, motions, and paſſions, and which cannot be ſeparated from it without producing the entire diſſolution of the animal ſyſtem. Different ſenſations are the caſual effects of the different organs which the ſoul in its union with the body is capable of employing, and of the different properties and qualities of external objects. Theſe become ſenſible by means of certain ſpecies, or images, which are perpetually paſſing,

paſſing, like thin films, from bodies, in form ſimilar to the ſurfaces of the bodies themſelves, and ſtriking upon organs fitted to receive them. The mind, or intellect, in which is lodged the power of thinking, judging, and determining, is compoſed of particles moſt ſubtle in their nature, and capable of the moſt rapid motion. The ſeat of this moſt excellent part of the ſoul, ſeems to be in the middle of the breaſt, or the heart, which we perceive to be the region of thoſe affections which are excited by cogitation. Thought is produced by ſubtle images, which find their way through the body, and, when they arrive at the intellect, move it to think. The affections and paſſions of the ſoul may be reduced to two, pleaſure and pain: the former, natural and agreeable; the latter, unnatural and troubleſome. Whilſt all the parts of the ſoul remain in their natural ſtate, it experiences nothing but pleaſurable tranquillity; but from the various motions which take place either in ourſelves, or in the objects round us, the ſoul is liable either to be dilated by the approach of images ſuitable to its nature, and therefore pleaſant, or to be contracted by contrary impreſſions. Sleep is produced when the parts of the ſoul which are at other times diffuſed through the body are repreſſed or ſeparated by the action of the air, or of food. Dreams are the effects of images caſually flying about, which from their extreme tenuity penetrate the body and ſtrike upon the mind, exciting an imaginary perception of thoſe things of which they are images. Death is the privation of ſenſation, in conſequence of the ſeparation of the ſoul from the body, when the former is diſperſed into the corpuſcles or atoms of which it was compoſed, and therefore can no longer be capable of thought or perception. In the heavens, or ethereal regions, the ſun, moon, and ſtars, appear to be fiery bodies; or they may be ſmooth mirrors, from which bright fiery particles flowing through the ethereal region, are reflected to the earth; or they may be deep veſſels, containing fires, &c. The apparent motion of the heavenly bodies may ariſe from the revolution of the whole heaven in which they are fixed, like nails in a ſolid body; or by the revolution of the bodies themſelves through the heavens. The cauſe of the motion of the heavenly bodies may either be an internal neceſſity in the nature of the bodies themſelves, or the external preſſure of ſome ethereal fluid: but to aſſert any thing poſitively upon this ſubject, becomes thoſe who affect an oſtentatious diſplay of knowledge. The opinion concerning the exiſtence of the gods is an innate principle, producing univerſal conſent; it muſt therefore be true. But it is inconſiſtent with our natural notions of the gods, as happy and immortal beings, to ſuppoſe that they encumber themſelves with the management of the world, or are ſubject to the cares and paſſions which muſt neceſſarily attend ſo great a charge. We are therefore to conceive, that the gods have no intercourſe with mankind, nor any concern with the affairs of the world. Nevertheleſs, on account of their excellent natures, they are proper objects of reverence and worſhip. Becauſe the human figure is the moſt perfect, and the only form that admits of reaſon and virtue, we muſt conceive that the gods reſemble men in their external ſhape; but we are not to ſuppoſe them to be groſs bodies, conſiſting of fleſh and blood, but thin ethereal ſubſtances, endued with ſenſation and intellect, and, from their peculiar nature, incapable of decay. The place of their reſidence is unknown to mortals; but we may be aſſured that, wherever it be, it is the manſion of perfect purity, tranquillity, and happineſs.

In this ſummary of Epicurus's Syſtem of Phyſics will be found ſuch a degree of ignorance with reſpect to the true principles of the phenomena of nature, as ſhews the author to have been very ill qualified to ſolve the grand problem concerning the origin and formation of the world. It involves in it wild and fanciful hypotheſes, which are not only unſupported by natural appearances, but contrary to the known and indiſputable laws of nature. Though his ſyſtem admits the exiſtence of gods, yet the idea which it gives concerning their nature, is degrading to the proper character of the Deity, and cannot be at all explained in congruity with the fundamental principles of his own philoſophy. Epicurus's Ethics conſtitute the leaſt exceptionable part of his ſyſtem, and, when fairly conſidered, will be found for the moſt part conformable to reaſon and nature. The following is a ſummary of them. The end of living, or the ultimate good, which is to be ſought for its own ſake, is happineſs; yet men, for the moſt part, fail in the purſuit of this end, either becauſe they do not form a right idea of the nature of happineſs, or becauſe they do not make uſe of proper means to attain it. Since it is every man's intereſt to be happy through the whole of life, it is the wiſdom of every one to employ philoſophy in the ſearch of it. The happineſs which belongs to man is that ſtate in which he enjoys as many of the good things, and ſuffers as few of the evils, incident to human nature, as poſſible; paſſing his days in a ſmooth courſe of permanent tranquillity. It is impoſſible that perfect happineſs can be poſſeſſed without the pleaſure that attends freedom from pain, and the enjoyment of the good things of life. Pleaſure is in its nature good, as pain is in its nature evil; the one is therefore to be purſued, and the other to be avoided, for its own ſake. Pleaſure or pain is not only good, or evil in itſelf, but the meaſure of what is good or evil in every object of deſire or averſion; for the ultimate reaſon why we purſue one thing and avoid another is, becauſe we expect pleaſure from the former, and apprehend pain from the latter. Although all pleaſure is eſſentially good, and all pain eſſentially evil, it doth not thence neceſſarily follow, that in every ſingle inſtance the one ought to be purſued, and the other to be avoided; but reaſon is to be employed in diſtinguiſhing and comparing the nature and degrees of each, that the reſult may be a wiſe choice of that which ſhall appear to be, upon the whole, GOOD. There are two kinds of pleaſure; one conſiſting in a ſtate of reſt, in which both body and mind are undiſturbed by any kind of pain; the other ariſing from an agreeable agitation of the ſenſes, producing a correſpondent emotion in the ſoul. It is upon the former of theſe that the enjoyment of life chiefly depends. Happineſs may therefore be ſaid to conſiſt in bodily eaſe and mental tranquillity. It is the office of reaſon to confine the purſuit of pleaſure within the limits of nature, in order to the attainment of that happy ſtate, in which the body is free from every kind of pain, and the mind from all perturbation. This ſtate muſt not, however, be conceived to be perfect in proportion as it is inactive and torpid, but in proportion as all the functions of life are vigorouſly and pleaſantly performed. This happy ſtate can only be attained by a prudent care of the body, and a ſteady government of the mind. The diſeaſes of the body are to be prevented by temperance, or cured by medicine, or rendered tolerable by patience. Againſt the diſeaſes of the mind, philoſophy provides ſufficient antidotes. The inſtruments which it employs for this purpoſe are the virtues; the root of which, whence all the reſt proceed, is prudence. This virtue comprehends the whole art of living diſcreetly, juſtly, and honourably, and is in fact the ſame thing with wiſdom. It inſtructs men to free their underſtandings from the clouds of prejudice; to exerciſe temperance and fortitude in the government of themſelves; and to practiſe juſtice towards others. Although pleaſure, or happineſs, which is the end of living, be ſuperior to virtue, which is only the means, it is every one's intereſt to practiſe all the virtues; for in a happy life pleaſure can never be ſeparated from virtue. A prudent man, in order to ſecure his tranquillity, will conſult his natural diſpoſition in the choice of his plan of life. Temperance is that diſcreet regulation of the deſires and paſſions by which we are enabled to enjoy pleaſures without ſuffering any conſequent inconvenience. They who maintain ſuch a ſelf-command as never to be enticed by the proſpect

of

of prefent indulgence to do that which will be productive of evil, obtain the trueſt pleaſure by declining pleaſure. Sobriety, as oppoſed to inebriety and gluttony, is of admirable uſe in teaching men that nature is ſatisfied with a little, and enabling them to content themſelves with ſimple and frugal fare. Such a manner of living is conducive to the preſervation of health; renders a man alert and active in all the offices of life; affords him an exquiſite reliſh of the occaſional varieties of a plentiful board; and prepares him to meet every reverſe of fortune without the fear of want. Continence is a branch of temperance, which prevents the diſeaſes, infamy, remorſe, and puniſhment, to which thoſe are expoſed who indulge themſelves in unlawful amours. Muſic and poetry, which are often employed as incentives to licentious pleaſures, are to be cautiouſly and ſparingly uſed. Gentleneſs, as oppoſed to an irafcible temper, greatly contributes to the tranquillity and happineſs of life, by preſerving the mind from perturbation, and arming it againſt the aſſaults of calumny and malice. A wiſe man, who puts himſelf under the government of reaſon, will be able to receive an injury with calmneſs, and to treat the perſon who committed it with lenity. Refractory ſervants in a family ſhould be chaſtiſed, and diſorderly members of a ſtate puniſhed, without wrath. Moderation, in the purſuit of honours or riches, is the only ſecurity againſt diſappointment and vexation. A wiſe man, therefore, will prefer the ſimplicity of ruſtic life to the magnificence of courts. Future events a wiſe man will conſider as uncertain, and will therefore neither ſuffer himſelf to be elated with confident expectation, nor to be depreſſed by doubt and deſpair; for both are equally deſtructive of tranquillity. It will contribute to the enjoyment of life, to conſider death as the perfect termination of a happy life, which it becomes us to cloſe like ſatisfied gueſts, neither regretting the paſt, nor anxious for the future. Fortitude, the virtue which enables us to endure pain and to baniſh fear, is of great uſe in producing tranquillity. Philoſophy inſtructs us to pay homage to the gods, not through hope or fear, but from veneration of their ſuperior natures. It moreover enables us to conquer the fear of death, by teaching us that it is no proper object of terror; ſince whilſt we are, death is not, and when death arrives, we are not; ſo that it neither concerns the living nor the dead. The only evils to be apprehended are bodily pain and diſtreſs of mind. Bodily pain it becomes a wiſe man to endure with patience and firmneſs; becauſe, if it be ſlight, it may eaſily be borne, and if it be intenſe, it cannot laſt long. Mental diſtreſs commonly ariſes not from nature, but from opinion; a wiſe man will therefore arm himſelf againſt this kind of ſuffering, by reflecting that the gifts of fortune, the loſs of which he may be inclined to deplore, were never his own, but depended upon circumſtances which he could not command. If therefore they happen to leave him, he will endeavour as ſoon as poſſible to obliterate the remembrance of them, by occupying his mind in pleaſant contemplations, and engaging in agreeable avocations. Juſtice reſpects man as living in ſociety, and is the common bond, without which no ſociety can exiſt. This virtue, like the reſt, derives its value from its tendency to promote the happineſs of life. Not only is it never injurious to the man who practiſes it, but nouriſhes in his mind calm reflections and pleaſant hopes; whereas it is impoſſible that the mind in which injuſtice dwells ſhould not be full of diſquietude. Since it is impoſſible that iniquitous actions ſhould promote the enjoyment of life as much as remorſe of conſcience, legal penalties, and public diſgrace, muſt increaſe its troubles, every one who follows the dictates of ſound reaſon will practiſe the virtues of juſtice, equity, and fidelity. In ſociety, the neceſſity of the mutual exercife of juſtice, in order to the common enjoyment of the gifts of nature, is the ground of thoſe laws by which it is preſcribed. Nearly allied to juſtice are the virtues of beneficence, compaſſion, gratitude, piety, and friendſhip. He who confers benefits upon others procures to himſelf the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the ſtream of plenty ſpreading round him from the fountain of his beneficence: and at the ſame time he enjoys the pleaſure of being eſteemed by others. The exerciſe of gratitude, filial affection, and reverence for the gods, is neceſſary, in order to avoid the hatred and contempt of all men. Friendſhips are contracted for the ſake of mutual benefit; but by degrees they ripen into ſuch diſintereſted attachments, that they are continued without any proſpect of advantage. Between friends there is a kind of league that each will love the other as himſelf. A true friend will partake of the wants and ſorrows of his friend as if they were his own: if he be in want he will relieve him; if he be in priſon he will viſit him; if he be ſick he will come to him; nay, ſituations may occur, in which he would not ſcruple to die for him. It cannot then be doubted that friendſhip is one of the moſt uſeful means of procuring a ſecure, tranquil, and happy, life.

From this ſummary of the Ethics of Epicurus, it will readily be ſeen how unjuſtly his enemies miſrepreſented his doctrine, when they ſtated that it offered encouragement to the practice of vice and licentiouſneſs, and how illiberally they perverted his ſenſe of the term *pleaſure*, when he taught that it was the ultimate end of living. By the notions, however, which it propagated reſpecting the gods, it certainly contributed, in common with the principles of the atheiſtic ſects, and of others who denied the immortality of the ſoul, greatly to weaken the motives to virtue. It muſt, however, be acknowledged that his doctrine was very early much abuſed, and that the greater part of thoſe who pretended to belong to the epicurean ſchool, reflected diſgrace on the ſect by their diſſoluteneſs of manners. This was the caſe at Athens, and afterwards at Rome. In the modern epicurean ſchools in France, the members have been more diſtinguiſhed by their literary refinement, poliſhed manners, and luxurious indulgences, than their culture of the genuine doctrine of the Greek philoſopher.

EPICY'CLE, *ſ.* [επι and κυκλος, Gr.] A little circle whoſe center is in the circumference of a greater; or a ſmall orb, which, being in the deferent of a planet, is carried along with its motion; and yet, with its own peculiar motion, carries the body of the planet faſtened to it round about its proper centre. It was by means of epicycles that Ptolemy and his followers ſolved the various phenomena of the planets, but more eſpecially their ſtations and retrogradations.

Gird the ſphere
With centric and eccentric, ſcribbl'd o'er;
Cycle and *epicycle*, orb in orb. *Milton.*

EPICY'CLOID, *ſ.* [from επι, κυκλος, and ειδος, Gr. form.] In geometry, a curve generated by the revolution of the periphery of a circle along the convex or concave part of another circle.

EPICYE'MA, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and κυω, Gr. to conceive.] Superfœtation. Superimpregnation. A ſecond conception before the fœtus of the firſt is diſmiſſed from the womb.

EPIDAM'NUS, a town of Macedonia on the Adriatic, nearly oppoſite Brunduſium. The Romans planted there a colony which they called *Dyrrachium*, conſidering the ancient name ominous. *Pauſanias.*

EPIDAPH'NE, a town of Syria, called alſo Antioch. Germanicus, ſon of Druſus, died there. *Tacitus.*

EPIDAU'RIA, a feſtival anciently kept at Athens in honour of Æſculapius.—A country of Peloponneſus.

EPIDAU'RUS, a town at the north of Argolis in Peloponneſus, chiefly dedicated to the worſhip of Æſculapius, who had there a famous temple. It received its name from Epidaurus, a ſon of Argus and Evadne. It is now called *Pidaura. Virgil.*—A town of Dalmatia, now *Raguſi Vecchio.*—A town of Laconia, in the Ionian Sea, now *Molvaſia*, in the Morea.

EPIDE'MIC,

EPIDE'MIC, or EPIDEMICAL, *adj.* [from επι, upon, and δημος, Gr. the people.] That which falls at once upon great numbers of people, as a plague.—See the article MEDICINE.—As the proportion of *epidemical* diſeaſes ſhews the aptneſs of the air to ſudden and vehement impreſſions, the chronical diſeaſes ſhew the ordinary temper of the place. *Graunt.*—Generally prevailing; affecting great numbers.—The more *epidemical* and prevailing this evil is, the more honourable are thoſe who ſhine as exceptions. *South.*—General; univerſal: *not uſed, nor proper*:

They're citizens o' th' world, they're all in all;
Scotland's a nation *epidemical.* *Cleaveland.*

EPIDEN'DRUM, *ſ.* [επι δενδρον, Gr. from its growing upon trees.] In botany, a genus of the claſs gynandria, order diandria, natural order orchideæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: ſpathes vague; ſpadix ſimple; perianthium none. Corolla: petals five, oblong, extremely long, very ſpreading; nectary tubular at the baſe, top-ſhaped, placed downwards within the petals, with an oblique two-cleft mouth; the ſuperior lip very ſhort, three-cleft; the inferior lengthened into a point. Stamina: filaments two, very ſhort, ſitting on the piſtil; antheræ covered by the upper lip of the nectary. Piſtillum: germ ſlender, long, twiſted, inferior; ſtyle very ſhort, faſtened to the upper lip of the nectary; ſtigma obſcure. Pericarpium: ſilique extremely long, columnar, fleſhy. Seeds: numerous, extremely ſmall.—*Eſſential Character.* Nectary, turbinate, oblique, reflex; corolla, ſpreading; ſpur, none.

Deſcription. The whole genus is obſcure in its character, differences, and ſynonyms; for the flowers in dried ſpecimens can hardly be unfolded: the plants are cultivated with difficulty in gardens; and the ſpecies have not been ſufficiently deſcribed by authors who have had an opportunity of ſeeing them in America and the Eaſt Indies, their native places of growth. Linnæus had only thirty ſorts in his Species Plantarum, and the number was not increaſed in the twelfth and thirteenth editions of the Syſtema Vegetabilium. In the fourteenth edition of the ſame work, two only are added by Murray from Jacquin, who has eleven other new ſpecies in his Stirpium Americanarum Hiſtoria. Swartz has forty-nine from the Weſt-Indies, ſome of which are the ſame with Jacquin's. Retzius has twenty-three obſerved by Koenig in the Eaſt Indies. And Forſter has ten from the iſlands in the South Seas. The number of ſorts here regiſtered amounts to 125, and doubtleſs there are many more, ſince Dr. Smith, in his elegant works, has figured two ſpecies from Jamaica, which eſcaped the reſearch of the indefatigable Swartz. On a ſeverer ſcrutiny, however, ſome of theſe numerous ſpecies may turn out to be varieties, and others to be the ſame ſpecies repeated. Jacquin remarks, that all his ſpecies, particularly the ſmaller ones, become by age more or leſs ceſpitoſe, and run over the bark of trees with their numerous roots, fixing themſelves into it with a conſiderable degree of firmneſs.

Species. I. Climbing. 1. Epidendrum vanilla, vanilla or vanelloe: leaves ovate-oblong, nerved, ſeſſile, cauline, tendrils ſpiral. The vanilla is ſeparated from the other epidendrums by Plumier, Juſſieu, Miller, and others; ſtem trailing, ſomewhat like common ivy, but not ſo woody, faſtening itſelf to whatever tree grows near it, by ſmall fibres or roots produced at every joint, by which it may receive nouriſhment when cut or broken off from the root a conſiderable height above the ground; the leaves are as large as thoſe of the common laurel, but not quite ſo thick; they are placed alternate at the joints, which are ſix or ſeven inches aſunder, and are of a lively green colour above, but paler underneath; the ſtems ſhoot into many branches, which alſo faſten themſelves to the boughs of trees, and thus riſe to the height of eighteen or twenty feet, ſpreading quite over ſmaller trees; the flowers are of a greeniſh yellow colour, mixed with white, and are ſucceeded by fruit ſix or ſeven inches long. The manner of growth and flowering, the ſize of the flowers, fruit, and lens-ſhaped, dark-ſhining ſeeds, without any aril, diſtinguiſh this from the other ſpecies. Vanilla, with E. flos aeris and claviculatum, might be ſeparated from the genus epidendrum. Native of South America and the iſlands in old woods, in the moiſt ſhady parts of them. In the bay of Campeachy, at Carthagena, the Caraccas, Honduras, Darien, Cayenne, &c. the fruit is gathered and preſerved. When it turns of a yellow colour, and begins to open, they gather it, and lay it in ſmall heaps to ferment two or three days, in the ſame manner as is practiſed for the cocoa or chocolate pods; then they ſpread them in the ſun to dry; and when they are about half dried, they ſtat them with their hands, and afterwards rub them over with the oil of palma Chriſti, or of the cocoa; then they expoſe them to the ſun again to dry, and afterwards they rub them over with oil a ſecond time; then they put them in ſmall bundles, covering them with the leaves of the Indian reed, to preſerve them. Theſe plants produce but one crop of fruit in a year, which is commonly ripe in May, fit for gathering, for they do not let them remain on the plants to be perfectly mature, becauſe then they are not ſo fit for uſe; but when they are about half changed yellow, they eſteem them better for keeping than when they are changed to a dark brown colour, at which time the fruit ſplits, and ſhews a great quantity of ſmall ſeeds, which are incloſed within it. While the fruit is green, it affords no remarkable ſcent, but as it ripens it emits a moſt grateful aromatic odour. When the fruit begins to open, the birds attack it and devour all the ſeeds very greedily, but do not eat any other part of the fruit. The fruits which are brought to Europe are of a dark brown colour, about ſix inches long, and ſcarce an inch broad; they are wrinkled on the outſide, and full of a vaſt number of black ſeeds, like grains of ſand, of a pleaſant ſmell, like balſam of Peru. The fruit is only uſed in England as an ingredient in chocolate, to which it gives a pleaſant flavour to ſome palates, but to others it is very diſagreeable; but the Spaniſh phyſicians in America uſe it in medicine, and eſteem it grateful to the ſtomach and brain for expelling wind, to provoke urine, to reſiſt poiſon, and cure the bite of venomous animals. The Spaniards, French, and Italians, not only uſe the vanilla to give chocolate a delicate ſmell and agreeable flavour, but alſo to perfume ſnuffs and other ſubſtances. It yields a great quantity of oil and volatile ſalt.

Mr. Miller has another ſpecies, which he calls *Vanilla axillaris*, and diſtinguiſhes by its oblong, blunt, compreſſed, jointed leaves, and axillary flowers. It was ſent him from Carthagena in New Spain, where it grows naturally. It has a climbing ſtalk, ſending out roots from the joints, like the other, and mounting to a great height. The leaves, which come out ſingly at each joint, are oblong, ſmooth, and jointed. The flowers come out from the ſide of the branches; they are ſhaped like thoſe of the great bee-orchis, but are longer: the helmet is of a pale pink, and the lip is purple. It flowered in the Chelſea garden, but lived only one year. There are two or three varieties of the common vanilla, differing in the colour of their flowers, and the length of their pods.

2. Epidendrum flos aeris: ſtem columnar, ſomewhat branched; leaves lanceolate; petals linear, obtuſe. The flowers reſemble a ſpider. It is a native of Java, and is paraſitical. See No. 112.

II. Stem upright, leafy. 3. Epidendrum tenuifolium, or thin-leaved epidendrum: leaves on the ſtem ſubulate, channelled. Native of Malabar in the Eaſt Indies.

4. Epidendrum ſpatulatum, or flatted epidendrum: leaves on the ſtem oblong, alternate, obtuſe, veinleſs; lip of the nectary bifid and divaricate. 5. Epidendrum ſurvum, or dark epidendrum: cauleſcent; leaves imbricate, lanceolate; racemes axillary. Natives of the Eaſt Indies.

6. Epidendrum coccineum, or ſcarlet vanilla: leaves

on the ſtem enſiform, obtuſe; peduncles one-flowered, axillary, crowded. This is an elegant paraſitical plant. Roots round, numerous, fibrous, aſh-coloured; ſtems ſeveral, ſcarcely attaining to a foot in height; before theſe ſpring the flowers come forth in the axils of the root-leaves; they are void of ſcent, and ſcarlet. Native of Martinico, in moiſt woods, eſpecially by the ſide of torrents; alſo in Jamaica, but not common. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

7. Epidendrum ſecundum, or inferior epidendrum: leaves on the ſtem oblong, emarginate; ſtem compreſſed; ſpike directed one way; tube of the nectary length of the corolla. Paraſitical. Roots fibrous, white; ſtem round at bottom, gradually compreſſed, leafy, pendulous; leaves ſeſſile, ſheathing, alternate, ſpreading in two rows, the outmoſt tip emarginate, veinleſs; peduncle ſcape-form, often two feet long, terminating, compreſſed, jointed as it were by the deciduous ſheaths; flowers terminating, in form of a corymb, nodding one way, pale red or brown. It varies with a rounder and more compreſſed ſtem; leaves broader, or more acuminate; flowers terminating, or breaking out on the ſide; and tube of the nectary ſhorter or longer than the petals. Native of Martinico and Jamaica, in mountainous woods. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

Swartz is of opinion that *E. anceps* of Jacquin is no more than a variety of this. Jacquin thus deſcribes it: Paraſitical, half a foot high or ſomewhat more; roots fibrous, round; ſtem compreſſed, ancipital at top, with few leaves; leaves oblong, blunt, coriaceous, alternate, ſheathing. Native of Martinico.

8. Epidendrum lineare, or linear epidendrum: leaves on the ſtem diſtich, linear, obtuſe, emarginate; ſtem ſimple; flowers terminating in a ſort of ſpike; lip entire. Stems ſimple, heaped, tufted, from one to two feet long, erect, filiform, leafy, compreſſed a little, ſmooth; ſeeds extremely minute, duſty and briſtly; as Jacquin ſays, irregularly ſhaped like ſaw-duſt. Native of thick mountain woods in Martinico, and other of the Weſt India iſlands; flowering in ſpring. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

9. Epidendrum punctatum, or dotted epidendrum: leaves lanceolate, nerved; ſheaths imbricate; ſcape panicled; and corollas dotted. 10. Epidendrum caudatum, or tailed epidendrum: leaves lanceolate, nerved; ſcape panicled; petals ſpotted, tailed, two very long. Natives of America.

11. Epidendrum ovatum, or ovate epidendrum: leaves on the ſtem ovate, acute; ſtem claſping, nerved; ſcapes panicled. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

12. Epidendrum ciliare, or ciliated epidendrum: leaves oblong, veinleſs; lip of the nectary three-parted, ciliate, the middle ſegment linear; ſtem two-leaved. This is an elegant plant, a foot and half high, paraſitical on the trunks of vaſt trees, from which it hangs down towards the ground; ſpike looſe, compoſed of about ten handſome white flowers, four inches in diameter, all pointing one way. Native of Martinico. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

13. Epidendrum nocturnum, or nocturnal epidendrum: leaves oblong, veinleſs; lip of the nectary three-parted, quite entire; the middle ſegment linear; ſtem many-leaved. Native of the mountain woods in Martinico, and in Jamaica, but not common. It ſmells very ſweet during the night.

14. Epidendrum cucullatum, or hooded epidendrum: leaves ſubulate; ſcape one-flowered; lip of the nectary ovate, ciliate, acuminate; petals elongated. Native of America. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

15. Epidendrum teres, or taper epidendrum: ſtem ſheathed, decumbent; leaves columnar. Native of Japan.

III. Scape naked; leaves radical. 16. Epidendrum nodoſum, or knotty epidendrum: leaf ſingle, ſubradical; ſpadix containing about four flowers. Native of the Weſt Indies, near the coaſt; flowering in ſpring.

17. Epidendrum carinatum, or carinated epidendrum: leaves oblong, obtuſe, compreſſed, jointed. Native of the Philippine iſlands, on trees.

18. Epidendrum aloifolium, or aloe-leaved vanilla: leaves oblong, obtuſe, broader at the end. Root thick, fungous, crinite, knobbed, paraſitical; leaves ſeveral from the knob of the root, from two to three feet long, and two fingers broad, ſmooth, ſhining, browniſh green, thick; flowering-ſtems ſeveral, undivided, round, green, ſhining; three of the petals are narrow, oblong, of a fine red colour within, with white edges, on the outſide white and green, in ſtreaks, with a tinge of red; nectary yellow, with red lines. Native of Malabar, on different trees.

19. Epidendrum guttatum, or dotted epidendrum: leaves lanceolate, channelled; petals wedge-ſhaped, retuſe. From a matted root this ſends out ſeveral leaves three inches long, and not a quarter of an inch broad, almoſt triangular, and of a yelloviſh green colour. From the midſt of theſe comes the flowering-ſtalk. Each flower is made up of four little white petals, ſpotted with brown, and one large one with fewer ſpots, on which is a ſmall yellow hood, and oppoſite to it one like it of a blue colour; on pedicels an inch long, round the top of the ſtalk. Native of Jamaica, on the ebonies.

20. Epidendrum juncifolium, or ruſh-leaved epidendrum: leaves ſubulate, furrowed; ſcape and petals dotted; lip without dots, dilated. Native of America.

21. Epidendrum ſcriptum, or marked vanilla: leaves ovate-oblong, three-nerved; flowers racemed, ſpotted. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

22. Epidendrum retuſum, or retuſe epidendrum: leaves linear, retuſe at the end, in two rows; flowers racemed, ſpotted. Three feet in height; root white, woody, bent in, curled, fixing itſelf into the bark of trees by its capillary hairy fibres; ſtem riſing between two rows of leaves, ſimple, ſhining, ſmooth, marked with rings; the leaves which come out from the top of the ſtem, and when dry, conſtitute the ſtem itſelf, are oblong-narrow, equally thick and broad on every ſide, folded together, ſmooth, ſhining, without any viſible veins or nerves. Native of Malabar, where it flowers in April and October, the flowers continuing two months; and a branch ſet in water will flower for a month.

23. Epidendrum amabile, or lovely epidendrum: leaves broad-lanceolate, veinleſs; petals lateral, orbiculate. Roots thick, like packthread; ſtem two feet high, naked, ſurrounded by a few acute, very ſhort, ſcales; flowers ſnow-white, the ſize of narciſſus flowers. Obſerved in the Eaſt Indies by Oſbeck; on branches of trees, on the coaſt of Java, alſo, by Rumphius. The flowers are large and odoriferous; lying in a room, they do not wither for ſeveral days, and fill it with a moſt agreeable ſmell. On the iſle of Ternate, none but princeſſes are allowed to wear this precious flower.

24. Epidendrum cochleatum, or ſpiral epidendrum: leaves oblong, double, ſmooth, ſtreaked, growing on the bulb; ſcape many-flowered; nectary cordate. Native of the mountainous parts of Jamaica. This is one of the few ſpecies yet introduced; we are obliged to Mr. Alexander Anderſon for it in 1786. It flowers here in January and February.

25. Epidendrum tuberoſum, or tuberous epidendrum: leaves broad-lanceolate, nerved, membranaceous, growing on the bulb; ſcape ſheathed; nectary boat-form, bifid. This a native of America. Linnæus ſets it down as the growth of both Indies, ſuppoſing it to be the Angræcum terreſtre primum of Rumphius, which Swartz aſſures us it is not, becauſe it is drawn without leaf-bearing bulbs, and is ſaid to grow on the ground. It is probably a ſpecies of Limodorum. Loureiro has deſcribed a plant cultivated in the gardens of China and Cochinchina, as the E. tuberoſum of Linnæus; but as he refers to Rumphius, and ſays that it is not paraſitical on trees, but grows on the ground; it may alſo be a Limodorum, or at leaſt is a different ſpecies from this.

26. Epidendrum puſillum, or dwarf epidendrum: leaves enſiform, ſomewhat fleſhy; ſcape few-flowered. Root fibrous; plant little more than an inch high. Obſerved in Surinam by Dahlberg.

27. Epidendrum enſifolium, or ſword-leaved epidendrum: ſtem round, even; leaves enſiform; petals lanceolate; lip lanceolate, recurved, dotted. The flowers have a ſweet lemon-like odour, pungent but not ſtrong, moſt remarkable at night or on entering the hot-houſe in a morning. On account of this perfume, the plant is much cultivated in China. Native of China and Japan.

28. Epidendrum moniliforme, or necklace epidendrum: ſtem round, jointed, ſtreaked, necklace-form, naked, quite ſimple; leaves linear, acute; flowers white; common on walls and in hedges in Japan; paraſitical. Thunberg, in his travels through Japan, obſerved it at Miſima, tied up in bundles, and hung out before a houſe. It can live ſeveral years without water or other nouriſhment, and yet grow and flower all the while.

29. Epidendrum ophioglosſoides, or harts-tongue epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; flowers racemed, pointing one way. Native of America.

30. Epidendrum ruſcifolium, or rough-leafed epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; flowers from the ſinus of the leaf aggregate. Native of the high mountains of Jamaica, on the trunks of old trees; and in the thick woods of Martinico. Cultivated at Kew in 1794.

31. Epidendrum graminifolium, or graſs-leafed epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; flowers from the ſinus of the leaf in pairs. Native of America.

32. Epidendrum Capenſe, or Cape epidendrum: ſcape naked; leaves imbricate in two rows, linear, obtuſe; flowers directed one way; horn very long. Found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg; paraſitical on the trunks of trees.

33. Epidendrum fuſcatum, or brown epidendrum: ſtems ſimple; leaves oval; peduncle terminating, elongated, ſcaly; lip of the nectary five-lobed, the middle lobe minute. This approaches to E. ſecundum; from which it differs in having a column ſhorter than the petals, capitate and purpliſh or browniſh-green flowers, inſtead of violet ones, leaning all one way. Native of Jamaica. Cultivated by the hon. Mrs. Barrington, at Mongewell, in 1791.

34. Epidendrum tripterum, or triangular-fruited epidendrum: leaves from a bulb and from the root ſword-ſhaped; ſtalks radical ſheathed, many flowered; germ three-winged; lip equal to the petals. Native of Jamaica. It flowered in the garden of the hon. Mrs. Barrington, in February, 1793; alſo in Kew garden, about 1791.

35. Epidendrum Barringtonæ, or large-flowered epidendrum: leaves broad lanceolate, nerved, ariſing from a bulb; peduncles radical, moſtly ſingle-flowered, lip fringed; column with a cover; flower-ſtalks three inches high, nearly erect, bearing one flower, rarely two, round, green, ſmooth; clothed with four or more ſheathing alternate ſcales, which are ovate, concave, green with a ruſty-coloured powdery down. This is the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the ſpecies hitherto introduced among us, not only on account of its ſize, but its ſingularity. Neither this nor the preceding occurred to Dr. Swartz, who inveſtigated the iſland of Jamaica with no leſs ardour than accuracy. It is to be hoped, therefore, that more new ſpecies may hereafter be diſcovered there. Native of Jamaica. It flowered in April, 1791, in the collection of the hon. Mrs. Barrington; and in Chelſea garden the year following.

36. Epidendrum claviculatum, or claſping epidendrum: ſtem climbing, round, branching; leaves ſeſſile, half-ſtem-claſping, acute, concave, recurved, rigid. This plant hangs down from the branches of trees, and creeps up others to forty feet high. Stem jointed at the diſtance of about five inches, and at every joint fibres three or four inches long, catching hold by their broad viſcid end of any part of a tree they come near; it is about three quarters of an inch in diameter, very ſmooth, round and deep green, ſolid, juicy, and ſometimes branched: here and there, oppoſite to the tendril, comes out a thin membranaceous leaf, from a broad beginning ending in a point. Native of Jamaica and Hiſpaniola.

37. Epidendrum ramoſum, or branching epidendrum: ſtem very branching, ſuffruteſcent; leaves linear, emarginate; racemes terminating, compreſſed; plant a foot and an half high, leafy, paraſitical; flowers ſmall, inelegant, greeniſh. Native of Martinico and Jamaica.

38. Epidendrum nutans, or nodding epidendrum: ſtem ſimple; leaves ovate-lanceolate, nerveleſs; ſtem claſping; ſpike terminating, nodding, lip of the nectary three-lobed, the middle lobe three-toothed. Native of Jamaica. Cultivated at Kew, in 1794.

39. Epidendrum umbellatum, or umbelled epidendrum: ſtem ſimple; leaves ovate, emarginate; ſtem-claſping, veinleſs; flowers terminating, umbelled. Common in the vaſt woods of Martinico, and in Jamaica.

40. Epidendrum anceps, or double epidendrum: leaves cordate lanceolate; ſtem-claſping, horizontal; raceme terminating, compreſſed, ancipital; flowers diſtich, larger than the ſpathes; lip entire; cordate ovate, acute. Native of woods in Martinico and Jamaica.

41. Epidendrum rigidum, or ſtiff epidendrum: leaves oblong, obtuſe, ſheathing; raceme terminating, compreſſed, ancipital; flowers diſtich, larger than the ſpathes; lip entire; cordate ovate, acute. Native of woods in Martinico and Jamaica.

42. Epidendrum diffuſum, or diffuſed epidendrum: leaves oblong; ſtem claſping; ſtem ancipital; panicle terminating, very much branched, diffuſed; lip entire, acuminate. 43. Epidendrum montanum, or mountain epidendrum: leaves lanceolate, flat, recurved, ſpreading, ſubmembranaceous; raceme terminating, ſimple; flowers pointing one way; lip trifid. 44. Epidendrum ſerrulatum, or ſerrated epidendrum: ſtems aggregate, ſubdiphyllous; leaves lanceolate, keeled, ſerrulate; raceme terminating; flowers diſtich. 45. Epidendrum teretifolium, or long-leaved epidendrum: leaves ſemicylindric; ſtem one flowered; lip three-ſided at the tip. Natives of Jamaica. Of theſe and others we lament that we have not deſcriptions from the accurate hand of Swartz.

46. Epidendrum globoſum, or globular epidendrum: leaves cylindric, channelled; flowers terminating, ſubſolitary; lip ovate, acute, capſulas globular. Native of the woods of Martinico and Jamaica.

47. Epidendrum ſertularioides, or clover epidendrum: ſtem filiform, creeping, jointed; leaves lanceolate; peduncles one-flowered from radical ſheaths. 48. Epidendrum teſtæfolium, or ſhell-leaved epidendrum: ſtem creeping; leaves incumbent, elliptic, concavo-convex, keeled; flowers ſeſſile under the leaves. Natives of Jamaica.

49. Epidendrum undulatum, or waved epidendrum: leaves elliptic, acute, ſcape ſarmentoſe, very much branched; petals ovate, clawed obtuſe; lip dilated, emarginate, waved. Paraſitical, and the largeſt of its ſort; roots large; leaves many, long, narrow, ſmooth, dark green, ſomewhat like thoſe of our common white lily; ſtalk round, tough, brown crooked, ſix feet high, with joints at every eight or nine inches diſtance, where are branches ſtanding ſtraight out, with ſeveral flowers on peduncles an inch long. Jacquin refers Sloane's plant here deſcribed, to his *altiſſimum*. Swartz thinks that the *carthagenſe* of Jacquin may poſſibly be the ſame with his *undulatum*. Jacquin's plant is a native of Carthagena, in thick woods; that of Swartz, Sloane, and Browne, of Jamaica.

50. Epidendrum variegatum, or variegated epidendrum: leaves lanceolate, keeled, channelled; cartilaginous ſerrate on the edge; ſheaths imbricate; ſcapes ſheathing, with a ſimple raceme, lip eruciate, two lobed. Native of the woods in Jamaica and Hiſpaniola.

51. Epidendrum utricularioides, or bagpipe epidendrum:

drum: leaves lanceolate, marked with lines, flat, ſcape panicled; lip large, heart-ſhaped, horn very ſhort. Native of Jamaica and Hiſpaniola.

52. Epidendrum triquetrum, or three-ſided epidendrum: leaves three-ſided, cultrate, compreſſed at the tip, lanceolate, acute; ſcape ſimple; lip heart-ſhaped, ovate; ſides emarginate. 53. Epidendrum ſeſſile, or ſeſſile epidendrum: leaves compreſſed at the baſe, broader at top, lanceolate linear, obtuſe, veinleſs; peduncles radical, very ſhort, one-flowered. 54. Epidendrum flabelliforme, or fan-ſhaped epidendrum: leaves compreſſed at the baſe, dilated at top, ovate laneeolate, acute, flat, nerved; peduncles one-flowered, elongated. 55. Epidendrum ſubulatum, or awl-ſhaped epidendrum: leaves awl ſhaped, grooved; peduncles ſheathed; radical, many flowered. Natives of Jamaica.

56. Epidendrum ſatyrioides, or rag-wort epidendrum: leaves ſubulate eylindric; ſcape few flowered; eorollas ventrieoſe at the baſe in front. Native of Hiſpaniola.

57. Epidendrum tribuloides, or thiſtle epidendrum: leaves pedicelled, lanceolate, obtuſe, emarginate: peduncles very ſhort, capſules globoſe, echinate. 58. Epidendrum corniculatum, or horned epidendrum: leaves pedicelled, wedge ſhaped, oblong; peduncles radical, one-flowered; corollas acuminate, curved. 59. Epidendrum lanceola, or lanceolate epidendrum: leaves pedicelled, lanceolate, acute; peduncles from radical ſheaths, two-flowered. 60. Epidendrum anguſtifolium, or narrow-leaved epidendrum: leaf linear, growing upon the bulb; ſcape panicled. 61. Epidendrum palmifolium, or palm-leaved epidendrum: leaves broad lanceolate, nerved, membranaceous, growing on the bulb; peduncles radical, ſheathed, many flowered, nectary boat-ſhaped, entire, reflex. Natives of Jamaica. Of all theſe we have no deſcription.

62. Epidendrum altiſſimum, or tall epidendrum: leaves laneeolate, growing on the bulbs; ſcape very much branehed, ſarmentoſe; petals oblong, lanceolate, acute; lip obcordate, ſhorter than the petals. This is an elegant paraſitical plant. Leaves acute, enſiform-oblong, veinleſs, ſhining, quite entire, thickiſh, an inch wide, and half a foot long, keeled at the baſe, in other parts flat, each ſpringing from a joint, or an ovate, compreſſed, ſmooth tuber, ſometimes as big as a gooſe's egg, which is placed on the baſe of another root-leaf or two, like the others. Flowers without ſcent, yellow with brown ſpots, numerous. Native of the woods of Martinico; eultivated at Kew in 1794. Jacquin mentions another, which he names E. violaceum, from its beautiful violet-coloured flowers. He found it on a very tall arboreous cereus, and had not an opportunity of examining it particularly; it appeared to him to have the habit of the ſpeeies thus deſcribed.

63. Epidendrum fragans, or ſweet epidendrum: leaf broad-lanceolate, nerveleſs, growing on the bulb; ſcape many-flowered, abbreviated; lip heart-ſhaped. Native of Jamaica. Introduced here in 1786, by Hinton Eaſt, eſq. It flowers in October.

64. Epidendrum ſanguineum, or bloody epidendrum: leaves in pairs, oblong, growing on the bulb; ſcape many-flowered, ſubflexuoſe; lip roundiſh, waved, emarginate; horn adnate. This has many white thick fibres like thoſe of leeks, or the tendrils of ivy, taking firm hold of the bark of trees, and matted together; theſe ſend up one thick greeniſh, roundiſh, compreſſed, bulbous or tuberous leaf, of an inch diameter, covered with ſome brown withered filaments. From the top of this come two ſmooth ſtriated hollow hard pale green leaves, three inches long and one inch broad, between which ſprings out a naked brown jointed round ſmooth ſtalk, about a foot high, near the top of which ſtand ſeveral long reddiſh purple flowers, very beautiful. Native of Jamaica, on the ebonies and other trees in the ſavanna-woods plentifully: cultivated at Kew in 1794.

65. Epidendrum labiatum, or lipped epidendrum: leaves radical, oblong, middle bulb ſolitary, one-leafed; ſcapes few-flowered; lip oblong, with a fleſhy corpuſcle growing to it at top. Natives of Hiſpaniola.

66. Epidendrum polybulbon, or many-bulbed epidendrum: ſtem creeping; bulb bearing; bulbs two-leaved, one-flowered; flower peduneled; lip heart-ſhaped. 67. Epidendrum proliferum, or proliferous epidendrum: cauleſcent, leaves diſtieh, ſubimbricate ovate; bulbs from the ſheaths of the leaves two-leaved; flowers axillary, ſeſſile. 68. Epidendrum veſtitum, or clothed epidendrum: ſtem leafleſs, imbricate all round with ſheaths, roundiſh; bulb-bearing; bulbs growing on the leaf; flowers erowded from the ſheaths of the ſtem. 69. Epidendrum vomiforme, or Jamaiea epidendrum: cauleſcent; leaves growing on the bulbs, ovate-aeuminate, convex, channelled, three-ſided beneath; ſcapes from the boſom of the leaves. Natives of Jamaica.

70. Epidendrum echinocarpon, or priekly epidendrum: ſtem compreſſed, decumbent, one-flowered; leaves imbricate all round, diſtich, ovate, capſules muricate. Native of Guiana, on the trunks of old trees, which are ſometimes quite covered with it.

71. Epidendrum trichocarpon, or maiden-hair epidendrum: ſtem compreſſed, round, rooting, leaves imbricate all round, diſtieh, linear, capſules tomenteſe. 72. Epidendrum glaucum, or blue epidendrum: ſtem compreſſed, almoſt upright, many-flowered; leaves imbricate all round, diſtich, broad-lanceolate, very ſmooth, glaucous beneath; capſules naked. 73. Epidendrum graminoides, or graſſy epidendrum: ſtem erect, compreſſed, many-flowered; leaves imbricate all round, diſtich, remote, linear; peduncles longer. 74. Epidendrum micranthum, or ſmall-leaved epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf broad-lanceolate; raceme very long, filiform; flowers pointing one way, roundiſh, ſix-cornered. Natives of Jamaiea.

75. Epidendrum trigoniflorum, or three-ſided epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf oblong lanceolate; raceme the length of the leaves; flowers moſtly pointing one way, three-cornered. This little paraſitical plant is only about four inches high. Roots fibrous, whitiſh, numerous; flowers ſmall, directed all to the ſame ſide, without ſcent, on ſhort peduncles, of a dirty yellow colour. Native of the mountain woods in Martinico and Jamaica. According to Swartz, Jacquin's *ophioglo ſſoides* is not that of Linnæus, but this ſpecies.

76. Epidendrum racemiflorum, or raceme-flowered epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed, leaf ovate, raceme longer than the leaves; flowers pointing one way; inner petals ovate. Natives of Jamaica.

77. Epidendrum alpeſtre, or Hiſpaniola epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed, leaf ovate-lanceolate; racemes looſe; keels of the capſules muricate. Native of Hiſpaniola.

78. Epidendrum laxum, or ſupple epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf oblong; raceme the length of the leaves; inner petals awl-ſhaped; lip ovate; capſules naked. 79. Epidendrum ovale, or oval epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf ovate, acuminate; raceme preſſed cloſe; many-flowered; petals roundiſh; the inner ones remote in front at the baſe, capſules pedicelled. 80. Epidendrum pulchellum, or red epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf roundiſh, acute; raceme looſe; few-flowered; petals acuminate, ciliate, the inner one croſſed at the tip. 81. Epidendrum tridentatum, or three-toothed epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf ovate-acute; three-toothed at the tip; raceme many-flowered; flowers three-ſided, acuminate; petals of the nectary erect, bowed inwards. 82. Epidendrum cochlearifolium, or ſpiral-leafed epidendrum: ſtem one-leafed; leaf orbiculate, concavo-convex; raceme few-flowered. 83. Epidendrum funale, or corded epidendrum: leafleſs, filiform, rooting; peduncle two-flowered; lip two-lobed; horn very long, awl-ſhaped. Natives of Jamaica. 84. Epidendrum filiforme, or filiform epidendrum: leafleſs; filiform; rooting; peduncles ſubtriflorous; lip ovate; horn very ſhort, headed at the tip. Native of Hiſpaniola. Of all theſe ſpecies, from 36 to 84, we expect

pect deſcriptions from the accurate hand of Dr. Swartz, the firſt diſcoverer of them.

85. Epidendrum concretum, or concrete epidendrum: leaves radical, lanceolate, acute; nectary concrete with the petals; paraſitical, a foot high. Native of Martinico.

86. Epidendrum cebolleta, or bulbous epidendrum: leaf radical ſingle, awl-ſhaped; knot rooted; raceme compound. Leaf round, acute, ſlightly grooved within, ſmooth, fleſhy, at bottom a finger in thickneſs, in length from one to two feet, but ſometimes four feet, ending at the baſe in a knot or roundiſh tubercle, permanent after the leaf is decayed. The natives call it *cebolletas*, (cibouls or little bulbs,) and make uſe of the tubercles triturated with ſalt in violent contuſions, fractures, &c. The whole plant is void of ſmell. Native of Carthagena in woods, eſpecially on the coaſt.

87. Epidendrum ſpathulatum, or ſheathed epidendrum: leaves bifarious, alternate, approximating; præmorſe, with a doubled tip, coriaceous, ſcarcely a foot long. 88. Epidendrum variegatum, or varied epidendrum: leaves alternate, ſpreading, ſheathing, ovate acute, three-nerved, waved, ſmooth, variegated. Swartz has given the ſame name to an American ſpecies: ſee No. 50. 89. Epidendrum calceolariæ, or ſhoe epidendrum: leaves bifarious, alternate, remote, ſpreading very much, awl-ſhaped, thick, ſmooth. 90. Epidendrum hexandrum, or ſix-parted epidendrum: leaves bifarious, alternate, ſpreading, a little ſeſſile, ending in ſheaths, ſomewhat remote, lanceolate, emarginate with a point, rigid. 91. Epidendrum ophrydis, or eye-brow epidendrum: leaves alternate, ſheathing, from erect ſpreading, ovate, acute, quite entire, nerved, ſmooth; a little bulbed on the ſurface; membranaceous; ſhorter than the ſcape; ending in tubular, keeled, ſmooth ſheaths. 92. Epidendrum ſupplex, or proſtrate epidendrum: leaves crowded, ſword-ſhaped, ſheathing, compreſſed, quite entire, acute, ſmooth, fleſhy. 93. Epidendrum orchideum, or olive epidendrum: leaves bifarious, alternate, ſeſſile, ſpreading, lanceolate, quite entire, acute, ſmooth, fleſhy, rigid. 94. Epidendrum puſillum, or dwarf epidendrum: ſhoots in bundles; appreſſed; a ſpan long; racemes ſolitary, ſimple, upright, compreſſed, naked at bottom, toothletted towards the tip, ſmooth. 95. Epidendrum complanatum, or flat epidendrum: leaves alternate, ſeſſile, ſpreading, linear-moon-ſhaped, retuſe, ſmooth; upper ſurface concave, lower keeled; fleſhy. 96. Epidendrum clavatum, or clubbed epidendrum: leaves alternate, ſeſſile, ſpreading, a little linear-club-ſhaped, with two unequal teeth at the end, ſmooth, flat, having a large nerve, depreſſed above, permanent beneath. 97. Epidendrum ſubulatum, or ſubulate epidendrum: leaves alternate, erect, ſeſſile, awl-ſhaped, cylindric, ſmooth, acute; ſheaths obtuſe, margined, ſmooth, with minute dark-purple dots, ſhort. Swartz gave the ſame name to No. 55. 98. Epidendrum nudum, or naked epidendrum: ſtem none; peduncles ſimple, one-flowered, with two or three ſmooth membranaceous tubular ſheaths, inveſting the younger peduncles with an oblique mouth, caducous. 99. Epidendrum tomentoſum, or rugged epidendrum: leaves from the bulbs uſually four, ſeldom two or three, alternate, almoſt erect, bifarious at the baſe, half-ſheathing the bulb, oblong, quite entire, acute, concave, recurved at the tip, ſmooth, eight-nerved, fleſhy. 100. Epidendrum bidentatum, or two-toothed epidendrum: leaves ſheathing each other, three or four, ſeldom five, ſword-ſhaped, bifarious, ſeſſile, quite entire, with two ſharp toothlets at the tip, ſmooth on both ſides, keeled at the back. 101. Epidendrum lycopodioides, or lycopodon epidendrum: ſtems crowded at the roots, pendulous, ſimple, compreſſed; leaves alternate, bifarious, ſheathing one another at the baſe, preſſed cloſe above the ſheaths, lanceolate, acute, a little margined, ſmooth, fleſhy. 102. Epidendrum longiflorum, or long-flowered epidendrum: leaves growing to the bulbs, ſolitary, ſubpetioled, erect, lanceolate-retuſe, margin quite entire, recurved, ſmooth, fleſhy, rigid, brittle. 103. Epidendrum flabellum, or fan epidendrum: leaves ſolitary, one from each bulb, erect, petioled, lanceolate oblong, quite entire, emarginate, a little recurved, obſcurely nerved, ſmooth, fleſhy, rigid. 104. Epidendrum ſaaroniçum: leaves alternate, ſubbifarious, ſeſſile, ſpreading, lanceolate, flattiſh, above even, ſtreaked ſlightly, and having five more evident nerves, beneath ſmooth, with a ſmall groove along the midrib, but no ſtreaks, emarginate, fleſhy, rigid. 105. Epidendrum plantaginifolium, or plantain-leaved epidendrum: leaves bifarious, ſheathing each other, erect, linear-three-ſided, ſlightly channelled, ſharpiſh, ſmooth, fleſhy, narrow at the baſe next the ſheaths. 106. Epidendrum ſeſſile, or ſeſſile epidendrum: leaves ſcattered from ſeſſile bulbs, ſpreading, ſubpetioled, retuſe, above ſmooth, a little channelled, beneath convex, fleſhy. 107. Epidendrum liliifolium, or lily-leaved epidendrum: leaves from the bulbs ſubpetioled, erect at the baſe, more ſpreading at the tip, linear lanceolate, ſharpiſh, ſmooth, keeled at the back, membranaceous, ſcarcely rigid. 108. Epidendrum calceolariæ terreſtre, or earth epidendrum: leaves ſpreading, bifarious, ſeſſile, ending in ſheaths, oblong-lanceolate, quite entire, ſlightly and obliquely emarginate, above even, ſhining, beneath ſmooth, with from nine to fourteen nerves, rigid, the lower ones ſhort, broader, the upper longer, and ſcarcely an inch broad. 109. Epidendrum flos aeris, or doubtful epidendrum: leaves from bulbs, ovate oblong, acute, flat, fleſhy. This having the name of flos aeris with a note of interrogation, is ſuſpected to be the ſame with No. 2. Theſe twenty-three ſpecies are natives of the Eaſt-Indies, where they were diſcovered by Koenig, and are deſcribed by him at great length, as may be ſeen in the ſixth faſciculus of Retzius's obſervations. Moſt of the ſpecies are new ones, not mentioned by any other author. A few of them, however, are probably deſcribed and figured by Rumphius. Neither Koenig nor Retzius have given any diagnoſes or ſpecific characters.

110. Epidendrum triſte, or ſad epidendrum: leaves cylindric, empty, ſheaths fiſtuloſe; peduncles oppoſite to the leaves, corymbed, perforating the ſheath; lip of the nectary entire, ſpatulate-heart-ſhaped. 111. Epidendrum criſpatum, or criſped epidendrum: leaves cauline, round, filiform, ſubincurved, empty, ſeſſile; raceme quite ſimple; lip of the nectary with the middle ſegment revolute, waved, crenate. 112. Epidendrum equitans, or equitant epidendrum: leaves equitant, enſiform-compreſſed, keeled, acuminate; ſcape naked, raceme ſpiked; nodding, filiform. 113. Epidendrum myoſurus, or mouſe-ear epidendrum: leaves ſheathing at the baſe, obliquely divaricate, linear, obtuſe, channelled; ſcape naked; raceme ſpiked, nodding, filiform. 114. Epidendrum biflorum, or two-flowered epidendrum: leaves diſtich, linear-lanceolate, acute; peduncles two-flowered, ſolitary, perforating the ſheaths of the leaves; lip of the nectary trifid, acuminate. 115. Epidendrum autumnale, or autumnal epidendrum: leaves cauline, lanceolate, nerved, crowded, ſheathing, peduncles terminating, ſcaly, panicled, lip of the nectary erect, retuſe. 116. Epidendrum faſciola, or banded epidendrum: leaves rooting, paraſitical, bundled, linear, waved; ſcapes ſeveral; racemed; lip of the nectary flipper-ſhaped, with a ſpur. 117. Epidendrum umbellatum, or umbelled epidendrum: runners creeping; leaves oval, fleſhy, petioled; petioles fixed into ovate angular-keeled apophyſes, ſcape rooted, umbel ſimple, one-ſided, loweſt petals elongated. 118. Epidendrum reſupinatum, or inverted epidendrum: leaves cauline, petioled, ovate, acuminate, quite entire, plaited, keeled, five-nerved; raceme ſimple, ſpiked; flowers inverted; lower lip of the nectary toothed. 119. Epidendrum clypeolum, or ſhielded epidendrum: leaf radical, roundiſh, cordate, cowled at the baſe, reflex and ſharp at the tip, ſcape almoſt erect, racemed; lower lip of the nectary orbiculate, emarginate, very large. Theſe are all natives of the newly-diſcovered iſlands in the South Seas. They are all ſuppoſed to be new, except No. 118, which is figured in Hortus Malabaricus. Forſter, in his appendix to his Florula

Auſtralis, mentions another ſpecies to be found in the Society iſles, to which he gives the name of *diſtichum*; and a ſecond, to which he does not give any trivial name. We have to lament that we have hitherto no deſcriptions of theſe ſpecies.

120. Epidendrum nervoſum, or nerved epidendrum: ſcape angular; leaves ovate, nerved; lip entire, reflex. Native of Japan between Oſacca and Jedo: flowering in May and June.

121. Epidendrum ſtriatum, or ſtriated epidendrum: ſcape angular, ſmooth, leaves ſword-ſhaped, nerved, petals lanceolate, lip oblong, flat. Leaves radical, four or five, ſheathing, entire, ſmooth, unequal, an inch wide, a ſpan long. Native of Japan, flowering in June. Though this be Limodorum ſtriatum of the Flora Japonica, yet it is diſtinct from the plant of the ſame name in Kæmpf. ic. ſel. t. 2. which is a very beautiful paraſite, found on trees among the Circar mountains; it flowers during the wet ſeaſon.

122. Epidendrum teſſelatum, or teſſelated epidendrum.

123. Epidendrum præmorſum, or truncated epidendrum.

124. Epidendrum pendulum, or pendulous epidendrum. Theſe three inhabit the ſame places as No. 121.

125. Epidendrum vanda, or Indian epidendrum. Added by ſir W. Jones. This lively lovely plant attaches itſelf chiefly to the higheſt Amras and Bilvas (the Mangifera and Crataeva of *Linn.*); but it is an air plant, and lives (ſays the preſident) in a pot without earth or water: its leaves are excavated upwards, to catch and retain dew.

Propagation and Culture. Since Miller's time numerous ſpecies of this fine and very ſingular genus have been introduced into our gardens, and ſome of them cultivated with ſucceſs by the ſuperior ſkill of modern practice, which deſpairs not of rearing and preſerving any plants where expence is not regarded. It requires, however, great ſkill and attention to overcome the united difficulties which attend the cultivation of plants which are at the ſame time of the Orchis tribe and paraſitical. Dr. Smith ſays, we have ſcarcely ſeen any one ſpecies of this genus, except in a dry ſtate, before the year 1787, when E. cochleatum flowered for the firſt time in the ſtove, at Kew; nor was it till October, 1788, that E. fragrans of Swartz exhibited its fragrant and elegant bloom in the ſame rich collection. At preſent ſeveral ſpecies are to be ſeen flowering in ſpring or autumn. They are all cultivated in the ſtove, with very great heat; being moſtly paraſitical, they flouriſh beſt with fragments of half-rotten bark at their roots. They may be increaſed by parting their roots, or what are commonly called offſets, of which they generally have plenty. See LYCOPERDON.

EPIDER'MIS, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and δερμα, the ſkin.] The ſcarf-ſkin, or cuticle, which lies upon and covers the true ſkin.—See ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 586.

EPIDID'YMIS, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and διδυμος, a teſticle.] That body on the upper part of the teſticles, formed from a continuation of the tubes which conſtitute the teſticles.—See ANATOMY, p. 618.

EPI'DIUM, one of the weſtern iſles of Scotland, or the Mull of Cantyre. *Ptolemy.*

EPID'OSIS, *ſ.* [from επιδιδωμι, Gr.] The medical term for a preternatural enlargement of any part of the body.

EPIDO'TÆ, certain deities who preſided over the birth of children. They were worſhipped by the Lacedæmonians, and chiefly invoked by thoſe who were perſecuted by the ghoſts of the dead, &c. *Pauſanias.*

E'PIEZ, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Beaugency: twelve miles weſt of Orleans.

EPIGÆ'A, *ſ.* [επιγαια, Gr. lying or creeping on the ground.] In botany, a genus of the claſs decandria, order monogynia, natural order bicornes. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium double, approximated, permanent: perianthium-exterior three-leaved; leaflets ovate-lanceolate, acuminate; the exterior large: perianthium-interior five-parted, upright, a little longer than the exterior; leaflets lanceolate, acuminate. Corolla: one-petalled, ſalver-form; tube cylindric, as long as the calyx or longer, hirſute within; border ſpreading, five-parted; lobes ovate-oblong. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, length of the tube, affixed to the baſe of the corolla; antheræ oblong, ſharp. Piſtillum: germ globoſe, villoſe; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma obtuſe, ſubquinquefid. Pericarpium: capſule ſubgloboſe, depreſſed, five-cornered, five-celled, five-valved. Seeds: very many, roundiſh; receptacle large, five-parted.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx, outer three-leaved; inner five-parted; corolla, ſalver-form; capſule, five-celled.

Species. 1. Epigæa repens, creeping epigæa, or trailing arbutus: leaves cordate-ovate, entire, flat, ſharp; corollas cylindric. It is a low plant, with a trailing ſhrubby ſtalk, which puts out roots at the joints, and when in a proper ſoil and ſituation, multiplies very faſt; the ſtalks are garniſhed with oblong rough leaves which are waved on their edges; the flowers are produced at the end of theſe branches in looſe bunches; they are white, and divided at the top into five acute ſegments, which ſpread open in form of a ſtar. It flowers in July, but does not produce fruit in England. Native of Virginia and Canada.

2. Epigæa cordifolia, or heart-leaved epigæa: leaves heart-ſhaped, roundiſh, ſerrate, convex, hiſpid, rigid, corollas ovate. Native of Guadaloupe.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt ſpecies is a plant eaſily propagated by its trailing ſtalks, which put out roots at the joints, may be cut off from the old plant and placed in a ſhady ſituation and a moiſt ſoil: the beſt time for this is in autumn, that the plants may be well rooted before the ſpring. If the winter ſhould prove very ſevere, it will be proper to lay a few dried leaves, or ſome ſuch light covering, over them, which will prevent their being injured by froſt; and after they are well rooted, they will require no farther care but to keep them clean from weeds.

EPIGÆ'UM, *ſ.* [επιγαιον, Gr.] The part of a circle in which a planet moves, which is neareſt to the earth, oppoſed to the apogæum.

EPIGAS'TRIC, *adj.* [*epigaſtricus*, Lat. επιγαστριον, Gr. the epigaſtrium.] Belonging to the epigaſtrium.

EPIG'ASTRIUM, [from επι upon, and γαστηρ, Gr. the belly.] The upper fore-part of the belly, reaching from the pit of the ſtomach, nearly to the navel. See ANATOMY.

EPIGEI'OS, *ſ.* in botany. See ARUNDO.

EPIGENNE'MA, *ſ.* [from επιγινομαι, Gr. to generate upon.] With phyſicians, a ſymptom ſupervening upon another ſymptom. Any thing growing upon another, as a fur upon the tongue.

EPIGLOT'TIS, *ſ.* in botany. See ASTRAGALUS.

EPIGLOT'TIS, [from επι, upon, and γλωττις, Gr. the aperture of the larynx.] The leaf-like cartilage which covers the glottis whilſt we ſwallow, to prevent any thing from falling into it. See ANATOMY.

EPIGLOT'TUM, *ſ.* [from επιγλωττις, Gr. the epiglottis, which it reſembles in ſhape.] In ſurgery, an inſtrument for elevating the eye-lids.

EPIGLU'TIS, *ſ.* in anatomy. That part of the thigh which is joined to the hip.

EPIG'ONI, the ſons and deſcendants of the Grecian heroes who were killed in the firſt Theban war. The war of the Epigoni is famous in ancient hiſtory. It was undertaken ten years after the firſt. The ſons of thoſe who had periſhed in the firſt war, reſolved to avenge the death of their fathers, and marched againſt Thebes, under the command of Therſander; or, according to others, of Alcmæon the ſon of Amphiaraus. The Argives were aſſiſted by the Corinthians, the people of Meſſenia, Arcadia, and Megara. The Thebans had engaged all their neighbours in their quarrel, as in one common cauſe, and the two hoſtile armies met and engaged on the banks of the Gliſſas. The fight was obſtinate and bloody, but victory

EPHEMERA, EPIDENDRUM, AND ERODIUS.

J. Pass sculp.

The Epidendrum tessellatum; three Species of Day-fly, & the small Erodius from the East-Indies.

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victory declared for the Epigoni, and some of the Thebans fled to Illyricum with Leodamas their general, while others retired into Thebes, where they were soon besieged, and forced to surrender. In this war Ægialeus alone was killed, and his father Adrastus was the only person who escaped alive in the first war. This whole war, as Pausanias observes, was written in verse; and Callinus, who quotes some of the verses, ascribes them to Homer, which opinion has been adopted by many writers. For my part, continues the geographer, I own that next to the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, I have never seen a finer poem. *Apollodorus.* This name has been applied to the sons of those Macedonian veterans, who, in the age of Alexander, formed connections with the women of Asia.

EPIGO'NATIS, *s.* [Gr.] The pan of the knee.

E'PIGRAM, *s.* [*epigramma*, Lat.] A short poem terminating in a point.—A college of witcrackers cannot flout me out of my humour: do't thou think I care for a satire or an *epigram? Shakespeare.*

I writ
An *epigram* that boasts more truth than wit. *Gay.*

EPIGRAMMAT'IC, or EPIGRAMMATICAL, *adj.* [*epigrammaticus*, Lat.] Dealing in epigrams; writing epigrams.—Our good *epigrammatical* poet, old Godfrey of Winchester, thinketh no ominous forespeaking to lie in names. *Camden.*—Suitable to epigrams; belonging to epigrams.—He is every where above conceits of *epigrammatick* wit and gross hyperboles: he maintains majesty in the midst of plainness; he shines, but glares not; and is stately, without ambition. *Addison.*

EPIGRAM'MATIST, *s.* One who writes or deals in epigrams.—Such a customer the *epigrammatist* Martial meets withall, one who, after he had walked through the fairest street twice or thrice, cheapening jewels, plate, rich hangings, came away with a wooden dish. *Peachum.*

EP'IGRAPH, *s.* [from επι, upon, and γραφη, Gr. writing.] An inscription on a building, pointing out the time when, the persons by whom, the uses, &c. for which it was erected.

EPIGRY'PHUS, *s.* [from επι, and γρυψ, Gr. a hawk.] Having a nose like the beak of a hawk, commonly called a Roman nose. This was the distinguishing characteristic of the Egyptian god Osiris. See EGYPT, in this volume.

EPI'LA, a town of Spain, in the province of Aragon, on the Xiloca: seventeen miles west of Saragossa.

EPILAMP'SIS, *s.* [from επιλαμπω, Gr. to shine.] The sparkling and shining lights which seem to appear before the eyes of epileptic persons.

EP'ILEPSY, *s.* [from επιλαμβανω, Gr. to seize upon.] A convulsion, or convulsive motion of the whole body, or some of its parts, with a loss of sense. A convulsive motion happens when the blood, or nervous fluid, runs into any part with so great violence, that the mind cannot restrain them. See the article MEDICINE.—Melancholy distempers are deduced from spirits drawn from that cachochymia, the phrenitis from cholerick spirits, and the *epilepsy* from fumes. *Floyer.*

EPILEP'TIC, *adj.* Convulsed; diseased with an epilepsy.—*Epileptick*s ought to breath a pure air, unaffected with any steams, even such as are very fragant. *Arbuthnot.*

EPILEP'TICS, *s.* [*epileptica*, Lat. from επιληψια, Gr. the epilepsy.] Medicines which cure or relieve an epilepsy.

EPILO'BIUM, *s.* [επι λοβου ιον, Gr. "a violet upon a pod;" a rare instance of the name expressing an essential character of the plant.] In botany; the WILLOW-HERB; a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia, natural order of calycanthemæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one leafed, four-parted, superior; divisions oblong, acuminate, coloured, deciduous. Corolla: petals four, roundish, outwardly wider, emarginate, expanding, inserted into the divisions of the calyx. Stamina: filaments eight, subulate, the alternate ones shorter; anthers oval, compressed, obtuse. Pistillum: germ cylindric, extremely long, inferior; style filiform; stigma four-cleft, thick, obtuse, rolled back. Pericarium: capsule extremely long, cylindric, streaked, four-celled, four-valved. Seeds: numerous, oblong, crowned with down; receptacle extremely long, four-cornered, free, flexile, coloured.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-cleft; petals four; capsule, oblong, inferior; seeds, downy.

Species. 1. Stamens bent down. 1. Epilobium angustifolium, or narrow-leaved or rosebay willow-herb: leaves scattered, linear-lanceolate, quite entire, veined, flowers unequal. These plants are hardy perennials, not void of beauty; they are, however, commonly considered only as weeds, and accordingly are seldom cultivated in gardens, except the present species, which has an upright stem, from three to six feet high, branched at top, round, and pubescent; branches alternate; leaves alternate, running slightly down the stem, smooth, the edge minutely and rarely indented, the midrib whitish, the lateral nerves are nearly at right angles with this, and the leaves at their first appearance are rolled in at the edge; flowers purple, showy, growing in a kind of long spike, on purple peduncles, the length of the germ, bending down before the flowers open, but afterwards erect, seldom more than four or five blown together on the same spike. There is a variety of this with white flowers. From the similitude of the leaves to those of willow, this plant obtained the name of willow-herb or French willow. It was formerly much planted in gardens; but, as it overruns all the neighbouring plants by means of its creeping roots, it has generally been cast out: however, in low moist places, or in great shade, this plant will make a good appearance when it is in flower, which will be near a month, if the season be not very hot. It is native of most parts of Europe from Lapland to Italy. In Britain it is not common; on Maizehill, beyond Greenwich, and other places near London, it has probably got out of gardens; but in other places it is undoubtedly wild, as near Alton in Hampshire; in Charlton forest, and several other woods in Sussex, where Mr. Miller found it in great plenty, far from any habitations; about Berkhampstead, in Hertfordshire; in several parts of Yorkshire; and many places in Scotland. The young shoots are said to be eatable, although an infusion of the plant stupifies: the pith, when dried, is boiled, and becoming sweet, is by a proper process made into ale, and this into vinegar by the Kamtschatdales; it is also added to the cow-parsnip, to enrich the spirit that is prepared from that plant; as fodder, goats are said to be extremely fond of it, and cows and sheep to eat it; the down of the seeds mixed with cotton or fur has been manufactured into stockings and other articles of clothing.

2. Epilobium angustissimum, or linear-leaved willow-herb: leaves scattered, linear, obscurely toothletted, veinless; petals equal, quite entire. This species has been confounded with the foregoing. Professor de Saussure says it differs in its woody stem, its very narrow leaves with salient glands on their edges, the much more lively colour of the flower, shorter siliques, and the air entirely different. Haller adds, that the stem is only a foot or eighteen inches in height with a branch from almost every axil; the flowers almost the same with the foregoing, but the leaves totally different. M. Villars says, that the flowers do not come in a spike, like those of the preceding, but terminate the stem, and are fewer in number. It is an alpine plant, but is common low down in the beds of the alpine torrents; as in the Vevaise, and the Grande Eau near Aigle; found also in Provence, Dauphiné, Savoy, &c. and flowers in July and August.

3. Epilobium latifolium, or broad-leaved willow-herb: leaves alternate, lanceolate-ovate; flowers unequal. This differs from the first species in having flowers twice the size; the leaves broader, regularly alternate, not scattered, very smoothly tomentose on both sides. The stem is round, eighteen inches to upwards of two feet in height, and erect. Both this and the first differ from the following species in having unequal corollas with entire petals; the stamens converging at the base to the style; the pistil

bent

bent down; the leaves not oppoſite, and when they firſt break forth rolled back. Native of Denmark, Sileſia, and Siberia.

11. Stamens upright, regular; petals biſid. 4. Epilobium hirſutum, or large-flowered willow-herb: leaves ovate-lanceolate, half-ſtem-claſping hirſute; ſtem branching very much; root creeping. Stem from three to ſix feet high, upright, very much branched, cylindric, ſomewhat quadrangular at bottom, hirſute and purpliſh: with ſoft ſpreading hairs, flatted at the inſertion of the branches; which are like the ſtem, nearly upright, the upper generally ſolitary alternate; flowers, large, ſhowy, purple or fleſh-coloured, ſomewhat bell-ſhaped, and hanging down a little, on peduncles, ſolitary, alternate. Native of moſt parts of Europe, by the ſides of ditches, ponds, lakes and rivers; flowering in July and Auguſt. The leaves, and particularly the top ſhoots when ſlightly bruiſed, have a delicate cool fragance, reſembling ſcalded codlings, whence its name of *codlings and cream*; this fragrance is very ſoon loſt after the plant is gathered. It is alſo called *great hairy codded looſe-ſtrife*. Horſes, ſheep, and goats, eat it; and, if it were found to be an acceptable fodder, it might be cultivated to advantage in wet ſituations. It varies with white flowers, and alſo with variegated leaves, in which ſtate it is ſometimes ſold by the gardeners; but having a creeping root, it is apt to increaſe too much.

5. Epilobium villoſum, or hoary willow-herb: leaves oblong-lanceolate, toothed, pubeſcent; ſtem columnar villoſe. This invariably differs from the foregoing in its corolla, root, and pubeſcence. The corolla is in general not more than one-third of the ſize; the root does not creep; and both ſtem and leaves are covered with numerous ſoft hairs, which give the whole plant a hoary appearance. The plant is alſo much ſmaller, and in general not ſo much branched: the leaves ſeſſile but not decurrent, the ſerratures few and diſtant: the calyx is alſo very different; and the ſegments of the ſtigma are ſcarcely rolled back. It grows in the ſame places, and flowers at the ſame time, with the foregoing.

6. Epilobium montanum, monntain or wood willow-herb: leaves oppoſite, ovate, toothed. The root has, on its upper part, little buds of a light red colour. Stem from one to three feet high, upright, red, cylindric, ſcarce perceptibly downy, ſometimes branched at top, but often ſingle. Native of Europe, in woods and hedges; ſometimes in moiſt meadows, but more frequently in dry gravelly ſoils, in courts, neglected walks, and on walls; on old trees, eſpecially willows. It flowers from June to Auguſt. Mr. Hudſon, marks it as biennial, and indeed it has not the appearance of being perennial, like moſt of the others.—This, like moſt of the reſt, varies with a white corolla, as alſo with three or four leaves at each joint.

7. Epilobium tetragonum, or ſquare-ſtalked willow-herb: leaves lanceolate, toothletted, the bottom ones oppoſite; ſtem four-cornered. One of the moſt ſtriking characters of this is the apparent ſquareneſs of the ſtalk, which ariſes from projecting lines running from the leaves down it: to this we may add the narrowneſs of its leaves; the uncommon length of its pods, and its undivided ſtigma, a character firſt noticed by Ray. The lower leaves are lanceolate, the upper ones narrower, all ſerrate and ſmooth; flowers ſmall, purple. Native of Europe, the Eaſt Indies, China and Cochinchina; with us not uncommon, generally met with in marſhes, and by the ſides of rivulets and ditches; as in the lane from Newington to Hornſey-wood; near Bungay in Suffolk; Alconbury in Huntingdonſhire, &c. flowering in July and Auguſt.

8. Epilobium paluſtre, or marſh willow-herb: leaves oppoſite, lanceolate, quite entire; petals emarginate; ſtem erect. Stem cylindric, upright, ſmooth, or pubeſcent, a foot high; but Villars deſcribes it as being lower than any of the preceding, and only half a foot high; the leaves narrow, almoſt linear, moſtly alternate, obtuſe and wider at the baſe; the flowers ſmall, pale red, emarginate. He ſays, that there are intermediate ſpecimens which ſo bring together this and E. montanum and tetragonum, that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh them; that this, however, is marked by the form of its leaves, the branches being approximating, and by its truncate root full of fibres: he adds, it is clear that this is not Chamænerion paluſtre of Scopoli, becauſe the petals are entire; and he is of opinion that Scopoli has given this name to the ſecond ſpecies. Native of Europe, on marſhes, bogs, and by the ſides of lakes.

9. Epilobium alpinum, or alpine willow-herb: leaves oppoſite, ovate-lanceolate, quite entire, ſiliques ſeſſile, ſtem creeping. This is a creeping plant, flowering early in the ſpring with ſeſſile germs: it is three or four inches, or hardly a ſpan high, decumbent at bottom, then upright, and bears one or two flowers at the top. Native of the mountains of Lapland, Denmark, Swiſſerland, Sileſia, Savoy, Dauphiné, Britain; as on Cheviott hills, near Settle, about Buckbarrow-well, and in many parts of Scotland, by the ſides of rivulets, and in ſandy places.

10. Epilobium fruticoſum, or ſhrubby willow-herb: ſtem ſhrubby very much branched, leaves quite entire, alternate, hirſute. Stem ſtraight, round, ſix feet high, with aſcending branches. This is a native of Cochinchina.

11. Epilobium glabellum, or ſmooth willow-herb: leaves oblong, toothed, obtuſe, the bottom ones oppoſite; ſtem roundiſh, erect. 12. Epilobium rotundifolium, or round-leaved willow-herb: leaves oppoſite, roundiſh, toothletted. Natives of New Zealand.

13. Epilobium parviflorum, or ſmall-flowered willow-herb: leaves oppoſite, lanceolate, ſerrate ſeſſile, both they and the ſtem villoſe. Native of Germany.

14. Epilobium alſinefolium, or chick-weed leaved willow herb: ſtem creeping; leaves ovate, acute, toothed; ſiliques the length of the ſtem. This is very nearly allied to E. alpinum in its ſize, habit, diſpoſition of the leaves, flowers, and ſiliques: their ſtems at bottom decumbent are thence aſcending; they are ſimple, and commonly two or three inches high; the leaves are oppoſite; thoſe of E. alpinum are elliptic, obtuſe, very ſeldom toothed, the upper ones are narrower and alternate; both upper and lower are of a bright green: the leaves of this are wider, oval, ſharp, always toothed, and of a duſky green inclining to black; the flowers are bright red, a little emarginate, middle-ſized; the ſiliques are few, ſmall, at an obtuſe angle in the firſt; ſquare, very long, and ſtraight in the ſecond. They both grow on the ſummits of the higheſt mountains, near the ſnow, where the ſiliques are often as long as the ſtem. It is poſſible that they may be only varieties of E. montanum and tetragonum.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe plants propagate ſpontaneouſly, both by ſeeds and runners; and require to be reſtrained rather than increaſed by the hand of art. They may, however, be admitted to advantage in remote ſhady corners, or on rock-work. They require no culture, except ſuch as is neceſſary to keep them within bounds.

EP'ILOGUE, *ſ.* [*epilogus*, Lat.] The poem or ſpeech uſually delivered at the end of a play.—If it be true that good wine needs no buſh, 'tis true that a good play needs no *epilogue*; yet to good wine they do uſe good buſhes, and good plays prove the better by the help of good *epilogues*. *Shakeſpeare.*

To EPI'LOGUIZE, *v. n.* To ſpeak ſomething by way of epilogue.—The dances ended, the ſpirit *epiloguizes*. *Stage-direction in Milton's Comus.*

EPILOI'MICA, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and λοιμος, Gr. the plague.] Medicines good for the plague.

EPIME'DIUM, *ſ.* [ſo called by Pliny and Dioſcorides, from επι and μηδιον, Gr. being larger than another plant named *medium*: this derivation is very unſatisfactory, but we have not a better to ſubſtitute.] BARRENWORT; in botany, a genus of the claſs tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of corydales, (berberides, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved; leaflets ovate, obtuſe, concave, expanding, ſmall, placed directly

directly (not alternately) below the petals, caducous, (with a ſingle bracte at the baſe of two of them, *J.*) Corolla: petals four, ovate, obtuſe, concave, expanding; nectaries four, cup-form, (ſlipper-form, *J.*) with obtuſe bottoms, of the ſize of the petals, and leaning on them, affixed by the edge of the mouth to the receptacle. Stamina: filaments four, ſubulate, preſſing on the ſtyle; antheræ oblong, erect, two-celled, two-valved, gaping from the baſe towards the tip, with a free diſſepiment. Piſtillum: germ oblong; ſtyle ſhorter than the germ, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma ſimple. Pericarpium: ſilique oblong, acuminate, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds: very many, oblong.—*Eſſential Character.* Nectaries four, cup-form, leaning on the petals; corolla four-petalled; calyx very caducous; fruit a ſilique.

Epimedium alpinum, or alpine barrenwort, a ſingle ſpecies. This plant has a creeping root, from which ariſe many ſtiff ſmooth ſtalks about nine inches high. It is a native of the Alps and Apennines; flowering in April and May, and longer in ſhady places; alſo in Japan. Mr. Miller affirms that he received ſome plants of it, which were found growing naturally in a wood in the north of England: but he was probably miſinformed. "This rare and ſtrange plant, (ſays Gerarde,) was ſent to me from the French king's herbariſt, Robinus, dwelling in Paris, at the ſign of the Black Head, in the ſtreet called *Du Bout du Monde.* I planted it in my garden, but it was dried away with the extreme heat of the ſun, which happened in the year 1590, ſince which time it bringeth ſeed to perfection." Johnſon (Ger. emac.) adds, that it grew in the garden of his friend, Mr. John Milion, in Old-ſtreet, and ſome other gardens about town.

Propagation and Culture. It may be increaſed by the roots, and ſucceeds beſt in the ſhade, where it muſt every year be reduced, otherwiſe it will ſpread its roots, ſo as to interfere with the neighbouring plants. It deſerves a place in gardens, though not ſhowy, for its beauty and ſingularity.

EPIME'NIA, *ſ.* A law term: gifts, expences.

EPIMEN'IDES, an epic poet of Crete, contemporary with Solon. His father's name was Agiaſarchus. He is reckoned one of the ſeven wiſe men, by thoſe who exclude Periander from the number. While he was tending his flocks, he entered into a cave, where he fell aſleep. His ſleep continued for fifty-ſeven years, according to legendary tradition, and when he awoke, he found every object ſo conſiderably altered, that he ſcarcely knew where he was. His brother apprized him of the length of his ſleep to his great aſtoniſhment. It is ſuppoſed that he lived 289 years. After death he was revered as a god, and greatly honoured by the Athenians, whom he had delivered from a plague, and to whom he had given many good and uſeful counſels. He is ſaid to be the firſt who built temples in the Grecian communities. *Strabo.*

EPIME'THEUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a ſon of Japetus and Clymene, one of the Oceanides, who inconſiderately married Pandora, by whom he had Pyrrha, the wife of Deucalion. He had the curioſity to open the box which Pandora had brought with her, and from thence iſſued a train of evils, which from that moment have never ceaſed to afflict the human race. Hope was the only one which remained at the bottom of the box, not having ſufficient time to eſcape, and it is ſhe alone which comforts men under misfortunes. Epimetheus was changed into a monkey by the gods, and ſent into the iſland of Pithecuſa. *Heſiod.*

EPIM'YLIS, *ſ.* [from επι, and μυλη, Gr. the knee.] The patella, or knee-pan.

EP'INAL, a city of France, and capital of the department of the Voſges, on the Moſelle; formerly belonging to the duchy of Lorrain, and taken by the troops of Louis XIV. under the command of mareſchal Crequi, and ſoon after diſmantled: forty-eight poſts and three quarters eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Paris. Lat. 48. 10. N. lon. 24. 7. E. Ferro.

EP'INAY, a town of France: two leagues north of Paris.

EPINE'PHELUS, *ſ.* the Wall-eye; a new genus of fiſhes in Bloch's ſyſtem, the ſpecies of which are included under Holocentrus.

EP'INEU-LE-CHEVREUIL, a town of France, in the department of the Sarte, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Sillé: twelve miles weſt of Le Mans.

EPINEU'L, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Tonnere: one mile and a half north of Tonnere.

EPINI'CION, *ſ.* [Gr.] A triumphal ſong.—A dancing maſk of ſix enters, then the *epinicion* is ſung by two bards. *Stage-direction in Fuimus Troes.*

EPINO'I, a town of France, in the department of the North: ſeven miles ſouth of Lille.

EPIPAC'TIS. See Astrantia, Ophrys, Orchis, Satyrium, and Serapias.

EPIPAS'TUM, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and πασσω, Gr. to ſprinkle.] A medicine reduced to powder, and ſprinkled over the body of a patient, or part affected.

EPIPEDO'METRY, *ſ.* [from επι upon, πους a foot, and μετρον, Gr. a meaſure.] The menſuration of figures that ſtand on the ſame baſe.

EP'IPHAN, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Tula: forty miles eaſt of Tula.

EPIPHA'NEA, anciently a town of Cilicia, near Iſſus, now Surpendkar.—Another town of Syria, on the Euphrates.

EPIPH'ANES, a ſurname given to the Antiochus's, kings of Syria, ſignifying *illuſtrious.*—A ſurname of one of the Ptolemies, the fifth of the houſe of the Lagidæ.

EPIPHA'NIUS, biſhop of Salamis in the iſland of Cyprus, in the fourth century, and in the catholic calendar, dignified with the title of ſaint, was born at Bezanduce, a village in Paleſtine, about the year 320. Many of the particulars which are related by different writers concerning his extraction, his education, and the other circumſtances of his early life, are involved in much obſcurity, and ſome of them are evidently fabulous. From the moſt credible accounts of him it appears, that when he was but very young he went into Egypt, where he became intimate with ſome of the Gnoſtics, by whom he was almoſt perſuaded to embrace their opinions: but he ſoon broke off his connection with them, and became a diſciple of the Egyptian Aſcetics. In the twentieth year of his age, he returned to his native country, and placed himſelf under the diſcipline of Hilarion. After remaining for ſome time under his inſtructions, Epiphanius founded a monaſtery near the village in which he was born, over which he himſelf preſided during the remainder of his life. In 368 he was choſen biſhop of Salamis, afterwards called Conſtantia, the metropolis of the iſland of Cyprus, where he acquired a high reputation for piety and ſanctity of manners, and zealouſly employed himſelf in writing defences of the orthodox doctrines againſt the attacks of contemporary heretics. His zeal, however, was more conſpicuous in his polemical productions, than the accuracy of his judgment, or the ſolidity of his reaſoning; and it was the occaſion of his being involved in many unpleaſant diſputes, which embittered a conſiderable portion of his life. He was unqueſtionably a very pious and religious character; but his mind was unfortunately tinctured by a gloomy ſuperſtition, which led him to conſider the auſtere diſcipline of the cloiſter to be the moſt acceptable ſervice in the ſight of heaven. Hence he was led to practiſe it in all its rigour, after he was advanced to the epiſcopal ſtation, and to fill the countries where his influence extended with monaſtic inſtitutions. He is ſaid to have been ſo humane and charitable, that he expended not only his own private fortune, but the greateſt part of the revenues of his church, and vaſt ſums that were entruſted to his diſpoſal, in relieving the poor and unfortunate. Epiphanius was ſkilled in the Hebrew, Syriac, Egyptian, Greek, and Latin, languages,

whence he was called by St. Jerom πεδιαγλαπτος; and his reading was very extenſive, particularly in eccleſiaſtical antiquities. He was, however, greatly deficient in judgment, and cannot be commended for his ſkill in wielding the weapons of controverſy. Beſides being inaccurate in the numerous tranſcripts from ancient authors now nowhere elſe to be found, of which a conſiderable part of his works conſiſts, he has ſhewn himſelf exceſſively credulous in admitting ſtatements and reports without any enquiry into their evidence; by which means he has betrayed himſelf into a variety of contradictions and abſurdities, which eſſentially affect the value of his labours as works of reference and authority. His ſtyle, far from having any pretenſions to Attic elegance, is mean, harſh, and unpoliſhed, without perſpicuity, and without connection. The works of Epiphanius were firſt printed in Greek at Baſil, by Oporinus, in 1544; ſince which time they have undergone various impreſſions, of which the moſt valuable is that publiſhed at Paris in 1622, in two volumes folio, by the learned Petavius. This edition was afterwards reprinted at Cologne in 1682, in two volumes folio.

EPIPHA'NIUS, ſurnamed THE SCHOLASTIC, an Italian by birth, and an able Greek and Latin ſcholar, flouriſhed about the year 510. He was the friend of the celebrated Caſſiodorus, at whoſe requeſt he tranſlated into the Latin language the eccleſiaſtical hiſtories of Socrates, Sozomen, and Theodoret; which verſion is more to be commended for its fidelity than its elegance, ſince it is marked by numerous barbariſms of the age in which the author wrote. Epiphanius was alſo the author of ſeveral other tranſlations from the Greek into Latin, which are no longer extant. To him Caſſiodorus was indebted for the improvement, at leaſt, of the verſion of the *Codex encyclicus*, or Collection of Synodal Letters of the year 458, addreſſed to the emperor Leo, in defence of the Council of Chalcedon. The beſt edition of that verſion is to be found in Baluzius's New Collection of the Councils, publiſhed at Paris in 1683, folio.

EPIPHA'NIUS, patriarch of Conſtantinople in the ſixth century. He was a ſtrenuous advocate for the orthodox doctrines in oppoſition to the tenets of the Eutychians; and, after his elevation to his high dignity in 520, he procured the condemnation of the latter in a ſynod of biſhops held at Conſtatinople. During his patriarchate, the decrees of the council of Chalcedon were confirmed, and the reconciliation was completed between the churches of Conſtantinople and Rome, after the firſt great ſchiſm which had laſted about thirty-five years. Five letters of his to pope Hormiſdas on the ſubject of the union, are extant in the fourth volume of the Collection of the Latin Councils.

EPIPH'ANY, *ſ.* [*epiphanie*, Fr. *epiphania*, Lat. επιφανεια, of επι, and φαινω, Gr. manifeſtation.] A Chriſtian feſtival, otherwiſe called the *Manifeſtation of Chriſt to the Gentiles*, obſerved on the ſixth of January, in honour of the appearance of the ſtar to the three magi or wiſe men, who came to adore the Meſſiah, and bring him preſents. It is commonly called *Twelfth-day*.

EPIPHONE'MA, *ſ.* [from επιφωνημα, Gr.] An exclamation; a concluſive ſentence not cloſely connected with the words foregoing.—If thoſe preachers who abound in *epiphonemas* would but look about them, they would find one part of their congregation out of countenance, and the other aſleep. *Swift.*

EPIPHLOGIS'MA, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and φλογιζω, Gr. to inflame.] The medical term for the ſhingles.

EPIPH'ORA, *ſ.* [from επιφερω, Gr. to carry forcibly.] With phyſicians, an impetuous flux of humours to the ſurface of the body. It particularly means a flux of tears from the eyes, in conſequence of any diſeaſe of the part.

EPIPHYLLAN'THUS, in botany. See XYLOPHYLLA.

EPIPHYLLOSPER'MOUS, *adj.* [επι, upon, φυλλον, a leaf, σπερμα, Gr. ſeed.] In botany, it is applied to ſuch plants as have their ſeeds growing on the back of the leaves, as the ferns.

EPIPH'YSIS, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and φυω, Gr. to grow.] A ſmall bone annexed to a larger by means of an intervening cartilage. See ANATOMY.

EPI'PLOCE, *ſ.* [from επιπλοκη, Gr.] A figure of rhetoric, by which one aggravation, or ſtriking circumſtance, is added in due gradation to another; as, *He not only ſpared his enemies, but continued them in employment; not only continued, but advanced them.*

EPI'PLOCELE, *ſ.* [from επιπλοον, the omentum, and κηλη, Gr. a tumour or rupture.] A rupture of the omentum.

EPIPLOOM'PHALON, *ſ.* [from επιπλοον, the omentum, and ομφαλος, Gr. the navel.] An umbilical hernia.

EPI'PLOON, *ſ.* [from επιπλεω, Gr. to lie upon.] The omentum or caul, which lies upon the ſurface of the bowels.

EPIPLOSCHEOCE'LE, *ſ.* [from επιπλοον, the omentum, οσχεον the ſcrotum, and κηλη, Gr. a tumour or hernia.] A rupture of the omentum into the ſcrotum.

EPIPO'GIUM, *ſ.* in botany. See SATYRIUM.

EPIP'OLÆ, a diſtrict of Syracuſe, on the north ſide, ſurrounded by a wall by Dionyſius, who, to complete the work expeditiouſly, employed 60,000 men upon it, ſo that in thirty days he finiſhed a wall four miles and three quarters long, and of great height and thickneſs.

EPIPO'LASIS, *ſ.* [from επιπολαζω, Gr. to ſwim on the top.] In medicine, a fluctuation of humours. In chemiſtry, it means the ſettlement of any matter ſublimed, and ſwimming on the top.

EPIPO'MA. *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and πωμα, Gr. a lid.] In ſurgery, an inſtrument to cover the ſhoulder in a luxation.

EPIPORO'MA, *ſ.* [from επιπωροω, Gr. to harden.] An indurated tumour in the joints.

EPIPTYX'IS, *ſ.* [from επιπτυσσω, Gr. to cloſe up.] A ſpaſmodic diſorder of the lips, ſo that they can hardly be opened.

EPI'RE, the ancient *Epirus*, now united with Albania, and included in that country, of which it forms the ſouthern part, extending from Valona to Arta.

EPI'RUS, a country of ancient Greece, bounded on the eaſt by Etolia, on the weſt by the Adriatic, on the north by Theſſaly and Macedon, and on the ſouth by the Ionian ſea. It was anciently governed by its own princes, in which ſtate it made a conſiderable figure. According to Joſephus, it was firſt peopled by Dodanim, the ſon of Javan, and grandſon of Japhet. The people were warlike, but continued in their ſavage ſtate long after their neighbours were civilized; whence the iſlanders uſed to threaten petty offenders with tranſportation to Epirus. The hiſtory of Epirus commences with the reign of Pyrrhus, ſon of Achilles by Deidamia the daughter of Lycomedes, king of Scyros. He is ſaid to have behaved with great bravery at the ſiege of Troy; but with no leſs barbarity. After the city was taken, he is ſaid to have killed old king Priam; to have thrown Aſtyanax, the ſon of Hector and Andromache, headlong from an high tower; and ſacrificed Polyxena, the daughter of Priam, on the tomb of his father. He carried Andromache with him into Epirus, where he ſettled by the advice of the famous ſoothſayer Helenus, one of Priam's ſons, who had ſerved during the Trojan war both under his father and himſelf. The moſt remarkable period of the hiſtory of Epirus is the reign of Pyrrhus II. who made war upon the Romans. He was invited into Italy by the Tarentines; and embarked about 280 years before Chriſt. After having eſcaped many dangers by ſea, he landed in that country, and with great difficulty gained a victory over the Romans; but was afterwards utterly defeated. To retrieve his credit, he undertook an expedition againſt Macedon; where he overthrew Antigonus, and made himſelf maſter of the whole kingdom. He then formed a deſign of ſubduing

during all the other Grecian ſtates; but met with ſuch an obſtinate reſiſtance at Lacedæmon, that he was obliged to drop the enterprize; and was ſoon after killed at the ſiege of Argos by a woman, who from the wall threw a tile upon his head. Deidamia, the grand-daughter of Pyrrhus, was the laſt that ſat on the throne of Epirus. She is ſaid to have been murdered after a ſhort reign; upon which the Epirots formed themſelves into a republic.

Under the new form of government Epirus never made any conſiderable figure, but became dependent on the kingdom of Macedon. The Romans, after conquering king Philip, reſtored the Epirots to their ancient liberty; but they, forgetful of this favour, took up arms in behalf of Perſeus. As a puniſhment for their ingratitude, the Romans gave orders to Paulus Emilius to plunder the cities of Epirus, and level them with the ground. Upwards of ſeventy cities were diſmantled, and the chief men of the country carried to Rome, where moſt of them were condemned to perpetual impriſonment. This terrible blow Epirus never recovered. Upon the diſſolution of the Achæan league, it was made part of the province of Macedon; but when Macedon became a dioceſe, Epirus was again ſeparated from it, and called the province of *Old Epirus*, to diſtinguiſh it from *New Epirus*, another province on the eaſt of it. On this diviſion it fell to the emperors of the eaſt, and continued under them till the taking of Conſtantinople by the Latins, when Michael Angelus, a prince nearly related to the Greek emperor, ſeized on Etolia and Epirus, of which he declared himſelf prince; and was ſucceeded by his brother Theodorus, who took ſeveral towns from the Latins, and ſo far enlarged his dominions, that he aſſumed the title of emperor, and was crowned by Demetrius archbiſhop of Bulgaria. Charles, the laſt prince of this family, dying without lawful iſſue, bequeathed Epirus and Acarnania to his natural ſons, who were driven out by Amurath II. Great part of Epirus was afterwards held by the noble family of the Caſtriots, who ſtyled themſelves princes of Epirus. Upon the death of the famous George Caſtriot, ſurnamed *Scanderbeg*, Epirus fell to the Venetians, from whom it was taken by the Turks; in whoſe hands it ſtill continues, and is now known by the name of *Albania*.

EPIS'COPACY, *ſ.* [from the Latin *epiſcopatus*, which is derived from the Greek επισκοπος.] In its primary ſenſe it means "The office of overlooking or overſeeing:" and thence, as applied by eccleſiaſtical writers, it is uſed to ſignify in a more peculiar manner "The office of a biſhop, who is to overlook and overſee the concerns of the church." The origin of this office is clearly traced back to the days of St. Paul: for that apoſtle left Timothy at Epheſus, and Titus at Crete, for the expreſs purpoſe of exerciſing it. The acts, by which theſe two perſons ſhared a degree of pre-eminence over others in the church, were the appointment of preſbyters and deacons by ordination, and the correction of miſconduct in preſbyters and deacons by reproof. However therefore the Scriptures may want a Greek word to expreſs epiſcopacy, the office, with the powers now deemed epiſcopal, did virtually exiſt in the earlieſt age of Chriſtianity. That it prevailed univerſally, wherever a church was planted, is not ſo clear. But that in the ſecond century this office became more general, with the view of preſerving peace and ſubordination among the preſbyters, is very certain. From that period for ſeveral hundred ſucceſſive years, the church government was epiſcopal; that is, under the direction of biſhops, prieſts, and deacons. Writers on the ſubject of epiſcopacy and preſbytery have been led into error, from not attending to this circumſtance; viz. that every biſhop was neceſſarily a preſbyter, but every preſbyter was not a biſhop. The qualification for epiſcopacy was the being a preſbyter: but it did not follow that becauſe a perſon was a preſbyter he ſhould therefore be a biſhop. The epiſcopacy ſoon became to be conſidered ſo ſuperior to preſbytery, that a diſtinct form of prayer and appropriate ſolemnities were appointed to be uſed, when a preſbyter was advanced to epiſcopacy.

EPIS'COPAL, *adj.* [from *epiſcopus*, Lat.] Belonging to a biſhop.—The plot of diſcipline ſought to erect a popular authority of elders, and to take away *epiſcopal* juriſdiction. *Hooker.*—Veſted in a biſhop.—The apoſtle commands Titus not only to be a pattern of good works himſelf, but to uſe his *epiſcopal* authority in exhorting every rank and order of men. *Rogers.*

EPISCOPA'LIA, *ſ.* Synodals, or other cuſtomary payments from the clergy to their biſhop or dioceſan; which were formerly collected by the rural deans, and by them tranſmitted to the biſhop. Theſe cuſtomary payments have been otherwiſe called *onus epiſcopale*; and were remitted by ſpecial privilege to free churches and chapels of the king's foundation, which were exempt from epiſcopal juriſdiction.

EPISCOPA'LIANS, *ſ.* An appellation given to thoſe who prefer the epiſcopal government and diſcipline to all others. By the teſt act, none but epiſcopalians, or members of the church of England, are qualified to enjoy any office civil or military.

EPIS'COPATE, *ſ.* [*epiſcopatus*, Lat.] A biſhopric; the office and dignity of a biſhop.

EPISCO'PIA, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Baſilicata: nineteen miles ſouth-weſt of Turſi.

EPISCO'PIUS (Simon), a learned Dutch divine of the ſeventeenth century, born at Amſterdam in 1583. After paſſing through a courſe of claſſical education in his native city, he entered upon academic ſtudies at the univerſity of Leyden, where he took his degree of M.A. in 1606. In 1612 he was choſen profeſſor of divinity at Leyden, in the room of Gomarus. To the duties of this office, and the private ſtudies neceſſary to the honourable diſcharge of them, he applied himſelf with the greateſt aſſiduity, and became one of the greateſt ornaments and ableſt defenders of the Arminian ſect. His works, conſiſting of commentaries, theological inſtitutions, controverſial treatiſes, &c. form two volumes in folio; the firſt of which contains ſuch pieces as were publiſhed during the author's life-time, and appeared in 1650, and the ſecond his poſthumous productions, which were firſt given to the public in 1665. They were edited by Stephen Curcellæus, who has prefixed to them an account of the author. A larger Life of him was publiſhed by Philip à Limborch, the ſon of his brother's daughter, written in the Dutch language, of which a Latin verſion appeared at Amſterdam in 1701, 8vo.

EPISPHÆ'RIA, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and σφαιρα, Gr. a ſphere.] The windings of the exterior ſurface of the brain, and veſſels upon it: ſo called from the ſphærical ſhape of the brain.

EP'ISODE, *ſ.* [Gr.] An incidental narrative, or digreſſion in a poem, ſeparable from the main ſubject, yet riſing naturally from it.—The poem hath no other *epiſodes* than ſuch as naturally ariſe from the ſubject. *Addiſon.*

EPISO'DIC, or EPISODICAL, *adj.* Contained in an epiſode; pertaining to an epiſode.—*Epiſodical* ornaments, ſuch as deſcriptions and narrations, were delivered to us from the obſervations of Ariſtotle. *Dryden.*—I diſcover the difference between the *epiſodic* and principal actions, as well as the nature of epiſodes. *Notes on the Odyſſey.*

EPISPAS'TIC, *ſ.* [from επι and σπαω, Gr.] Drawing. Bliſtering; this is now the more frequent, though leſs proper ſenſe.—This matter ought to be ſolicited to the lower parts, by fomentations, bathing, *epiſpaſtics*, and bliſtering. *Arbuthnot.*

EPIS'TASIS, *ſ.* [from επι, and ιστημι, Gr. to ſtay.] A ſuppreſſion or retention of any of the excretions. Alſo the ſubſtance on the ſurface of the urine, from επιστημι, to ſtand upon.

EPISTAX'IS, *ſ.* [from επισταζω, Gr. to diſtil from.] A violent bleeding of the noſe.

EPIS'TLE, *ſ.* [from επιστολη, Gr.] A letter. This word is ſeldom uſed but in poetry, or on occaſions of dignity and ſolemnity:

When looſe *epiſtles* violate chaſte eyes,
She half conſents, who ſilently denies. *Dryden.*

EPISTLES and GOSPELS, in the liturgy of the church of England, are ſelect portions of ſcripture, taken out of the writings of the evangeliſts and apoſtles, and appointed to be read, in the communion-ſervice, on Sundays and holidays. They are thought to have been ſelected by St. Jerom, and by him put into the lectionary. It is certain, they were very anciently appropriated to the days whereon we now read them, ſince they are not only of general uſe throughout the weſtern church, but are alſo commented upon in the homilies of ſeveral ancient fathers, which are ſaid to have been preached upon thoſe very days to which theſe portions of ſcripture are now affixed. The epiſtles and goſpels are placed in an admirable order and method, and bear a ſpecial relation to the ſeveral days whereon they are read. The year is diſtinguiſhed into two parts; the firſt being deſigned to commemorate Chriſt's living among us, the other to inſtruct us to live after his example. The former takes in the whole time from Advent to Trinity-Sunday; the latter, all the Sundays from Trinity to Advent. During the firſt of theſe ſeaſons, the epiſtles and goſpels are calculated to raiſe in us a grateful ſenſe of what our Saviour ſuffered for us, and ſet before our eyes his nativity, circumciſion, and manifeſtation to the Gentiles; his doctrines and miracles; his baptiſm, faſting, and temptation; his agony and bloody ſweat; his croſs and paſſion; his death, burial, reſurrection, and aſcenſion; and the miſſion of the Holy Ghoſt. During the ſecond ſeaſon of the year, the epiſtles and goſpels tend to inſtruct us in the true paths of Chriſtianity.

EPIST'LER, *ſ.* A ſcribbler of letters.

EPIS'TOLARY, *adj.* Relating to letters; ſuitable to letters. Tranſacted by letters.—I ſhall carry on an *epiſtolary* correſpondence between the two heads. *Addiſon.*

EPISTOLOGRA'PHIC, *adj.* [from επιστολη, an epiſtle, and γραφω, Gr. to write.] Belonging to the writing of letters; writing letters.

EPISTO'MIA, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and στομα, Gr. a mouth.] In anatomy, the opening of one veſſel into another; the junction or meeting of the veſſels.

EPISTO'MIUM, *ſ.* in hydraulics, a plug or inſtrument by which an aperture may be opened and ſhut at pleaſure.

EP'ISTYLE, *ſ.* in the ancient architecture, a term uſed by the Greeks for what we call *architrave*, viz. a maſſive ſtone, or a piece of wood, laid immediately over the capital of a column.

EP'ITAPH, *ſ.* [from *epitaphium*, Lat. επιταφιον, of επι τω ταφω, Gr. upon a tomb.] A monumental inſcription, in honour or memory of a perſon deceaſed:

Some thy lov'd duſt in Parian ſtones enſhrine,
Others immortal *epitaphs* deſign;
With wit and ſtrength, that only yields to thine. *Smith.*

The origin of epitaphs and monumental inſcriptions, ſeems to have proceeded from that ſtrong preſage or ſenſe of immortality, naturally implanted in the minds of men. Their invention is attributed to the fate of Lynus the Theban poet, who flouriſhed about the 2700th year of the world, and who being unhappily ſlain, his ſcholars lamented the loſs of their maſter in a particular kind of mournful verſes, called from him *Ælinium*, and afterwards *epitaphia*; becauſe they were ſung at burials, and engraved upon monuments *a memoria*, to put men in mind of the inſtability of human nature, as well as to reſpect and imitate the virtues of their departed friends.

EPIT'ASIS, *ſ.* [from επι and τεινω, Gr. to extend.] A term with phyſicians for the beginning and increaſe of a paroxyſm or diſeaſe.—In dramatic poetry, it is the ſecond and buſieſt part of a comedy, wherein the plot thickens, and is, as it were, brought to its height.

EPITHALA'MIUM, *ſ.* [Lat. *epithalame*, Fr. *epitolamio*, Ital. επιθαλαμιον, of επι, and θαλαμος, Gr. a bed.] A nuptial ſong; a compliment upon marriage.—Epithalamia were ſung amongſt the Jews, at the door of the bride, by her friends and companions, the evening before the marriage. Pſalm xlv. is an epithalamium. Among the Greeks, the epithalamium was ſung as ſoon as the married couple were gone to bed, and attended with ſhouts, and ſtamping of the feet; a practice as coarſe as that of "throwing the ſtocking," amongſt the vulgar in England, Scotland, and Ireland; to which it probably gave riſe.

EP'ITHEM, *ſ.* [from επιθεμα, Gr.] A liquid medicament externally applied.—Cordials and *epithems* are neceſſary, to reſiſt the putrefaction and ſtrengthen the vitals. *Wiſeman.*

EPI'THESIS, *ſ.* [from επι, and τιθημι, Gr. to cover or lay upon.] In ſurgery, the rectification of crooked limbs by means of inſtruments.

EP'ITHET, *ſ.* [*epitheton*, Lat. επιθετον, Gr. a thing added to.] An adjective denoting any quality good or bad: as, the *verdant* grove, the *craggy* mountain's *lofty* head.—I affirm with phlegm, leaving the *epithets* of falſe, ſcandalous, and villainous, to the author. *Swift.*—It is uſed by ſome writers improperly for title, name.—The *epithet* of ſhades belonged more properly to the darkneſs than the refreſhment. *Decay of Piety.*—It is uſed improperly for phraſe, expreſſion.—For which of my good parts did you firſt ſuffer love for me.——Suffer love! a good *epithet*: I do ſuffer love indeed: for I love thee againſt my will. *Shakeſpeare.*

EPI'THETON, *ſ.* The Greek original of epithet, put by *Shakeſpeare* into the mouth of Armado.—I ſpoke it, tender Juvenal, as a congruent *epitheton*. *Love's Labour loſt.*

EPI'THYMUM, *ſ.* in botany. See CUSCUTA.

EPITO'GIUM, *ſ.* [*not much uſed.*] A tabard, a looſe upper garment, a kind of hood worn by ſtudents after taking a degree in the univerſity. *Phillips.*

EPI'TOME, *ſ.* [from επιτεμνω, Gr. to retrench.] Abridgement; abbreviature; compendious abſtract; compendium.—*Epitomes* are helpful to the memory, and of good private uſe. *Wotton.*

To EPI'TOMISE, *v. a.* To abſtract; To contract into a narrow ſpace.—If the ladies take a liking to ſuch a diminutive race, we ſhall ſee mankind *epitomized*, and the whole ſpecies in miniature. *Addiſon.*—Leſs properly, to diminiſh by amputation; to curtail.—We have *epitomized* many particular words, to the detriment of our tongue. *Spectator.*

EPI'TOMISER or EPITOMIST, *ſ.* An abridger; an abſtracter; a writer of epitomes.

EPITO'NIUM, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and τεινω, Gr. to ſtretch.] An inſtrument to ſtretch cords, a peg in a muſical inſtrument, a device to force water up out of a well. *Phillips.*

EPI'TRITUS, *ſ.* [in poetry.] A foot conſiſting of four ſyllables, the firſt ſhort and the three following long.

EPITROCHAS'MUS, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and τροχαζω, Gr. to run.] A figure in rhetoric in which ſeveral things are run over in a hurry.

EPIT'ROPE, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and τρεπω, Gr. to turn.] A figure in rhetoric in which the orator advances what he might deny in order to obtain what he demands.

EPIT'ROPUS, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and τρεπω, Gr. to turn.] An arbitrator; one choſen by the Chriſtians in Turkey to decide their differences, and prevent the inconveniences of applying to the civil magiſtracy.

EPIT'YRUM, *ſ.* [with the ancients.] A kind of ſallad.

EPIZEUGME'NON, *ſ.* [in rhetoric.] The diezugmenon, a figure in which ſeveral ſubjects have reference to one verb.

EPIZEU'XIS, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and ζευγνυμι, Gr. to join.]

join.] The act of joining together; the ſtate of being joined together. In rhetoric, it is a repetition of the ſame word in the ſame ſentence or verſe, no other word coming between.

EPNEUMA'TOSIS, *ſ.* [from επι upon, and πνευμα, Gr. the breath.] The act or power of breathing out.

E'POCH, or EPOCHA, *ſ.* [*epocha*, Lat. εποχη, of επι, upon, and εχω, Gr. to hold.] In chronology, the time at which a new computation is begun; the time from which dates are numbered.—Moſes diſtinctly computes by certain intervals, memorable æras and *epochas*, or terms of time. *Brown.*—Time is always reckoned from ſome known parts of this ſenſible world, and from ſome certain *epochs* marked out to us by the motions obſervable in it. *Locke.*

Time by neceſſity compell'd, ſhall go
Through ſcenes of war, and *epochas* of woe. *Prior.*

Different nations make uſe of different epochs. The Chriſtians chiefly uſe the epoch of the nativity or incarnation of Jeſus Chriſt; the Mahometans, that of the Hegira; the Jews, that of the creation of the world, or that of the Deluge; the ancient Greeks, that of the Olympiads; the Romans, that of the building of their city; the ancient Perſians and Aſſyrians, that of Nabonaſſar; &c. The doctrine and uſe of epochs is of very great extent in chronology. To reduce the years of one epoch to thoſe of another, is to find what year of one correſponds to a given year of another; a period of years has been invented, which, commencing before all the known epochs, is, as it were, a common receptacle of them all, called the Julian Period. To this period all the epochs are reduced; *i. e.* the year of this period when each epoch commences is determined. So that, adding the given year of one epoch to the year of the period correſponding with its riſe, and from the ſum ſubtracting the year of the ſame period correſponding to the other epoch, the remainder is the year of that other epoch.—See CHRONOLOGY, vol. iv. p. 537.

EP'ODE, *ſ.* [*epodus*, Lat. of επι, after, and ωδαι, Gr. ſongs.] One of the numbers of that ſort of lyric poetry, of which the odes of Pindar conſiſt.

EPOISS'E, a town of France, in the department of the Cote-d'Or, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Semur-en-Auxois: ſeven miles weſt Semur.

EP'OMIS, *ſ.* [of επι, and ωμος, Gr. a ſhoulder.] An hood, ſuch as univerſity ſtudents wear. It was alſo a part of the Jewiſh high-prieſt's veſture. See EPHOD.

EP'ONA, a beautiful girl, ſaid to have been the fruit of a man's union with a mare.

EPOPE'E, *ſ.* [Gr.] An epic or heroic poem.—Tragedy borrows from the *epopee*, and that which borrows is of leſs dignity, becauſe it has not of its own. *Dryden.*

EPO'PEUS, a ſon of Neptune and Canace, who came from Theſſaly to Sicyon, and carried away Antiope, daughter of Nycteus king of Thebes. This rape was followed by a war, in which Nycteus and Epopeus were both killed. *Apollodorus.*

EPOS'CHEUM, *ſ.* [from επι, upon, and οσχεον, Gr. a branch.] In botany, a tendril, or little ſpiral ramification, growing from the branches.

EP'PING, a neat and pleaſant town, in the county of Eſſex, with a market on Thurſdays for cattle, and another on Fridays for proviſions. The fairs are Whit-Tueſday, and October 13. The butter made in this part, known in London by the name of Epping-butter, is in particular eſteem, and ſells, in courſe, at a higher price than any other.

EPPING-FOREST, is a royal chaſe, extending from the town of Epping almoſt to London; it was anciently a very extenſive diſtrict, and, under the name of the Foreſt of Eſſex, included a great part of the county. It had afterwards the name of Waltham-foreſt, which has long yielded to its preſent appellation. To this foreſt, that of Hainault, which lies to the ſouth-eaſt, was once an appendage. In Hainault-foreſt, about a mile from Barking Side, ſtands the celebrated oak, known through many centuries by the name of Fairlop. "The tradition of the country," ſays Mr. Gilpin, in his Remarks on Foreſt Scenery, "traces this oak way up the Chriſtian æra. It is ſtill a noble tree, though it has ſuffered greatly from the depredations of time. About a yard from the ground, where its rough fluted ſtem is thirty-ſix feet in circumference, it divides into eleven vaſt arms; yet not in the horizontal manner of an oak, but rather in that of a beech. Beneath its ſhade, which overſpreads an area of 300 feet in circuit, an annual fair has long been held on the ſecond of July; and no booth is ſuffered to be erected beyond the extent of its boughs." This venerable oak is now fenced round with a cloſe paling, about five feet high. Almoſt all the extremities of its branches have been ſawed off, and Mr. Forſyth's compoſition applied to them, to preſerve them from decay; and the injuries which the trunk of the tree had ſuſtained, have been repaired, as much as poſſible, by the ſame compoſition.

Wanſted village, and Wanſted Houſe, the magnificent ſeat and extenſive park and gardens of ſir James Tylney Long, bart. hereditary warden of Epping-foreſt, are very contiguous to Epping town. The ancient manor was granted, by Edward VI. to Robert lord Rich. He ſold it to Robert Dudley, earl of Leiceſter, who, in 1658, entertained queen Elizabeth here, for five or ſix days. Reverting to the crown, king James gave it to ſir Henry Mildmay, who having been one of the judges of Charles I. it was forfeited. Charles II. gave it to the duke of York, who ſold it to ſir Robert Brooks. Of the repreſentatives of this gentleman (who had retired inſolvent to France) it was purchaſed by ſir Joſiah Child, bart. a conſiderable merchant, author of ſome valuable commercial tracts, and great grandfather to the late earl Tylney, from whom it deſcended to the preſent proprietor. Sir Joſiah Child planted a great number of trees in avenues and viſtas leading to the ſcite of the old manſion. His ſon, before he was created viſcount Caſtlemain, laid out ſome extenſive grounds in gardens; and, after theſe were finiſhed, he employed the celebrated Colin Campbell to build the preſent ſtructure, which is caſed with Portland ſtone, and is upwards of 260 feet in length and 70 in depth. It is one of the nobleſt houſes, not only in England, but in Europe; and its grand front is thought to be as fine a piece of architecture as any in Italy. Wanſted Houſe is now celebrious, as affording a ſafe and elegant aſylum to the unfortunate royal Bourbon family, exiled from their patrimonial ſovereignty in France, but protected, comforted, and cheriſhed, by the illuſtrious ſovereign of Great-Britain.

EP'PING, a townſhip of the American ſtates, in Rockingham county, New-Hampſhire, taken from the north-weſt part of Exeter, and incorporated in 1741. It contained by the cenſus of 1796, 1740 inhabitants: ſix miles north-weſt of Exeter, and eighteen weſt of Portſmouth.

EP'PING, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: four miles ſouth Aigen.

EPPIN'GEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and palatinate of the Rhine, on the Elſatz: ten miles weſt Heilbron, and eighteen ſouth-ſouth-eaſt Heidelberg.

EP'SOM, a neat and pleaſant town in the county of Surrey, nine miles from Dorking, and ſixteen from London, long famous for its mineral waters, its charming opening to Banſtead Downs, and its many handſome contiguous ſeats. Its purging waters were firſt diſcovered in 1618, and, though not in ſuch repute as formerly, yet they are not impaired in virtue, and the ſalt made from them is famous all over Europe, for gently cleanſing, cooling, and purifying the body. Epſom has a market on Friday; and a fair July 25. Near Epſom is Durdans, originally built by George firſt earl of Berkeley, with the materials brought from Nonſuch, when that celebrated royal reſidence, the

once magnificent ſeat of Henry VIII. was demoliſhed. Durdans was formerly inhabited by the father of his preſent majeſty George III.

EP'SOM, a townſhip of the American States, in Rockingham county, New Hampſhire; ten miles eaſt of Concord, and thirty-ſix miles north-weſt of Portſmouth. It was incorporated in 1727; in 1775 it contained 387, and in 1790, 799 inhabitants.

EP'SOM-SALT, a ſalt firſt obtained from the mineral water at Epſom: it came afterwards to be ſeparated from the brine which remains after the cryſtallization of common ſalt, and this is the ſort now in general uſe. It is with this cathartic ſalt, or ſulphat of magneſia, that the purging mineral waters are impregnated, and to which they owe their virtue. This ſalt has a naufeous bitter taſte; is a gentle purgative, operating in general with eaſe and ſafety, yet with ſufficient efficacy, and quickly finiſhing its operation. Two or three drams, diſſolved in a pint of water, or a larger quantity, operates more powerfully and eaſily than twice the quantity in three or four ounces. Its paſſing off haſtily, and not extending its action ſo far as moſt other purgatives, ſeem to be its principal imperfections; though if given in ſmall doſes, it paſſes farther into the conſtitution, promotes the ſecretions in general, and proves an excellent aperient in many chronical diſorders. If the patient keeps warm, ſmall doſes will ſweat him; if cool, they paſs off by urine. As a purge, from an ounce to an ounce and a half is a full doſe, which, when diſſolved in a quart of water that hath a dram of mace or of cardamon-ſeeds previouſly infuſed in it, ſits very eaſy on the ſtomach. For its chemical analyſis and habitudes, ſee the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 231.

EP'SOM-WATER, *ſ.* the valuable production of a ſpring at Aſhted, near Epſom, in Surrey. This water has been long in repute, and was the firſt from whence a bitter purging ſalt was acquired. It is one of the moſt noted purging waters in Europe; and its medicinal powers are contained in the ſulphat of magneſia, or ſalt which bears its name. There are different accounts of the products of this water, reſpecting the quantity of its ſolid contents.

From one gallon was procured by Dr. Liſter, 1½ ounce. Dr. Rutty, 1 ounce, and in ſome ſeaſons only half the quantity. Dr. Lucas, only 5 drams and 1 ſcruple.

EP'STEIN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Konigſtein: nine miles north-north-eaſt of Mentz.

EP'TE, a river of France, which runs into the Seine, near Vernon.

EP'WORTH, a town of Lincolnſhire, diſtant from Kinnald Ferry, on the Trent, about four miles; Gainſborough, eleven; Crowle, ſix; Burton, eight; and 166 from London. It has a market on Thurſdays, and two fairs in a year for cattle; one on the firſt Thurſday after new May-day, the other the firſt Thurſday after new Michaelmas. Here is alſo a charity-ſchool. The trade of the place is chiefly the manufacture of ſacking and bagging. A great quantity of hemp and flax is grown in this part of the county, and the poor are moſtly employed in ſpinning.

EP'ULARY, *adj.* [from *epulum*, Lat. a feaſt.] Belonging to a feaſt, pertaining to a banquet. *Scott.*

EPULA'TION, *ſ.* [*epulatio*, Lat.] Banquet; feaſt.—Contented with bread and water, when he would dine with Jove, and pretending to *epulation*, he deſired no other addition than a piece of cheeſe. *Brown.*

EPULO'TIC, *adj.* [from επι, upon, and ελη, Gr. a cicatrix.] Tending to a cicatrix, cicatriſing.

EPULO'TICS, *ſ.* Medicines which dry up the moiſture of wounds, and diſpoſe them to be covered with a ſkin.

EQUABI'LITY, *ſ.* Equality to itſelf; evenneſs; uniformity.—The *equability* of the temperature of the air rendered the Aſiatics lazy. *Arbuthnot.*

E'QUABLE, *adj.* [*æquabilis*, Lat.] Equal to itſelf; even; uniform in reſpect to form, motion, or temperature.—Nothing abates acrimony of the blood more than an *equable* motion of it, neither too ſwift nor too ſlow; for too quick a motion produceth an alkaline, and too ſlow an acid, acrimony. *Arbuthnot.*

E'QUABLY, *adj.* Uniformly; in the ſame tenour; evenly; equally to itſelf.—If bodies move *equably* in concentrick circles, and the ſquares of their periodical times be as the cubes of their diſtances from the common centre, their centripetal forces will be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances. *Cheyne.*

E'QUAL, *adj.* [*æqualis*, Lat.] Like another in bulk, excellence, or any other quality that admits compariſon; neither greater nor leſs; neither worſe nor better.—If thou be among great men, make not thyſelf *equal* with them. *Eccleſ.*

Equal lot
May join us; *equal* joy, as *equal* love. *Milton.*

Adequate to any purpoſe.—The Scots truſted not their own numbers as *equal* to fight with the Engliſh. *Clarendon.*—Even; uniform:

Think not of me: perhaps my *equal* mind
May learn to bear the fate the gods allot me. *Smith.*

In juſt proportion.—It is not permitted me to make my commendation *equal* to your merit. *Dryden.*—Impartial; neutral.

Each to his proper fortune ſtand or fall;
Equal and unconcern'd I look on all:
Rutilians, Trojans, are the ſame to me,
And both ſhall draw the lots their fates decree. *Dryden.*

Indifferent.—They who are not diſpoſed to receive them, may let them alone, or reject them; it is *equal* to me. *Cheyne.*—Equitable; advantageous alike to both parties.—He ſubmitted himſelf, and ſware to all *equal* conditions. *Mac.*—Being upon the ſame terms.—They made the married, orphans, widows, yea and the aged alſo, *equal* in ſpoils with themſelves. *Mac.*

E'QUAL, *ſ.* One not inferior or ſuperior to another.—He would make them all *equals* to the citizens of Rome. 2 *Mac.* ix. 15.

To my dear *equal* in my native land,
My plighted vow I gave: I his received:
Each ſwore with truth, with pleaſure each believ'd:
The mutual contract was to heav'n convey'd. *Prior.*

One of the ſame age.—I profited in the Jews religion above many my *equals* in mine own nation. *Gal.* i. 14.

To E'QUAL, *v. a.* To make one thing or perſon equal to another. To riſe to the ſame ſtate with another perſon.—I know no body ſo like to *equal* him, even at the age he wrote, as yourſelf. *Trumbull.*—To be equal to.—One whoſe all not *equals* Edward's moiety. *Shakeſpeare.*—To recompenſe fully; to anſwer in full proportion:

She ſought Sichæus through the ſhady grove,
Who anſwer'd all her cares, and *equal'd* all her love. *Dryd.*

To E'QUALISE, *v. a.* To make even.—To *equaliſe* accounts we will allow three hundred years, and ſo long a time as we can manifeſt from the Scripture. *Brown.*—To be equal to; *a ſenſe not uſed:*

Ye lofty beeches, tell this matchleſs dame,
That if together ye fed all one flame,
It could not *equaliſe* the hundredth part
Of what her eyes have kindled in my heart. *Waller.*

EQUA'LITY, *ſ.* Likeneſs with regard to any quantities compared.—The ſame degree of dignity.—According to this *equality* wherein God hath placed all mankind, with relation to himſelf, in all the relations between man and man there is a mutual dependance. *Swift.*

One

One ſhall riſe,
Of proud ambition; who, not content
With fair *equality*, fraternal ſtate,
Will arrogate dominion undeſerv'd,
Over his brethren. *Milton.*

Evenneſs; uniformity; conſtant tenour; equability.—Meaſure out the lives of men, and periodically define the alterations of their tempers, conceive a regularity in mutations, with an *equality* in conſtitutions, and forget that variety which phyſicians therein diſcover. *Brown.*

On the very delicate yet intereſting ſubject of *equality*, much has been written, much miſtaken, and much perverted. Neither in England, nor even in France, can the rights of men be underſtood to conſiſt in every perſon's doing what he pleaſes; nor can equality be conſidered as implying the levelling of all property. Yet theſe notions have been artfully diſſeminated, to bring into diſcredit that true principle of *equal rights*, which is the baſis of Engliſh freedom, by thoſe perhaps who have perſonal reaſons for wiſhing to perpetuate political abuſe and corruption. That ſuch have been the deſigns of ſome individuals, is clearly evinced, from the great number of pamphlets written avowedly to eſtabliſh this deceptive idea; but the cool and diſpaſſionate reaſonings of Dr. Paulus of Haarlem, profeſſor Cras of Amſterdam, profeſſor Brown of Utrecht, M. Turgot, Dr. Rennell, and other eminent authors, have contributed to diſpel the alluſion, and to place the *fact* in an obvious and ſatisfactory point of view: and from theſe writers our preſent remarks are ſelected. It is in vain, however, to attempt the diſcuſſion of ſo complicated a queſtion, unleſs the terms be accurately underſtood: it is therefore neceſſary to premiſe, that the word *equality*, in its preſent application, ſuppoſes compariſon, and indicates a certain agreement or reſemblance in the things compared; ſo that ſome properties or circumſtances, belonging to the one, muſt alſo be found to belong to another, which, in this reſpect, is ſaid to be *equal* to the former; and by the nature and number of theſe common circumſtances, the mode and degree of *equality* muſt be eſtimated. Hence equality, as it reſpects mankind, may be reſolved into *phyſical* and *moral*; the former relates to circumſtances which are independent of the will, and which therefore cannot be ſubject to any law; the latter conſiſts in a parity of rights, which law confers, and a parity of duties, which it preſcribes. Moral equality may be termed either natural, or civil, according to the kind of law on which it is founded; and it may be conſidered either as abſolute or relative: in abſolute equality, the parity muſt extend to all rights and duties whatever; whereas, in relative, it is liable only to particular exceptions.

We may now advert to the grand propoſition, *Wherein does the equality of mankind conſiſt?* In order to anſwer this queſtion, it is neceſſary to take into our view thoſe particulars which are common to all; ſuch as the viciſſitudes of health and ſickneſs, of pleaſure and pain, of proſperity and adverſity, to which all men are alike expoſed. Who, that contemplates individuals in theſe points of view, does not diſcern their equality? This may properly be termed *moral* equality, to diſtinguiſh it from that ſimilitude in other reſpects, which may be referred to *phyſical* equality: but theſe two kinds are intimately connected; and, as the common rights and duties of men ariſe from the whole of human nature, ſo moral equality muſt, in ſome reſpect, reſult from phyſical. That equality of rights and duties, ariſing from the common nature and condition of mankind, is not a mere fiction of imagination, but actually takes place in many caſes, not only between nations independent of each other's authority, but alſo between individuals, who happen to be connected by no other ties than thoſe of humanity. It is remarkable that the celebrated M. Necker, greatly miſrepreſents the propoſition, and confounds phyſical with moral equality; though the latter is clearly and correctly indicated by the expreſſion, That all men are born equal with reſpect to rights. This maxim is by no means new; for Monteſquieu has affirmed the very ſame in his Spirit of Laws, book viii. M. Necker ſays, "that men are no otherwiſe equal with reſpect to rights, than in conſequence of their deſire and ſenſe of happineſs;" and then, obſerving that brutes have alſo this deſire and ſenſe, he attempts to ridicule the propoſition, by concluding that brutes are equal to men in rights. This is a groſs miſtake: for the equality of men reſults, not from any particular properties which they may have in common with brutes, but from the aggregate of thoſe which are common to mankind, and which conſtitute human nature. In the animated as well as inanimated nature, in man as well as the inferior creatures, we diſcern not only uniformity but alſo variety; and he muſt be a poor philoſopher indeed, who does not perceive how much this variety, in the moral not leſs than in the phyſical world, contributes to preſerve the order and harmony of the whole. Did mankind come into life like the fabled Theban colony, which ſprang from the ſerpent's teeth, their *abſolute* equality might be poſſible: but we fear the event would be what the poet deſcribes, when he adds,

——*ſuoque*
Marte cadunt fubiti per mutua vulnera fratres.

This, however, is not the caſe; for the moſt ſtriking inequality reſults from the circumſtances in which we are born, and muſt inevitably attend mankind even in a ſtate of nature, were it only in thoſe reſpects which reſult from the various degrees of bodily and mental powers, by which individuals are diſtinguiſhed. Civil ſociety muſt therefore have been the obvious conſequence of the firſt ſocial union, which muſt have ſubſiſted in a ſtate of nature; in which, as mankind increaſed in number, and as individuals became more independent on each other, common laws were found neceſſary, in order to protect the weak againſt the ſtrong, and to preſerve the peace of the community. Theſe firſt rudiments of civil ſociety were probably as ſimple and rude as were the men for whom they were deſigned, till experience taught them to improve theſe regulations, and at length to form regular ſyſtems of legiſlation. Beſide theſe circumſtances of inequality in a ſtate of nature, a very ſtriking one reſults in civil ſociety from the abſolute neceſſity of government. The lower claſſes of citizens, who conſtitute the majority in every ſtate, are too cloſely employed in procuring their ſubſiſtence, to have either time, or inclination, to attain ſufficient knowledge for the diſtribution of juſtice and the adminiſtration of public affairs. Hence it becomes neceſſary to ſelect thoſe for the offices of government, on whom wealth has conferred leiſure; whoſe education has called forth and improved their abilities; and whoſe moral character, as well as talents and knowledge, entitle them to the confidence of the community. From theſe premiſes, we may legitimately conclude, that mankind are equal, inaſmuch as the rights and duties reſulting from human nature are common to all; that hence men ought to be deemed equal in all caſes, except thoſe in which, either from the ties of blood, or from mutual compact, or elſe from the very nature of civil ſociety and government, peculiar rights and duties neceſſarily induce ſubordination, and hence inequality.

It may here be juſtly obſerved, that, as all moral law (and it is by this that man, in whatever ſtate we ſuppoſe him to be, muſt be directed) is founded in the common nature of mankind, all the rights which it confers, all the duties which it preſcribes, muſt be referred equally to every individual. Hence the force of that moral maxim, to act towards others as we would wiſh them to act toward us; which, in fact, preſuppoſes the moral equality of mankind as the principle on which its authority depends; and hence we immediately feel the grand right and correſpondent obligation reſulting from equality; which, however extenſive, may be generally expreſſed in theſe words: "Whatever others, who are our equals, can juſtly require of us, we have an abſolute right to require of them; and they are under the ſame obligation to comply

comply with our requiſition in the latter caſe, as we are to comply with theirs in the former." This right of equality, together with its correſpondent obligation, not only extends to mankind in general, but is applicable to every individual, and to all particular circumſtances and relations; ſo that whoever enters into theſe, is immediately inveſted with all the rights, and bound to all the duties, which nature has connected with them. It is obvious that this right and obligation muſt ſubſiſt equally among different nations collectively conſidered, and that no pretences of precede cy can be valid, unleſs founded on ſome compact, either tacit or expreſs. Arioviſtus felt this equality, when he ſaid to the Roman ambaſſadors, If I wanted any thing of Cæſar I would have gone to him; if he wants any thing of me, let him come to me. And hence Dr. Paulus maintains, that as a dwarf is as much a man as a giant, ſo the ſmalleſt independent republic is equal, with reſpect to its *rights*, to the moſt powerful monarchy. Hence he deprecates all pretences to precedence among ſovereign ſtates; and inſiſts that no ſovereign ſtate can juſtly forbid the commercial intercourſe of its ſubjects with thoſe of other ſtates, except in thoſe caſes alone in which its abſolute ſafety is immediately concerned. He expoſes the abſurdity of every excluſive claim laid to newly-diſcovered countries, except ſuch as is founded on peopling and cultivating thoſe which were uninhabited; and even then the claim can extend no farther than the part occupied by the coloniſts. On all theſe ſubjects it muſt be acknowledged that he is juſt and impartial in his reaſoning: and it is greatly to be lamented that politicians are ſo much more attentive to expedience than to juſtice in their tranſactions:—but as long as an appeal to the ſword is the only mean by which nations can decide their claims, we can ſcarcely hope that impartial juſtice will be the rule of their dealings with one another. The miniſter of each ſtate looks on thoſe of other countries as men who are endeavouring to take all poſſible advantage of any inadvertence into which he may be betrayed, in order to extort all that they can; he therefore thinks himſelf juſtified in adopting a ſimilar conduct, and tries to advance the immediate intereſts of his principals, by practiſing the like diſingenuous arts.

With the equality of mankind, their *liberty* is immediately and inſeparably connected: for, among thoſe who are entirely equal, (that is, who are connected by no relation except the common tie of humanity,) none can have any right to command, nor can any be under an obligation to obey: but as this right of freedom belongs to all alike, it impoſes on every individual the moſt indiſpenſable obligation to refrain from every thing that violates the liberty of any other perſon, and to grant to all around him the peaceable enjoyment of that which he juſtly claims as his own. This right and obligation extends to religious ſentiments and modes of worſhip, to the acquiſition and improvement of property, and to whatever may be ſuppoſed to increaſe the comfort and happineſs of human life. Many writers have maintained that property is not a *natural* but a *civil* right, and that the laws, by which it is regulated, neceſſarily produce inequality; but profeſſor Cras has juſtly ſhewn that property, or excluſive poſſeſſion, is a right of nature, and that the law, by which it is guarded, by aſſigning rights and duties to every individual, tends to eſtabliſh and preſerve moral equality.—It may therefore be proper to contemplate the original tranſition of men, from a ſtate of nature into one of civil ſociety. If ſuch an aſſociation be formed by a number of perſons who are equal, no individual can claim a right to govern the reſt; all have an equal ſhare in the original ſovereignty, which muſt therefore reſide in the citizens collectively, that is, in the people; and they have a right either to exerciſe it themſelves, or to delegate it to one or more of their number, as they may think moſt conducive to their welfare. Hence neither an individual, nor any number of perſons, can poſſibly have an original right to govern without the conſent of the governed; but when, by mutual compact, the people have delegated their authority, the compact ought to be held ſacred and inviolable both by the governor and governed. Thus, in civil ſociety, the equality of men is in ſome reſpects neceſſarily diminiſhed, but this diminution does not affect the eſſential rights and duties of humanity. They lie beyond the reach of civil authority, which ought always to conſider them as principles previouſly eſtabliſhed, that cannot juſtly be violated by any human laws. And, though the governors and the governed, from the authority committed to the one of theſe claſſes, and the obedience required from the other, are unequal in rank and ſtation; yet, if we conſider them as members of the ſame community, as ſubject to the ſame general laws, they are equal, as they all enjoy the ſame general rights, and are bound by the ſame general obligations. Hence the obſervations made by Grotius, that a magiſtrate muſt be conſidered in a double capacity; it is only in his official character that he can have a right to exert authority and to require obedience: in every thing in which his intereſt, as an individual, is concerned, he is equally with others amenable to the laws: he cannot, in a conteſt with the meaneſt citizen, be judge in his own caſe, but muſt ſubmit it to the deciſion of thoſe whom the law appoints, and who muſt proceed impartially as the law directs. This kind of equality, which is eſſential to every free government, may and ought to be ſo modified as to preſerve that decent reſpect for the magiſtrate, which is neceſſary to the preſervation of public order; and this, we may obſerve, is admirably done in our own conſtitution, by rendering the miniſters and adviſers even of the king reſponſible for the wrongs committed in his name.

On entering into civil ſociety, men loſe their natural equality no farther than is abſolutely neceſſary for the welfare of the community, and become ſubject, not to arbitrary power, but to juſt and lawful authority; the nature and limits of which muſt be known from what are commonly called the conſtitutional laws of a ſtate. In all caſes which do not manifeſtly affect the public order and happineſs, every ſubject, when arrived at years of maturity, has a full right to regulate his own conduct according to his own will, without being neceſſarily dependent on that of his fellow-ſubjects, or of the magiſtrate. This limitation of civil authority is evidently juſt and reaſonable; and therefore, in civil ſociety, much of the natural equality of mankind remains; and of liberty, though it be more reſtrained than in a ſtate of nature, enough may be left to render life perfectly ſecure and happy; for every individual retains a full right to act conformably with the dictates of his own will, provided he neither injures the welfare of the community, nor violates the rights of others, who have the ſame claim with himſelf to this freedom. This is all that a good man can deſire.

That men were firſt prompted to enter into civil ſociety in order to ſecure their natural rights, is a principle laid down by every eminent writer on government; and that the firſt or primary object, the right of holding a ſhare in the legiſlature, either perſonally, or by a repreſentative, is a ſtrong feature of equality in every ſuch government. Yet ſome have aſſerted that no civil ſociety founded on ſuch equality could flouriſh; and that, where all the members of the community had equal rights, there would not be proper ſubordination, but that the ſtate would be torn by diſſenſions, of which anarchy and civil war would be the deplorable conſequences. But Dr. Paulus ſhews, that the principle of equality, when properly underſtood, is ſo far from tending to produce ſedition and anarchy, that it neceſſarily ſuppoſes a ſtrict obedience to the laws, and to that authority which is founded on them. Equality of rights is inſeparably connected with equality of moral obligation; and the former cannot be maintained without the obſervance of the latter. In every conſtitution, they who are inveſted with the executive part of government muſt be armed with a power ſufficient to compel every individual to obey the laws, which conſti-

tute

tute the will of the community; and men will more cheerfully and readily obey laws which they, by their repreſentatives, have concurred in making, than thoſe which are impoſed by arbitrary controul, and in the eſtabliſhment of which they had no concern. Arbitrary meaſures at once deſtroy the fundamental principles of civil ſociety, and militate completely againſt the propoſition, "that men are equal in point of natural rights." That this ſpecies of equality ought to be maintained and admitted in all governments, there can be no doubt, becauſe all men are left at liberty by their Creator to exert the faculties and talents which he has given them, in purſuing their own proper happineſs, according to thoſe modes which appear beſt to their own calm and ſober reaſon, aſſiſted by the reaſon of others, and by the revelation which he has made known to them. In the ſight of God, every man, without exception, is juſtified, if he defends this liberty in himſelf; and every man is condemned, if he attack it in another. In this reſpect, all men are equal and on a level: whence it follows, that no man is bound to obey any mere human laws, but thoſe to which he has previouſly aſſented; or in other words, every man has a right to govern himſelf, or to be governed by his own conſent; and which conſent is either expreſsly or tacitly acknowledged in the formation of every free conſtitution.

Equality in right, as thus explained, is, indeed, ſo far from being a novelty, that it is the baſis of that excellent conſtitution under which we have the happineſs to live; and ſo obvious is this principle of right, that profeſſor Brown maintains, though it may appear paradoxical, "that an *equality* the moſt exact and perfect, in reſpect of every moral and ſocial obligation, ſprings from *inequality* itſelf." In this light, the profeſſor ſeems to conſider theſe rights, when he obſerves that there are certain principles ſo ſtrongly interwoven with the human frame, ſo intimately blended with its eſſence, ſo efficient of all that is human, that the violation of them cannot be regarded in any other reſpect than in that of a degradation, nay, an entire extinction, of the diſtinctive attributes of the human character. Of conſequence, (he adds,) every man ſtipulates, by entering into ſociety with his ſpecies, that the enjoyments grounded on theſe principles, or, in other words, the rights which attach to them as the gifts of God to his rational creatures, ſhall be maintained to him inviolate, and reſerves to himſelf the privilege of defending them at all hazards, whenever it is attempted to wreſt them from him. For, as every human being is a conſtituent member of the ſocial body, he is, while he diſcharges the duties incident to his peculiar capacity, entitled, equally with every other, to the grand prerogatives of human nature, which civil ſociety is intended to maintain and improve. Theſe rights are the neceſſary appendages of that equality, which ſubſiſts among all men, amidſt the diverſities which ſociety and civilization have introduced. Civil ſociety, therefore, does not neceſſarily make any one member of the community either the maſter or the ſlave of his fellow-citizens, but only confirms the relations which already exiſted. Inſtead of thus elevating ſome above others, it places all on an equal footing, by making all equally ſubject to the common authority of the laws, which conſtitute the will of the community. This, ſays Dr. Paulus, is the only object of ſociety which concnrs with the precepts and deſign of our Saviour and his apoſtles. Chriſtianity is founded on univerſal brotherly love, and commands men to love their fellow mortals as themſelves; that is, to live as in a fraternal ſociety of equals. Our own Engliſh laws delight in *equality*: for whatever offence be committed againſt them, whether of murder, of fraud, or of miſdemeanour, either by the peer or the peaſant, the puniſhment of the crime admits of no diſtinction, ſo preciſely *equal* do the culprits ſtand. In affairs at common law, equality of rights is ſcrupulouſly maintained; ſo that when a charge is made againſt any one perſon, and divers ought to bear it, he ſhall have relief againſt the reſt. 2 *Rep.* 25. And where a man leaves a power to his wife to give an eſtate among three daughters, in ſuch proportions as ſhe ſhall think fit: it has been held that ſhe muſt divide it *equally*; unleſs good reaſon be given for doing otherwiſe. *Preced. Canc.* 256. And in our courts of equity it is a *maxim*, that "EQUALITY IS EQUITY." *Francis's Maxims, fol.* 9. With reſpect to that perverted doctrine of *univerſal equality among men*, which would level all diſtinctions, and divide *equally* the goods of fortune, the principles of it are ſo abſurd, ſo incompatible with reaſon, and ſo utterly impoſſible to every ſtate and condition of ſociety, that we might well be ſurpriſed how the public mind could for one moment be deluded by it. On this ſubject M. Turgot has ſatisfactorily ſhewn, that inequality in the diviſion of property inevitably flows from natural cauſes. His principles are clear, and his arguments convincing. They are well worth the conſideration of thoſe who think that an equal diſtribution of a man's eſtate between his children would baniſh from the world that inequality of fortune, which has always exiſted in ſociety. This may indeed be combated on a moral principle: phyſical principles are however too ſtubborn to give way to what may be called moral propriety. M. Turgot's argument is as follows:—"The primeval or original proprietors would occupy as much land as their ſtrength would permit them with their families to cultivate. A man of greater ſtrength, more laborious, more attentive about the future, would occupy more than a man of a contrary character. He, whoſe family is the moſt numerous, having greater wants and more hands, extends his poſſeſſions farther; this is a firſt cauſe of inequality. Every piece of ground is not equally fertile; two men with the ſame extent of land, may reap a very different harveſt; this is a ſecond ſource of inequality. Property in deſcending from fathers to their children, divides into greater or leſs portions, according as the deſcendants are more or leſs numerous, and as one generation ſucceeds another, ſometimes the inheritances again ſubdivide, and ſometimes re-unite again by the extinction of ſome of the branches; this a third ſource of inequality. The difference of knowledge, of activity, and, above all, the œconomy of ſome, contraſted with the indolence, inaction, and diſſipation, of others, is a fourth principle of inequality, and the moſt powerful of all: the negligent and inattentive proprietor, who cultivates badly, who in a fruitful year, conſumes in frivolous things the whole of his ſuperfluity, finds himſelf reduced on the leaſt accident to requeſt aſſiſtance from his more provident neighbour, and to live by borrowing. If by any new accident, or by a continuation of his negligence, he finds himſelf not in a condition to repay, he is obliged to have recourſe to new loans, and at laſt has no other reſource but to abandon a part, or even the whole, of his property to his creditor, who receives it as an equivalent; or to aſſign it to another, in exchange for other valuables with which he diſcharges his obligation to his creditor."—Hence it follows moſt clearly, that if all the individuals now on the face of the earth were to be made equal in the preſent hour, they could not poſſibly be found ſo in the next.

Yet an apparently ingenious writer, Mr. Pilkington, inſiſts, that by following the benevolent precepts of our bleſſed Saviour, in diſtributing our property among thoſe who are deſtitute, it would ſoon annihilate all difference of rank and condition, and quickly eſtabliſh univerſal equality amongſt men. If this writer could but enforce his opinion, many perſons would think him, inſtead of an advocate for an *equality* of *rights*, a much more formidable opponent than even Thomas Paine. A propoſition ſo chimerical may ſuit the poor; but it will never operate upon the rich, particularly while a man may be as good a Chriſtian with *twenty thouſand* pounds, as with *twenty* pounds a-year. But that this doctrine of *univerſal equality* is not only miſchievous in its operation, but completely falſe in fact, is ſhewn in very ſtriking colours by the Rev. Dr. Rennell, maſter of the Temple, in his diſcourſes, lately publiſhed. We ſhall give the paſſage in his own words:

"At no time were men BORN equal; at no time did they BECOME, or if they were, could they CONTINUE, equal. Even previous to the exiſtence of civil government, this inequality exiſted. It is aſſerted, and with the utmoſt truth, by the profoundeſt reaſoner and matureſt thinker in Pagan antiquity, that man BROUGHT not EQUALITY, but SUBORDINATION, to political ſociety. The family diſtinctions of FATHER and CHILD, HUSBAND and WIFE, MASTER and SERVANT, exiſted BEFORE, and prepared the way for the civil relation of SUBJECT and MAGISTRATE. The ſame inequality which ſubſiſted in the *origin*, is eſſentially neceſſary to the *continuance* of the political machine. The inequality of property is the foundation of all honeſt induſtry and exertion; the protection of property once acquired is the only preventive of never-ceaſing bloodſhed, violence, and confuſion. The commoneſt ſenſe muſt inform us, that the contrary doctrine is equally deſtructive of *poor* as well as rich. Deprive the merchant of his opulence, and where can the numerous manufacturers and their families find that plentiful and comfortable maintenance, which lies open to honeſt induſtry in every commercial town in theſe kingdoms? Take from the landholder his eſtates, and where will the farmer, and much more his labourer, fly for refuge? Where will be thoſe improvements and operations of agriculture, which ſuppoſe, and neceſſarily infer, a much larger portion of landed property than can come to any man's ſhare upon an equal diviſion?" See theſe ſeveral works, and the volumes of Monthly Review, New Series.

EQUA'LITY, in painting and ſculpture, is repreſented by a middle-aged woman, holding in her right hand a pair of ſcales, and in her left a ſwallow's neſt, in which the parent bird is equally dividing the food to her young.

E'QUALL, *ſ.* Equality:

Thou, that preſum'ſt to weigh the world anew,
And all things to an *equall* to reſtore,
Inſtead of right, me ſeemes, great wrong doſt ſhew,
And far above thy force's pitch to ſore. *Spenſer.*

E'QUALLY, *adv.* In the ſame degree with another perſon or thing; alike.—To reconcile men's vices to their fears is the aim of all the various ſchemes and projects of ſin, and is *equally* intended by atheiſm and immorality. *Rogers.*—Evenly; equably; uniformly.—If the motion of the ſun were as unequal as of a ſhip, ſometimes ſlow, and at others ſwift; or, if being conſtantly *equally* ſwift, it yet was not circular, and produced not the ſame appearances, it would not help us to meaſure time more than the motion of a comet does. *Locke.*—Impartially:

We ſhall uſe them,
As we ſhall find their merits and our ſafety
May *equally* determine. *Shakeſpeare.*

E'QUALNESS, *ſ.* Equality:

Let me lament
That our ſtars unreconcileable ſhould have divided
Our *equalneſs* to this. *Shakeſpeare.*

EQUAN'GULAR, *adj.* [from *equus* and *angulus*, Lat.] Conſiſting of equal angles.

EQUANI'MITY, *ſ.* [*æquanimitas*, Lat.] Evenneſs of mind, neither elated nor depreſſed.

EQUA'NIMOUS, *adj.* [*æquanimis*, Lat.] Even; not dejected; not elated.

E'QUANT, *ſ.* an imaginary circle conceived by aſtronomers, for correcting the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, and called the *equalizing circle*. See ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 330.

EQUA'TION, *ſ.* [*æquare*, Lat.] The inveſtigation of a mean proportion collected from the extremities of exceſs and defect, to be applied to the whole.—We are to find out the extremities on both ſides, and from and between them the middle daily motions of the ſun along the ecliptic; and to frame tables of *equation* of natural days, to be applied to the mean motion by addition or ſubtraction, as the caſe ſhall require. *Holder.*—By an argument taken from the *equations* of the times of the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites, it ſeems that light is propagated in time, ſpending in its paſſage from the ſun to us about ſeven minutes of time. *Newton.*

EQUA'TION, *ſ.* in algebra, an expreſſion of the ſame quantity in two diſſimilar terms, but of equal value; as, 3s.=36*d*. See ALGEBRA, vol. i. p. 288—290.

EQUA'TION, *ſ.* in aſtronomy, the difference between the time marked out by the ſun's apparent motion, and the time that is meaſured by its real or middle motion; according to which clocks and watches ought to be adjuſted. See ASTRONOMY.

EQUA'TOR, *ſ.* [*æquator*, Lat.] The equator on the earth, or equinoctial in the heavens, is a great circle, whoſe poles are the poles of the world. It divides the globe into two equal parts, the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the horizon; and at the meridian is raiſed as much above the horizon as is the complement of the latitude of the place. Whenever the ſun comes to this circle, it makes equal days and nights all round the globe, becauſe he then riſes due eaſt and ſets due weſt, which he doth at no other time of the year. See the articles ASTRONOMY and GEOGRAPHY.—By reaſon of the convexity of the earth, the eye of man, under the *equator*, cannot diſcover both the poles: neither would the eye, under the poles, diſcover the ſun in the *equator*. *Brown.*

Rocks rich in gems, and mountains big with mines,
That on the high *equator* ridgy riſe,
Whence many a burſting ſtream auriferous plays. *Thomſon.*

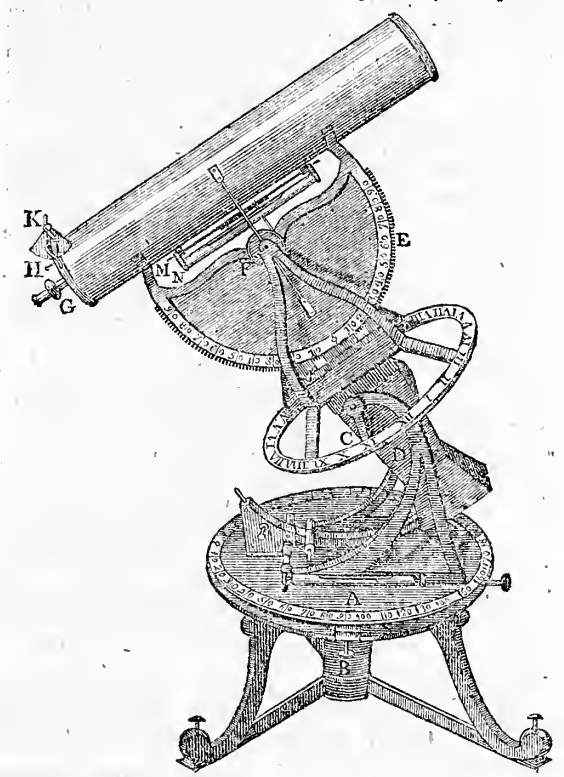
EQUATO'RIAL, *adj.* Pertaining to the equator; taken at the equator.—The planets have ſpheroidical figures, and obliquities of their *equatorial* to their ecliptic planes. *Cheyne.*

EQUATO'RIAL, *ſ.* An inſtrument calculated to anſwer a number of uſeful purpoſes in practical aſtronomy. It may be employed in any ſteady room or place, and it performs moſt of the uſeful problems with the greateſt accuracy. It is the invention of the ingenious Mr. Ramſden; and conſiſts of the following parts, as ſhewn in the annexed figure. A, the azimuth or horizontal circle, which repreſents the horizon of the place, and moves on a long axis B, called the vertical axis. C, the equatorial or hour-circle, repreſenting the equator, placed at right angles to the polar axis D, or the axis of the earth, upon which it moves. E, the ſemicircle of declination, on which the teleſcope is placed, and moving on the axis of declination, or the axis of motion of the line of collimation F; all which circles are meaſured and divided as in the following Table:

Meaſures of the ſeveral Circles, and diviſions on them.	Radius Inches	Limb divided to	Non. of 30 gives ſeconds	Divid. on limb into pts. of Inc.	Divid. by Non. into pts. of Inc.
Azimuth or horizontal circle	5·1	15′	30″	45th	1350th
Equatorial or hour circle	5·1	15′, or 1 m. in time	30″ 2″	45th	1350th
Vertical ſemicircle for declination or latitude	5·	15′	30″	42d	1260th

The teleſcope placed on the ſemicircle of declination, is an achromatic refractor with a triple object-glaſs, whoſe focal diſtance is 17 inches, and its aperture 2·45 inches, and it is furniſhed with ſix different eye-tubes; ſo that its magnifying powers extend from 44 to 168. The teleſcope in this equatorial may be brought parallel to the polar axis, as in the figure, ſo as to point to the pole-ſtar in any part of its diurnal revolution; and thus it has been obſerved near noon, when the ſun has ſhone very bright.

bright. The apparatus for correcting the error in altitude occaſioned by refraction, which is applied to the eye-end of the teleſcope, conſiſts of a ſlide G, moving in a groove or dove-tail, and carrying the ſeveral eye-tubes of the teleſcope, on which ſlide there is an index corresponding to five ſmall diviſions engraved on the dove-tail; it has a very ſmall circle, called the refraction circle H, moveable by a finger-ſcrew at the extremity of the eye-end of the teleſcope; which circle is divided into half minutes, one whole revolution of it being equal to 3′ 18″, and by its motion it raiſes the centre of the croſs-hairs on a circle of altitude; and alſo a quadrant I, of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch radius, with diviſions on each ſide, one expreſſing the degree of altitude of the object viewed, and the other expreſſing the minutes and ſeconds of error occaſioned by refraction, correſponding to that degree of altitude. To this quadrant is joined a ſmall round level, K, which is adjuſted partly by the pinion that turns the whole of this apparatus, and partly by the index of the quadrant; for which purpoſe the refraction circle is ſet to the ſame minute, &c. which the index points to on the limb of the quadrant; and if the minute, &c. given by the quadrant,



exceed the 3′ 18″ contained in one entire revolution of the refraction circle, this muſt be ſet to the exceſs above one or more of its entire revolutions; then the centre of the croſs-hairs will appear to be raiſed on a circle of altitude to the additional height which the error of refraction will occaſion at that altitude.

The principal adjuſtment in this inſtrument, is that of making the line of collimation to deſcribe a portion of an hour circle in the heavens: in order to which, the azimuth circle muſt be truly level; the line of collimation, or ſome correſponding line repreſented by the ſmall braſs rod M parallel to it, muſt be perpendicular to the axis of its own proper motion; and this laſt axis muſt be perpendicular to the polar axis. On the braſs rod M there is occaſionally placed a hanging level N, the uſe of which will appear in the following adjuſtment: The azimuth circle may be made level by turning the inſtrument till one of the levels be parallel to an imaginary line joining two of the feet ſcrews; then adjuſt that level with theſe two feet ſcrews; turn the circle 180°, or half round; and if the bubble be not then right, correct half the error by the ſcrew belonging to the level, and the other half error by the two foot ſcrews, repeating this operation till the bubble come right; then turn the circle 90° from the two former poſitions, and ſet the bubble right, if it be wrong, by the foot ſcrew at the end of the level; when this is done, adjuſt the other level by its own ſcrew, and the azimuth circle will be truly level. The hanging level muſt then be fixed to the braſs rod by two hooks of equal length, and made truly parallel to it: for this purpoſe, make the polar axis perpendicular or nearly perpendicular to the horizon; then adjuſt the level by the pinion of the declination ſemicircle: reverſe the level, and if it be wrong, correct half the error by a ſmall ſteel ſcrew that lies under one end of the level, and the other half error by the pinion of the declination ſemicircle, repeating the operation till the bubble be right in both poſitions. To make the braſs rod, on which the level is ſuſpended, at right angles to the axis of motion of the teleſcope, or line of collimation, make the polar axis horizontal, or nearly ſo; ſet the declination ſemicircle to 0°, and turn the hour circle till the bubble come right; then turn the declination circle to 90°; adjuſt the bubble by raiſing or depreſſing the polar axis (firſt by hand till it be nearly right, afterwards tighten with an ivory key the ſocket which runs on the arch with the polar axis, and then apply the ſame ivory key to the adjuſting ſcrew at the end of the ſaid arch till the bubble come quite right); then turn the declination circle to the oppoſite 90°; if the level be not then right, correct half the error by the aforeſaid adjuſting ſcrew at the end of the arch, and the other half error by the two ſcrews that raiſe or depreſs the end of the braſs rod. The polar axis remaining nearly horizontal as before, and the declination ſemicircle as 0°, adjuſt the bubble by the hour circle; then turn the declination ſemicircle to 90°, and adjuſt the bubble by raiſing or depreſſing the polar axis; then turn the hour circle 12 hours; and if the bubble be wrong, correct half the error by the polar axis, and the other half error by the two pair of capſtan ſcrews at the feet of the two ſupports on one ſide of the axis of motion of the teleſcope; and thus this axis will be at right angles to the polar axis. The next adjuſtment, is to make the centre of the croſs-hairs remain on the ſame object, while the eye-tube is turned quite round by the pinion of the refraction apparatus: for this adjuſtment, ſet the index on the ſlide to the firſt diviſion on the dove-tail; and ſet the diviſion marked 18″ on the refraction circle to its index; then look through the teleſcope, and with the pinion turn the eye-tube quite round; then if the centre of the hairs does not remain on the ſame ſpot during that revolution, it muſt be corrected by the four ſmall ſcrews, two and two at a time, which will be found upon unſcrewing the neareſt end of the eye-tube that contains the firſt eye-glaſs; repeating this correction till the centre of the hairs remain on the ſpot looked at during a whole revolution. To make the line of collimation parallel to the braſs rod on which the level hangs, ſet the polar axis horizontal, and the declination circle to 90°, adjuſt the level by the polar axis; look through the teleſcope on ſome diſtant horizontal object, covered by the centre of the croſs hairs: then invert the teleſcope, which is done by turning the hour circle half round; and if the centre of the croſs-hairs does not cover the ſame object as before, correct half the error by the uppermoſt and lowermoſt of the four ſmall ſcrews at the eye-end of the large tube of the teleſcope; this correction will give a ſecond object now covered by the centre of the hairs, which muſt be adopted inſtead of the firſt object; then invert the teleſcope as before; and if the ſecond object be not covered by the centre of the hairs, correct half the error by the ſame two ſcrews as were uſed before: this correction will give a third object, now covered by the centre of the hairs, which muſt be adopted inſtead of the

ſecond

ſecond object; repeat this operation till no error remain; then ſet the hour circle exactly to 12 hours, the declination circle remaining at 90° as before; and if the centre of the croſs-hairs do not cover the laſt object fixed on, ſet it to that object by the two remaining ſmall ſcrews at the eye-end of the large tube, and then the line of collimation will be parallel to the braſs rod. For rectifying the nonius of the declination and equatorial circles, lower the teleſcope as many degrees, &c. below 0° on the declination ſemicircle as are equal to the complement of the latitude; then elevate the polar axis till the bubble be horizontal; and thus the equatorial circle will be elevated to the co-latitude of the place: ſet this circle to 6 hours; adjuſt the level by the pinion of the declination circle; then turn the equatorial circle exactly 12 hours from the laſt poſition; and if the level be not right, correct one half of the error by the equatorial circle, and the other half by the declination circle: then turn the equatorial circle back again exactly 12 hours from the laſt poſition; and if the level be ſtill wrong, repeat the correction as before, till it be right, when turned to either poſition: that being done, ſet the nonius of the equatorial circle exactly to 6 hours, and the nonius of the declination circle exactly to 0°.

The chief uſes of this equatorial are, Firſt, To find the meridian by one obſervation only: for this purpoſe, elevate the equatorial circle to the co-latitude of the place, and ſet the declination ſemicircle to the ſun's declination for the day and hour of the day required; then move the azimuth and hour circles both at the ſame time, either in the ſame or contrary direction, till you bring the centre of the croſs-hairs in the teleſcope exactly to cover the centre of the ſun; when that is done, the index of the hour circle will give the apparent or ſolar time at the inſtant of obſervation; and thus the time is gained, though the ſun be at a diſtance from the meridian; then turn the hour circle till the index points preciſely at 12 o'clock, and lower the teleſcope to the horizon, in order to obſerve ſome point there in the centre of the glaſs; and that point is the meridian mark, found by one obſervation only. The beſt time for this operation is three hours before, or three hours after, twelve at noon.—Secondly, To point the teleſcope on a ſtar, though not on the meridian, in full day-light. Having elevated the equatorial circle to the co-latitude of the place, and ſet the declination ſemicircle to the ſtar's declination, move the index of the hour circle till it ſhall point to the preciſe time at which the ſtar is then diſtant from the meridian, found in the tables of the right aſcenſion of the ſtars, and the ſtar will then appear in the glaſs.—Beſides theſe uſes, peculiar to this inſtrument, it may alſo be applied to all the purpoſes to which the principal aſtronomical inſtruments are applied; ſuch as a tranſit inſtrument, a quadrant, and an equal-altitude inſtrument.

EQUE'A, a town of Africa, on the Gold Coaſt.

E'QUERY, or EQUERRY, *ſ.* [*ecuyer*, Fr.] An officer who has the care and management of the horſes of a king or prince. Stables for horſes, furniſhed with all conveniences. The lodging places or apartments of the equerries or grooms.

E'QUES, *ſ.* the KNIGHT; a new genus of fiſhes in Block's ſyſtem; for the ſpecies of which ſee CHÆTODON.

EQUE'STRIAN, *adj.* [*equeſtris*, Lat.] Being on horſeback.—An *equeſtrian* lady appeared upon the plains. *Spectator.*—Skilled in horſemanſhip. Belonging to the ſecond rank in Rome.

EQUESTRIAN GAMES, among the Romans, horſe-races, of which there were five kinds: the *prodromus* or plain horſe-race, the *chariot-race*, the *decurſory-race* about funeral piles, the *ludi ſevirales*, and the *ludi neptunales*.

EQUESTRIAN ORDER, the knights or equites of ancient Rome.

EQUE'STRIAN STATUE, in ſculpture, the figure of a perſon on horſeback.—See the article SCULPTURE.

EQUIAN'GULAR, *adj.* in mathematics, a figure that has all its angles equal among themſelves; as the ſquare, and all the regular figures. An equilateral figure inſcribed in a circle, is always equiangular. But an equiangular figure inſcribed in a circle, is not always equilateral, except when it has an odd number of ſides: If the ſides be of an even number, then they may either be all equal, or elſe half of them will always be equal to each other, and the other half to each other, the equals being placed alternately. *Equiangular*, is alſo ſaid of any two figures of the ſame kind, when each angle of the one is equal to a correſponding angle in the other, whether each figure, ſeparately conſidered in itſelf, be an equiangular figure or not; that is, having all its angles equal to each other. Thus, two triangles are equiangular to each other, if, ex. gr. one angle in each be of 30°, a ſecond angle in each of 50°, and the third angle of each equal to 100 degrees. *Equiangular triangles* have not their like ſides neceſſarily equal, but only proportional to each other; and ſuch triangles are always ſimilar to each other.

EQUICU'LUS or EQUUS MINOR, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere. See EQUULEUS.

EQUICRU'RAL, or EQUICRURE, *adj.* [*æquus* and *crus*, Lat.] Having legs of an equal length, and longer than the baſe; iſoſceles.—An *equicrure* triangle goes upon a certain proportion of length, and breadth. *Digby.*—We ſucceſſively draw lines from angle to angle, until ſeven *equicrural* triangles be deſcribed. *Brown.*

EQUIDIF'FERENT, *adj.* in arithmetic, belonging to a ſeries of four quantities in which there is the ſame difference between the firſt and ſecond as between the third and fourth.

EQUIDIS'TANCE, *ſ.* [from *equidiſtant.*] The ſtate of being equally diſtant.

EQUIDIS'TANT, *adj.* [*equus* and *diſtans*, Lat.] At the ſame diſtance.—The fix ſtars are not all placed in the ſame concave ſuperficies, and *equidiſtant* from us, as they ſeem to be. *Ray.*

EQUIDIS'TANTLY, *adv.* At the ſame diſtance.—The liver, ſeated on the right ſide, by the ſubclavian diviſion *equidiſtantly* communicates unto either arm. *Brown.*

EQUIFO'RMITY, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *forma*, Lat.] Uniform equality.—No diverſity or difference, but a ſimplicity of parts and *equiformity* of motion. *Brown.*

EQUILA'TERAL, *adj.* [*equus* and *latus*, Lat.] Having all ſides equal.—Circles or ſquares, or triangles *equilateral*, which are all figures of equal lines, can differ but in greater or leſſer. *Bacon.*

To EQUILI'BRATE, *v. a.* To balance equally; to keep even with equal weight on each ſide.—The bodies of fiſhes are *equilibrated* with the water in which they ſwim. *Arbuthnot.*

EQUILIBRA'TION, *ſ.* Equipoiſe; the act of keeping the balance even.—In ſo great a variety of motions, as running, leaping, and dancing, nature's laws of *equilibration* are obſerved. *Derham.*

EQUILI'BRIUM, *ſ.* [Lat.] Equipoiſe; equality of weight.—Equality of evidence, motives, or powers of any kind.—Health conſiſts in the *equilibrium* between thoſe two powers, when the fluids move ſo equally that they don't preſs upon the ſolids with a greater force than they can bear. *Arbuthnot.*—*Equilibrium* in ſolid bodies forms a conſiderable part of the ſcience of ſtatics; and equilibrium of fluids a conſiderable part of the doctrine of hydroſtatics. *Hutton.*

It is in *equilibrio*
If deities deſcend or no;
Then let th' affirmative prevail,
As requiſites to form my tale. *Prior.*

EQUIMUL'TIPLES, *ſ.* in arithmetic and geometry, numbers or quantities multiplied by one and the ſame number or quantity. Hence, equimultiples are always in

the ſame ratio to each other as the ſimple quantities before multiplication: thus, if 6 and 8 are multiplied by 4, the equimultiples 24 and 32 will be to each other as 6 to 8.

EQUINE'CESSARY, *adj.* [*æquus* and *neceſſarius*, Lat.] Needful in the ſame degree:

For both to give blows and to carry,
In fights, are *equineceſſary*. *Hudibras.*

EQUINOC'TIAL, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *nox*, Lat.] A great circle conceived in the heavens, under which the terreſtrial equator moves in its diurnal motion. The poles of this circle are the poles of the world. It divides the ſphere into two equal parts, the northern and ſouthern. See ASTRONOMY, vol. i. p. 325, &c. The *equinoctial points*, are the two oppoſite points where the ecliptic and equinoctial croſs each other; the one point being in the beginning of Aries, and called the vernal point, or vernal equinox; and the other in the beginning of Libra, and called the autumnal point, or autumnal equinox. It is found by obſervation, that the equinoctial points, and all the other points of the ecliptic, are continually moving backwards, or in antecedentia, i. e. weſtwards. This retrograde motion of the equinoctial points, is that phenomenon called the Preceſſion of the Equinoxes. See ASTRONOMY, p. 372.

EQUINOC'TIAL, *adj.* Pertaining to the equinox:

Thrice th' *equinoctial* line
He circled; four times croſs'd the car of night
From pole to pole, traverſing each colure. *Milton.*

Happening about the time of the equinoxes.—Being near the equinoctial line; having the properties of things near the equator:

In vain they covet ſhades and Thracia's gales,
Pining with *equinoctial* heat. *Philips.*

EQUINOC'TIALLY, *adv.* In the direction of the equinoctial.—They may be refrigerated inclinately, or ſomewhat *equinoctially*; that is, towards the eaſtern and weſtern points. *Brown.*

E'QUINOX, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *nox*, Lat.] Equinoxes are the preciſe times in which the ſun enters into the firſt point of Aries and Libra; for then, moving exactly under the equinoctial, he makes our days and nights equal. This he doth twice a year, about the 21ſt of March and 23d of September, which therefore are called the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. See ASTRONOMY.

'Twas now the month in which the world began,
If March beheld the firſt created man;
And ſince the vernal *equinox*, the ſun
In Aries twelve degrees or more had run. *Dryden.*

Equality; even meaſure. *Improper:*

Do but ſee his vice;
'Tis to his virtue a juſt *equinox*;
The one as long as th' other. *Shakeſpeare.*

Equinoctial wind; a poetical uſe:

The paſſage yet was good; the wind, 'tis true,
Was ſomewhat high, but that was nothing new,
No more than uſual *equinoxes* blew. *Dryden.*

EQUINU'MERANT, *adj.* [*æquus* and *numerus*, Lat.] Having the ſame number; conſiſting of the ſame number.—This talent of gold, though not *equinumerant*, nor yet equiponderant, as to any other; yet was equivalent to ſome correſpondent talent in braſs. *Arbuthnot.*

To EQUIP', *v. a.* [*equipper*, Fr.] To furniſh for a horſeman or cavalier. To furniſh; to accoutre; to dreſs out.—The country are led aſtray in following the town; and *equipped* in a ridiculous habit, when they fancy themſelves in the height of the mode. *Addiſon.*

E'QUIPAGE, *ſ.* [*equipage*, Fr.] Furniture for a horſeman. Carriage of ſtate; vehicle:

Myriads, between two brazen mountains lodg'd
Againſt a ſolemn day, harneſs'd at hand,
Celeſtial *equipage!* *Milton.*

Attendance; retinue. Accoutrements; furniture:

Soon as thy dreadful trump begins to ſound,
The god of war, with his fierce *equipage*,
Thou do'ſt awake, ſleep never-he ſo ſound. *Spenſer.*

E'QUIPAGED, *adj.* Accoutered; attended; having fine habits; having ſplendid retinue:

She forth iſſued with a goodly train
Of ſquires and ladies, *equipaged* well,
And entertained them right fairly, as befell. *Spenſer.*

EQUIPARA'TES, *ſ.* [*æquiparata*, Lat.] In logic, things compared and made equal.

EQUIPEN'DENCY, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *pendeo*, Lat.] The act of hanging in equipoiſe; not determined either way.—The will of man, in the ſtate of innocence, had an entire freedom, a perfect *equipendency* and indifference to either part of the contradiction, to ſtand or not to ſtand. *South.*

EQUIP'MENT, *ſ.* The act of equipping or accoutring.—Accoutrement; equipage.

E'QUIPOISE, *ſ.* [*æquus*, Lat. and *poids*, Fr.] Equality of weight; equilibration; equality of force.—In the temperate zone of our life there are few bodies at ſuch an *equipoiſe* of humours, but that the prevalency of ſome one indiſpoſeth the ſpirits. *Glanville.*

EQUIPOL'LENCE, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *pollentia*, Lat.] Equality of force or power.

EQUIPOL'LENT, *adj.* [*æquipollens*, Lat.] Having equal power or force; equivalent.—Votary reſolution is made *equipollent* to cuſtom, even in matter of blood. *Bacon.*

EQUIPON'DERANCE, or EQUIPON'DERANCY, *ſ.* [*æquus* and *pondus*, Lat.] Equality of weight; equipoiſe.

EQUIPON'DERANT, *adj.* [*æquus* and *ponderans*, Lat.] Being of the ſame weight.—A column of air, of any given diameter, is *equiponderant* to a column of quickſilver of between twenty-nine and thirty inches height. *Locke.*

To EQUIPON'DERATE, *v. n.* [*æquus* and *pondero*, Lat.] To weigh equal to any thing.—The heavineſs of any weight doth increaſe proportionably to its diſtance from the centre: thus one pound A at D, will *equiponderate* unto two pounds at B, if the diſtance A D is double unto A B. *Wilkins.*

EQUIPON'DEROUS, or EQUIPONDIOUS, *adj.* [*æquus* and *pondus*, Lat.] Equilibrated; equal on either part. *Not in uſe.*—The ſceptics affected an indifferent *equipondious* neutrality, as the only means to their ataraxia. *Glanville.*

EQUI'RIA, *ſ.* Feſtivals eſtabliſhed at Rome, by Romulus, in honour of Mars, when horſe-races and games were exhibited in the Campus Martius. *Varro.*

EQUISE'TUM, *ſ.* [of Pliny; from *equi ſeta*, Lat. horſe-hair.] HORSE-TAIL; in botany, a genus of the claſs cryptogamia, order filices, natural order of filices or ferns. The generic characters are—Fructifications diſpoſed into a long ovate-oblong ſpike; each orbiculate, gaping at the baſe with ſeveral valves, connected by a flat ſhield-ſhaped top.

Deſcription. Roots perennial, creeping. They are leafleſs herbs, with a hollow ſtreaked ſtem, either ſimple or branched, the branchlets uſually diſpoſed in whorls; it is jointed, and the joints are ſurrounded with a toothed ſheath. The vernal ſtems uſually bear a ſort of cone, and ſoon periſh; theſe are ſucceeded by others without cones, and laſting much longer. Perhaps the former are males, the latter females, in which the ſex has not been diſcovered. Hedwig takes the little balls for the ſtigma, and the briſtles covered with duſt, converging in wet, and ſpreading in a dry ſituation, for ſtamens. Linnæus, Scopoli, Curtis, and others, conſider the powder in the ſpikes as the ſeed. Adanſon has removed the horſe-tails from the cryptogamous plants, and placed them in the family of pines, from which they differ in every reſpect.

Species. 1. Equiſetum ſylvaticum, or wood horſe-tail: ſtem ſpiked, fronds compound. This grows to the height of a foot or eighteen inches, and even of three or four feet. There are twelve or more (ſixteen to twenty-four, *Leers*; twenty-four to thirty, *Scop.*) branchlets, or leaves

as ſome call them, in a whorl; theſe are very ſlender, about five inches long, quadrangular, and beſet with ſeveral other ſecondary whorls, having five to ſeven branchlets on each; ſo that the whole reſembles a pine-tree in miniature. The flowering ſpike is at the end of the frond. Native of moſt parts of Europe, in woods and ſhady places; flowering in April and May. According to Linnæus, it is a principal food of horſes in ſome parts of Sweden. Scopoli affirms that it is noxious to kine, making them ſhed their teeth, and bringing on a diarrhœa. This is alſo ſaid of the two next ſpecies.

2. Equiſetum arvenſe, or corn horſe-tail: fruit-bearing ſcape naked, barren leafy. The naked flowering ſtems appear early in the ſpring, and ſoon decay: they are the thickneſs of a large wheat ſtraw, a hand's breadth or more in height, upright, yelloviſh, with from two to five joints, covered with membranous ribbed ſheaths, divided at the top into numerous ſegments or teeth. Native of moſt parts of Europe, the Levant, Japan, and North America, in corn-fields and wet meadows, flowering in March, April, and May. It is a troubleſome weed, and difficult to extirpate. The country people call it *horſe-pipe* and *ſnake-pipe*. It is ſuppoſed to indicate ſubterraneous flowing waters or ſprings.

3. Equiſetum paluſtre, or marſh horſe-tail: ſtem angular, fronds ſimple. The ſtem is a foot or eighteen inches high, nearly ſmooth, channelled with five or ſix deep furrows. Grows in marſhes and ditches; flowering in June.

E. pal. minus polyſtachion, the variety, has ſmaller fronds, almoſt all the branchlets having a ſpike at the end, but that at the end of the ſtem twice as large as the reſt.

4. Equiſetum fluviatile, or river horſe-tail: ſtem ſtreaked, fronds almoſt ſimple. This is the largeſt of all the European ſpecies. The ſtem is three or four feet high, the thickneſs of a finger, and ſometimes near an inch in diameter, ſtreaked, not furrowed, ſmooth, ſoft, of a pale or whitiſh colour at firſt, but blackiſh in decay; joints numerous, ſheaths ſtreaked, and divided into as many long linear dents as there are branchlets in the whorl, that is, from twenty-four to thirty, thirty-ſix, and even forty; the branchlets or leaves are quadrangular, and generally ſimple. The ſpikes grow diſtinct from the fronds on ſcapes, but from the ſame root; theſe come out earlier, are a foot or eighteen inches in height, and the ſpikes are replete with a blueiſh powder. Haller tells us that this ſpecies was eaten by the common people among the Romans; and Linnæus affirms, that rein-deer, who refuſe hay, will however eat this; that it is cut as fodder for kine, with a view to increaſe their milk; but that it is not ſo acceptable to horſes. Native of Europe, on the banks of rivers, lakes, ponds, and ditches; flowering in May and June.

5. Equiſetum limoſum, or ſmooth horſe-tail: ſtem almoſt naked, ſmooth, and even. This grows three or four feet high, and is often quite deſtitute of leaves, but ſometimes produces a few ſtraggling ones. Haller is of opinion that this is only a variety of the paluſtre. Linnæus and Leers ſuſpect it to be a variety of the foregoing. Found in watery places, lakes, ponds, and ditches; flowering in May and June.

6. Equiſetum hyemale, or rough horſe-tail: ſtem naked, ſcabrous, ſubracemed at the baſe. Stems evergreen, about eighteen inches high, naked and unbranched for the moſt part, but ſometimes emitting two or three lateral branches near the baſe; they are furrowed with eighteen or twenty rough obtuſe angles, and many of the joints are three inches aſunder. This is the beſt ſpecies for poliſhing wood and metal, as being the hardeſt and rougheſt. Hence our old writers called it *ſhave-graſs*. It is much uſed by the whiteſmiths and cabinet-makers, under the name of Dutch ruſhes. In Northumberland, the dairy-maids ſcour their milk-pails with it. Gerarde ſays, that the women ſcower their pewter and wooden things of the kitchen therewith, and thence call it *pewterwort*; and that the fletchers and comb-makers do rub and poliſh their work with it. Native of Europe, by river ſides, in bogs and watery places, and in wet marſhy places in woods: flowering in July and Auguſt; alſo of Japan.

7. Equiſetum giganteum, or giant horſe-tail: ſtem ſtreaked, arboreſcent; fronds ſimple, ſtrict, ſpike-bearing. We have no deſcription of this ſpecies. It is a native of South America.

Propagation and Culture. Though the horſe-tails be inhabitants of the water, or at leaſt flouriſh beſt where they can lodge their perennial creeping roots in a wet ſoil or ſtrong clay which holds the wet, yet they will grow without difficulty in a garden, eſpecially near water, or under a north wall, or in the ſhade: they require only to be kept within bounds, as they run much at the root; it is better, therefore, to plant them in pots, plunged in the earth, than in the open ground. It is not ſo eaſy to extirpate them from cultivated lands. Haller ſays that he tried in vain to accompliſh it by ploughing, dunging, and other methods; and that any one who publiſhed the ſecret of deſtroying this unpropitious weed, ſo injurious to kine, would merit a conſiderable reward. Draining lands infeſted with it, would have the beſt chance of removing the evil. See CERATOPHYLLUM, CHARA, HIPPURIS, and ELATINE.

E'QUITABLE, [*equitable*, Fr.] Juſt; due to juſtice.—It ſeems but *equitable* to give the artiſts leave to name them as they pleaſe. *Boyle.*—Loving juſtice; candid; impartial; as, an *equitable* judge.

E'QUITABLENESS, *ſ.* Juſtneſs.—Demonſtrating both the *equitableneſs* and practicableneſs of the thing. *Locke.*

E'QUITABLY, *adv.* Juſtly; impartially.

E'QUITY, *ſ.* [*equité*, Fr. *æquitas*, Lat.] Juſtice; right; honeſty.—Chriſtianity ſecures both the private intereſt of men and the public peace, enforcing all juſtice and *equity*. *Tillotſon.*

Foul ſubordination is predominant,
And *equity* exil'd your highneſs' land. *Shakeſpeare.*

Impartiality.—Liking their own ſomewhat better than other mens, even becauſe they are their own, they muſt in *equity* allow us to be like unto them in this affection. *Hooker.*

E'QUITY, in law, is defined to be a correction, or qualification of the common law, generally made in that part wherein it faileth, or is too ſevere. It likewiſe ſignifies the extenſion of the words of the ſtatute law to caſes unexpreſſed, yet having the ſame reaſon: ſo that where one thing is enacted by ſtatute, all other things are enacted that are of the like degree: for example; the ſtatute of Glouceſter gives action of waſte againſt him that holds lands for life or years; and by the equity thereof, a man ſhall have action of waſte againſt a tenant that holds but for one year, or half-year, which is without the words of the act, but within the meaning of it; and the words that enact the one, by equity enact the other. *Terms de Ley.* So that equity is of two kinds; the one doth abridge and take from the letter of the law; and the other enlarge and add thereto. And ſtatutes may be conſtrued according to equity; eſpecially where they give remedy for wrong, or are for expedition of juſtice, &c. *Co. Lit.* 24. 2 *Inſt.* 106. A court of equity cannot now be created by the king, but the ſame muſt be done by act of parliament. 4 *Inſt.* 84.

The diſtinction between law and equity, as adminiſtered in different courts, is not at preſent known, nor ſeems to have ever been known, in any other country than England. With us the *Aula regia* which was anciently the ſupreme court of judicature, undoubtedly adminiſtered equal juſtice according to the rules of both or either, as the caſe might chance to require: and, when that was broken to pieces, the idea of a court of equity, as diſtinguiſhed from a court of law, did not ſubſiſt in the original plan of partition. For though equity is mentioned by *Bracton l.* 2. *c.* 7. *pl.* 23, as a thing contraſted to ſtrict law, yet neither in that writer, nor in Glanvill or Fleta, nor yet in Britton, (compoſed under the auſpices and in the name

name of Edward I. and treating particularly of courts and their ſeveral juriſdictions,) is there a ſyllable to be found relating to the equitable juriſdiction of the court of chancery. It ſeems therefore probable, that when the courts of law, proceeding merely upon the ground of the king's original writs, and confining themſelves ſtrictly to that bottom, gave a harſh or imperfect judgment, the application for redreſs uſed to be to the king in perſon aſſiſted by his privy council; (from whence alſo aroſe the juriſdiction of the court of requeſts, which was virtually aboliſhed by 16 Car. I. c. 10;) and they were wont to refer the matter either to the chancellor and a ſelect committee, or by degrees to the chancellor only, who mitigated the ſeverity, or ſupplied the defects, of the judgments pronounced in the courts of law, upon weighing the circumſtances of the caſe. This was the cuſtom not only among our Saxon anceſtors, before the inſtitution of the *Aula regia*, but alſo after its diſſolution, in the reign of Edward I. and perhaps during its continuance, in that of Henry II. *Ll. Ed. c. 2. Lamb. Arch.* 59.

When, about the end of the reign of Edward III. uſes of land were introduced, and though totally diſcountenanced by the courts of common law, were conſidered as fiduciary depoſits and binding in conſcience by the clergy, the ſeparate juriſdiction of the chancery as a court of equity began to be eſtabliſhed. John Waltham, biſhop of Saliſbury, and chancellor to Richard II. (by a ſtrained interpretation of the ſtatute of Weſtminſter 2. (13 *Edw* I. *c.* 24,) enabling the clerks in chancery to form new writs according to the ſpecial circumſtances of each caſe,) deviſed the writ of ſubpœna, returnable in the court of chancery only, to make the feoffee to uſes accountable to his *ceſtui que uſe*: which proceſs was afterwards extended to other matters wholly determinable at the common law, upon fictitious ſuggeſtions; for which therefore the chancellor himſelf is b 17 Rich. II. c. 6, directed to give damages to the party unjuſtly aggrieved. But as the clergy, had long attempted to turn their eccleſiaſtical courts into courts of equity, by entertaining ſuits *pro læſione fidei*, as a ſpiritual offence againſt conſcience, in caſe of non-payment of debts or any breach of civil contracts; till checked by the Conſtitutions of Clarendon (10 Hen. II. c. 15); therefore probably the eccleſiaſtical chancellors, who then held the ſeal, were remiſs in abridging their own new acquired juriſdiction; eſpecially as the ſpiritual courts continued to graſp at the ſame authority as before, till finally prohibited by the unanimous concurrence of all the judges.

In the time of lord chancellor Elleſmere, A. D. 1616, aroſe that famous diſpute between the courts of law and equity, ſet on foot by ſir Edward Coke, then chief juſtice of the court of king's bench; whether a court of equity could give relief after or againſt a judgment at the common law. This conteſt was ſo warmly carried on, that indictments were preferred againſt the ſuitors, the ſolicitors, the counſel, and even a maſter in chancery, for having incurred a præmunire by queſtioning in a court of equity a judgment in the court of king's bench, obtained by groſs fraud and impoſition. This matter being brought before the king, was by him referred to his learned counſel for their advice and opinion; who reported ſo ſtrongly in favour of the courts of equity, that his majeſty gave judgment on their behalf. *Whitelock* of *Parl.* 2, 390. Lord Bacon, who ſucceeded lord Elleſmere, reduced the practice of the court into a more regular ſyſtem; his ſucceſſors in the reign of Charles I. did little to improve upon his plan; till the appointment of ſir Heneage Finch in 1673, who became afterwards earl of Nottingham. He was a perſon of the greateſt abilities and moſt uncorrupted integrity; a thorough maſter and zealous defender of the laws and conſtitution of his country; and endued with a pervading genius that enabled him to diſcover and to purſue the true ſpirit of juſtice, notwithſtanding the embarraſſments raiſed by the narrow and technical notions which then prevailed in the courts of law, and the imperfect ideas of redreſs which had poſſeſſed the courts of equity. The reaſon and neceſſities of mankind, ariſing from the great change in property by the extenſion of trade and the abolition of military tenures, co-operated in eſtabliſhing his plan, and enabling him in the courſe of nine years to build a ſyſtem of juriſprudence and juriſdiction, upon wide and national foundations, which have alſo been extended and improved by many great men, who have ſince preſided in chancery.

Upon the abolition of the court of wards, the care, which the crown was bound to take as guardian of its infant tenants, was totally extinguiſhed in every feodal view; but reſulted to the king in his court of chancery, together with the general protection of all other *infants* in the kingdom. When therefore a fatherleſs child has no other guardian, the court of chancery has a right to appoint one, and from all proceedings relative thereto, an appeal lies to the houſe of lords. The court of exchequer can only appoint a guardian *ad litem*, to manage the defence of the infant if a ſuit be commenced againſt him; a power which is incident to the juriſdiction of every court of juſtice. *Cro. Jac.* 641. But when the intereſt of a minor comes before the court judicially, in the progreſs of a cauſe, or upon a bill for that purpoſe filed, either tribunal indiſcriminately will take care of the property of the infant. As to ideots and lunatics, the king himſelf uſed formerly to commit the cuſtody of them to proper committees, in every particular caſe; but now to avoid ſolicitations and the very ſhadow of undue partiality, a warrant is iſſued by the king under his royal ſign manual to the chancellor, to perform this office for him: and if he acts improperly in granting ſuch cuſtodies, the complaint muſt be made to the king himſelf in council. 3 *P. Wms.* 108. But the previous proceedings on the commiſſion, to enquire whether or no the party be an ideot or a lunatic, are on the law-ſide of the court of chancery, and can only be redreſſed, if erroneous, by writ of error in the regular courſe of law.

The king, as *parens patriæ*, has the general ſuperintendence of all charities; which he exerciſes by the chancellor. And, therefore, when neceſſary, the attorney-general, at the relation of ſome informant, (who is uſually called the relator) files *ex officio* an information in the court of chancery to have the charity properly eſtabliſhed. By ſtat. 43 Eliz. c. 4, authority is given to the lord chancellor, and to the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaſter, reſpectively, to grant commiſſions under their ſeveral ſeals, to enquire into any abuſes of charitable donations, and rectify the ſame by decree; which may be reviewed in the reſpective courts of the ſeveral chancellors, upon exceptions taken thereto. But, though this is done in the petty-bag office in the court of chancery becauſe the commiſſion is there returned, it is not a proceeding at common law, but treated as an original cauſe in the court of equity. The evidence below is not taken down in writing, and the reſpondent in his anſwer to the exceptions may allege what new matter he pleaſes; upon which they go to proof, and examine witneſſes in writing upon all the matters in iſſue: and the court may decree the reſpondent to pay all the coſts, though no ſuch authority is given by the ſtatute. And as it is thus conſidered as an original cauſe throughout, an appeal lies of courſe from the chancellor's decree to the houſe of peers, notwithſtanding any looſe opinions to the contrary. *Duke's Char. Uſes*, 62, 128.

By the ſeveral ſtatutes relating to bankrupts, a ſummary juriſdiction is given to the chancellor, in many matters conſequential or previous to the commiſſions thereby directed to be iſſued; from which the ſtatutes give no appeal. The juriſdiction of the court of chancery doth not however extend to ſome cauſes, wherein relief may be had in the exchequer. No information can be brought, in chancery, for ſuch miſtaken charities as are given to the king by the ſtatutes for ſuppreſſing ſuperſtitious uſes. Nor can chancery give any relief againſt the king, or direct any act to be done by him, or make any decree diſpoſing

poſing of or affecting his property; not even in caſes where he is a royal truſtee. Such cauſes muſt be determined in the court of exchequer, as a court of revenue; which alone has power over the king's treaſure, and the officers employed in its management, unleſs where it properly belongs to the duchy court of Lancaſter.

Equity is to be conſidered as aſſiſtant to the juriſdiction of the courts of law; 1ſt. By removing legal impediments to the fair deciſion of a queſtion depending in courts of law. 2dly. By compelling a diſcovery which may enable them to decide. 3dly. By perpetuating teſtimony, when in danger of being loſt, before the matter to which it relates can be made the ſubject of judicial inveſtigation. It may alſo be ſaid to be aſſiſtant, by rendering the judgments of courts of law effective, as by providing for the ſafety of property in diſpute pending a litigation; by counteracting fraudulent judgments; and by putting a bound to vexatious and oppreſſive litigation. It exerciſes a concurrent juriſdiction with courts of law, in moſt caſes of fraud, accident, miſtake, account, partition, and dower. It claims an excluſive juriſdiction in all matters of truſt and confidence; and wherever, upon the principles of univerſal juſtice, the interference of a court of judicature is neceſſary to prevent a wrong, and the poſitive law is ſilent. See Mitford's Treatiſe on the Pleadings in Chancery. This juriſdiction may, in the greater number of caſes in which it is exerciſed, be juſtified by the propriety of preventing a multiplicity of ſuits; for, as the mode of proceeding in courts of law requires the plaintiff to eſtabliſh his caſe, without enabling him to draw the neceſſary evidence from the examination of the defendant, juſtice could never be attained at law in thoſe caſes where the principal facts to be proved by one party are confined to the knowledge of the other party. In ſuch caſes, therefore, it becomes neceſſary for the party, in want of ſuch evidence, to reſort to the extraordinary powers of a court of equity, which will compel the neceſſary diſcovery; and the court, having acquired cognizance of the ſuit for the purpoſe of diſcovery, will entertain it for the purpoſe of relief, in moſt caſes of fraud, account, accident, and miſtake; and for other reaſons will entertain ſuits for partition and dower, though diſcovery be not neceſſary to the plaintiff's caſe.

The caſe (and, it ſeems, the only caſe) in which fraud cannot be relieved againſt in equity, concurrently with courts of law, though diſcovery be ſought, is the caſe of fraud, in obtaining a will; which, ſince the caſe of Kerrick *v.* Bransby, 3 *Brown's Parl. Caſ.* 358, is conſtantly referred to a court of law in the ſhape of an iſſue, *deviſavit vel non*. That courts of equity have a concurrence of juriſdiction with courts of law, in all other matters of fraud; ſee White *v.* Huſſey, *Pre. Ch.* 14. Hungerford *v.* Earle, 2 *Vern.* 261. Colt *v.* Woollaſton, 2 *Pr. Wms.* 156. Stent *v.* Baillis, 2 *P. Wms.* 220. 2 *Comyns's Digeſt*, titles *Chancery* and *Fraud*.

The juriſdiction exerciſed by our courts of equity, in moſt caſes of *accident*, preſents a very ſtriking inſtance of their anxiety to prevent innovation on the juriſdiction of courts of law: their interference being generally founded on ſome circumſtance, which prevents the party being relievable at law; as where a bond or other inſtrument or ſecurity, is loſt, equity will interfere, by compelling a diſcovery from the defendant, and will relieve upon ſuch diſcovery; but the plaintiff is not entitled to any relief, upon a mere ſuggeſtion that the bond, inſtrument, or ſecurity, is loſt; but is required, for the purpoſe of relief, to annex to his bill, an affidavit to ſuch effect. *Mitford's Treatiſe* 112. And, as a further ſecurity againſt innovation, it muſt appear that the loſs of the deed or inſtrument obſtructs the plaintiff in ſeeking relief at law: for the loſs of a deed is not always a ground to come into a court of equity for relief; if there was no more in the caſe, although he is entitled to have a diſcovery of that, whether loſt or not, courts of law admit evidence of the loſs of a deed, proving the exiſtence of it and its contents, juſt as a court of equity does. There are two grounds to come into equity for relief, annexing an affidavit to the bill. Firſt, where the deed is deſtroyed or concealed by the defendant; and whenever that is the caſe, the plaintiff is intitled to have relief in this court, upon the reaſon in lord Hunſdon's caſe. *Hob.* 109. Another is, where the plaintiff cannot recover at law, without making profert of the deed in pleading at law. Whitfield *v.* Fauſſet, 1 *Vez.* 392. But where the relief ſought in equity is upon the loſs of a bill of exchange, or promiſſory note, the plaintiff muſt, by his bill, offer to give ſecurity, as an indemnity to the defendant, againſt any demand being made upon him in reſpect of ſuch loſt bill or note. Walmſley *v.* Child, 1 *Vez.* 341.

The juriſdiction of our courts of equity, in matters of dower, for the purpoſe of aſſiſting the widow with a diſcovery of the lands or title deeds, or of removing impediments to her rendering her legal title available at law, has never been doubted. But it has been queſtioned, whether equity could give relief in thoſe caſes, in which there appeared to be no obſtacle to her legal remedy. Wallis *v.* Everard, 3 *Ch. R.* 87. It ſeems now, however, to be ſettled, that the widow labours under ſo many diſadvantages at law, from the embarraſſments of truſt terms, &c. that ſhe is fully entitled to every aſſiſtance that a court of equity can give her, not only in paving the way for her to eſtabliſh her right at law, but alſo by giving complete relief when the right is aſcertained. Curtis *v.* Curtis, 2 *Bro. C. R.* 634. And in the exerciſe of this juriſdiction, courts of equity will even enforce a diſcovery againſt a purchaſer for valuable conſideration without notice. Williams *v.* Lambe. 3 *Bro. Ch. Rep.* 264. And though the widow ſhould die before ſhe had eſtabliſhed her right to dower, equity will, in favour of her perſonal repreſentatives, decree an account of the rents and profits of the lands, of which ſhe afterwards appeared dowable.

The eſſential difference (ſays Blackſtone) between law and equity principally conſiſts in the different modes of adminiſtering juſtice in each, in the mode of *proof*, the mode of *trial*, and the mode of *relief*. Upon theſe, and upon two other accidental grounds of juriſdiction, viz. the true conſtruction of ſecurities for money lent and the form and effect of a truſt or ſecond uſe, hath been principally erected that ſtructure of juriſprudence, which prevails in our courts of equity, and is inwardly bottomed upon the ſame ſubſtantial foundations as the ſyſtem of the courts of common-law. As to the mode of *proof*. When facts, or their leading circumſtances, reſt only in the knowledge of the party, a court of equity applies itſelf to his conſcience, and purges him upon oath with regard to the truth of the tranſaction; and, that being once diſcovered, the judgment is the ſame in equity as it would have been at law. But, for want of this diſcovery at law, the courts of equity have acquired a concurrent juriſdiction with every other court in all matters of account. 1 *Chan. C.* 57. As incident to accounts, they take a concurrent cognizance of the adminiſtration of perſonal aſſets. 2 *P. Wms.* 145; conſequently of debts, legacies, the diſtribution of the reſidue, and the conduct of executors and adminiſtrators. As incident to accounts, they alſo take the concurrent juriſdiction of tithes, and all queſtions relating thereto; of all dealings in partnerſhip; and other mercantile tranſactions; and ſo of bailiffs, receivers, factors, agents, &c.

The mode of *trial*, is by interrogatories adminiſtered to the witneſſes, upon which their depoſitions are taken in writing, wherever they happen to reſide. If therefore the cauſe ariſes in a foreign country, and the witneſſes reſide upon the ſpot; if in cauſes ariſing in England, the witneſſes are abroad, or ſhortly to leave the kingdom; or if the witneſſes reſiding at home are aged or infirm; any of theſe caſes lays a ground for a court of equity to grant a commiſſion to examine them, and (in conſe-

quence) to exercise the same jurisdiction which might have been exercised at law, if the witnesses could probably attend.

E'QUITY OF REDEMPTION, on *mortgages*. If where money is due on a mortgage, the mortgagee is desirous to bar the equity of redemption, he may oblige the mortgager either to pay the money or to be foreclosed of his equity; which is done by proceedings in the court of chancery. But the chancery cannot shorten the time of payment of the mortgage money, where it is limited by express covenant; though it may lengthen it: and then upon non-payment, the practice is to foreclose the equity of redemption of the mortgagor. 2 *Vent.* 364. To foreclose the equity, a bill in chancery is exhibited; to which an answer is put in, and a decree being obtained, a master in chancery is to certify what is due for principal, interest, and costs, which is to be paid at a time prefixed by the decree, whereupon the premises are to be reconveyed to the mortgagor; or, in default of payment, the mortgagor is ordered to be foreclosed from all equity of redemption, and to convey the premises absolutely to the mortgagee.

A fine or non-claim will bar equity of redemption: but in a common mortgage, a covenant to restrain it shall not be regarded in chancery. 2 *Vent.* 365. If the condition of a mortgage is, that the mortgagor only should redeem during life, or that he and the heirs of his body shall do it; yet the general heir shall have the equity of redemption, for if the principal and interest be offered, the land is free. 1 *Vern.* 30, 190. And it is held, though a bond be conditioned, that if the money be not paid at such a time, then for a further sum the mortgagee shall have the land absolutely, as a purchasor, &c. in such case a man may also redeem. See the article MORTGAGE.

EQUI'VALENCE, or EQUIVALENCY, *s.* [*æquus* and *valeo*, Lat.] Equality of power or worth.—Civil causes are equivalent unto criminal causes, but this *equivalency* only respects the careful and diligent admission of proofs. *Ayliffe.*

To EQUI'VALENCE, *v. a.* To equiponderate; to be equal to.—Whether the trangression of Eve seducing did not exceed Adam seduced, or whether the resistibility of his reason did not *equivalence* the facility of her seduction, we shall refer to schoolmen. *Brown.*

EQUI'VALENT, *adj.* [*æquus* and *valens*, Lat.] Equal in value. Equal in any excellence:

No fair to thine
Equivalent, or second! which compell'd
Me thus, though importune perhaps, to come
And gaze, and worship thee. *Milton.*

Equal in force or power:

The dread of Israel's foes, who, with a strength
Equivalent to angels, walk'd their streets,
None offering fight. *Agonistes.*

Of the same cogency or weight.—The consideration of public utility is, by very good advice, judged at the least the *equivalent* to the easier kind of necessity. *Hooker.*—Of the same import or meaning.—The use of the word minister is brought down to the literal signification of it, a servant; for now to serve and to minister, servile and ministerial, are terms *equivalent*. *South.*

EQUI'VALENT, *s.* A thing of the same weight, dignity, or value.—Fancy a regular obedience to one law will be a full *equivalent* for their breach of another. *Rogers.*

The slave without a ransom shall be sent;
It rests for you to make th' *equivalent*. *Dryden.*

EQUI'VOCAL, *adj.* [*æquivocus*, Lat.] Of doubtful signification; meaning different things, standing for different notions.—Words of different significations, taken in general, are of an *equivocal* sense; but being considered with all their particular circumstances, they have their sense restrained. *Stilling fleet.*—Uncertain; doubtful; happening different ways.—There is no such thing as *equivocal* or spontaneous generation; but all animals are generated by animal parents of the same species with themselves. *Ray.*

Those half-learn'd witlings, num'rous in our isle,
As half-form'd insects on the banks of Nile;
Unfinish'd things, one knows not what to call,
Their generation's so *equivocal*. *Pope.*

EQUI'VOCAL, *s.* Ambiguity; word of doubtful meaning.—Shall two or three wretched *equivocals* have the force to corrupt us? *Dennis.*

EQUI'VOCALLY, *adv.* Ambiguously; in a doubtful or double sense.—Words abstracted from their proper sense and signification, lose the nature of words, and are only *equivocally* so called. *South.*—By uncertain or irregular birth; by equivocal generation; by generation out of the stated order.—No insect or animal did ever proceed *equivocally* from putrefaction, unless in miraculous cases; as in Egypt by the divine judgments. *Bentley.*

EQUI'VOCALNESS, *s.* Ambiguity; double meaning.—Distinguish the *equivocalness* or latitude of the word, and then point out that determinate part which is the ground of my demonstration. *Norris.*

To EQUI'VOCATE, *v. n.* [*æquivocatio*, Lat.] To use words of double meaning; to use ambiguous expressions; to mean one thing and express another.—Not only Jesuits can *equivocate*. *Dryden.*

My soul disdain'd a promise;—
—But yet your false *equivocating* tongue,
Your looks, your eyes, your ev'ry motion promis'd:
But you are ripe in frauds, and learn'd in falsehoods. *Smith.*

EQUIVOCA'TION, *s.* [*æquivocatio*, Lat.] Ambiguity of speech; double meaning.—Reproof is easily misapplied, and through *equivocation* wrested. *Hooker.*

I pull in resolution, and begin
To doubt the *equivocation* of the fiend
That lies like truth. *Shakespeare.*

EQUIVOCA'TOR, *s.* One who uses ambiguous language; one who uses mental reservation.—Here's an *equivocator*, that could swear in both the scales against either scale; yet could not *equivocate* to heaven. *Shakespeare.*

EQUO'REAN, *adj.* [from the Lat. *æquor*, the sea.] Belonging to the sea. *Scott.*

EQUULE'US, EQUICULUS, and EQUUS MINOR, EQUI SECTIO, *the horse's head*, one of the forty-eight old constellations in the northern hemisphere. Its stars, in Ptolomy's catalogue, are four, in Tycho's four, in Hevelius's six, and in Flamsteed's ten.

EQUULE'US, *s.* a kind of rack for extorting confessions, at first chiefly practised on criminals, but afterwards made use of against the Christians. It was made of wood, having holes at certain distances, with a screw, by which the criminal was stretched to the third, sometimes to the fourth or fifth, holes, his arms and legs being fastened on the equuleus with cords; and thus was hoisted aloft, and extended in such a manner, that all his bones were dislocated. In this state red-hot plates were applied to his body, and he was goaded in the sides with an instrument called *ungula*.

EQ'UUS, *s.* [from *equus*, Lat. equal, *quod equi pares solent quadrigis jungi*, because they are used to be yoked together.] The HORSE: in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of belluæ. This genus comprehends six species, viz. the horse, the dshiggetai or wild mule, the ass, the zebra, the quagga, and the bisulcus, or cloven-footed horse of Chili. The generic characters are: six erect and parallel fore-teeth in the upper jaw, and six somewhat more prominent ones in the under jaw; tusks or dog-teeth solitary, or remote from the rest; feet, in the first five species, consist of an undivided hoof. In the males, the teats are situated on the glans penis; and this genus has the singular properties of *voluntary* erection, and of breathing only through the nostrils, and not through the mouth.

1. *Equus Cabullus*, the wild, and domeſtic, HORSE; diſtinguiſhed by a long flowing mane, and the tail wholly covered with long hairs.—The horſe is known among moſt nations of the world, in a domeſtic ſtate. In gracefulneſs of form and dignity of carriage, he appears ſuperior to every other quadruped. Among all the inferior animals, man has found no other equally manageable and uſeful with the horſe. He is lively and high-ſpirited, yet gentle and tractable; vigorous and active; keen and ardent in his exertions, yet firm and perſevering. He ſeems equally qualified for all the different purpoſes for which man can wiſh to employ him: he ſubmits peaceably to the draught; exults in the race; diſdains every obſtacle in hunting; and on the road advances cheerfully with his maſter, for whom he conceives the attachments of a companion. In war, he performs every evolution with the utmoſt dexterity, and diſplays a degree of ardour for battle, which the courage even of the braveſt ſoldier cannot excel. The voice of this animal is peculiar; we call it *neighing*. The male becomes capable of propagating his ſpecies at the age of two or three years; and the female admits his embraces even at an earlier period. But the foals produced from ſuch young parents are of little value; ſo neceſſary is it that all animals ſhould be ſufficiently mature, before the ſexual contact takes place. In a ſtate of nature, this premature intercourſe is chiefly prevented by the jealous vigilance of thoſe that have arrived at their full vigour and ſtrength. The period of geſtation is 290 days. Horſes are known to live, when their days are not ſhortened by ill uſage, commonly to the age of five-and-twenty or thirty years.

The horſe, like the other domeſtic animals, has, no doubt, been originally tamed by human art. Wild horſes are ſtill found in various parts of the world. But this ſpecies of animals have been ſo long known in a domeſtic ſtate, and their uſeful qualities have cauſed them to be diffuſed ſo generally over the globe, that it is impoſſible to diſcover, with any degree of certainty, of what country they were originally natives. Wild horſes are found in the country lying round the lake Aral; on the river Tom, in the ſouthern part of Siberia; in the great Mongalian deſerts; and among the Kalkas, north-weſt of China. Theſe horſes are ſmaller than the domeſtic; their hair, particularly in winter, is very thick, and generally of a mouſe colour. Their heads are larger, in proportion to their bodies, than thoſe of the tame horſes; and their foreheads remarkably arched. They herd together in large companies, and often gather round the horſes of the Mongols and Kalkas, while grazing in the fields, and carry them off among them. They are obſerved to be very watchful of their common ſafety. While the herd is feeding, the native ſagacity of the horſe is manifeſted in a very extraordinary manner: a leader is ſtationed before, with its ears thrown forwards, and a centinel placed behind, with its ears hent back, to guard againſt ſurpriſe both ways; and when danger of any kind approaches, they warn their fellows by neighing, on which they all betake themſelves to flight with the utmoſt ſpeed. Yet the Kalmuks frequently ride in among the herds on very fleet tame horſes, and kill them with broad lances. Hawks are alſo uſed in taking the wild horſes; thoſe birds are taught to fix on its forehead, where they teaſe and diſtreſs it in ſuch a manner as to prevent it from eſcaping its purſuer. In the wilds of Africa too, particularly in the country adjoining to the Cape of Good Hope, numbers of wild horſes are found. Their ſize is ſmall; their diſpoſition vicious; and no art, we are told, can ſucceed in taming them. The Hottentots and Caffrees kill them for food.

In the deſerts, on each ſide of the river Don, particularly towards the Palus Mæotis and the town of Backmut, there is a race of wild horſes, which are known to be the progeny of the Ruſſian horſes that were turned looſe from the ſiege of Aſoph in 1697, for want of forage. The Coſſacks chaſe and kill theſe for their ſkins. When they happen to take a young one, it is domeſticated by coupling it for a few months with a tame horſe. Theſe are in general much ſtronger than the tame horſes of the country. The horſes of the Tartars copulate and breed with the wild horſes which carry them off: and the offſpring produced by this intermixture are diſtinguiſhable by their colours. In Spaniſh America, there are vaſt herds of wild horſes. But they are known to have been originally introduced by the Spaniards, when they firſt conquered that country. Being ſuffered to run about in thoſe extenſive and unappropriated fields and foreſts, without reſtraint or culture, they have become ſtrangers to man, and have multiplied ſo amazingly, that they are now ſpread over all the ſouth of the American continent, nearly to the Straits of Magellan. The inhabitants of thoſe regions are not without arts for taking them. When taken, they are eaſily tamed; and though ſuffered to return to their former ſtate of freedom, they are ſaid never afterwards to forget their maſters:—a moſt amazing proof of retentive memory. Ancient authors mention wild horſes as inhabitants of many other countries. Herodotus ſpeaks of a race of wild white horſes, that were found on the banks of the river Hypanis in Scythia; and mentions another tribe in the north of Thrace, whoſe hair was five inches long all over the body. Strabo ſpeaks of wild horſes on the Alps, and in Spain. Cardan, who viſited Scotland in the minority of queen Mary, relates that wild horſes then abounded in that country, and in the Orkney iſles. And, indeed, we are told, that in the highlands of Scotland, many of that ſmall breed of horſes, known in the low countries by the name of *ſhelties*, ſtill run about, almoſt wild, among the hills, in a ſtate very little different from that of the wild horſes in South America. It is worthy of notice, that the fabulous records in which the earlier hiſtory of ancient Greece is preſerved, repreſent horſes as having been firſt domeſticated by the inhabitants of Theſſaly, a country bordering on Thrace. The fable of the Centaurs is well known. From every fact that ancient authors have preſerved, or modern travellers relate, concerning the horſe in a wild ſtate, this ſpecies of animals appear to have been deſtined by nature for inhabitants, not merely of one or two different tracts of country, but of a conſiderable part of the globe. An animal ſo uſeful and ſo friendly to man, is happily qualified to be his ſervant and companion in many varieties of climate, and through a great diverſity of local circumſtances.

The wild horſes of Arabia are indiſputably to be preferred for ſwiftneſs and elegance of ſhape. They are found in the deſerts; but are not now ſo numerous as formerly. The natives uſe various arts, and diſplay the greateſt activity and addreſs, in taking them. The ſwiftneſs of the animal, after he is taken, is tried in chacing the oſtrich: if ſucceſsful in this chace, he is valued at a very high price. Horſes are with the Arabians a principal article of commerce. Arabian horſes are, among every nation, eagerly ſought after. They cannot, however, be called *wild*, in any other reſpect than the horſes in South America, or thoſe on the mountains in the north of Scotland. The Arabians ſuffer them to breed and multiply in the deſerts, with a deſign to take and ſell them at proper ſeaſons, or train them for their own uſe. Every Arabian, however humble his ſituation, is poſſeſſed at leaſt of one horſe. They prefer the mare for labour, as being more capable of bearing hunger, thirſt, and fatigue. They generally diſpoſe of their horſes to the Turks; excepting ſuch as they ſelect for ſtallions, which are always the moſt active, beautiful, and vigorous. In Arabia the breed is never croſſed as in other countries, but preſerved unmixed, with the utmoſt ſolicitude. It has been inferred from this, that Arabia may probably have been the original country of horſes.

The next choiceſt race of horſes occurs in Barbary; and among theſe, the mountain barbs are ſaid to be the beſt. In Gambia and Senegal, the chiefs or governors

have very beautiful horſes, of a ſmall ſize: in ſwiftneſs and beauty they nearly approach to thoſe of Arabia. The Arabian breed has ſpread into Egypt, Turkey, and Perſia, where they are of great value. The celebrated Venetian traveller, Marco Paulo, relates, that he ſaw in Perſia a ſtud conſiſting of ten thouſand white mares; and, in one province of that empire, a great number of very large and fleet horſes, whoſe hoofs were ſo hard that they needed not to be ſhod. The Turks alſo procure horſes from Hungary and Tartary, as well as from Arabia. The Tartars aſſociate with their horſes with almoſt as much familiarity as the Arabians; and make them an article of traffic. The Tartarian horſes are ſo eaſily ſubſiſted, that thoſe wandering people are enabled to take out vaſt numbers with them in their predatory excurſions. In the army of the cham, when De Tott accompanied him, there were no fewer than three hundred thouſand of theſe animals. Browne deſcribes the horſes of Soudan in the kingdom of Fur, as numerous and tractable. The beſt are bred in the country of Dongola, and by the Arabs to the eaſt of the Nile. Theſe are perfectly well formed, and full of fire. Their action is grand; yet Browne ſays they are not remarkable for bearing fatigue. The breeders of them are in the habit of feeding them with milk; and rarely, if ever, caſtrate them; nor are they ever ſhod.

The horſes of Arabia and Barbary are often brought into Europe; and through all the countries of the eaſt they are highly prized. The horſes of India are of an inferior kind, being ſmall and ſpiritleſs; the Arabian horſes are therefore much ſought after in Hindooſtan. The barbs have been moſtly introduced into Italy and Spain. The Spaniſh genette is much eſteemed. This variety of the horſe is ſmall, but beautifully ſhaped, ſpirited, and ſwift. The Italian horſes are not in the ſame eſtimation in which they once were; yet they are of a large ſize, high ſpirited, and move gracefully. The Daniſh horſes are excellent for the draught. They are ſtout, but ſeldom elegant, or finely proportioned. They move well; and accordingly make good war horſes. They are often party-coloured; ſometimes ſtreaked like the tyger, or ſpotted like the leopard. The German horſes are originally of the Arabian and the Barbary breed; but they are much degenerated. The Hungarian horſes are excellent both for the draught and the ſaddle; but the Dutch horſes are moſtly preferred on the continent for draught.

The Engliſh horſes are at preſent eſteemed through Europe, more perhaps than thoſe of any other country. The attention paid, in our iſland, to the breed and culture of this noble animal, and the vaſt ſums expended on ſtuds and horſe-races, have naturally produced this effect. The inſtances of ſwiftneſs which the horſes of this iſland have diſplayed at Newmarket, are almoſt incredible. Nor are the horſes of this iſland leſs remarkable for ſtrength, than for ſwiftneſs. Thoſe of Yorkſhire, employed in conveying the manufactures of that county, uſually carry a burden of 420 pounds. Our Britiſh mill horſes often carry, at one load, the weight of 910 pounds. The improvements made by the late Mr. Bakewell, of Diſhley, in Leiceſterſhire, in the ſtrength and ſymmetry of draught horſes, has rendered them at this time the beſt in the world. The horſes alſo on which our cavalry are mounted, are well known to be ſuperior in ſtrength and activity to thoſe in the armies of every other nation in Europe. Under the Anglo-Saxon monarchy, it even appears that the Engliſh horſes muſt have been much eſteemed by foreigners; for there is a law of Athelſtan, prohibiting their exportation, except when intended for preſents. Wales and the Highlands of Scotland ſtill furniſh a breed of ſmall horſes, which are very hardy and patient of fatigue.

It is remarkable that no horſe was found in America when firſt diſcovered; and that even their preſent wild breed ſprung from the ſtock carried there by Europeans. Why this excellent animal was denied to the new continent, almoſt all regions of which are ſo well adapted to his production and maintenance, is a difficulty not eaſily ſolved. Whether they were, *ab origine*, indigenous to one particular country, whence all parts elſe were ſupplied; or whether common to many, and of different races, befitting the nature and circumſtances of each country, is a queſtion that will probably for ever remain undecided. Thus much conſtant obſervation and experience have determined, that the genus varies with ſoil and climate; that the horſes of warm climes and dry ſoils, are of the trueſt proportion, the fineſt ſkin, and the moſt generous ſpirit: of courſe the fleeteſt and fitteſt for the ſaddle: as we approach the north, we find them more robuſt, and formed with very little ſymmetry of ſhape; coarſe-haired, hardy, and ſlow, fitted for draught, and the more laborious purpoſes of life; that the ſpecies will thrive, with proper care, in all habitable countries; but ſucceed beſt under the temperate zones, and upon fruitful and grameniferous ſoils. For the qualifications and beſt forms of this noble animal; age, breeding, ſhoeing, anatomy, and external and internal blemiſhes, diſeaſes, and beſt means of cure, ſee the article FARRIERY, vol. vii. with the numerous and elegant correſponding engravings of a complete diſſection of the horſe, throughout all its parts.

2. *Equus Hemionus*, the DSHIGGETAI, or WILD MULE. This animal, deſcribed by Dr. Pallas and Dr. Zimmerman, and after them by Mr. Pennant, has received the Latin name of *equus hemionus*. By the Mongols it is called *dſhiggetai*, which is ſaid to ſignify the eared; and by the Chineſe *yo to tſe*, the mule; not becauſe it is a mule, but becauſe it reſembles one. It ſeems to have been known to the ancient naturaliſts, Ariſtotle, Theophraſtus, and Pliny. In ſize and general appearance it nearly reſembles the hybrid mule, the progeny of the horſe and the aſs. Its head is rather large in proportion to the body; its forehead is flat, and becomes narrow towards the extremity of the noſe. Its ears are conſiderably longer than thoſe of the horſe; they ſtand erect, and are lined with a thick coat of whitiſh curling hair. Its neck is ſlender and firm, not looſe and ſoft. The breaſt ſwells forward, and is ſharp. The limbs are long and finely ſhaped; the thighs thin, like thoſe of the common mule. There is an oval callus within the fore legs, but none on the hinder legs. The hoofs are oblong, ſmooth, and black. The tail reſembles that of a cow: it is ſlender, one half of it bare, but covered on the other half with long aſh-coloured hairs.

This animal changes its coat with the ſeaſon. In winter, its hair is about two inches long, ſoft, like that of a camel, waved on the back; and, on the ſuperficies, of a grey colour, but under that, of a browniſh aſh-colour. In ſummer, the hair is much ſhorter, beautifully ſmooth, and marked here and there with hairy vortices. The extremity of the noſe is, at this time, white; and from that part, up the front, the colour is nearly tawny. The buttock, the inſide of the limbs, and the under part of the belly, are white. A blackiſh teſtaceous line extends from the mane, along the ridge of the back, to the tail: this line becomes broader upon the loins, and narrower again as it approaches the tail. The upper part of the body is now of a light yellowiſh grey colour, paler towards the ſides. The body of this animal, between the tip of the noſe and the baſe of the tail, is ſix feet ſeven inches long; the trunk of the tail meaſures one foot four inches; the hairs depend about eight inches beyond the extremity of the trunk. The height of the animal is about three feet nine inches.

The hemionus, or dſhiggetai, is mentioned by Ariſtotle to have been found, in ancient times, in Syria. Pliny informs us, on the authority of Theophraſtus, that it was then found likewiſe in Cappadocia. This animal is no longer found in thoſe countries; but it is now known for an inhabitant of Dauuria, and the deſerts between the rivers Onow and Argun, in the moſt ſouthern part of Siberia, of the extenſive plains and deſerts of weſtern Tartary,

Tartary, and of the celebrated ſandy deſerts of Gobi, which reaches to India. They ſhun tracts of wood, and lofty ſnowy mountains. They are not numerous in Siberia; thoſe which are there met with ſeem to be only ſtragglers, that have originally wandered from the large herds which are found to the ſouth of the Ruſſian dominions. In Tartary, they frequent chiefly the country lying round the lake Taricnoor; a ſalt lake which becomes ſometimes dry. They live in ſeparate parties; each of which, conſiſting of mares and colts, with an old male at their head, is ſeldom above twenty, and frequently under that number. Their time of copulation is about the middle or end of Auguſt. They produce only one foal at a time; at leaſt, the inſtances in which a female has more, are very rare. In its third year, the young animal attains its full growth, with the due proportions of form, and the colours which diſtinguiſh it during the reſt of life. When the young have reached this age, the elder mules expel them from their ſociety, and they aſſociate with new parties of their own age. Attempts have in vain been made to tame them, being impatient of all reſtraint or controul. European arts might poſſibly be more ſucceſsful; but, were it taught to be peaceful and domeſtic, like the horſe, it would perhaps degenerate in ſpirit and ſwiftneſs. Hitherto the dſhiggetai has been only an animal of the chace for the Moguls and Tunguſians, who conſider its fleſh as their greateſt dainty, and employ the ſkin to make boots. It is, however, difficult to kill it; for, on account of the keenneſs of its ſight and the acuteneſs of its ſmell, it ſeldom lets the hunters get within ſhot. When running, it outſtrips even the antelope: it is impoſſible for the fleeteſt horſe to overtake it; and therefore it is ſeldom caught during the hunting excurſions of the Moguls, which they call *oblaw*, but muſt be ſhot, by lying in wait for it; which can be beſt done in the neighbourhood of the ſtreams or pools to which it repairs to drink, or of the ſpots where it comes to lick ſalt. The Moguls, however, are ſaid to have remarked, that during rainy and ſtormy weather the dſhiggetai becomes, as it were, ſtupid, and neither ſees nor ſmells the hunters ſo well as at other times. The ſtallions, which conduct herds more or leſs numerous of females, and young ones of from one to two years old, are exceedingly vigilant; keep their females together with the moſt jealous care; drive from the herd the young ſtallions which begin to ſhow a deſire for the females; and are always on the watch to guard againſt being ſurpriſed. When they obſerve any thing uncommon at a diſtance, the male immediately ſprings forwards; endeavours, by making a circuit, to approach ſo near the object as to diſcover the danger, and for that purpoſe advances two or three times towards the hunters, who lie cloſe to the ground on their bellies. On ſuch occaſions they are ſometimes ſhot. If the male, however, obſerves the danger, he makes the herd which he left behind him betake themſelves to flight with incredible velocity. The Moguls ſpeak of this velocity with aſtoniſhment; and, in general, the dſhiggetai is conſidered as the ſwifteſt of all the wild animals of their country; for this reaſon the people of Thibet aſſign it, inſtead of a riding horſe, to *Chammo*, their god of fire and of war.

The dſhiggetai always carries its head erect, and when running, throws it entirely back, in order that it may ſee better behind it; and bears its tail erect. It has a particular kind of neighing, which is louder and ſhriller than that of a horſe. Dr. Pallas diſſected one of them, and found its conformation in every reſpect as perfect as that of the horſe: the dſhiggetai cannot, therefore, be conſidered among the hybrid mules. "This animal, (ſays Dr. Pallas,) ſtands high on its limbs, which are delicate, though its muſcles are ſtrong; but the ſhoulders, thighs, and legs, are ſomewhat lean. I found the winter hair to be two inches long, tolerably thick, as ſoft as camel hair, and of an iſabella-grey colour outwardly, but of a pale iron-grey towards the roots. The ſummer hair was ſcarcely three quarters of a line in length, here and there diſpoſed into circular vortices and ſhadings. A ſhading of the hair runs lengthwiſe along the face, and two others above the eyes. The vortices I obſerved firſt on each ſide of the mane immediately behind the ears. There were two alſo above each other under the neck; two on the ſides of the neck oppoſite the ſhoulders; a larger one on each joint of the ſhoulder; another large one on each ſide of the breaſt behind the ſhoulders, and alſo a cruciform ſhading of the hair. Several more of theſe hair vortices were formed on different parts of the body. The dſhiggetai is diſtinguiſhed particularly by the head, which has a mean proportion between that of the horſe and the aſs; and, in that reſpect, as well as by the ears and the tail, it approaches very near to the zebra. In the reſt of the body and the thighs it is more like the aſs; and in the limbs it has a greater ſimilarity to the mule and the horſe. Its colour and hair vortices are peculiar to itſelf. The ſtripe on the back, however, is like that of the female aſs, and of many horſes, without any croſs ſtripe. The tail excepted, it has, in general, the greateſt likeneſs to the mule. But, from the above circumſtances, it clearly appears that the dſhiggetai is an animal of a diſtinct genus, and as much peculiar to Aſia as the zebra and quagga are to Africa; whereas the aſs, and perhaps the horſe, in a wild ſtate, belong to both theſe quarters of the world in common."

3. *Equus Aſinus*, the Ass.—This animal, in the wild ſtate, has received from ancient and modern naturaliſts the name of *onager*. It is diſtinguiſhed by long flouching ears, a ſhort mane, and long hairs covering only the end of the tail. It is commonly aſh-coloured, with two black ſtreaks croſſing each other upon its ſhoulders. In youth, this animal is rather handſome in its ſhape, alert, and playful; but, as it advances in life, the tame aſs, either from the natural effects of age, or from ill treatment, loſes its ſprightlineſs, and becomes ſluggiſh, ſtubborn, and awkward. It attains its full growth in the fourth or fifth year, and lives, like the horſe, to the age of five-and-twenty or thirty years. The male is capable of procreation at the age of two years and an half, and the female ſtill earlier. Both ſexes are remarkably ſalacious: the male has been known to die immediately after covering; and the female is not eaſily brought to ſubdue the eagerneſs of her deſires: like the mare, ſhe is gravid 290 days. Her parental tenderneſs is not inferior to the ardour of her amorous diſpoſition: ſhe will accompany her young, or haſte to their relief, through the moſt formidable dangers; even flames and burning coals, are, on ſuch an occaſion, no obſtacle. She brings forth in a ſtanding poſture; and, ſeven days after delivery, again courts the embraces of the male. She produces but one colt; the inſtances of twins are very rare. The aſs ſleeps leſs than the horſe, and never lies down to repoſe, but after having ſuffered much fatigue. He is leſs ſubject to diſeaſes than the horſe. A ſmall quantity of food, and that of the coarſeſt kind, ſatisfies this animal. He does not deſpiſe even the thiſtle; but his favourite herb is the plantane. Like the horſe, he is capable of affection and attachment to his maſter. He diſtinguiſhes him among others; and ſeems even to diſcern him by the ſcent, when at ſome diſtance. His viſion is ſufficiently acute. His hearing is ſo remarkably delicate, that he is alarmed and frightened by the impulſe even of muſical ſounds. In the more ſouthern countries of Europe, and in the eaſt, where the aſs is ſtronger, more elegantly ſhaped, and more generous in his diſpoſitions, he is employed in more honourable ſervices, and kept for riding even by the rich and luxurious. The milk of the ſhe-aſs is eſteemed medicinal. It is chiefly for its milk that the aſs is valued in Britain. The ſkin being dry, hard, and elaſtic, is made into ſieves, drums, ſhoes, and parchment, which is laid over with a thin coat of fine plaſter, and uſed in pocket-books. By the nations of the eaſt, the leather called *ſagri* or *chagrin* is prepared from the ſkin of the aſs. The ancients made their

their beſt flutes of aſſes' bones. The Perſians uſe the bile of the aſs as a remedy againſt dimneſs of ſight.

The aſs appears to have been originally an eaſtern animal. In thoſe warm climates he appears to much greater advantage than in Europe, and other northern regions. In Senegal, it is actually conſpicuous for beauty: its hair is there of a gliſtering mouſe-colour; and the ſtreaks which croſs on its back and ſhoulders have a very agreeable effect. In Arabia, Egypt, Barbary, India, and Guinea, the aſs is remarkable for its ſize and ſtrength. The Indians of Madura believe that the ſouls of their nobility after death animate the bodies of aſſes; and, for that reaſon, treat the animal with peculiar reſpect. We learn from the *Chronicon Pretioſum*, that aſſes were known in England in the days of king Ethelred; and the animal is again noticed in the ſame record, under the reign of Henry III. Holingſhed relates, however, that, in the days of queen Elizabeth, there were no aſſes in the iſland: perhaps he may have been miſinformed; or the extinction of the race may have been owing to ſome accident. In Sweden, this ſpecies is extremely rare; and we know not if it has yet made its way into Norway.

The *onager*, or wild aſs of the ancients, which is called *koulan* by thoſe modern nations who have the beſt opportunities of being acquainted with it, is the ſame ſpecies, in a wild ſtate. The forehead of the koulan is very much arched: its ears ſtand always erect; they are lined with whitiſh curling hairs, and ſharp-pointed: its lips are thick; its noſtrils large and oval; and the end of the noſe ſlopes abruptly to the upper lip. It is taller than the domeſtic aſs; its legs are much more elegantly ſhaped; and it bears its head higher. Its ſkull is remarkably thin. Its mane is about three or four inches long, of a dun colour, ſoft, and woolly; and extending to the ſhoulders. The hairs at the end of its tail are coarſe, and about a ſpan long. The colour of its hair, in general, is a ſilver-white. The upper part of the face, the ſides of the neck, and the body, and the under part of the thighs, are flaxen. The fore-part of the body is divided from the flank by a white line, extending round the rump, to the tail. The legs and the belly are white. A ſtripe of waved, coffee-coloured, buſhy hairs, runs along the top of the back, from the mane to the tail. Another ſtripe of the ſame colour, croſſes the former at the ſhoulders. Two beautiful white lines, one on each ſide, bound the dorſal band, and the mane. In winter, the hair of this animal is ſoft, ſilky, and waving: it bears, in this ſtate, a conſiderable reſemblance to the hair of the camel; it feels greaſy; and the flaxen colour is, now, moſt exquiſitely bright. In ſummer, the hair is very ſmooth, ſilky, and even; but certain ſhaded rays, pointing downwards, mark the ſides of the neck.

The koulan inhabits the mountainous parts of the deſerts of Tartary; but is not found farther north than the forty-eighth degree of latitude. In ſummer, theſe animals appear in vaſt herds, in the neighbourhood of the lake Aral; but in winter, they retire to the warmer climate of India. Barboga, quoted by Dr. Pallas, relates, that they penetrate to the mountains of Malabar and Golconda. Perſia, however, is their favourite winter retreat; and they are found, through the whole year, on the mountains of Caſbin. The deſerts in the north of Africa are ſaid to afford wild aſſes of an aſh-colour. Anciently theſe animals were likewiſe found in Lycaonia, Phrygia, Meſopotamia, Sileſia, and Arabia Deſerta. They are remarkably wild. The Perſians, however, deceive theſe animals into pits, and by that means take them alive. They afterwards break them for the draught and the ſaddle; and value them highly for both theſe purpoſes. The breed of tame aſſes is improved by intermixture with theſe. The Romans eſteemed the progeny of the onager copulating with the tame aſs, by far the beſt. This animal is mentioned in the book of Job, as remarkable for its wild, impetuous, untameable, ſpirit. Like the wild horſe, and the dſhiggetai, this ſpecies aſſociate in herds, under a leader, and are very ſhy. They ſometimes, however, ſtop when running, in the midſt of their career, and ſuffer a perſon to approach them; but, before they can be caught, ſuddenly ſtart away, with great velocity.

The Tartars, and even the Perſians, eſteem the fleſh of the wild aſs a great delicacy. The former watch, and ſhoot it, when it goes to drink in the ponds of brackiſh water, in the deſerts; for it prefers ſaltiſh to freſh water, and is even fondeſt of ſaline and bitter milky plants. The Romans, among their other delicate diſhes, were very fond of the fleſh of the young of this animal, which they called *taliſio*; not leſs ſo, it would appear, than the Perſians and the Tartars.

The hybrid MULE is produced from the copulation of an horſe with a ſhe aſs; which ſort is diſtinguiſhed by the term *hinny*: and that produced from the contact of the male aſs with a mare is properly the mule, and theſe are conſidered as the beſt, being larger than thoſe whoſe male parent is the horſe. Their form bears a conſiderable reſemblance to that of the aſs; and in their diſpoſitions they are rather vicious and intractable. The Spaniſh mules are ſuperior to thoſe of other countries: very large ones are bred in Savoy. In Britain, a larger and ſtronger breed of mules has been obtained, by the importation of Spaniſh male aſſes for the purpoſe. In Spain, the mule is a favourite animal. It is well known to tread more firmly and ſecurely than the horſe. Perſons of quality in Spain prefer it, on this account, for drawing in their carriages. Pliny relates, as a fact authenticated by the public records of the Athenians, that a mule had been known to live to the age of eighty years. On the controverted ſubject of the impoſſibility of mules being able to *procreate*, and of the nature of hybrids in general, ſee the article MULE.

4. *Equus* ZEBRA, the ſtriped Horſe. The French hiſtorians, Briſſon and Buffon, call it *le zebre*, or *l'ane rayé*; from Linnæus it has received the name of *equus zebra*; by Kolben, in his account of its native country, it is called the *wild aſs*; and by the coloniſts at the Cape of Good Hope, they are called *wilde paarden*, or wild horſes. This beautiful animal is nearly of the ſame ſhape and ſize with the Spaniſh mule. Its tail, like that of the aſs, has long hairs at the extremity. The ſkin under the jaw is ſaid to hang looſe on the neck, in a manner which rather injures the general elegance of its appearance. Its mane is ſhort, and ſtands erect. The head, the neck, the mane, and the body, are ſtriped downwards, with lines of dark brown, on a light ground, or with alternate black and white lines. Its legs and thighs are ſtriped acroſs, with the ſame colours. This arrangement of its colours is univerſally admired. The males and females, excepting ſome trifling variations, are coloured alike.

This animal is remarkably ſwift. Kolben aſſerts, that he is ſwifter than the horſe; but Sparrman aſſures us, that, with good horſes, zebras are eaſily hunted down. Their feet are ſmall, and their hoofs hard; ſo that they may be regarded as ſurer-footed than horſes. Mankind have hitherto made but few attempts to tame this animal; and ſuch as they have made have proved unſucceſsful. The individuals of this ſpecies which have been brought into Europe, are remarkably wild and vicious. Buffon informs us, that the zebra which he examined was extremely wild; and though great pains had been uſed to tame him, yet ſtill he continued ſo unmanageable, that two men always held the bridle, while a third ſat on the animal's back. His ears were ſo exquiſitely ſenſible, that he kicked whenever they were touched. Pyrard, quoted by Buffon, relates, that, in Brazil, a zebra had been known to break looſe, and kill its keeper; yet zebras may hereafter, perhaps, be rendered as tame as horſes. Theſe animals are gregarious, and are ſeen in large troops. Their ſkins are procured by the European furriers, and ſold at a high price. Attempts have been repeatedly made to bring the zebra to copulate with the

aſs. In France, the experiment did not ſucceed: but in London, as Mr. Pennant informs us, the female zebra was covered by the male aſs. At firſt, ſhe refuſed with continued obſtinacy; but when the aſs was painted ſo as to reſemble herſelf, ſhe became complacent and paſſive. A hybrid zebra was accordingly produced; but which of the parents it chiefly reſembled, we have not been informed.

The zebra appears to be a native only of the African continent. The ſpecies abounds near the Cape. They are found, likewiſe, all along the country between the Cape and Ethiopia; and are alſo to be met with in Congo. They have been obſerved by travellers in Brazil, and in Perſia and Turkey; but thoſe muſt have been tranſported thither from the countries of which they are natives.

5. *Equus* QUAGGA. This ſpecies is called by Pennant, in his Hiſtory of Quaprupeds, *Quacha*; by Maſſon, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, *Opeagha*; and by Sparrman, *Quagga*; which name has been adopted by Linnæus. This animal very nearly reſembles the zebra. It is of a ſmaller ſize, and its ears are ſhorter: it has no ſtripes on its fore legs, loins, or hinder parts. The flanks are ſpotted; the rump uniformly coloured; and the belly, legs, and thighs, are of a pure white. A tame quagga, which Dr. Sparrman ſaw at the Cape, was ſo pleaſed with the familiarity of mankind, that, inſtead of ſhunning thoſe who approached it, it came up to receive their careſſes. The quagga is much more tractable than the zebra, and is even yoked by the coloniſts at the Cape, in teams, with horſes. It is remarkable of the quagga, likewiſe, that notwithſtanding its being of a mild character, it is an overmatch for the hyæna; purſues that ferocious animal whenever it makes its appearance; and protects the horſes with whom it aſſociates from the hyæna's violence, from which they would otherwiſe ſuffer. The quagga, like the zebra, aſſociates in herds; and the ſpecies ſeems confined alſo to the regions of Africa. Edwards has miſtaken this animal for the female of the zebra; and, till very lately, the two genera were confounded by moſt African travellers.

6. *Equus Biſulcus*, the CLOVEN-FOOTED HORSE; an animal lately diſcovered by Molina, in his travels through Chili and Peru, in South America. This obſcure quadruped, frequents the precipitous and rocky mountains of the Andes or Cordelleras; in ſize, number and arrangement of teeth, and in general appearance, it reſembles the horſe, for which reaſon it is placed by Dr. Gmelin in this genus, though its cloven hoofs are ſimilar to thoſe of the ruminant claſs. It is a vicious, wild, and exceedingly ſwift, animal, having the ſize, hair, colour, noſe, eyes, neck, back, tail, legs, and genitals, reſembling the aſs, with which it likewiſe agrees in its internal ſtructure, but wants the duſky croſs or tranſverſe band over the ſhoulders, and reſembles the horſe in the figure of its ears, and the neighing ſound of its voice. It is ſingular that this curious ſpecies, which ſeems, as it were, to form a kind of link between the cloven-hoofed and whole-hoofed animals, ſhould have ſo long remained unknown to the naturaliſts of Europe.

ER, [ɐɹ and ɔɹ, Sax. *er*, Dut. and Ger. ερος, Gr. *er*, *ir*, *or*, and *ur*, Teut. or Lat.] the comparative termination of adjectives. Being added to verbs, it ſignifies the actor or doer, as *commander*, *fighter*, *walker*, &c. he who commands, fights, walks, &c.

ER, a ſyllable in the middle of names or places, comes by contraction from the Saxon ƿaɲa, dwellers. *Gibſon.*

E'RA, *ſ.* [*æra*, Lat.] The account of time from any particular date or epoch. See ÆRA, vol. i. p. 140.

E'RA, a river of Tuſcany, which runs into the Arno, fourteen miles above Piſa.

ERADIA'TION, *ſ.* [*e* and *radius*, Lat.] Emiſſion of radiance.—God gives me a heart humbly to converſe with him, from whom alone are all the *eradiations* of true majeſty. *King Charles.*

To ERA'DICATE, *v. a.* [*eradico*, Lat.] To pull up by the root.—He ſuffereth the poiſon of Nubia to be gathered, and aconite to be *eradicated*, yet this is not to be moved. *Brown.*—To completely deſtroy; to end; to cut off.—If vice cannot wholly be *eradicated*, it ought at leaſt to be confined to particular objects. *Swift.*

ERADICA'TION, *ſ.* The act of tearing up by the root; deſtruction; exciſion. The ſtate of being torn up by the roots.—They affirm the roots of mandrakes give a ſhriek upon *eradication*, which is falſe below confutation. *Brown.*

ERA'DICATIVE, *adj.* That which cures radically; that which drives quite away.

ERACLIS'SA HEXAGYNA of Forſkahl. The ſame with ANDRACHNE telephoides.

ERAGROS'TIS, *ſ.* in botany. See BRIZA.

E'RAN, [Heb. their enemy.] A man's name. The ſon of Shuthelah, head of the Eranites. *Numb.* xxvi. 36.

ERANAR'CHA, *ſ.* a public officer among the ancient Greeks, whoſe buſineſs was to preſide over and direct the alms and proviſions made for the poor. Cornelius Nepos, in his life of Epaminondas, deſcribes his office thus: When any perſon was reduced to poverty, taken captive, or had a daughter to marry, which he could not effect for want of money, &c. the eranarcha called an aſſembly of friends and neighbours, and taxed each according to his means and eſtate, to contribute towards his relief.

E'RANG, a town of the iſland of Ceram.

ERANGE'LIA, *ſ.* in botany. See GALANTHUS.

ER'ANITE, *ſ.* A deſcendant of Eran.

ERAN'THEMUM, *ſ.* [from ερα, the earth, and ανθος, Gr. a flower.] In botany, a genus of the claſs diandria, order monogynia, natural order aggregatæ, (vitices, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-cleft, tubular, very narrow, upright, ſhort, acuminate, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form; tube filiform, extremely long; border five-parted (four-parted ſometimes,) flat; diviſions obovate. Stamina: filaments two, very ſhort, in the mouth of the corolla; antheræ ſubovate, compreſſed, beyond the tube. Piſtillum: germ ovate, very ſmall; ſtyle filiform, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma ſimple.—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla five-cleft, with a filiform tube; antheræ beyond the tube; ſtigma ſimple.

Species. 1. Eranthemum Capenſe, or Cape earth-flower: leaves lanceolate-ovate petioled. 2. Eranthemum anguſtifolium, or rough-leaved earth-flower: leaves linear, remote, patulous. 3. Eranthemum parvifolium, or ſmall-leaved earth-flower: leaves ovate linear, imbricate. 4. Eranthemum ſalſoloides, or ſalſola earth-flower: leaves fleſhy, nearly columnar, linear, very ſmooth; racemes axillary, they and the calyxes pubeſcent; tube bent back. 5. Eranthemum ſpinoſum, or prickly earth-flower: leaves ovate, oppoſite; ſtipules ſpiny; flower ſolitary, lateral. They are all underſhrubs or herbs, natives of the Cape of Good Hope. Leaves oppoſite or alternate; flowers in terminating ſpikes.

To ERA'SE, *v. a.* [*raſer*, Fr.] To deſtroy; to exſcind.—The heads of birds, for the moſt part, are given *eraſed*; that is, plucked off. *Peacham on Blazoning.*—To expunge; to rub out.

ERA'SEMENT, *ſ.* Deſtruction, devaſtation; extinction, abolition.

ERASE'NUS, a river of Peloponneſus, flowing for a little ſpace under the ground in Argolis. *Ovid.*

ERASIS'TRATUS, an ancient Greek phyſician, a native of Sicyon, and grandſon of Ariſtotle. He was in high profeſſional reputation in the reign of Seleucus Nicanor, who conſulted him concerning the illneſs of his ſon Antiochus, which Eraſiſtratus by his ſagacity diſcovered to be occaſioned by love for his mother-in-law, Stratonice. He was rewarded with one hundred talents on this occaſion. He is called by Galen the reviver of anatomy; and he, as well as Herophilus, is charged with the cruelty of diſſecting criminals alive, ſupplied to him by Antiochus.

He

He made a number of anatomical diſcoveries, which have been confirmed by modern obſervations. He was an enemy to blood-letting; and in medical practice he preferred ſimples of the milder kind, and taken from the vegetable kingdom. He was an enemy to empiriciſm, and held, that a diſorder could not be cured without a knowledge of its cauſe. Eraſiſtratus wrote a number of books, all which have periſhed; but many of his opinions are recorded by Galen and Cælius. He founded a ſect which was ſubſiſting in the time of Galen.

ERAS'MUS, [from ερασμος, Gr. amiable; lovely.] A proper name of men.

ERAS'MUS (Deſiderius), a perſon eminent for learning, born at Rotterdam in 1467. He was ſent to ſchool at Deventer when nine years of age, and ſoon exhibited quick parts, and particularly that ſtrength of memory which is ſo eſſential to a ſcholar. He was left an orphan in the care of three guardians, who agreed to bring him up to a religious life, in order the more eaſily to embezzle his ſmall patrimony. In conformity with the pedantic taſte then prevailing among men of letters, of aſſuming names of Greek or Latin etymology, he tranſlated his family name of *Gerard*, ſignifying *amiable*, into the equivalent ones of *Deſiderius* in Latin, and *Eraſmus* in Greek. He uſed both of theſe; but the latter became his perpetual appellation. His conſtitution was delicate, and ill ſuited to monaſtic auſterities, nor were his taſtes and ſentiments better accommodated to the monkiſh profeſſion; he therefore, with permiſſion of his ſuperiors, accepted, in his twenty-third year, an invitation to reſide with the archbiſhop of Cambray. Thence he went to Paris, and became a ſtudent in the college of Montaigue. For his ſupport he gave private lectures; but he paſſed ſome years of his life in that penury which ſtimulated him to great exertions, and gave him thoſe habits of induſtry which raiſed him to eminence. Among his pupils at Paris were ſome Engliſhmen, whoſe liberality induced him to viſit their country. He was in England in 1497, where he contracted many valuable friendſhips. The works by which he was firſt known were of the philological kind, calculated to aſſiſt ſtudents in the learned languages. Of theſe were his *De Copia Verborum & Rerum*, *De Ratione Conſcribendi Epiſtolas*, and many others. In 1503, he printed at Louvain ſome works of the theological kind, particularly his *Enchiridon Militis Chriſtiani*, a kind of manual of practical religion, written with a manly and rational ſpirit, much ſuperior to the punctilious devotion of the cloiſter. It underwent ſome cenſure from the monks, but was much read, and was tranſlated into ſeveral modern languages. About this time too, he prefixed to a tranſlation of ſeveral dialogues of Lucian, a dedication, in which he freely expoſed the legendary fables of the early Chriſtians. In his fortieth year he viſited Italy, took his doctor's degree at Turin, and ſtaid about a year at Bologna; thence he went to Venice, and printed an improved edition of his *Adagies*; he ſpent the winter of 1508 at Padua, and went to Rome the year following. He received a preſſing invitation to England from Henry VIII. who had contracted a friendſhip for him while prince. He accepted the invitation, and came over at the beginning of 1510, and was in great favour with the king and Wolſey. He firſt lodged with ſir Thomas More, and amuſed himſelf with writing his *Moriæ Encomium*; or, Praiſe of Folly: a facetious and ſatirical compoſition, which became popular. At the requeſt of Fiſher biſhop of Rocheſter, chancellor of Cambridge, Eraſmus went to that univerſity, and read lectures in Greek and divinity. A living was conferred upon him, and he received preſents from many of his patrons; but, upon the whole, his expectations in this kingdom were not gratified. He returned to the Low Countries in 1514, and viſiting the court of the archduke Charles (afterwards Charles V.), was created nominal counſellor to that prince, with a ſtipend. He paid a viſit to the town of Baſil, where he formed that intimacy with the learned family of Amberbach, and with the printer Froben, which induced him to ſpend his latter days in that place. In 1516, his New Teſtament, in Greek and Latin, with notes, was publiſhed at Baſil, and was received with great avidity by all who were deſirous of ſtudying theology in its original and genuine ſources. It was dedicated to pope Leo X. His edition of St. Jerom alſo appeared this year, dedicated to his excellent and generous patron archbiſhop Warham. An offer was made to him on the part of Francis I. to ſettle in France; but his connections with Charles V. induced him to decline it. Among the meritorious ſentiments of Eraſmus may be reckoned his perpetual oppoſition to war, which he thought ſcarcely lawful to a Chriſtian. He has dwelt upon this topic in many of his works, eſpecially in his eloquent *Querela Pacis*, printed in 1517.

The commencement of the reformation under Luther was the moſt trying circumſtance in the life of Eraſmus. No man had done ſo much as he to diſcredit the frauds and ſuperſtitions of popery, and to place Chriſtianity upon its proper foundation. The monks were ſo ſenſible of this, that they were uſed to ſay, "Eraſmus laid the egg, and Luther hatched it." Yet there were ſeveral reaſons which prevented him from joining the reformers. He was likewiſe offended with the rudeneſs, vulgarity, and contempt of polite literature, which characteriſed ſome of the claſs. Yet he did enough to merit the eternal gratitude of all candid friends to light and liberty, by the example he never ceaſed to give of free enquiry, and the perpetual war he waged againſt perſecution, ignorance, and bigotry. For ſome years Eraſmus treated Luther with great deference, and in his letters to various perſons defended his character and applauded his intentions. In proceſs of time, however, Eraſmus, irritated at ſome attacks upon him by the zealous reformers, took his part among the defenders of the church of Rome.

In 1522, he publiſhed the moſt popular of his works, his *Colloquies*, which, though apparently intended for the inſtruction of youth in the Latin language, and commencing with dialogues of great ſimplicity, abound in ſolid and liberal ſentiments on the moſt important topics, and attack the prevalent ſuperſtitions with ſerious argument and humorous ſarcaſm. After having been long urged by his catholic friends and patrons to write againſt Luther, he at length, with manifeſt unwillingneſs, undertook the taſk, and in 1524 publiſhed his treatiſe *De Libero Arbitrio*. As in this work he profeſſedly attacked only Luther's opinion concerning predeſtination, it might be ſuppoſed that he did not mean to condemn his diſſent from the church of Rome in other points. In 1528, he publiſhed his dialogue, entitled *Ciceronianus*, one of the moſt lively and ingenious of his compoſitions. In the ſame year he alſo publiſhed his learned treatiſe *De Recta Latini Græcique Sermonis Pronuntiatione*; and thus ſeems to have been deſirous of diverting his mind from the dangerous diſputes of theology. He continued his learned labours without intermiſſion, though under the preſſure of many infirmities; and cloſely attended the printing of his treatiſe, *Eccleſiaſtes*; or, On the Manner of Preaching. At this time there was an intention at Rome to add Eraſmus to the college of cardinals; but it was now too late to burthen him with ſo ſplendid a promotion. His health had rapidly declined; a dyſentery exhauſted his remaining ſtrength; and he calmly expired on July 12, 1536, at the age of ſixty-nine, in the arms of his deareſt friends, who were proteſtants, and after having preferred pious addreſſes to God and Chriſt, to all the dying ceremonials enjoined by the Romiſh ritual. His body was interred with great funeral ſolemnity in the cathedral church of Baſil, where his tomb is ſtill to be ſeen. His works were collected and publiſhed by Froben, in nine volumes folio.

ERAS'MUS, a mountain of the iſland Ceylon: thirty miles north-weſt of Trincomalee.

ERAS'TIANS, *ſ.* a religious faction, which aroſe in England during the time of the civil wars in 1647, thus called from their leader Thomas Eraſtus, whoſe diſtin-

guiſhing doctrine was, "that the church had no right to diſcipline, no regular power to excommunicate, exclude, cenſure, abſolve, decree, or proſecute," all ſuch power being in the civil magiſtrate.

ER'ATO, one of the muſes, who preſided over lyric, tender, and amorous, poetry. She is repreſented as crowned with roſes and myrtle, holding a lyre in her hand. She appears with a thoughtful and ſometimes with a gay and animated look. She was invoked by lovers, eſpecially in the month of April, which, among the Romans, was more particularly devoted to love. *Apollodorus.*

ERATOS'THENES, an eminent Greek philoſopher, mathematician, and chronologiſt, born at Cyrene, in the ſecond year of the 126th olympiad, or 275 before Chriſt. So diſtinguiſhed was he for his proficiency in different branches of erudition, that he acquired the ſurname of πεντάθλος, or victorious in five conteſts, which, under an alluſion to the five prizes of the Olympic games, was meant to deſignate his ſucceſs and ſuperiority in all kinds of literary purſuits. On the invitation of Ptolemy Euergetes, he quitted Athens, and went to Egypt, in order to undertake the office of librarian to the celebrated library at Alexandria. In that ſituation he continued under the reigns of three ſucceſſive princes, diſcharging the truſt committed to him with great applauſe, and acquiring a high reputation for ſcience and learning by the many books which he wrote, and the diſcoveries which he announced. He was the firſt who found out a method of meaſuring the periphery of the earth; and he alſo obſerved the obliquity of the ecliptic. He wrote an epiſtle to king Ptolemy, in which he ſolved the problem of the duplication of the cube; and he invented a convenient method of diſcovering the primary numbers, that is, ſuch as have no common meaſure of diviſion *inter ſe*, excepting unity, which has been called the ſieve of Eratoſthenes. He wrote numerous treatiſes in grammar, aſtronomy, hiſtory, and geography, together with dialogues on the philoſophical ſects, and poems. Nothing more than fragments, however, of his different pieces have reached our times, ſome of which were publiſhed at Oxford in 1672, with brief annotations, in 8vo. The moſt valuable of his remains, which is not in that little collection, is his Catalogue of the Kings of Thebes, in Egypt, from Menes, who firſt peopled Egypt after the Deluge, to the Time of the Trojan War. It is one of the moſt venerable and authentic monuments of antiquity now extant, and contains a ſeries of thirty-eight kings, reigning in a direct line of ſucceſſion, taken not only from the records in the Alexandrian library, but the ſacred archives in Dioſpolis, or Thebes, and moſt probably drawn up to ſupply the defects, and correct the errors, of Manetho's Dynaſties. By ſome of our ableſt chronologers it has been conſidered and made uſe of as an authority of the firſt importance in ſettling the Egyptian chronology. Eratoſthenes died at the advanced age of eighty-one. The fragments of his works which are noticed above to have been publiſhed at Oxford, were alſo printed in Uranologium of Petavius, at Paris, in 1630, and afterwards at Amſterdam, in 1703.

ERATOS'TRATUS, an Epheſian who burnt the famous temple of Diana the ſame night that Alexander the Great was born. Eratoſtratus committed this act of villainy merely to eternize his name. *Plutarch.*

ERAVIN'SKOI, a fortreſs of Ruſſia, in the government of Irkutſch: eighty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Barguzinſk. Lat. 52. 32. N. lon. 129. E. Ferro.

ER'BACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz, on the Rhine: eleven miles weſt of Mentz.

ER'BACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and capital of a county of the ſame name: twenty miles north-eaſt of Manheim, and ſixteen north-north-eaſt of Heidelberg.

ER'BACH (County of), a principality of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, about ſeven leagues long, and ſix wide: the ſoil is mountainous, but produces enough to ſupply the wants of the inhabitants. The inhabitants make a large quantity of pot-aſh, and feed a great number of cattle: it contains mines of lead, ſilver, iron, copper, and quickſilver: the number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 23,000 or 24,000, who are chiefly Lutherans. The articles of commerce which they export are ſpelt, oats, wheat, cattle, wood, pot-aſh, honey, wax, iron, and charcoal. The counts are hereditary cup-bearers to the elector palatine. The aſſeſſment for the Roman month is forty florins, and the tax for the chamber at Wetzlar twenty-ſeven rixdollars.

ER'BAT, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Diarbekir: fifty-eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Diarbek.

ER'BAZ, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-ſix miles weſt-ſouth-weſt of Degnizlu.

ER'BLSPACH, or ERWOLTSPACH, or ERLSBACH, a town of Germany, in Lower Bavaria: twelve miles weſt-north-weſt of Dingelfingen, and thirty-four eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Ingoldſtadt.

ER'CE, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Bain: five miles eaſt of Bain.

ER'CHEE, a town of Perſia, in the province of Adirbeitzan: ſixty miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Tauris.

ERCIL'LA Y ZUNIGA (Don Alonzo de), an eminent Spaniſh poet, born at Madrid in 1533. He was early in life made page to the infant don Philip, whom he attended in his progreſs through the Low-countries, and part of Germany and Italy He afterwards accompanied Philip when he went to England to celebrate his marriage with queen Mary. He was afterwards engaged in the war with the Araucanians, whoſe courage and love of liberty he ſeems greatly to have admired, though his military duty obliged him to uſe his beſt efforts in ſubduing them. The intereſting ſcenes to which he was witneſs called forth his poetical powers, and he employed the intervals of leiſure in recording them in heroic verſe. He compoſed, as it were, with the ſword in his hand, and the earlier parts of his poem were written upon ſcraps of leather for want of paper. The "Araucana" is rather an hiſtorical poem than a proper epopœa, as it is a narrative of real events, only interſperſed with fabulous circumſtances. It was publiſhed in three parts: the two firſt in 1577 and 1578, the whole complete in 1590. Mr. Hayley, in his Eſſay on Epic Poetry, and the notes attached to it, has taken much pains to make Ercilla advantageouſly known to the Engliſh reader, by tranſlations of ſelect parts, and an analyſis of the whole.

ERDE'NI-TCHAO, a town of Chineſe Tartary, in the country of the Eluths: 680 miles north-weſt of Peking. Lat. 46. 58. N. lon. 120. 30 E. Ferro.

ER'DER, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Lippe: twelve miles north-north-eaſt of Lemgow.

ERD'MANSDORF, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and circle of Erzgeburg: five miles eaſt of Chemnitz.

ERE, *adv.* [æꝛ, Sax. *air*, Gothic; *err*, Dutch. This word is ſometimes vitiouſly written *e'er*, as if from *ever*. It is likewiſe written *or* before ever, oꝛ and æꝛ in Saxon being indiſcriminately written. Mr. *Lye.*] Before; ſooner than.—*Ere* he would have hang'd a man for the getting a hundred baſtards, he would have paid for the nurſing a thouſand. *Shakeſpeare.*—The lions brake all their bones in pieces *or ever* they came to the bottom of the den. *Daniel.*

The birds ſhall ceaſe to tune their ev'ning ſong,
The winds to breathe, the waving woods to move,
And ſtreams to murmur, *ere* I ceaſe to love. *Pope.*

ERE, *prep.* Before:

Our fruitful Nile
Flow'd *ere* the wonted ſeaſon. *Dryden.*

EREBIN'THUS, *ſ.* in botany. See GALEGA.

E'REBUS, [ἔρεβος, Gr. from ערב, Heb. night.] In mythology,

thology, a term denoting darkneſs. According to Heſiod, Erebus was the ſon of Chaos and the Night, and the father of the Day. This was alſo the name of part of the *inferi* among the ancients. Erebus properly ſignified the gloomy region, and was diſtinguiſhed both from Tartarus the place of torment, and from Elyſium the region of bliſs: according to Virgil, it forms the third grand diviſion of the inviſible world beyond the Styx, and comprehends ſeveral imaginary diſtricts, as the *limbus infantum*, or receptacle for infants; the *limbus* for thoſe who have been put to death without cauſe: that for ſuch as deſtroyed themſelves; the fields of mourning, full of dark groves and woods, inhabited by thoſe who died for love; and beyond theſe, an open champaign country for departed heroes.

E'RECH, one of the primitive kingdoms of the world, founded by Nimrod in the land of Shinar. *Gen.* x. 10.

EREC'THEUS, king of Athens, and the ſixth from Cecrops, ſucceeded his father Pandion about 1399 before Chriſt. He was the moſt powerful Grecian prince of his time. Among his children was a daughter, Orithyia, who is fabled to have been forcibly carried away by the wind Boreas, which is with probability interpreted to refer to her rape by a Thracian king. In his reign the Athenians were inſtructed by a ſtranger in the cultivation of corn, whence Ceres is ſaid to have viſited Athens at that period. Erectheus, after a reign of fifty years, was ſlain in a battle againſt the Eleuſians.

To ERE'CT, *v. a.* [*erectus*, Lat.] To raiſe in a ſtraight line; to place perpendicularly to the horizon.

To ERECT *a Perpendicular.* To croſs one line by another at right angles. To raiſe; to build:

Happier walls expect,
Which, wand'ring long, at laſt thou ſhalt *erect*. *Dryden.*

To eſtabliſh anew; to ſettle.—He ſuffers ſeventy-two diſtinct nations to be *erected* out of the firſt monarchy under diſtinct governors. *Raleigh.*—To elevate; to exalt.—I, who am a party, am not to *erect* myſelf into a judge. *Dryden.*—I am far from pretending infallibility: that would be to *erect* myſelf into an apoſtle. *Locke.*—To raiſe conſequences from premiſes.—From fallacious foundations and miſapprehended mediums, men *erect* concluſions no way inferrable from the premiſes. *Brown.*—To animate; not to depreſs; to encourage:

Why ſhould not hope
As much *erect* our thoughts, as fear deject them? *Denham.*

To ERE'CT, *v. n.* To riſe upright.—The trefoil againſt rain ſwelleth in the ſtalk, and ſo ſtandeth more upright; for by wet, ſtalks do *erect*, and leaves bow down. *Bacon.*

ERE'CT, *adj.* [*erectus*, Lat.] Upright; not leaning; not prone.—Baſil tells us that the ſerpent went *erect* like man. *Brown.*—Directed upwards:

Vain were vows,
And plaints and ſuppliant hands, to Heav'n *erect*. *Philips.*

Bold; confident; unſhaken:

Let no vain fear thy gen'rous ardour tame;
But ſtand *erect*, and ſound as loud as fame. *Glanville.*

Vigorous; not depreſſed.—That vigilant and *erect* attention of mind, which in prayer is very neceſſary, is waſted or dulled. *Hooker.*

EREC'TION, *ſ.* The act of raiſing, or ſtate of being raiſed upward.—We are to conſider only the *erection* of the hills above the ordinary land. *Brerewood.*—The act of building or raiſing edifices.—Pillars were ſet up above one thouſand four hundred and twenty-ſix years before the flood, counting Seth to be an hundred years old at the *erection* of them. *Raleigh.*—Eſtabliſhment; ſettlement.—It muſt needs have a peculiar influence upon the *erection*, continuance, and diſſolution, of every ſociety. *South.*—Elevation; exaltation of ſentiments.—Her peerleſs height my mind to high *erection* draws up. *Sidney.*—Act of rouſing; excitement to attention.—Starting is an apprehenſion of the thing feared, and in that is a ſhrinking, and likewiſe an inquiſition what the matter ſhould be; and in that it is a motion of *erection*: ſo that when a man would liſten ſuddenly he ſtarteth; for the ſtarting is an *erection* of the ſpirits to attend. *Bacon.*

ERECT'NESS, *ſ.* Uprightneſs of poſture or form.—We take *erectneſs* ſtrictly as Galen defined it: they only, ſayeth he, have an erect figure, whoſe ſpine and thigh-bone are carried on right lines. *Brown.*

EREC'TOR, *ſ.* [from *erigo*, Lat. to lift up.] A muſcle of the penis, whoſe office it is to raiſe or lift it up.—See ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 620.

ER'EGEM, a town of Flanders: ten miles ſouth-weſt of Bruges.

EREK'LI, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Caramania: ſixty miles eaſt of Cogni.

ERELO'NG, *adv.* Before a long time had elapſed. *Nec longum tempus.*—Nothing is laſting that is feigned: it will have another face than it had *erelong*. *Ben Jonſon.*

They ſwim in joy,
Erelong to ſwim at large, and laugh, for which
The world *erelong* a world of tears muſt weep. *Milton.*

EREMEG'IKE, a town of Aſia, in Thibet: twenty-five miles ſouth of Tourfan.

E'REMITE, *ſ.* [*eremita*, Lat. ερημος, Gr.] One who lives in a wilderneſs; one who lives in ſolitude; an hermit; a ſolitary; we now ſay *hermit*:

Embryoes and ideots, *eremites* and friars,
White, black, and grey, with all their trumpery. *Milton.*

EREMI'TICAL, *adj.* Religiouſly ſolitary; leading the life of an hermit.—They have multitudes of religious orders, *eremitical* and cenobitical. *Stillingfleet.*

ERENOW', *adv.* Before this time.—Had the world eternally been, ſcience had been brought to perfection long *erenow*. *Cheyne.*

Ah, gentle ſoldiers, ſome ſhort time allow;
My father has repented him *erenow*. *Dryden.*

EREPTA'TION, *ſ.* [*ereptio*, Lat.] A creeping forth.

EREP'TION, *ſ.* [*ereptio*, Lat.] A ſnatching or taking away by force.

E'RES, or ERIS, a town of Perſia, in the province of Sceirvan, on the borders of Armenia; falling to decay: eighty miles ſouth-weſt of Derbend, and 120 ſouth eaſt of Teflis.

ERE'SIA, *ſ.* in botany. See THEOPHRASTA.

ERES'MA, a river of Spain, which runs into the Duero, between Simancas and Tordeſillas.

ERE'SUS, a town of Leſbos, where Theophraſtus was born.

ERE'TRIA, a city of Eubœa on the Euripus, anciently called Melaneis and Arotria. It was deſtroyed by the Perſians, and the ruins were hardly viſible in the age of Strabo. It received its name from Eretrius, a ſon of Phaeton.

ERE'TUM, a town of the Sabines near the Tiber, whence came the adjective Eretinus.

ERETHIS'MUS, *ſ.* [from ερεθιζω, Gr. to irritate.] An irritation of the inteſtines from thin acrimonious humours.

EREUX'SIS, *ſ.* [from ερευγω, to eructate.] Eructation, or flatulence in the ſtomach.

EREWHI'LE, or EREWHILES, *adv.* Some time ago; before a little while.—We ſit down to our meals, ſuſpect not the intruſion of armed uninvited gueſts, who *erewhiles* we know were wont to ſurpriſe us. *Decay of Piety.*

I am as fair now as I was *erewhile*:
Since night you lov'd me, yet ſince night you left me. *Shakeſ.*

ER'FA, a town of the iſland of Corſica: twenty-five miles north-north-weſt of Baſtia.

ER'FURT, or ERFORT, a city of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, founded in the fifth century; belonging to the elector of Mentz, who governs it by a ſtadtholder. It has an eccleſiaſtical, a civil, and criminal, tribunal;

tribunal; and a regency, from whence appeals may be made to the elector. The municipality is compoſed of an equal number of Catholics and Lutherans. The town is large, but not populous, the buildings in general in the Gothic ſtyle; ſituated on the Gera, fortified, and defended by two caſtles, with a garriſon of imperial and electoral troops. It contains, beſides a college, a mitred abbey, and ſeven others, four pariſh churches and three chapels for the Roman Catholics, and eleven churches for Lutherans, and an academy inſtituted for uſeful ſcience; a well furniſhed library, in which are ſeveral manuſcript Bibles in the Hebrew characters; and an univerſity, compoſed of five colleges, whoſe profeſſors are Roman Catholics and Lutherans. The territory of Erfurt is fertile, but wants wood: it contains, beſides the capital, two towns, and ſeventy-three villages: 110 miles weſt of Dreſden, and 160 eaſt of Cologne. Lat. 50. 50. N. lon. 28. 37. E. Ferro.

ER'GANE, a river whoſe waters were fabled to intoxicate as wine.—A ſurname of Minerva. *Pauſanias.*

ERGE'NE, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Mariza, near Demotica, in Romania.

ER'GERS, a river of France, which runs into the Ill, about two miles eaſt from Griſpoltheim, in the department of the Lower Rhine.

ERGI'NUS, a king of Orchomenos, ſon of Clymenes. He obliged the Thebans to pay him a yearly tribute of 100 oxen, becauſe his father had been killed by a Theban. Hercules attacked his ſervants, who came to raiſe the tribute, and mutilated them, and he afterwards killed Erginus, who attempted to avenge their death by invading Bœotia with an army. *Pauſanias.*—A river of Thrace. *Mela.*—One of the four brothers who kept the Acrocorinth, by order of Antigonus. *Polyænus.*

ER'GOT, *ſ.* A ſort of ſtub, like a piece of ſoft horn, about the bigneſs of a cheſnut, which is placed behind and below the paſtern joint of a horſe, and is commonly hid under the tuft of the fetlock.

E'RIACH, *ſ.* [Iriſh] Recompence for murder.—The *Brehon*, that is their judge, will compound between the murderer and the friends of the party murdered, which proſecute the action, that the malefactor ſhall give unto them, or to the child or wife of him that is ſlain, a recompence, which they call an *eriach. Spencer's Ireland.*

ERIAM'BO, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Oby, thirty miles above Obdorſkoi.

ERI'CA, *ſ.* [ἐρείκω, Gr. to break; from its ſuppoſed quality of breaking the ſtone in the bladder.] HEATH; in botany, a genus of the claſs octandria, order monogynia, natural order of bicornes, (ericæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved; leaflets ovate-oblong, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, bell-form, four-cleft, often bellied. Stamina: filaments eight, capillary, inſerted into the receptacle; antheræ two-cleft at the tip. Piſtillum: germ roundiſh, ſuperior; ſtyle filiform, upright, longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma crowned, four-cornered, four-cleft. Pericarpium: capſule roundiſh, ſmaller than the calyx, covered, four-celled, four-valved; partitions meeting with the ſutures, (oppoſite to the ſutures, *G.*) Seeds: numerous, very ſmall.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx four-leaved; corolla four-cleft; filaments inſerted into the receptacle; antheræ cloven; capſule four-celled.

Deſcription. Heaths are ſmall ſhrubs, or what are commonly called underſhrubs *(ſuffrutices).* Their leaves are very ſmall, linear, lanceolate or ovate, imbricate or remote, entire, ciliate or ſerrate, in ſome oppoſite, in moſt whorled, in others again ſcattered. Bractes uſually three, two of which are oppoſite. The flowers are either axillary or terminating, and variouſly diſpoſed. Corolla moſtly of a purple colour. Antheræ commonly oblong, but ſometimes linear. Germ in moſt ſpecies ſmooth. In ſome ſpecies the antheræ are awned, in others creſted, in others awnleſs; in ſome they are included within the corolla, in others they are projected, or ſtand out beyond the corolla. Hence this unwieldy genus is commodiouſly divided into four ſections; and theſe are ſubdivided into ſubordinate ſections from the diſpoſition of the leaves. The incluſion or projection of the ſtyle alſo affords another diviſion of the ſpecies. The calyx in ſome is double. And, laſtly, the form of the corolla aſſiſts us much in diſtinguiſhing the numerous ſpecies. The campanulate and ovate forms, with their ſeveral modifications, are the predominating ones. This genus has within the compaſs of a few years riſen from neglect to ſplendour. Every one remembers that Mr. Pope marks it with contempt, at the ſame time that he celebrates the colour of the flowers: "E'en the wild heath diſplays its purple dyes." Mr. Miller, ſo late as the year 1768, makes mention of no more than five ſorts, four of which, as being wild, he conſigns to oblivion; the fifth, our No. 17, is an inhabitant of the ſouth of Europe; but he has not one of thoſe beautiful natives of the Cape of Good Hope, which now form ſo great an ornament to our green-houſes or dry ſtoves. In Linnæus's Species Plantarum, 1762, we have thirty-eight ſorts; in Dahlgren's Diſſertation, 1770, there are fifty-eight; which are increaſed to ſeventy-four in Murray's edition of Syſtema Vegetabilium, 1784. From Bergius, the Supplement, &c. and to ninety-one in Thunberg's Diſſertation on this genus, publiſhed the year following. Our liſt, by the aſſiſtance principally of the Hortus Kewenſis, contains eighty-three ſpecies. Our firſt acquaintance with the African heaths is from Hermann and Oldenland, towards the end of the laſt century. The latter of theſe authors enumerates twenty-ſix ſpecies.

Ray, in his Hiſtory, 1688, enumerates fifteen ſorts, which are chiefly our wild ones, and thoſe from the ſouth of Europe; he has only one African in this liſt: in his Dendrologia, however, 1704, he has a long catalogue of fifty-ſix African heaths, from Petiver and Plukenet, but chiefly from Sherard. This is a mere enumeration of names; and heaths continued to be little known, except from the dried ſpecimens in the herbariums of the curious, till ſome of the European ſpecies were imported into our gardens between the years 1763 and 1770; and the rich harveſt of Africans were introduced from the Cape of Good Hope, by Mr. Francis Maſſon, who made two voyages to that ſpot, ſo abundant in rare plants, by the command and at the expence of the king of Great Britain; firſt in the years 1773, 1774, and 1775; and again in the years 1786 and 1787. Since theſe two periods, no genus of plants has attracted more regard than that which is now to be deſcribed.

Species. I. Antheræ awned, leaves oppoſite. 1. Erica vulgaris, or common heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, almoſt equal; calyxes double, (the inner longer than the corolla;) leaves ſagittate, (imbricate in four rows, *St.*) Common heath is a foot or two in height, or more; the ſtems brown and woody, very much branched; the branches in oppoſite pairs, moſtly upright, round, downy, and reddiſh; the branchlets ſquare. Leaves nearly ovate, bluntiſh, with a whitiſh furrow, ſlightly hairy at the edge; according to Lightfoot tetragonal, in four imbricate rows, the uppermoſt having angles at the baſe like the barbs of an arrow. Flowers ſolitary, on peduncles the length of the leaves, from the ſides of the branches, ſlightly nodding, oppoſite, but generally pointing one way, giving the branches the appearance of long bunches, but leafy ſhoots will be always found at the end. Seeds ſix to nine in each cell, ſub-ovate, ſcrobiculate-wrinkled, pale yellow.

This plant, which is little regarded in warmer climates, is made ſubſervient to a great variety of purpoſes in the bleak and barren highlands of Scotland, and other northern countries. The poorer inhabitants cover their cabins with it inſtead of thatch, or elſe twiſt it into ropes, and bind down the thatch with them in a kind of lattice work; they alſo make the walls with alternate layers of heath, and a ſort of cement made of black earth and ſtraw. The hardy Highlanders frequently make their beds with it. In moſt of the weſtern iſles they dye their yarn of a yellow

yellow colour, by boiling it in water with the green tops and flowers of this plant: and woollen cloth boiled in alum-water, and afterwards in a ſtrong decoction of the tops, comes out a fine orange-colour. In ſome of theſe iſlands they tan their leather in a ſtrong decoction of it. Formerly the young tops are ſaid to have been uſed alone to brew a kind of ale; and Boethius relates that this liquor was much uſed by the Picts. In ſome of the iſles, it is ſaid, they ſtill brew ale with one part malt, and two parts of the young tops of heath, ſometimes adding hops. In many parts of Great Britain beſoms are made of it. The turf, with the heath growing on it, is cut up and dried for the fuel of the cottager, for heating ovens, covering under-ground drains, &c. Sheep and goats will ſometimes eat the tender ſhoots, but they are not fond of them. Cattle not accuſtomed to browſe on heath give bloody milk, but are ſoon cured by drinking plentifully of water. The branches of heath afford ſhelter, and the ſeeds a principal part of the food of many birds, eſpecially thoſe of the grous kind: and for this purpoſe, the feed-veſſel is formed and protected in ſuch a manner, that the ſeeds are preſerved a whole year, or even longer. Bees collect largely from the flowers, and honey made from them was anciently ſuppoſed to be of a bad quality, but in fact it is only of a darker colour. The foliage affords nouriſhment to the Phalæna quercus, or great egger moth. Dodder frequently entwines itſelf about this plant, and gives it a ſingular appearance. Almoſt every part of Europe abounds with heath, eſpecially the northern countries; it is alſo common in all the temperate parts of the vaſt Ruſſian empire. Heath is called *ling* in ſome parts of England; in Shropſhire, *grig*; in Scotland, *kather*. It is remarkable that Shakeſpeare enumerates heath and ling as different plants. The former of theſe names is from the German *heide*, and the latter from the Daniſh *lyng:* in Swediſh it is *liung*; in Italian, *erica*; in Spaniſh, *brezo*; in Portugueſe, *urze*, *erice*, *torga*, or *eſtorga*; in Ruſſian, *wereſk*.

It varies with white flowers, and with hoary leaves. The latter has been conſidered by ſome as a diſtinct ſpecies, and by others confounded with E. ciliaris. It is frequent on Bagſhot-heath, Enville-common in Staffordſhire, Birmingham-heath, and, as Ray ſays, not only about Windſor, where Cluſius obſerved it, but all over England.

2. Erica lutea, or yellow heath: corollas ovate, acuminate; flowers heaped; leaves linear. The whole plant being covered with its ſhining golden or ſilvery flowers, is very beautiful. Native of the Cape of Good Hope, where it was obſerved by Bergius; and thence introduced here by Mr. Francis Maſſon, in 1774.

Leaves in threes. 3. Erica halicacaba, or purple-ſtalked heath: corollas ovate, inflated; ſtyle included; flowers ſolitary. This is a lofty ſhrub with purpliſh branches; the branchlets ſubtomentoſe and white. Leaves crowded very much, even, rugged about the edge. Corolla purpliſh, ſmooth, diſtinct from all others in its flowers being the ſize of an acorn. Native of the Cape; flowers in May and June.

4. Erica regerminans, or ſelf-ſowing heath: corollas ovate, ſtyle included, calyxes acute, flowers racemed. Native of the Cape.

5. Erica monſoniana, or bladder-flowered heath: flowers at the ends of obtuſe branchlets; calyxes calycled; corolla oblong, inflated; ſtyle included. This is one of the moſt beautiful of this beautiful genus, with large white flowers. Thunberg found it in the interior part of Africa.

6. Erica mucoſa, or mucous heath: corollas ſubglobular, mucous; ſtyle included. Native of the Cape.

7. Erica urceolaris, or hairy-flowered heath: flowers umbelled; calyxes lanceolate; corollas ovate-conical, villoſe; ſtyle included. 8. Erica marifolia, or marum-leaved heath: leaves ovate, pubeſcent, whitiſh underneath; corollas ovate-conical; ſtyle of a middling length. Natives of the Cape; flower in May and June.

9. Erica Bergiana, or Bergius's heath: calyxes reflex; corollas bell-ſhaped; ſtyle included. Found at the Cape by Bergius. It is covered with beautiful flowers.

10. Erica depreſſa, or flat-ſtemmed heath: ſtem depreſſed, flowers few, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. 11. Erica pilulifera, or rounded heath: flowers umbelled, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. Natives of the Cape.

12. Erica viridi-purpurea, or green-blue heath: flowers ſcattered, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. This varies, with leaves in fours. Native of Portugal.

13. Erica pentaphylla, or five-leaved heath: flowers pubeſcent, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. 14. Erica nigrita, or black heath: calyxes imbricate, three-flowered, ſeſſile; corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. 15. Erica planifolia, or ſmooth-leaved heath: leaves ſpreading very much, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. Theſe are natives of the Cape.

16. Erica ſcoparia, or ſmall green-flowered or bruſh heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtigma ſtanding out, peltate. This is a ſhrub growing to the height of ſeveral feet. The leaves quickly fall off. With the branches of it they make beſoms, whence the trivial name. It is common in the ſouth of Europe, was introduced here about 1770, and flowers in April and May.

17. Erica arborea, or tree heath: branchlets hoary, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is an upright ſhrub, growing to the height of ſix feet, with upright branches covered with a white nap. Leaves very abundant, upright, ſmooth, almoſt awl-ſhaped, covering the branches, wrinkled when dry. Flowers very numerous, on the middle of the branches, ſo that the later leaves are above them; they are on branching peduncles, forming a panicle. Corolla white, ſhort, broad, four-cleft two-thirds of the way. Native of the ſouth of Europe, and the iſland of Madeira; flowers from February to May. Mr. Miller makes it a native of the Cape of Good Hope and Portugal; but moſt of the little he has ſaid on this genus is wrong. He ſets down E. herbacea and ciliaris as natives of England; and he gives no deſcription of any except of this, and that is imperfect and erroneous.

18. Erica veſpertina, or evening heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is an upright ſhrub, with the branches growing by threes; leaves triquetrous, even, preſſed cloſe. Flowers in a panicle, nodding, alternate, white, on white pubeſcent peduncles; corolla double the length of the calyx, broad, ſharp, almoſt like that of E. cubico; antheræ black, two-parted, above the throat. Found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg.

19. Erica cruenta, or bloody-flowered heath: leaves ſmooth, bractes remote, calyxes awl-ſhaped, dilated at the baſe; corollas cylindrical, incurved; ſtyle ſtanding out. Flowers axillary; corolla deep crimſon, an inch long, a little bent in, ſmooth, ſubpellucid, a little ſwelling at the top, with a four-cleft mouth; ſegments broad, ſharpiſh, ſuberect; filaments whitiſh. Found by Mr. Francis Maſſon at the Cape of Good Hope, and introduced in 1774. It flowers at various ſeaſons.

Leaves in fours. 20. Erica ramentacea, or ſlender-branched heath: leaves briſtle-ſhaped, corollas globular, ſtyle included, ſtigma doubled. Native of the Cape of Good Hope; flowers in July.

21. Erica perſoluta, or bluſh-flowered heath: calyxes ciliate, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle included. Native of the Cape; flowers from February to May.

22. Erica ſtrigoſa, or dwarf downy heath: leaves pubeſcent, ciliate; corollas bell-ſhaped, ſmooth; ſtyle ſtanding out. Found at the Cape by Mr. Francis Maſſon; it flowers in March and April.

23. Erica tetralix, or croſs-leaved heath: leaves ciliate, flowers in heads, corollas ovate, ſtyle included. Stems ſhrubby, from nine to twelve inches high, branched,

brown, ſomewhat rugged from the remains of the leaves which have fallen off; branches a little woolly. Leaves commonly in fours, but ſometimes in fives, ovate-linear, ſpreading, near the flowers preſſed cloſe to the ſtem, the edges turned in and ciliated, each hair terminating in a ſmall round gland; the upper ſurface is flat, the lower concave and white. Flowers hanging down one over another all one way, forming a little head. It flowers twice in the year. Native of the northern parts of Europe, on moiſt heaths and mooriſh grounds; flowering in July and Auguſt; Linnæus ſays, twice in the year. This ſpecies is not inferior to many of the foreign heaths in the beauty and delicacy of its flowers. It is diſtinguiſhed from the other Britiſh heaths, not only by the flowers growing in a kind of pendulous cluſter on the tops of the ſtalks, but by the leaves growing in fours, and forming a ſort of croſs; whence the trivial and Engliſh names. Our old writers call it *Low-Dutch heath*, or *beſome-heath*.

24. Erica pubeſcens, or hairy heath: leaves rugged, flowers ſeſſile, lateral, corollas ovate, ſtyle included. Thunberg thus deſcribes it: ſtem aſh-coloured, hiſpid, flexuoſe, erect, two feet high and more. Leaves in threes or fours, frequently four on the branches, and three on the branchlets, ſeldom all in fours, linear, obtuſe, rugged, villoſe, incurved, grooved beneath, ſpreading, a line in length. Flowers at the end of the branchlets, umbelled, two, three, or more, together, abundant, blood-red, hirſute. It has its name from the pubeſcency of the flowers. Native of the Cape.

According to Thunberg, this varies much in the ſtem, branches, leaves, and flowers. The principal varieties are theſe: 1. Hairy, with leaves in threes, and the corollas very finely hairy. 2. Hiſpid, with leaves in threes, and hiſpid. 3. Villoſe, with leaves in fours, rugged, and the branches in whorls. 4. Small-flowered, with the leaves on the branches in fours, on the branchlets in threes, hiſpid, corollas minute.

25. Erica abietina, or fir heath: flowers ſeſſile, corollas fig-ſhaped, ſtyle included. Stem aſh-coloured, rugged, erect, a foot high and more. Native of the Cape; flowers in June and July.

26. Erica mammoſa, or breaſted heath: corollas fig-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. Thunberg ſays it differs from the preceding, in having the calyx linear, the corollas more inflated, the flowers in umbels, and the leaves in ſixes. Native of the Cape.

27. Erica Caffra, or Caffre heath: leaves pubeſcent, flowers heaped, corollas ovate, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is the ſize of juniper. Native of the Cape.

28. Erica ſeſſiliflora, or ſeſſile-flowered heath: flowers in a ſpike, ſeſſile bent down oblong, corollas club-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is a brown rugged ſhrub, determinately branched, ſomewhat rigid, having the appearance of a ſmall pinus ſylveſtris. Native of the Cape.

Leaves ſcattered. 29. Erica faſcicularis, or bundled heath: leaves ſeveral, linear, truncated; flowers in bundles, corollas fig-ſhaped, ſtyle included. Native of the Cape; obſerved there by Bäck.

II. Antheræ creſted, leaves in threes. 30. Erica triflora, or three-flowered heath: flowers terminating; corollas globular, bell-ſhaped; ſtyle included. Stem, according to Thunberg, brown, ſmooth below, hiſpid at the top, erect, a foot high. Native of the Cape; introduced in 1787 by Mr. Francis Maſſon.

31. Erica baccans, or arbutus-flowered heath: leaves imbricate; corollas globular, bell-ſhaped, covered; ſtyle included. Native of the Cape; introduced by Maſſon; flowers in April and May.

32. Erica gnaphalodes, or ſoft-leaved heath: corollas ovate, covered; ſtyle included, ſtigma four-parted. Thunberg deſcribes his gnaphalodes thus: It is a ſmall ſhrub, ſmooth all over, of a cinereous brown colour, erect, a ſpan high. Branches and branchlets dichotomous and trichotomous, filiform, from erect ſpreading, faſtigiate. Leaves ovate, entire, ſmooth, flat above, convex beneath, with a longitudinal groove, preſſed cloſe, the length of the internodes, forming as it were jointed branchlets, a line and a half in length. Flowers terminating, about three together, purple. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

33. Erica corifolia, or ſlender-twigged heath: flowers umbelled, calyxes turbinate, corollas ovate, ſtyle included. Native of the Cape; flowers in Auguſt.

34. Erica articularis, or jointed heath: corollas ovate, acuminate; ſtyle included, longer than the calyx. 35. Erica calycina, or calycined heath: calyxes ſpreading very much, wheel-ſhaped; corollas ovate, ſtyle included. Natives of the Cape.

36. Erica cinerea, or fine-leaved heath: corollas ovate; ſtyle a little ſtanding out; ſtigma capitate. Root perennial, woody, ſtems ſhrubby, about a foot high, with oppoſite branches; the bark aſh-coloured. Leaves linear, fleſhy, ſpreading above, ſmooth and ſhining, tranſverſely wrinkled, towards the end beſet with a few ſcattered hair-like points; beneath having a longitudinal furrow, which is white from a woolline ſs apparent to the magnifier; the edge ſomewhat membranaceous, and when viewed with the microſcope appearing ſerrulate: the leaves, when young, have three flat ſides, but when full grown are nearly flat. Flowers in long cluſtered whorled terminating ſpikes, ſonorous when ſtruck; they come out from the ſides of the young ſhoots; thoſe from the end-ſhoots are near each other, but ſcattered and bare; thoſe from the ſmall lateral branches generally in pairs. Seeds oval, the ſurface netted, and four times as big as thoſe of E. tetralix. Dr. Stokes remarks, that the lower part of the trunk is free from hairineſs, that the bark of the laſt year's ſhoot is aſh-coloured, covered with a ſhort light-brown woolline ſs, and that the branches are moſtly in threes. Mr. Curtis obſerves, that the ſtyle is incloſed within the corolla, but is longer than the ſtamens; and that it is diſtinguiſhed from E. tetralix, with which and the common heath it grows promiſcuouſly, by the fineneſs, ſmoothneſs, and deep green colour, of its leaves; the flowers alſo grow more in ſpikes, and are of a deeper purple colour. Native of Europe, but not in the ſouth, nor in the extreme northern parts; alſo of the Levant. It flowers from June to Auguſt. It may be applied to the ſame purpoſes as the common heath; and the flowers are much more ſhowy.

37. Erica paniculata, or panicled heath: flowers minute, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is a ſhrub, with linear upright leaves, almoſt even. Flowers purple, very ſmall, as are alſo the calyxes and peduncles; they are ſo abundant as to cover the whole plant. Native of the Cape of Good Hope; flowers from February to April.

38. Erica auſtralis, or Spaniſh heath: leaves ſpreading, corollas cylindric, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is an upright rigid ſhrub, with an aſh-coloured bark. Leaves in threes or fours, linear, obtuſe, ſomewhat rugged on the edge. Native of Spain and Portugal; obſerved in the former by Alſtroemer. Introduced in 1769, by George W. earl of Coventry. It flowers in April and May.

Leaves in fours. 39. Erica phyſodes, or expanded heath: flowers ſubſolitary, corollas ovate, inflated; ſtyle included. Leaves patulous, broad-linear, keeled. Calyx ovate, ſmooth, coloured, one-third of the length of the corolla, which is the ſize of a pea, and viſcid. The flowers are at the ends of the branches in a ſort of umbel. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

40. Erica empetrifolia, or crowberry-leaved heath: flowers ſeſſile, lateral; corollas ovate. Stem, according to Thunberg, brown, rugged, a foot high. Leaves in ſixes, oblong, obtuſe, incurved, above three-cornered, flat, beneath grooved, rugged, eſpecially underneath, very finely ciliate, imbricate, a line in length. Native of the Cape; introduced by Maſſon; flowers in April and May.

41.

41. Erica cernua, or drooping heath: flowers ovate, capitate; calyxes ciliate, antheræ included. 42. Erica retorta, or crook-leaved heath: leaves recurved, corollas ovate-oblong, ſtyle of a middling length. Found at the Cape by Thunberg.

43. Erica margaritacea, or pearl-flowered heath: corollas pitcher-bell-ſhaped, ſtyle of a middling length. Native of the Cape, where it was found by Mr. Francis Maſſon; flowers in May and June.

III. Antheræ awnleſs included; leaves oppoſite. 44. Erica tenuifolia, or ſmall-leaved heath: corolla and calyx blood-red. According to Thunberg, the whole ſtem is ſmooth, erect, a ſpan high; flowers blood-red. Native of the Cape.

45. Erica paſſerinæ, or paſſerine heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out, (included, *Th.*) This has the herb of Paſſerina ericoides, not to be diſtinguiſhed from it, inſomuch that Paſſerina ericoides has entirely the herb of an Erica, with the flowers of Paſſerina. Here we have an inſtance of the intermixture of genera, which is not uncommon in the Cape plants. Native of the Cape.

46. Erica albens, or white heath: racemes pointing one way, corollas ovate-oblong, acute. 47. Erica ſpumoſa, or ſix-angled heath: corollas in threes, covered by a common calyx, ſtyle ſtanding out. Natives of the Cape.

48. Erica capitata, or woolly heath: flowers ſeſſile, corollas covered with a woolly calyx, antheræ middling. Thunberg thus deſcribes it: ſtem ſeldom erect, commonly decumbent, ſmooth, flexuoſe, filiform. Flowers at the ends of the extreme branchlets, peduncled, one, two, or three, together, the whole calyxes covered cloſe with a white wool. Linnæus, in his Species Plantarum, ſays that this is known by its globular flowers, covered with a greeniſh-yellow lanugo. Native of the Cape; flowers from April to July.

49. Erica melanthera, or black-anthered heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, longer than the coloured calyx, antheræ middling, ſtyle ſtanding out. 50. Erica Thunbergii, or Thunberg's heath: corollas flat, with a globular tube, antheræ middling, ſtyle ſtanding out. Found at the Cape.

51. Erica abſynthoides, or wormwood heath: corollas ovate-bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out, ſtigma funnel-ſhaped. This ſhrub has the ſtature of wormwood, and is a native of the Cape. Thunberg ſays it varies, 1. With a wand-like ſtem, and branches and leaves very hirſute and rugged. 2. With a wand-like hirſute ſtem and branches, and wrinkled villoſe patulous leaves. 3. With a panicled ſtem, very ſhort branchlets, and the leaves a little rugged and hirſute. 4. With a panicled ſtem, longer faſtigiate branchlets, and the leaves a little rugged and ſmooth.

52. Erica ciliaris, or ciliated heath: racemes pointing one way, corollas ovate, fig-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is a ſuffruticoſe plant, two feet high. Native of Spain and Portugal; introduced about 1773. It flowers from July to September. Caſpar Bauhin gives it the epithet of *Engliſh*; no one, however, has heard of its being found in our iſland, though Mr. Miller has fallen into Bauhin's error, and ſets it down as one of our wild plants.

53. Erica hiſpidula, or hiſpid heath: ſtem hiſpid; leaves about three, ovate, acute, ciliate; corollas roundiſh. Stems decumbent, half a foot high, ſtrigoſe or hairy. Thunberg ſays it much reſembles the *planifolia*, No. 15. but differs in having an erect ſhrubby ſtem, awnleſs antheræ, the leaves ſcarcely ciliate, revolute, more approximating, the corollas globular and ſmooth. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

54. Erica petiolata, or roſemary-leaved heath: leaves oblong, petioled; corollas in threes, ovate, the length of the calyx; antheræ ſtanding out a little, ſtyle ſtanding out. Native of the Cape; flowers from March to June.

55. Erica leucanthera, or white-anthered heath: flowers in threes, calyx white, corolla bell-ſhaped, antheræ and ſtyle ſtanding out. Stem erect, ſmooth, a foot high and more. Branches commonly in threes, pubeſcent, erect, wand-like; branchlets ſcattered, very frequent, filiform and capillary, pubeſcent, erect, leafy. Leaves three-cornered, obtuſe, preſſed cloſe, ſmooth, with a very ſlender groove underneath. Flowers on very ſhort peduncles, erect. This is diſtinguiſhed by its white corolla, and awnleſs, projected, white, anthers. Found at the Cape by Thunberg.

Leaves in fours or more. 56. Erica tubiflora, or tube-flowered heath: leaves ſubciliate, corollas club-fig-ſhaped, antheræ and ſtyle included. 57. Erica curviflora, or curve-flowered heath: leaves ſmooth, corollas club-fig-ſhaped, antheræ and ſtyle included. 58. Erica coccinea, or ſcarlet heath: calyxes hirſute, corollas club-fig-ſhaped, antheræ ſubincluded, ſtyle included. Natives of the Cape.

59. Erica conſpicua, or long-tubed yellow heath: leaves ſmooth, corollas cylindric, curved, very long, hairy, with a revolute border, antheræ ſubincluded, ſtyle ſtanding out. Found at the Cape of Good Hope by Mr. Francis Maſſon; flowers from May to Auguſt.

60. Erica cerinthoides, or honeywort-flowered heath: corollas club-fig-ſhaped, ſtigma included, cruciate. Native of the Cape; introduced by Mr. Francis Maſſon; flowers moſt part of the year.

61. Erica faſtigiata, or pointed heath: corollas ſalver-ſhaped, in bundles, ſtyle included. 62. Erica cubica, or ſquare heath: calyxes four-cornered, corollas bell-ſhaped, acute, ſtyle included. Natives of the Cape.

63. Erica denticulata, or toothed heath: calyxes toothletted, corollas ovate, funnel-ſhaped, ſtyle included. Stems diſtorted, as in common heath; leaves crowded together, ſpreading a little, ſubcylindric, even; flowers in terminating bundles. Obſerved at the Cape by Bergius.

64. Erica viſcaria, or clammy-flowered heath: flowers in racemes, corollas bell-ſhaped, glutinous, ſtyle included. Native of the Cape; flowers in March.

65. Erica granulata, or granulated heath: calyxes ſubimbricate, corollas globular, ſtyle included. This reſembles E. ramentacea, and Thunberg makes it to be the ſame. It is a native of the Cape.

66. Erica comoſa, or tufted-flowered heath: flowers heaped, corollas ovate-oblong, ſtyle included. Native of the Cape.

67. Erica Sparrmanni, or Sparrmann's heath: leaves imbricate, ciliate, heads four-flowered, corollas tubular, ſtrigoſe-hiſpid, antheræ ſubincluded. This is remarkable for having the flowering heads always divided into four flowers; before theſe are elongated, the head appears globular, and echinate, as in achyranthes, from the very ſpreading yellow briſtles of the leaves of the involucre and calyx. Obſerved by Sparrmann far inland from the Cape of Good Hope.

68. Erica concinna, or fleſh-coloured heath: leaves in ſixes or thereabouts, ſmooth; flowers terminating, umbelled; corollas cylindric, attenuated at the baſe. Branches ſmooth; leaves on the branches in ſixes, on the branchlets in fours, petioled, erect, aceroſe, four lines in length; flowers from three to ſix in an umbel. Obſerved by Maſſon at the Cape of Good Hope; flowers in September and October.

69. Erica Maſſoni, or tall downy heath: leaves in eight rows, imbricate, pubeſcent; flowers capitate, corollas cylindric, fig-ſhaped. Obſerved by Bäck at the Cape; introduced in 1787 by Mr. Francis Maſſon.

IV. Antheræ awnleſs, ſtanding out; leaves in threes. 70. Erica Plukenetii, or ſmooth-twigged pencil-flowered heath: calyxes ſimple, corollas cylindric, antheræ very long, ſtyle ſtanding out. Reſembles the following ſpecies, but the calyx is ſimple. Native of the Cape.

71. Erica Petiveri, or downy-twigged pencil-flowered heath: calyxes imbricate, corollas acute, antheræ very long, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is a brown ſhrub. Branches covered with branchlets in threes, crowded, very ſhort, pubeſcent, clothed with ſquarroſe leaves. Native of the Cape; flowers from January to March.

72. Erica nudiflora, or naked-flowered heath: branches tomentoſe,

tomentoſe, corollas cylindric, ſcattered. This is alſo a native of the Cape: it is known only by a ſingle ſpecimen in the Linnæan Herbarium.

73. Erica Bruniades: flowers ſcattered, corollas covered by a woolly calyx, ſtyle ſtanding out. Native of the Cape. Thunberg makes this to be the ſame with the *capitata*.

74. Erica imbricata, or imbricate heath: corollas bell-ſhaped, covered with the imbricate calyx, ſtyle ſtanding out. Native of the Cape.

75. Erica umbellata, or umbelled heath: leaves aceroſe, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. This little ſhrub has the habit of common heath. Native of Portugal.

Leaves in fours or more. 76. Erica purpuraſcens, or purple heath: flowers ſcattered, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. Native of the ſouth of Europe.

77. Erica vagans, or wandering heath: flowers ſolitary, corollas bell-ſhaped, ſtyle ſtanding out. Stem like that of empetrum, ſhrubby, ſomewhat rugged; the extreme branches whitiſh and divaricating. Leaves in fours, ſeldom in fives, linear, bluntiſh, ſometimes ſmoothiſh, ſometimes a little rugged, beneath convex and channelled, ſhortiſh, crowded. Native of Africa, and alſo of the neighbourhood of Thouloufe. See No. 80, which is ſuppoſed to be the ſame.

78. Erica herbacea, or early-flowering dwarf heath: flowers directed all one way, corollas oblong, ſtyle ſtanding out. This is a ſmall ſhrub, from a foot to eighteen inches in height, decumbent at the bottom, then upright, branched, flexible. Flowers at the tops of the branchlets, on ſhort peduncles, alternate, among the leaves; they come out in autumn, continue cloſed during winter, and are then green; in May the year following the flowers are unfolded, the antheræ which were incloſed are protruded, the calyx and corolla opening are both changed into a pale purple or fleſh-colour. Hence many authors, among whom is Linnæus, have made two ſpecies of this. Native of Auſtria, Swiſſerland, and Sileſia. Introduced in 1763, by the earl of Coventry.

79. Erica multiflora, or many-flowered heath: leaves in fives, flowers ſcattered, corollas cylindric, ſtyle ſtanding out. Stem the height of a man. Leaves in fours or fives, ſpreading, obtuſe, gibbous at the baſe. Flowers purpliſh. Native of the ſouth of Europe. It flowers from June to November. Linnæus ſets this down as a native of England: but our plant, which he ſuppoſed to be the ſame with his *multiflora*, is the next ſpecies.

80. Erica didyma, or double-anthered heath: leaves in fives, peduncles ſcattered, longer than the flower, corollas bell-ſhaped, antheræ twin, ſtyle ſtanding out. Stems twiſted, trailing. Branches between ſcored and angular, light reddiſh brown, the more ſlender ſhoots aſh-coloured, all lateral, to ſeven or more riſing from the ſame point in the manner of an umbel, in ſome ſtates of its growth giving it much the appearance of euphorbia cyparifſias; when beginning to flower, gradually tapering towards the end. Leaves linear, ſomewhat like thoſe of fir, bowed ſideways, ſmooth, but not gloſſy, ſomewhat pointed, when magnified appearing to have diſtant ſerratures on the edge, which is bent in, upper ſurface green, ſlightly elevated in the middle, under whitiſh, convex, with a ſmooth furrow running along it, longer, and ſometimes thrice as long as the corolla, and crowded ſo cloſe as to conceal the younger ſhoots. Seeds reddiſh brown. Found on heaths, as on Goonhilly-downs, going from Helſton to the Lizard-point, in Cornwall. It flowers from June to Auguſt. The ſame with E. vagans, No. 77.

81. Erica Mediterranea, or Mediterranean heath: leaves ſpreading, flowers ſcattered, corollas ovate, ſtyle ſtanding out. Reſembles E. multiflora, but the corolla is abſolutely ovate; the branches angular and white. Native of the ſouth of Europe; introduced about 1765 by Mr. Joſhua Brooks; it flowers from March to May.

82. Erica grandiflora, or great-flowered heath: leaves in ſixes or thereabouts, aceroſe, ſmooth; flowers axillary, peduncled; corollas cylindric, ſubincurved, ſmooth; ſtyle elongated. This reſembles E. curviflora, but the leaves are longer. Obſerved at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg; introduced here in 1775 by Maſſon; it flowers from May to July.

Place uncertain. 83. Erica tetragona, or four-ſided heath: leaves in threes, flowers in racemes, pointing all the ſame way; calyx linear, corolla four-cornered, oblong, ſtyle included. Flowers yellow, like thoſe of E. lutea, but longer. Native of the Cape.

84. Erica pyramidalis, or pyramidal heath: antheræ awnleſs, included; corollas funnel-ſhaped, in fours; ſtyle a little protruded; leaves in fours, pubeſcent. Introduced from the Cape by Maſſon in 1787.

Propagation and Culture. Common heath, which overruns immenſe tracts, eſpecially in the elevated parts of northern countries, can be extirpated only effectually by paring and burning. In ſome lands, deep and croſs ploughings, getting up roots with heavy harrows, burning the whole, and ſpreading the aſhes, may be ſufficient. Dr. Anderſon affirms, that wherever heath abounds, there is generated, by the rotting of the plant, a peculiar black earth, that is not only of itſelf ſterile, but has a powerful tendency to make any other ſoil unfertile; ſo that in improving heathy grounds, the top ſoil ſhould be buried by trenching or deep ploughing.

Notwithſtanding the commonneſs of our Britiſh heaths, they deſerve a place in ſmall quarters of humble flowering ſhrubs, where, by the beauty and long continuance of their flowers, together with the diverſity of their leaves, they make an agreeable variety. They may be taken up, with a ball of earth to their roots, from the natural places of their growth, in autumn. The ſoil ſhould not be dunged, and the leſs the ground is dug, the better they will thrive, for they commonly ſhoot their roots near the ſurface. They may alſo be propagated by ſeeds, but this is a tedious method.

12, 16, 17, 38, 52, 75–79, 81. Theſe, which are natives of the ſouthern countries of Europe, will bear the open air in England in a dry ſoil and a warm ſituation. They may be increaſed and treated in the ſame manner with our Britiſh heaths, and may alſo be propagated by layers and cuttings.

All the reſt of this numerous and beautiful genus being natives of the Cape of Good Hope, or the more interior parts of Africa leading to that famous promontory, muſt be preſerved in the dry ſtove, greenhouſe, or glaſs caſe. Theſe may be increaſed either from cuttings or from layers. There are not many of the ſpecies but what may be increaſed in the firſt way, provided good young ſhoots can be got for cuttings; eſpecially if they are put under bell-glaſſes, and the pots are ſet where they can be ſhaded, and have a moderate heat. Theſe plants ſhould have a light and rather poor ſoil to grow in; a compoſition of bog earth and light loam will ſuit them well. Mr. James Donn, curator of the botanic garden at Cambridge, collected upwards of ſixty of theſe Cape heaths, which he cultivated in 1795; though he was appointed to his office only at Michaelmas 1794. See ALYSSUM, ANDROMEDA, BLŒRIA, BRUNIA, BRYONIA, DIOSMA, EMPETRUM, HOTTONIA, PASSERINA, PENÆA, PHYLLICA, FUCUS, and FRANKENIA.

ERICÆFOR'MIS, *ſ.* in botany. See DIOSMA and HUDSONIA.

ERICEY'RA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Eſtremadura, on the ſea coaſt: twenty miles north-weſt of Liſbon.

ERICOI'DES, *ſ.* in botany. See ELATINE.

ERICOI'LA, *ſ.* in botany. See GENTIANA.

ERICHTHO'NIUS, the fourth king of Athens, fabled to have ſprung from the ſeed of Vulcan which fell upon the ground when that god attempted to offer violence to Minerva. He was very deformed, and had the tails of ſerpents inſtead of legs. Minerva placed him in a baſket, which ſhe gave to the daughters of Cecrops, with ſtrict injunctions not to examine its contents. Aglaurus, one

of

of the ſiſters, had the curioſity to open the baſket, for which the goddeſs puniſhed her indiſcretion by making her jealous of her ſiſter Herſe. Erichthon was young when he aſcended the throne of Athens. He reigned fifty years, and died B. C. 1437. The invention of chariots is attributed to him, and the manner of harneſſing horſes to draw them. He was made a conſtellation after death under the name of Bootes. *Virgil.*

E'RICU, *ſ.* in botany. See ASCLEPIAS.

ERICU'SA, one of the Lipari iſles, now *Allcudi.*

ERI'DANUS, one of the largeſt rivers of Italy, riſing in the Alps and falling into the Adriatic by ſeveral mouths; now called the *Po.* It was in its neighbourhood that the Heliades, the ſiſters of Phaeton, were changed into poplars, according to Ovid. Virgil calls it the king of all rivers, and Lucan compares it to the Rhine and Danube.

ERI'DANUS, the *River*, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere, and one of the forty-eight old aſteriſms. The ſtars in this conſtellation, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are thirty-four, in Tyche's nineteen, and in the Britiſh catalogue eighty-four.

ERI'E, an Indian nation, formerly poſſeſſing the banks of lake Erie, called by the French *du Chat*, or Cat-nation. They were extirpated by the Iroquois about the year 1655.

ERI'E, a lake of the fourth magnitude in North America, and through which runs the line between the United States and Upper Canada. D'Etroit river on the weſt brings the waters of the great lakes with which lake Erie has a communication on the north-weſt, and Niagara river on the eaſt, forms its communication with the waters of lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence. It is ſituated between 41. and 43. N. lat. and between 78. 48. and 83. W. lon. Its form is elliptical. Its length is about 225 miles; and its medium breadth about 40. It affords good navigation for ſhipping of any burden. The coaſt on both ſides of the lake is generally favourable for the paſſage of batteaux and canoes. Its banks in many places have a flat ſandy ſhore, particularly to the eaſtward of the peninſula called Long Point, which runs upwards of eighteen miles into the lake, and being compoſed of ſand is very convenient to haul boats out of the ſurf upon it, when the lake is too rough for ſailing and rowing; yet in ſome places, chiefly on the ſouth ſide towards both ends of the lake, it would be dangerous to approach and impoſſible to land, by reaſon of the perpendicular height of the rocks. Some of theſe, (as at Crayahoga,) are magnificent beyond deſcription, and muſt alſo inſpire dread in the boldeſt heart, when viewed from the water. Lake Erie has a great variety of fine fiſh, ſuch as ſturgeon, eel, trout, perch, &c. Lakes Huron and Michigan afford communication with lake Erie, by veſſels of eight feet draught. There are portages into the waters of lake Erie from the Wabaſh, Great Miami, Muſkingum, and Alleghany, from two to ſixteen miles. The portage between the Ohio and Potowmack about twenty miles. Some of theſe rivers are connected in a moſt ſingular manner with others, which run in a courſe totally different. For inſtance, after paſſing over the lakes Erie, St. Clair, and Michiligan, to the head of Puan's Bay, we reach Fox River; from hence there is a portage of three miles only to Ouiſconſing River, which empties itſelf into the Miſſiſſippi; and, in the fall of the year, when the waters are high, and the rivers overflow, it is oftentimes poſſible to paſs from Fox River to Ouiſconſing River, without ever getting out of a canoe. Thus, excepting a portage of three miles only at the moſt, it is poſſible to go the whole way by water from Preſque Iſle, on Lake Erie, to New Orleans, at the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, a diſtance of near four thouſand miles.

ERI'E FORT, a ſtrong fortification in Upper Canada, ſituated on the north ſhore of lake Erie, and on the weſt bank of Niagara river, twenty-ſeven miles ſouth by eaſt of Niagara Fort, and eighteen above the carrying place at the Falls of Niagara. Lat. 42. 59. N. lon. 78. 20. 30. W. The fort and ſurrounding houſes built on the rocky ſhore, the veſſels lying at anchor, the verdant meads, the diſtant hills on the oppoſite ſide of the lake, and the vaſt lake itſelf, extending to the fartheſt boundary of the horizon, forms an intereſting, contemplative, and captivating ſcene.

ERIEU'X, a river of France, which runs into the Rhone, at Beauchaſtel.

ERI'GENA (John Scotus), an eminent philoſopher in the ninth century, ſuppoſed to have been a native of Scotland, though ſome writers aſſert that he was a native of Herefordſhire, and others of Ireland. He was poſſeſſed of an ardent thirſt for literature; and, finding few advantages in his native country, is ſaid to have travelled into foreign parts, and to have ſtudied at Athens, and other places, where he acquired a knowledge of the Greek, Chaldaic, and Arabic, languages, and became more intimately converſant in the Grecian philoſophy than any of his contemporaries in that dark age. From the extent of his erudition he obtained the name of Scotus the Wiſe. He was alſo diſtinguiſhed by the livelineſs of his wit, and his pleaſing manners, as well as his extraordinary acquirements. His fame having reached the court of Charles the Bald, king of France, the greateſt patron of literature in that period, he received an invitation from that prince to viſit him; which he accepted, and lived for ſeveral years in habits of the utmoſt intimacy and familiarity with his royal patron, who gave him the direction of the univerſity of Paris. While Erigena reſided at the court of France, he compoſed a variety of works, ſome in refutation of tranſubſtantiation, which procured him a number of admirers, and alſo many enemies. Erigena tranſlated the treatiſes of Dionyſius the Areopagite, "On the celeſtial Monarchy;" "On the Eccleſiaſtical Hierarchy;" "On Divine Names;" and "On Myſtic Theology." This tranſlation was received with great eagerneſs by the weſtern churches; but as it contained many things contrary to the faith of the church of Rome, pope Nicholas I. was highly diſpleaſed, and wrote a threatening letter to the French king, commanding that Erigena ſhould be baniſhed from the univerſity of Paris, and ſent to Rome. Charles, however, had too great a regard for Erigena, and, accordingly adviſed him to withdraw to England. The principal work of Erigena was his treatiſe "On the Diviſion of Nature, or the Natures of Things," which, after long lying in MS. in undiſturbed repoſe, was publiſhed at Oxford, in 1681, by Dr. Thomas Gale, under the title of *Joannis Scoti Erigena de Diviſione Naturæ Libri quinque, diu deſiderati.* This work is an object of literary curioſity, as furniſhing us with an extraordinary example of metaphyſical ſubtlety and acuteneſs, for the age in which the author lived, which he acquired by ſtudying the writings of the Greek philoſophers. By the application of it to theological ſubjects, he became the father of that ſcholaſtic divinity, which made ſo diſtinguiſhed a figure in the middle ages, and ſo long obſtructed the progreſs of genuine ſcience. According to Cave and Tanner, Erigena took refuge in England in the year 877, and was employed by king Alfred in the reſtoration of learning at the univerſity of Oxford. Tanner aſſerts, that he was appointed profeſſor of mathematics and aſtronomy in that univerſity in the year 789. After continuing to teach there for three years, ſome differences took place in the univerſity, which occaſioned him to quit his ſituation, and retire to the abbey of Malmſbury in Wiltſhire, where he opened a ſchool. In this place, according to the accounts of the generality of Engliſh writers, he was murdered by his ſcholars, in the year 883. But Dr. Henry, in the ſecond volume of his Hiſtory of Britain, gives it as the moſt probable opinion that he died in France.

ERI'GERON, *ſ.* [of Pliny, Theophraſtus, and Dioſcorides; from ηρ, ſpring, and γερων, Gr. old man; becauſe it is hoary in the ſpring.] In botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia ſuperflua, natural order of compoſitæ diſcoidæ, (corymbiferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: common, oblong, cylindric, imbricate; ſcales ſubulate, upright, gradually longer, nearly equal. Corolla: compound, rayed; corollets hermaphrodite,

maphrodite, tubular in the disk; females ligulate in the ray; proper of the hermaphrodite funnel-form; border five-cleft; of the female, ligulate, linear, subulate, upright, commonly quite entire. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, very short; antheræ cylindric, tubular. Pistillum: in the hermaphrodites; germ very small, crowned with a down longer than its corollet; style filiform, length of the down; stigmas two, very slender. Perianthium: none; calyx converging. Seeds: in the hermaphrodites oblong, small; down long, hairy; of the females extremely like the hermaphrodites. Receptaculum: naked, flat. Dillenius observes that the inmost or intermediate florets of the disk are commonly males; one species has female naked florets.—*Essential Character.* Receptaculum naked; down hairy; corolla of the ray linear, and very narrow.

Species. 1. Erigeron viscosum, or clammy erigeron: peduncles one-flowered, lateral; leaves lanceolate, toothletted in the middle, reflex at the base; calyxes squarrose, corollas radiate. Stem upright, stiff, striated, hairy, viscid, branched from the very bottom, near three feet high; leaves alternate, four inches long, and two broad in the middle; flowers single, on pretty long foot-stalks, some from the side, others from the end of the stalk; they are yellow, have an agreeable odour, and appear in July. Native of the south of France, Italy, Sicily, Portugal, and Spain, by way-sides, and on the borders of vineyards. Cultivated by Mr. Miller before 1759. It is used to drive away fleas and gnats; the strong scent, as some suppose, being disagreeable to those insects; but it is probable they are caught by the clammy juice of the leaves and stalks. The old name of this is *great sweet fleabane*, or *great fleawort*. Root perennial.

2. Erigeron graveolens, or strong-smelling erigeron: leaves sublinear, quite entire; branches lateral, many-flowered. Root annual; stems eight or ten to eighteen inches in height, striated, branched the whole length. Monf. Villars thinks that this species rather belongs to the genus solidago. The stalks are in gardens stiff, and three feet high. The flowers are produced in close bunches from the side of the stalk towards the top; they appear in July, and in warm seasons the seeds ripen in England. Native of the south of France, and Italy; very frequent near Madrid; called formerly *small true fleabane*.

3. Erigeron glutinosum, or glutinous erigeron: leaves lanceolate-linear, hairy-viscid; peduncles one-flowered. Root perennial; stems a long span in height. Native of the south of France and Spain, on mountains near the coast; flowering in August.

4. Erigeron ficulum, or red-stalked erigeron: lower calycine scales loose, longer than the flower; peduncles leafy. Annual; stems red. It greatly resembles the second species, except that it has no ray whatever; and it is allied to inula pulicaria. Found in Sicily, and about Montpelier, in marshes; flowers in August and September.

5. Erigeron Carolinianum, or Carolina erigeron: stem panicled; flowers subsolitary, terminating; leaves linear, quite entire. Stems three feet high and more, straight, round, streaked, the thickness of the little finger at bottom, where they are red, growing gradually more slender upwards; the leaves from top to bottom are frequent, very narrow, and somewhat hairy. Towards the top the stem puts forth branches, forming in the whole a sort of pyramid; these are covered with leaves like those of the stem, only shorter and narrower; each of these bears one small flower, sometimes more. The root-leaves are like those on the stem, only shorter and blunter. It flowered in the green-house of the Eltham garden, in November 1727; but being a native of North America, it is hardy enough to flower in the open ground in July and August. It is perennial. In the text of Hortus Elthamensis this is marked fig. 393. but on the plate fig. 394.

6. Erigeron Canadense, or Canadian erigeron: flowers in panicles, hairy, rough; leaves lanceolate, ciliate. Root annual; stem firm, hairy, sometimes three or four feet high, frequently crooked, much branched towards the top, and even from the middle, the branches gradually shorter, and forming a long cone; lower leaves oval, tapering to a foot-stalk, with large blunt distant teeth; higher up lanceolate, distantly serrate, (or entire,) slightly hairy on the upper, but more so on the lower surface, those on the branches and at their base linear-lanceolate, entirely sessile; flowering heads numerous, on simple or branched slender peduncles. This came originally from North America; but now has the appearance of being indigenous in many parts of Europe: with us, it is not uncommon about London, on cultivated grounds, and on rubbish. It flowers in August. Petiver calls it *white golden rod*. Being a naturalized plant, it would be curious to ascertain when it first appeared among us in a wild state. In Ray's Synopsis it is said to have been observed by Dr. Tancred Robinson. Merret (in 1667) says it is plentiful at Heddington-hill, by Oxford, and in Yorkshire. Petiver mentions its growing about London.

7. Erigeron bonariense, or buck's-horn erigeron: leaves rolled back at the base. Native of Buenos Aires, in South America; cultivated in the Eltham garden in 1732; flowers in July and August.

8. Erigeron Jamaicense, or Jamaica erigeron: stem few-flowered, subvillose; leaves wedge-form-lanceolate, with two serratures on each side. Sloane observes that the roots are smooth, white, no bigger than threads, and an inch and an half long; stem round, hoary, five or six inches high, having few leaves, placed without order, sessile, with a narrow beginning, augmenting to a round end, about an inch long, rough, hoary, of a whitish green colour, very often having two or three notches; flowers on the top of the stem, and from the axils, resembling those of groundsel, composed of many small yellow florets close set together, encircled by many whitish, long, narrow, semiflorets. Native of Jamaica.

9. Erigeron Philadelphicum, or spreading erigeron: stem many-flowered; leaves lanceolate, subserrate, those on the stem half-stem-clasping; floscules of the ray capillaceous, the length of the disk. Native of North America; observed in Canada by Kalm. Perennial; it flowers from June to August. Loureiro thus describes a Cochinchinese plant under this name: Stem herbaceous, three feet high, erect, branched; leaves sinuate; flowers yellow, panicled, terminating, oblong, many; female florets in the ray very slender, erect; receptacle naked; down hairy. It agrees in the specific character with this species, but it is doubtful whether they are the same species. The description in Linnæus's species belongs to E. Ægyptiacum.

10. Erigeron purpureum, or purple erigeron: stem many-flowered, hairy; leaves oblong, somewhat toothed, stem-clasping; corollas of the ray capillaceous, longer than the disk. Root perennial; stem herbaceous, branched, a foot or more in height. Native of Hudson's Bay; flowering in July and August.

11. Erigeron Ægyptiacum, or Egyptian erigeron: leaves half-stem-clasping, spatulate, toothed; flowers globular. Root annual; stem simple, upright, a foot and an half high, somewhat streaked, ash-coloured, pubescent, and somewhat viscid. Native of Sicily and Egypt.

12. Erigeron Gouani, or cluster-flowered erigeron: flowers heaped; calyxes scarious; leaves lanceolate, somewhat toothed, scabrous about the edge. Root annual, bitter; stem upright, round, a foot high, simple, with a few upright hairs. It approaches very near to E. Ægygtiacum. According to Gouan, the stem is smooth, very slightly streaked, rough at the top, with whitish hairs pressed close; the root-leaves and lower stem-leaves are petioled, ovate, ciliate, an inch wide, near two inches in length, or as long as the petiole, very smooth, quite entire at the base, toothed from the middle to the tip; teeth large, equal, distant: middle stem-leaves sessile or rather stem-clasping, lanceolate; upper stem leaves, and those on the branches, narrower, hirsute, quite entire;

flowers

flowers the size of thoſe on E. tuberoſum, and globular; calyx having the colour and appearance of conyza chinenſis, but with the ſcales not at all ſquarroſe, fleſhy, green, membranaceous at the edge, and very ſmooth; corollas whitiſh, with white down. Native of the Canary iſlands; flowers in July and Auguſt.

13. Erigeron acre, or blue erigeron: peduncles alternate, one-flowered; ſtems ſix to eighteen inches high, upright, ſomewhat angular, hairy, often purple; in ſome ſcarcely branched at all, in other plants very much ſo. Inhabits dry lofty paſtures frequent, eſpecially ſandy and calcareous ſoils; alſo often found on walls; near London it is not a common plant; but it occurs frequently near Charlton-wood. Johnſon, in Gerarde, ſays, that he firſt obſerved it in company of Mr. George Bowles, Mr. John Bugs, and others, by Farmingham, in Kent; and the laſt year, (1635,) Mr. William Broad found it growing at the blockhouſe at Graveſend. It flowers from July to September. The Germans take a decoction of it to attenuate viſcid phlegm. Cows and goats refuſe it. Our Engliſh botaniſts name it blue-flowered or purple fleabane. Several ſpecies of this genus have this name of fleabane in Engliſh; which tends (as Mr. Curtis very well obſerves) to confound this with the genus conyza. Gærtner remarks, that it has ſome affinity with chryſocoma, and that erigeron is a chryſocoma with a difform ray.

14. Erigeron alpinum, or alpine erigeron: ſtem with one or two flowers; calyx ſubhirſute; leaves obtuſe; villoſe underneath. This is like the foregoing, inſomuch that Haller doubts whether it be a diſtinct ſpecies, or only a variety. It has frequently a higher ſtem, but the height varies much in both; commonly one-flowered, ſeldom two-flowered. The flowers are larger; the ſemi-florets more numerous; the leaves longer; the feather denſe and whitiſh: it varies with one, two, and three, flowers on a ſtalk, and ſometimes they are panicled; it varies alſo with a villoſe and ſmooth calyx. The flowers in this come out from the middle and even the lower part of the ſtem; whereas in moſt of the ſpecies they branch out only from the upper part. Native of Alpine paſtures. Found on Ben Lawers, in Scotland, by Mr. Dickſon, in 1789. Perennial; flowers in July and Auguſt.

15. Erigeron uniflorum, or dwarf erigeron: ſtem one-flowered; calyx hairy; root perennial; ſtems a finger's length; ſcarcely three inches high according to Haller; from a finger's length to a ſpan and more, as others ſay; very ſimple, ſtreaked, with wandering hairs ſcattered over them. The flower is as large as in the foregoing ſpecies, thick, the ſcales covered with a white nap, lanceolate, broader; all the ſemiflorets ligulate, with no imperfect ones; ſometimes purple, according to Pontedera and Scheuchzer. All the varieties with one and many flowers, with a ſmooth and hairy calyx, with blue and white flowers, make but one ſpecies, in the opinion of Allioni. Hence Scopoli has named this E. polymorphum. Monſ. Villars on the contrary, thinks that this bears little affinity to E. alpinum, or any other; from which it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the open ſcales of the calyx, loaded with long and wider hairs, be the plants ever ſo ſmall. He refers Oeder's figure to this ſpecies; but obſerves that he has never ſeen any ſpecimen ſo large as that repreſents. Native of the European mountains from Lapland to Italy: flowers in Auguſt and September.

16. Erigeron gramineum, or graſs-leaved erigeron: ſtem one-flowered; leaves linear; ciliate; ſcabrous. A very ſmall perennial plant, guarded with fading dry leaves. Native of Siberia.

17. Erigeron camphoratum, or Virginian erigeron: leaves lanceolate-ovate, villoſe; ſerratures cartilaginous at the tip; annual. Native of Virginia.

18. Erigeron Japonicum, or Japan erigeron: leaves ſeſſile, obovate, ſerrate, villoſe, flowers panicled; annual; ſtem ſimple, filiform, hairy, upright, a foot high. Native of Japan; flowers in June.

19. Erigeron ſcandens, or climbing erigeron: leaves ovate, ſerrate, villoſe; flowers axillary; ſtem climbing. Having ſeen only a ſingle flower, and that not open, Thunberg ſays he is not very certain about the genus.

20. Erigeron tuberoſum, or tuberous-rooted erigeron: leaves linear; branches one-flowered; ſtem ſuffruticoſe. It is the link between this genus and after. Native of the ſouth of France and Syria.

21. Erigeron fœtidum, or ſtinking erigeron: leaves lanceolate-linear, retuſe, flowers corymbed; root perennial, thick, fibrous, from which ariſe ſeveral upright hairy ſtalks, near four feet high, putting out ſeveral ſide branches; leaves ſeſſile, hairy, a quarter of an inch broad towards the end, where they are broadeſt, and diminiſhing gradually to their baſe; of a deep green on their upper ſide, and pale on their under, continuing all the year: they come out from the ſide of the ſtalk, and branches in cluſters from the ſame point, and without order, on every ſide. The ſtem is terminated by ſeveral large corymbs of golden-coloured flowers: theſe appear late in the autumn, continuing in beauty great part of the winter, fading in the ſpring, and are ſometimes ſucceeded by oval ſeeds, which ripen in England. The ſtems generally decay the ſecond year, and are then ſupplied by new ones from the ſame root; the old ones remaining with their green hairy leaves in vigour, until the young ones are grown to a conſiderable height. Native of the Cape of Good Hope; and has been long cultivated in the curious European gardens. It has a great reſemblance to inula fœtida, but the flowers are floſculous. Cultivated in 1722, in the botanic garden at Chelſea.

22. Erigeron obliquum, or oblique-leaved erigeron: very much branched; leaves ovate; oblique; annual; ſtem herbaceous, a hand high, round, erect, hairy, branching very much. Native of the Eaſt Indies.

23. Erigeron tricuneatum, or wedge-leaved erigeron: ſomewhat ſhrubby; leaves wedged, three-lobed. A ſmall ſhrub, very much branched or panicled, leafy. Native of Mexico; obſerved there by Mutis.

24. Erigeron pinnatum, or pinnatifid leaved erigeron: leaves pinnatifid, toothed; ſtem herbaceous, upright, a foot high. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

25. Erigeron Sumatrenſe, or Sumatra erigeron: tomentoſe; flowers raceme-panicled; leaves lanceolate, ſubſerrate; ſtem three feet high and more, round, ſtreaked, tomentoſe, red. Native of Sumatra.

26. Erigeron ſericeum, or ſilky-leaved erigeron: flowers panicled; leaves ovate-lanceolate, tomentoſe-ſilky, entire and ſerrate, appendicled at the baſe. Native of Java. The two laſt were brought to Europe by Wennerberg.

27. Erigeron hirſutum, or hirſute erigeron: ſtem hiſpid; leaves linear-lanceolate, ſubſerrate, very hairy on both ſides; ſtem herbaceous, two feet high, erect, round. Native of China, near Canton.

28. Erigeron rivulare, or rivulated erigeron: leaves wedge-ſhaped, acute, rough with hairs, toothed on both ſides at the tip, ciliate on the edge, thoſe on the ſtem ſeſſile; ſtem almoſt ſimple, erect, few-flowered. This is an annual plant, native of Jamaica and Hiſpaniola.

29. Erigeron decurrens, or retiring erigeron: leaves decurrent, linear, tomentoſe; flowers panicled. Native of Arabia.

30. Erigeron incanum, or hoary erigeron: leaves linear, tomentoſe, toothed a little; flowers corymbed; ſtem ſhrubby. Native of Arabia and Felix.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt ſpecies is propagated by ſeeds, which, if ſown in autumn, will more certainly ſucceed than thoſe which are ſown in the ſpring. When the plants come up, they ſhould be thinned if they are too cloſe, and kept clean from weeds till autumn, when they ſhould be tranſplanted where they are to remain. They delight in a dry ſoil, and a ſunny expoſure. The ſecond year the plants will flower and perfect their ſeeds, but the roots will continue ſeveral years, and annually produce their flowers and ſeeds.

6, 7, 13, 14. Are preſerved in botanic gardens, for the

ſake of variety, but are ſeldom admitted into gardens for pleaſure. The fourteenth ſort is a perennial plant, which grows naturally on the Alps, and may be propagated by ſeeds in the ſame manner as the firſt ſort, but ſhould have a ſhady ſituation, and a moiſt ſoil. The others are annual plants, which, if once admitted into a garden, and ſuffered to ſcatter their ſeeds, will become very troubleſome weeds there. They will help very well to cover rubbiſh or rock-work. No. 21 is too tender to thrive in the open air in this country, ſo the plants ſhould be kept in pots; and if in the winter they are placed in a common frame, where they may have a large ſhare of free air in mild weather, and ſcreened from hard froſts, they will thrive better than with tender treatment. It is eaſily propagated by cuttings, which, if planted in May, will readily put out roots, and the young plants will flower the autumn following. See CONYZA, CREPIS, INULA.

ERI'GERUM, *ſ.* in botany. See SENECIO.

ERI'GONE, a daughter of Icarius, who hung herſelf when ſhe heard that her father had been killed by ſome ſhepherds whom he had intoxicated. She was made a conſtellation, now known under the name of *Virgo*. Bacchus deceived her by changing himſelf into a beautiful grape. *Ovid.*—A daughter of Ægiſthus and Clytemneſtra, who had by her brother Oreſtes, Penthilus, who ſhared the regal power with Timaſenus, the legitimate ſon of Oreſtes and Hermione. *Pauſanias.*

ERINA'CEA, *ſ.* in botany. See ANTHYLLIS.

ERINA'CEUS, the HEDGEHOG, in zoology; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of feræ, the characters of which are, two upper fore-teeth diſtant; and two lower, approximate: upper tuſks five on each ſide; lower, three: grinders four on each ſide, in each jaw: back and ſides covered with ſpines. This animal has a very uncommon method of defending himſelf: being poſſeſſed of little ſtrength or agility, he does not attempt to fly from or aſſail his enemies; but erects his briſtles, and rolls himſelf up like a ball, expoſing no part of his body that is not furniſhed with ſharp weapons of defence; he will not unfold himſelf unleſs thrown into water: the more he is frightened or haraſſed, the cloſer he ſhuts himſelf up; and frequently diſcharges his urine, which has a very fetid ſmell. The females come in ſeaſon in the ſpring, and bring forth their young in the beginning of ſummer. They bring forth from three to five at a time. The young are of a whitiſh colour, and only the points of the briſtles appear above the ſkin. According to Gmelin, the Kalmucs tame them, and employ them as cats. They feed upon mice, fallen fruits, roots, and inſects: they are very fond of fleſh-meat, whether raw or roaſted. They frequent woods, and live under the trunks of old trees. They ſeldom come out of their holes in the day, but go about in queſt of food during the night. They eat but little, and can live very long without taking any nouriſhment. They do not lay up any ſtore of proviſions in harveſt; ſuch an inſtinct would be uſeleſs, as they are torpid in the winter. They lie under the undeſerved reproach of ſucking cattle and hurting their udders; but the ſmallneſs of their mouth renders that impoſſible. There are ſix ſpecies, as follow:

1. Erinaceus Europæus, the European or common hedge-hog; this is diſtinguiſhed by a long noſe, noſtrils bordered on each ſide with a looſe flap; ears ſhort, rounded, broad, and naked; eyes ſmall; legs ſhort, naked, and duſky; claws weak; the upper part of the face, ſides, and rump, are covered with a ſtrong coarſe hair, of a yelloviſh aſh-colour; the back with ſtrong ſharp cinerous ſpines, having a bar of black through their middle. This European ſpecies inhabits Madagaſcar, and moſt parts of Ruſſia, but is ſcarcely ever found in Siberia. He hunts during the night, but keeps retired during the day; feeds on roots, fruits, and inſects; reſides in ſmall thickets and hedges; neſtles in moſs, graſs, or leaves; and, during winter, he rolls himſelf up and ſleeps away that dreary ſeaſon.

2. Erinaceus auritus, the Siberian hedge-hog. This ſpecies, which inhabits the lower parts of the Volga and Ural, and as far Lake Baikal, are inferior in ſize to the preceding. They grow very fat, ſleep all the winter, live on inſects, even the moſt cauſtic, and will eat above a hundred cantharides without any injury: they roll themſelves up, and have all the manners of the common ſpecies. Their ears are large, open and oval, with ſoft whitiſh hairs within; tail ſhort; ſpines ſlender and brown, but white at their roots and points; the limbs and belly covered with a moſt elegant ſoft white fur. They bring their young, from four to ſeven, twice a-year.

3. Erinaceus inauris, the Guiana hedge-hog, native of South America. It is about eight inches long, deſtitute of ears, head thick, ſhort; ſpines cinereous tinged with yellow; hair ſoft, whitiſh-cheſnut over the eyes; tail ſhort; claws long and crooked.

4. Erinaceus Malaccenſis, the Malacca hedge-hog with pendulous ears. Inhabits Aſia; from it is procured the precious ſtone called *piedra del porco*.

5. Erinaceus ſetoſus, the Aſiatic hedge-hog: ears ſhort, with ſpines on the head, neck, tail, and withers only. Inhabits India and Madagaſcar; hardly ſix inches long; wallows in the mire, grunts like a hog, burrows; lies torpid ſix months, during which the hair falls off. Snout and whiſkers long; feet ſhort; ſpines whitiſh, pale cheſnut in the middle; hair white.

6. Erinaceus ecaudata, the tailleſs hedge-hog: ſnout very long, acute. Inhabits India and Madagaſcar; eight inches long; in its habit exactly reſembles the Aſiatic ſpecies. Mouth and eyes ſmall: ears rounded, longer than the laſt; ſpines black in the middle, covering the whole back and ſides; hair yelloviſh; feet tawney.

ERINA'CEUS, *ſ.* in botany. See HYDNUM.

ERIN'GO, *ſ.* in botany. See ERYNGIUM.

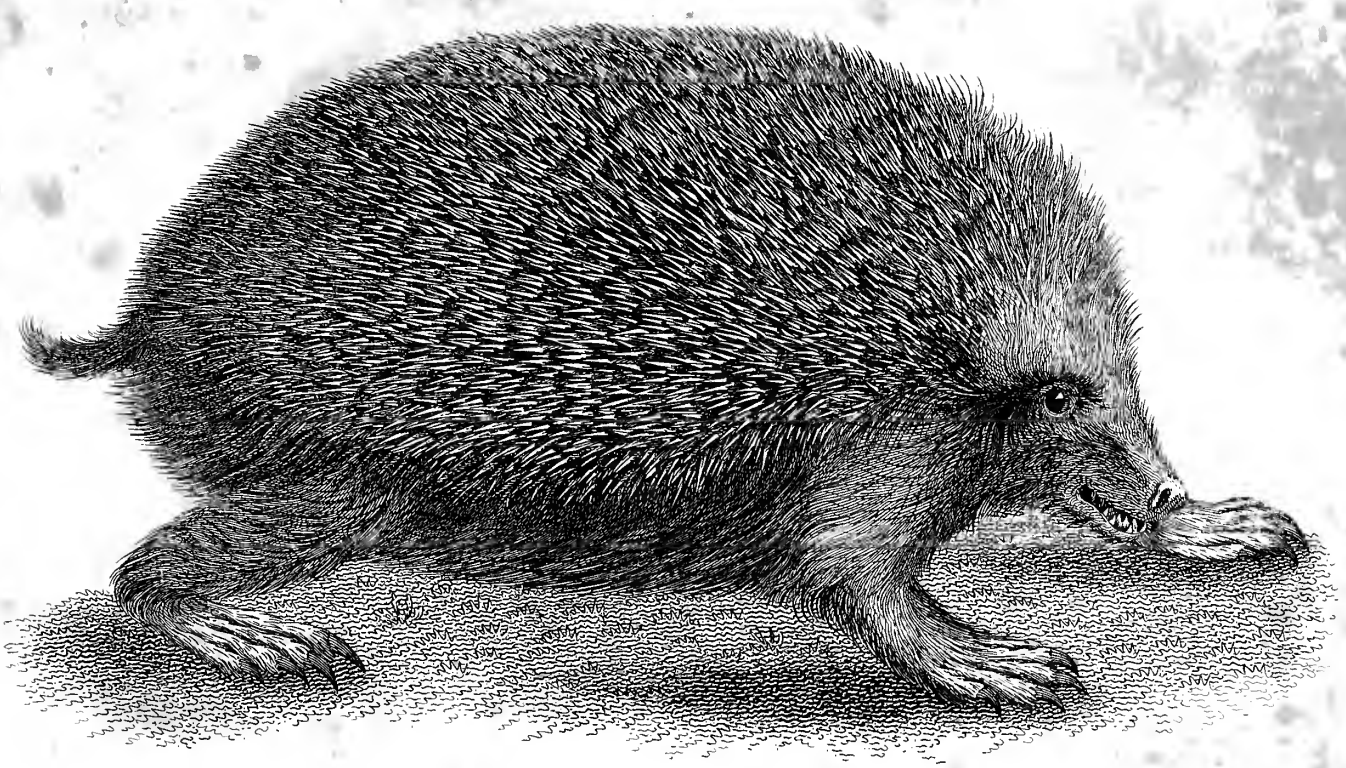
ERIN'NA, a Greek poeteſs, mentioned by different writers as a native of Leſbos, of Teios, of Rhodes, and of Tenos in Laconia. She is ſuppoſed to have been contemporary with Sappho, about the year before Chriſt 600; but the Chronicle of Euſebius places her two hundred and fifty years later. She was celebrated in ancient Greece, and ſeveral epigrams were written upon her, one of which ſpeaks of her as inferior to Sappho in lyrics, and ſuperior in hexameters. Some fragments are extant in her name, which are inſerted in the *Carmina Novem Poetarum Fœminarum*; Antwerp, 1568.

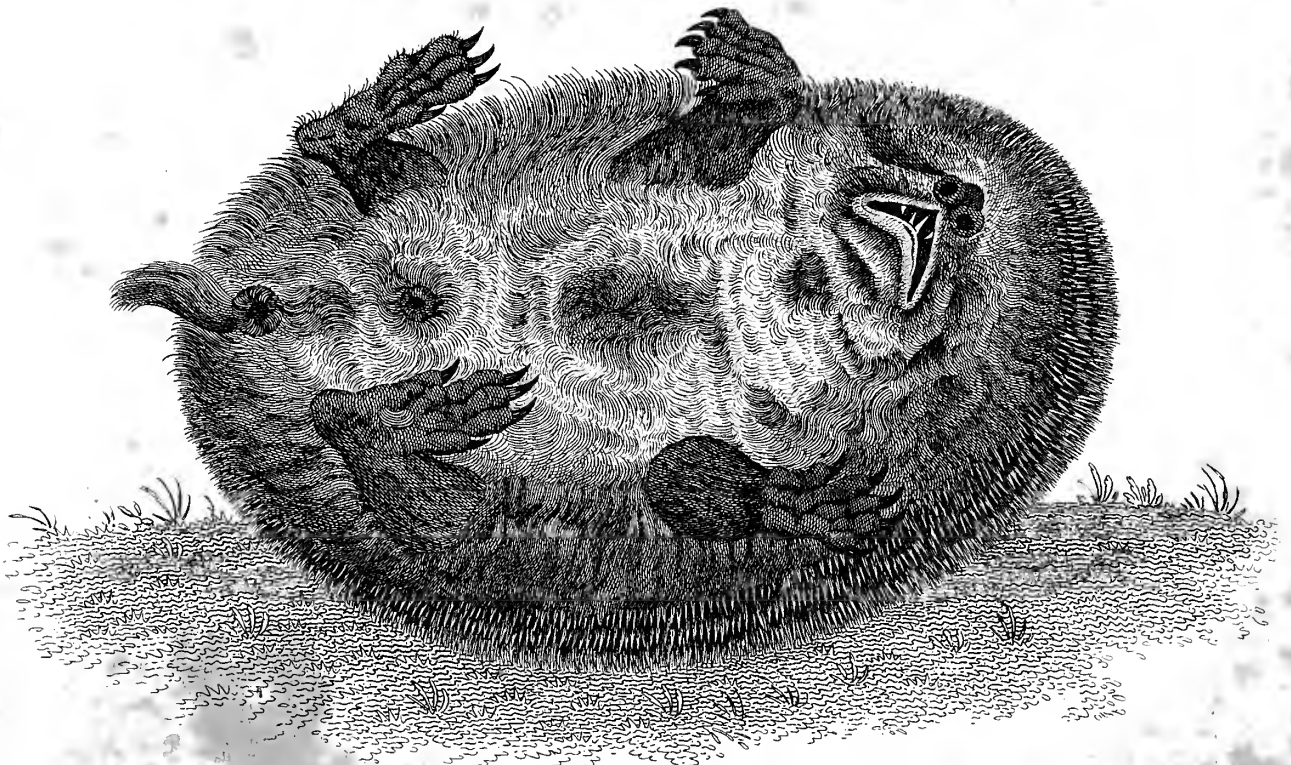
ERIN'NYS, one of the Eumenides. The word ſignifies the fury of the mind, ἐρις νου. *Virgil.*—A ſurname of Ceres, on account of her amour with Neptune under the form of a horſe. *Pauſanias.*

ERI'NUS, *ſ.* in botany, a genus of the claſs didynamia, order angioſpermia, natural order of perſonatæ, (pediculares, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, upright, nearly equal, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, unequal; tube ovate-cylindric, length of the calyx, bent back; border flat, five-parted; diviſions equal, obcordate. Stamina: filaments four, very ſhort, within the tube of the corolla, of which the two oppoſite ones are a little longer; antheræ ſmall. Piſtillum: germ ſomewhat ovate; ſtyle very ſhort; ſtigma headed. Pericarpium: capſule ovate, rolled up in the calyx, two-celled, gaping two ways. Seeds: numerous, ſmall.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five-leaved; corolla, border five-cleft, equal, with the lobes emarginate; upper lip very ſhort, reflex; capſule two-celled.

Species. 1. Erinus alpinus, or alpine erinus: flowers racemed, leaves ſpatulate. Root perennial. The root-leaves form a thick tuft cloſe to the ground; they are all linear-ſpatulate, pubeſcent, with a few ſerratures at the end on both ſides. Leaves on the ſtem alternate. Stems many, very ſimple, a hand high, round, pubeſcent, upright; the ſide ones barren and decumbent. Flowers alternate, ſeparated by leaves like thoſe on the ſtem, but ſmaller, and forming an upright ſimple raceme; calyx bell-ſhaped, five-parted, permanent; corolla funnel-ſhaped;

ſtigma





Meyer del.t

J.Pass sculp.t

The Common Hedgehog.

London Published as the Act directs Oct.r 27 1802 by J.Wilkes.

ſtigma with two ſmall roundiſh oppoſite ears; capſule ſmall, grooved on each ſide, the valves when ripe bifid to the middle. Partition doubled, formed by the edges of the valves bent in. Receptacle oblong, compreſſed a little, not faſtened to the partition. Seeds ovate, ferruginous, rugged with obſcure crowded tubercles. The leaves are about half an inch long, and one-eighth of an inch broad, of a dark green. The flower-ſtalk is ſcarcely two inches high; the flowers are in a looſe raceme, and purple. They appear in May, or earlier, and ſometimes are ſuecceded by ripe ſeeds in July. It is a deſirable little plant for the decoration of rock-work, growing in cloſe tufts, and producing its numerous lively purple flowers during moſt of the ſummer months. Native of Germany, of the Swiſs Alps, of the Pyrenees, and the ſouth of France.

2. Erinus Africanus, or African erinus: flowers lateral, ſeſſile; leaves lanceolate, ſomewhat toothed. Native of Africa.

3. Erinus Capenſis, or Cape erinus: flowers ſpiked, leaves linear, toothed. Perennial. Stem erect, round, pubeſcent, two feet high. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. Erinus fragrans, or ſweet-ſcented erinus: leaves lanceolate-oblong, toothed; diviſions of the border entire. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. Erinus Peruvianus, or Peruvian erinus: leaves lanceolate-ovate, ſerrate. Native of Peru; ſaid alſo to be found at the Cape.

6. Erinus maritimus, or ſea-ſide erinus: leaves lanceolate, quite entire, ſmooth; diviſions of the border cloven half way. 7. Erinus triſtris, or dull erinus: leaves oblong, gaſhed, toothed; diviſions of the border emarginate. Theſe flowers are of a dull colour, but ſweet. Both theſe are natives of the Cape.

8. Erinus laciniatus, or laciniate erinus: leaves laciniate. See BUCHNERA *Canadenſis*, and VERBENA *Aubletia*.

9. Erinus tomentoſus, or rough erinus: tomentoſe, ſtems procumbent, flowers ſeſſile, axillary. Stems trailing, about ſix inches long. Leaves ſmall, oval, placed on every ſide, very white, and woolly. At the joints juſt above the leaves come out the flowers, ſitting very cloſe to the ſtems; they are white, and are ſucceeded by round capſules. This plant has great reſemblance at a diſtance to ſea cudweed. It was ſent to Mr. Miller by Dr. Houſtoun from Vera Cruz.

10. Erinus Americanus, or American erinus: ſtem erect, leaves lanceolate, oppoſite, flowers looſely ſpiked, terminating. Stem upright, two feet high; towards the top two ſmaller branches, oppoſite, and erect; theſe and the middle ſtalk are terminated by looſe ſpikes of purple flowers, ſucceeded by oval capſules. Diſcovered by Dr. Houſtoun, at the ſame place.

11. Erinus fruteſcens, or ſhrubby erinus: ſtem upright, ſhrubby; leaves ovate-lanceolate, ſerrate, alternate; flowers axillary. Stem about four feet high, dividing into ſeveral ſmall hairy branches. Flowers ſingle, or two and three at a joint, ſeſſile, white, ſucceeded by round capſules.

12. Erinus verticillatus, or whorled erinus: ſtem branching, trailing; leaves ovate, ſerrate, ſmooth, oppoſite; flowers in whorls. Stems many, ſmooth, branching out very much on every ſide, about ſeven or eight inches long, and garniſhed with ſmall leaves. Flowers ſeſſile, white, making but little appearance, and ſucceeded by round capſules.

13. Erinus procumbens, or procumbent erinus: ſtems procumbent; leaves ovate, ſmooth; flowers ſolitary, axillary; peduncles longer. Stems ſeveral, trailing, ſix inches long, dividing into many ſmaller branches. Flowers bright yellow, on long ſlender peduncles, ſucceeded by oval capſules. This is a ſpecies of lindernia, according to Swartz, and a native of Hiſpaniola. See LINDERNIA.

Propagation and Culture. The firſt is propagated by parting the roots in autumn; they muſt have a ſhady ſituation and a loamy ſoil without dung, for in rich earth they are ſubject to rot. The Cape ſorts muſt be kept in the greenhouſe, dry ſtove, or glaſs caſe, and may be increaſed by cuttings. Thoſe from South Ameriea muſt be placed in the bark-ſtove. The eleventh being a ſhrubby plant, will continue ſeveral years, but the others are annual. They are propagated by ſeeds, ſown in pots filled with light earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed, where ſometimes they will come up in five or ſix weeks; but they frequently do not vegetate till the following ſpring, eſpecially when the ſeeds have been kept long. When the plants are fit to remove, they ſhould be each planted in a ſeparate ſmall pot filled with light earth, not too rich with dung, and then plunged into the bark-pit. When they have taken new root, treat them as other plants from the ſame countries, by admitting proper air when the weather is warm, and frequently refreſhing them with water; with this management the annual ſorts will flower in July and Auguſt, and often ripen their ſeeds in autumn, if they be brought forward early in the ſpring. The ſhrubby ſort muſt alſo frequently be refreſhed with water in winter, but not in large quantities, nor in very cold weather: the plants will flower and perfect their ſeeds the ſecond year. See CAMPANULA and LOBELIA.

ERIOCAU'LON, *ſ.* [from ἔριον, wool, and καυλος, Gr. a ſtalk.] In botany, a genus of the claſs triandria, order trigynia, natural order of enſatæ, (junci, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium common, globoſe-depreſſed, imbricate; ſcales lanceolate, equal, permanent. Corolla: univerſal uniform, convex; proper three-petalled; petals equal, lanceolate, obtuſe, villoſe at the tip, attenuated at the baſe, and connected into a ſtyle-ſhaped pedicel which is hairy. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, ſitting on the germ; antheræ oblong, verſatile. Piſtillum: germ ſlender, ſuperior, under the ſtamens; ſtyles three, capillary, ſhort; ſtigmas ſimple. Pericarpium: none; calyx unehanged. Seeds: ſolitary, crowned with the corolla. Receptaculum: ehaffs of the ſize and figure of the calycine ſcales, one-flowered, very many. Other ſpecies muſt be ſurveyed before the character can be completed.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx common, an imbricate head; petals three, equal; ſtamina upon the germ.

Species. 1. Eriocaulon triangulare, or triangular eriocaulon: culm triangular, leaves enſiform, head ovate. Linnæus ſays he could not diſcern the floſeules in Piſo's Herbarium, which is in the poſſeſſion of Burmann. Native of Braſil.

2. Eriocaulon quinquangulare, or quinquangular eriocaulon: culm quinquangular, leaves enſiform. 3. Eriocaulon ſexangulare, or ſexangular erioeaulon: culm hexangular, leaves enſiform. 4. Eriocaulon ſetaceum, or briſtly eriocaulon: culm hexangular, leaves ſetaeeous. Theſe are natives of the Eaſt Indies, and this of Cochinchina.

5. Eriocaulon decangulare, or ten-ſided eriocaulon: culm decangular, leaves enſiform. Leaves two, ſubulate, flat, channelled, jointed. Flowers in a head, with male flowers in the diſk, and female in the eireumference. The character of the genus remains to be examined in the other ſpecies. Hope has very well deſcribed this. The remaining ſpecies muſt be ſeen, before the character ean be corrected. Native of North America, in the ſwamps.

6. Eriocaulon quadrangulare, or quadrangular eriocaulon: culm quadrangular, leaves enſiform, head of flowers globular, truncate at the baſe. This is an annual herb, with an upright naked four-cornered culm, eight inches high. Leaves ſhort, ſmooth, few. Heads of flowers whitiſh, flattiſh at the baſe, with roundiſh ſcales, attenuated at the bottom, one-flowered, cloſed. Petals two, ſubconcave, blunt at the tip, toothed. Seeds three, ovate. Common every where in Coehin-china.

7. Eriocaulon ſeptangulare, or ſeven-angled eriocaulon: found in Ireland, by Dr. Walter Wade of Dublin, and communicated to the Linnæan Society in 1802. It had never

never before been ſeen but in the Iſle of Skye. Dr. Wade obſerved it in September 1801, decorating the edges of all the lakes in the romantic diſtrict of Cunnamara. He remarked the number of angles in the ſtem to vary from ſix to ten; but in general they were limited to ſeven.

ERIOCE'PHALUS, *ſ.* [from εριον, wool, and κεφαλη, Gr. a head.] In botany, a genus of the claſs ſyngeneſia, order polygamia neceſſaria, natural order of compoſitæ nucamentaceæ, (corymbiferæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: common upright; ſcales ten, ovate, equal, converging, of which the five exterior are keeled, the interior flat. Corolla: compound rayed; corollules hermaphrodite, twice as many in the diſk; females five in the ray; proper of the hermaphrodite funnel-form; border five-cleft, patulous; of the ray ligulate, obcordate, with three-lobed, equal, tips. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, very ſhort; antheræ cylindric, tubular. Piſtillum: in the hermaphrodites, germ very ſmall, naked; ſtyle ſimple; ſtigma two-cleft, ſharp; in the females, germ ovate, naked; ſtyle ſimple; ſtigma acuminate, inflex. Pericarpium: none; calyx ſcarce changed. Seed: to the hermaphrodites, none; females ſolitary, obovate, naked. Receptaculum: naked, flat; or elſe a down of the calyx in a double row is interſperſed both between the hermaphrodite and female floſcules.—*Eſſential Character.* Receptaculum ſubvilloſe; down none; calyx ten-leaved, equal; in the ray five floſcules.

Species. 1. Eriocephalus Africanus, or cluſter-leaved eriocephalus: leaves entire and divided, flowers corymbed. This plant has a ſhrubby ſtalk from four to ſix feet high, putting out many ſide branches the whole length; leaves woolly, coming out in cluſters, ſome taper and entire, others divided into three or five parts, which ſpread open like a hand: they have a ſtrong ſmell when bruiſed approaching to that of lavender cotton, but not quite ſo rank. The flowers are produced in ſmall cluſters at the ends of the branches, and ſtand erect. The female florets which compoſe the ray form a hollow, in the middle of which the hermaphrodite florets forming the diſk are ſituated; the border is white, with a little reddiſh caſt on the inſide, and the diſk is of a purpliſh colour. The flowers appear in autumn, but do not produce ſeeds in this country. Cultivated in 1732, by James Sherard, M. D. at Eltham. It flowers from January to March.

2. Eriocephalus racemoſus, or ſilvery-leaved eriocephalus: leaves linear, undivided; flowers racemed. This has the ſtature and appearance of E. Africanus, but all the leaves are undivided. Gærtner affirms, that there is no veſtige whatever of the outer calyx in this ſpecies. The receptacle is flat, and has a copious ſilky down on it, of a whitiſh ſtraw-colour, and longer than the florets. Seeds of the females oblong, narrowed downwards, compreſſed, three-ſided, hairy or ſparingly woolly, but otherwiſe deſtitute of all down. This was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1758. It flowers in March and April. Both are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture. This plant is propagated by cuttings, which may be planted any time from May to the middle of Auguſt; for, if they are planted later in the ſeaſon, there will not be time for them to get good root before the winter. Theſe cuttings ſhould be planted in ſmall pots filled with light earth, and plunged into a very moderate hot-bed, where they ſhould be ſhaded from the ſun till they have taken root; they muſt be refreſhed with water two or three times a-week, but they ſhould not have too much at each time, for much moiſture is very hurtful to theſe plants. When the cuttings have taken root, they ſhould be gradually inured to the open air, to prevent their ſhoots from being drawn up weak; afterwards they ſhould be removed into the open air, and placed in a ſheltered ſituation, where they may remain till October, when they muſt be removed into an airy glaſs-caſe, that they may have as much ſun as poſſible, and enjoy the free air in mild weather, but ſecured from froſt and damp air, either of which will ſoon deſtroy them. During the winter they muſt be ſparingly watered, for the reaſon before given; but, in the ſummer, when the plants are placed in the open air, they will require to be frequently refreſhed with water in hot weather. Theſe plants, retaining their leaves all the year, add to the variety of exotics in the winter ſeaſon. See ERICA BRUNIADES, CENTAUREA, and HIPPIA.

ERIOPH'OROS, *ſ.* in botany. See BOMBAX.

ERIOPH'ORUM, *ſ.* [from εριον, wool, and φερω, Gr. to bear; wool or cotton-bearing; the ſeeds having a long, white, downy, ſubſtance affixed to them.] In botany, a genus of the claſs triandria, order monogynia, natural order of calamariæ, (cyperoideæ, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: ſpike on all ſides imbricate; ſcales ovate-oblong, flat-inflected, membranaceous, looſe, ſharp-pointed, ſeparating the flowers. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments three, capillary; antheræ upright, oblong. Piſtillum: germ very ſmall; ſtyle filiform, length of the calycine ſcales; ſtigmas three, longer than the ſtyle, bent backwards. Pericarpium: none. Seed: three-ſided, acuminate, furniſhed with villoſe hairs longer than the ſpike. —*Eſſential Character.* Glumes chaffy, imbricate every way; corolla none; ſeed one, ſurrounded with a very long wool.

Species. 1. Eriophorum vaginatum, mountain or ſingle-ſpiked cotton-graſs: culms ſheathed round, ſpike ſcarioſe. Root-leaves obſcurely three-cornered, ſharp, ſtreaked on two ſides; convex on one ſide, flat on two ſides. It differs very obviouſly from the third ſpecies; the root being not creeping, but more matted; the leaves much finer, and conſequently more apt to grow in tufts; the ſheath of the upper ſtem-leaf in particular is remarkably inflated, and it never produces more than one ſpike, which is upright. Native of bogs in cold barren ſituations, in many parts of Europe. Not ſo general with us, but in ſome places equally common. Near London, on Shirley-common, by Croydon; near Lynn; Birmingham-heath; frequent in all the northern counties; Elſemere-meers in Shropſhire; Pillinmoſs in Lancaſhire. It flowers ſomewhat earlier than the *anguſtifolium*, No. 3. but produces its down about the ſame time. Sheep are very fond of it, whence in Weſtmoreland they call it *moſs-crops*. As they do alſo the third ſpecies, not diſtinguiſhing them. Ray calls it *kair's-tail ruſh*.

2. Eriophorum polyſtachion, or many-ſpiked cotton-graſs: culms columnar, leaves flat, ſpikes peduncled. Linnæus confounds this and the next ſpecies together; and refers to the firſt figure of Vaillant only as a variety of his polyſtachion; but, if he had ever ſeen both plants together, he would doubtleſs have made them diſtinct ſpecies. The following particulars may ſerve to ſhow in what our plant differs from E. polyſtachion. 1. The root of that is not creeping. 2. The culm is very erect. 3. The leaves are ſhort and flat. 4. The ſpikes are many, upon ſlender foot-ſtalks, and pendulous. 5. The involucre is ſhorter than the ſpike.

3. Eriophorum anguſtifolium, or narrow-leaved cotton-graſs: culms columnar, leaves channelled, three-ſided, ſpikes peduncled. Our Engliſh writers have followed Linnæus in confounding this with the foregoing, till Mr. Dickſon diſtinguiſhed them. Stem from nine inches to a foot or more in height, upright, ſmooth, with two joints projecting a little, covered throughout its whole length with the ſheaths of the leaves; thoſe next the root are of a cheſnut colour, ſhort, lanceolate, ſtreaked, marked with tranſverſe lines, which give them a reticulated appearance; the ſucceeding leaves at their baſe cloſely embracing the ſtalk, from two to three lines in breadth, about ſeven inches or more in length, gradually tapering to the extremity, convex on one ſide, concave on the other, and ſmooth; the uppermoſt leaves flatter, much ſhorter, and manifeſtly keeled; ſheaths nearly of an equal thickneſs throughout, where a leaf goes off more looſely connected, and marked with a fiſſure filled by a membrane. Floral leaves three or four, of unequal lengths, forming ſheaths

at

at the bottom, terminate the ſtalk, from the axils of which the ſpikelets proceed. Theſe are from two to ſeven (generally about three), ovate, firſt upright, afterwards pendulous. Gærtner deſcribes the fruit as a ſmall coriaceous-cruſtaceous nut, of an obovate form, three-cornered, ſmooth or obſcurely ſtreaked, of a reddiſh cheſtnut colour, one-celled, valveleſs, clothed at the baſe with a white ſilky down, quite ſimple, and twelve times as long as the nut. Seed ſingle, ſubelliptic, obſcurely three-cornered, pale. In Germany, and the more northern parts of Europe, the down has been manufactured into various articles of dreſs, paper, and wicks for candles. In ſome parts of Sweden the peaſants ſtuff their pillows with it, whence it is called *poor-man's pillow:* but it becomes brittle when quite dry. Early in the ſpring, cattle crop and injure the leaves, before the graſſes are ſufficiently grown. It is common on moors and boggy ground; inſomuch that they are often white all over with it in June and July, when it is in ſeed. It flowers in April and May.

4. Eriophorum Virginicum, or Virginian cotton-graſs: culms leafy, columnar, leaves flat, ſpikes upright.—Native of Virginia.

5. Eriophorum cyperinum, or cyperus cotton-graſs: culms columnar leafy, panicle ſuperdecompound proliferous, ſpicules moſtly in threes. This has altogether the ſtature of Cyperus, but the ſpikelet of Scirpus, except that the ſeeds as they ripen produce a dun-coloured or teſtaceous cotton, ſcarcely longer than the ſpikelets. Native of North America.

6. Eriophorum alpinum, or alpine cotton-graſs: culms naked three-cornered, ſpike ſhorter than the down. Native of the mountains of Lapland, Sweden, Denmark, Sileſia, Carniola, Switzerland; flowering in June and July. It was found by Mr. Brown and Mr. Donn, in a moſs about three miles eaſt of Forfar, in the ſhire of Angus, Scotland. A ſpecimen of it from this place was preſented to the Linnæan Society by Mr. Teaſdale, April the 3d, 1792.

Propagation and Culture. Theſe being bog-plants, are ſeldom preſerved in gardens. They may however be planted in pots filled with bog-earth, ſet in pans wherein water is kept conſtantly; or by the ſide of ponds or other waters.

ERIOPH'ORUS. See ANDRYALA, BOMBAX, CARDUUS, and SCILLA.

ERIO'PILA. See DUROIA.

ERIPH'ANIS, a female Greek, famous for her poetical compoſitions. She was extremely fond of the hunter Melampus, and to enjoy his company ſhe accuſtomed herſelf to live in the woods.

ERIPH'YLE, a ſiſter of Adraſtus king of Argos, who married Amphiaraus. She was daughter of Talaus and Lyſimache. When her huſband concealed himſelf that he might not accompany the Argives in their expedition againſt Thebes, where he knew he was to periſh, Eriphyle ſuffered herſelf to be bribed by Polynices with a golden necklace which had been formerly given to Hermione by Venus, and ſhe diſcovered where Amphiaraus was. This treachery of Eriphyle compelled him to go to the war; but before he departed, he charged his ſon Alcmæon to murder his mother as ſoon as he was informed of his death. Amphiaraus periſhed in the expedition, and his death was no ſooner known than his laſt injunctions were obeyed, and Eryphile was murdered by the hands of her ſon. *Homer.*

E'RIS, the goddeſs of diſcord among the Greeks: the ſame as the Diſcordia of the Latins.

ERISICH'THON, in fabulous hiſtory, a Theſſalian, ſon of Triops, who derided Ceres, and cut down her groves. This impiety irritated the goddeſs, who afflicted him with continual hunger. He ſquandered all his poſſeſſions to gratify the cravings of his appetite, and at laſt he devoured his own limbs for want of food. His daughter had the power of transforming herſelf into whatever animal ſhe pleaſed, and ſhe made uſe of that artifice to maintain her father, who ſold her, after which ſhe aſſumed another ſhape and became again his property. *Ovid.*

ERIS'KAY, one of weſtern iſlands of Scotland, ſeparated from ſouth Viſt by a narrow ſtrait, called *Eriſkay Sound:* about five miles in circumference.

ERISTHA'LES. See CNICUS.

ERITH'ALIS, *ſ.* [the name of an herb in Pliny; from ερίθαλης, Gr. full of verdure.] In botany, a genus of the claſs pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of rubiacæ, (*Juſſieu.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed; ſuperior, pitcher-form, five-toothed, permanent, (ten-toothed, minute, five-cornered, *Swartz*;) Corolla: one petalled, five-parted: tube very ſhort; diviſions lance-ſhaped, long, bent back. (Petals five, linear, obtuſe, patulous, *Swartz.*) Stamina: filaments five, (ſix, eight, ten, from the baſe of the calyx, *Swartz*;) ſubulate, patulous, ſcarce the length of the corolla; anthers oblong, linear, erect, *Swartz.* Piſtillum: germ inferior, roundiſh: ſtyle filiform, compreſſed above, length of the ſtamens; ſtigma ſharp, (bifid, *Swartz.*) Pericarpium: berry globoſe, crowned, ten-celled, (eight or ten-celled, *Gærtner*; ſlightly ten-grooved, *Swartz.*) Seeds ſmall, (in each cell one, pendulous, ovate, compreſſed like a lens, *G.*)—*Eſſential Character.* Corolla: five-parted, with the diviſions bent back; Calyx pitcher-ſhaped; berry ten-celled, inferior.

Species. 1. Erithalis fruticoſa, or ſhrubby erithalis: leaves oppoſite; corymbs compound. This is an upright elegant branching tree, fifteen feet in height. Leaves ſubovate, blunt with a ſmall point, ſhining, quite entire, deep green, paler underneath, petioled, three inches long. Flowers numerous, caducous, with white petals, moſtly ſix-ſtamened with a ſix-cleft calyx and corolla, ſmelling exactly like the common Syringa. Berries ſmall and purple, (black, *Swartz.*) Seeds about nine, but uncertain in their number; (in each cell one, rufeſcent, *Gærtner.*) Perhaps both the ſpecies of Browne, are but varieties of this. Native of Jamaica, Martinico, &c. Jacquin deſcribes another, which is a native of Curaçao, and probably a variety of this ariſing from its growing in the clefts of rocks, where there is no earth. It is a ſhrub, two feet high, with procumbent diffuſed branches; the leaves are thicker and numerous; the berry and flowers ſmaller; the former entirely void of ſcent, the latter whitiſh or very ſeldom purple. According to Swartz, it varies with large ovate leaves, and all the parts larger. The berry, as Gærtner obſerves, may with Jacquin be conſidered as one-celled.

2. Erithalis polygama, or polygamous erithalis: leaves obovate; flowers axillary, males cymed, hermaphrodites ſolitary. Native of the Society Iſles. The variety *timonius*, has narrower leaves.

ERITHRÆ'A, *ſ.* in botany. See GENTIANA CENTAURIUM.

ERIS'TICAL, *adj.* [ερις, Gr.] Controverſial; relating to diſpute; containing controverſies.

ERI'TRI, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: thirty-ſix miles weſt of Smyrna.

ERITZ'KA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Irkutſch: twenty miles eaſt of Kireńſk.

ER'IVAN, or PERSIAN ARMENIA, or GREATER ARMENIA, or EASTERN ARMENIA, a province of Perſia, about 200 leagues in length, and ſixty in breadth. The country is mountainous, interſected with fertile vallies; the air is healthy, and the wine excellent; the winter is long and rough, with frequent ſnow, which ſometimes falls in June, and even is ſometimes found in July; fruit grows ſlowly, and olives do not flouriſh. Game and fiſh abound: this is the country in which Noah's ark is ſaid to have reſted after the flood, on mount Ararat, called by the Perſians Agri, and by the Armenians Macis, or Mezeſan-ver. This province is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the eaſt by Schirvan and a ſmall province called Mougan, on the ſouth by Aberbeitzan, and on the weſt by Turkiſh Armenia. The principal towns are Erivan and Nachivan. See ARMENIA, vol. ii. p. 194—197.

ER'IVAN, or IRVAN, or IRIVAN, a city of Aſia, and capital of Greater Armenia, or Erivan, ſituated in a plain, ſurrounded with mountains, and watered by two ſmall rivers; large, dirty, and ill-built, and but indifferently peopled: the ramparts are of earth; the fortreſs is encompaſſed with a wall of bricks, in which is a palace for the governor, and 800 houſes, only inhabited by Perſians; the Armenians have ſhops there, but muſt not remain during the night. The churches are ſmall, and half buried in the ground, reſembling catacombs: in the town and environs are twenty-eight convents for devotees of both ſexes, but they are poorly endowed. Lat. 40. 20. N. lon. 62. E. Ferro.

ERIZ'ZO (Sebaſtian), a noble Venetian, diſtinguiſhed for his knowledge of the medallic ſcience. He publiſhed in 1559, in Italian, a Diſcourſe upon ancient Medals, with the particular Explanation of many Reverſes, which was much eſteemed for its erudition. He alſo publiſhed, in 1567, a moral work, entitled *Sei Giornate*. He was likewiſe the author of a treatiſe On Logic, in Italian; a tranſlation of Plato's Dialogues; a diſcourſe Of Civil Governments; and ſome other pieces. He died in 1585.

ERKE, *adj.* [eapȝ, Sax.] Idle; lazy; ſlothful. An old word whence we now ſay *irkſome*.

For men therein would hem delite;
And of that dede be not *erke*,
But oft tithes haunt that werke. *Chaucer.*

ER'KELENS, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, in the duchy of Juliers; it made a part of Guelders before the year 1719: ten miles north of Juliers. Lat. 51. 8. N. lon. 23. 50. E. Ferro.

ER'KOOM, an Abyſſinian bird, deſcribed by Mr. Bruce. He ſays, that though not eaſily raiſed, it flies both ſtrong and far. It has a rank ſmell, and is ſaid in Abyſſinia to feed upon dead carcaſes. This, however, Bruce thinks a miſtake, as he never ſaw it following the army, nor approaching a dead carcaſe; and as often as he had occaſion to open this bird, he found in its ſtomach nothing but the green ſcarabeus beetle. It builds in large thick trees, always, if it can, near churches; has a covered neſt like that of a magpie, but four times as large as the cagle's. It places its neſt firm upon the trunk, without endeavouring to make it high from the ground: the entry is always on the eaſt ſide.

ER'LA, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: four miles ſouth-weſt of Vienna.

ER'LA (Cloſter), a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: ſix miles eaſt of Ens.

ER'LACH, a town of Germany, in the archduchy of Auſtria: eight miles weſt of Efferding.

ER'LACH, or CERLIER, a town of Swiſſerland, in the canton of Bern, with a bailiwic, on the borders of the Lake of Bienne: fifteen miles weſt-north-weſt of Bern.

ER'LANG, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and principality of Culmbach, divided into Old and New, the firſt founded by Charlemagne, the latter by the margrave Chriſtian Erneſt, in 1686. It has ſeveral churches, an univerſity, and a palace: ten miles north of Nuremberg, and nineteen ſouth of Bamberg. Lat. 49. 34. N. lon. 28. 46. E. Ferro.

ER'LAU, or EGER, a town of Hungary, ſurrounded with walls, and defended by a caſtle. In 1552, it withſtood the Turks; but in 1596, it ſurrendered to them by capitulation. In 1606 it was ſurpriſed by the Imperialiſts; and in 1704, it was taken by prince Ragotſki. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Forty miles eaſt of Gran, and 120 eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Vienna.

ER'LEBACH, a river of Germany, which riſes in the duchy of Stiria, ſix miles below Ips.

ER'LEBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Mentz, on the Main: three miles north-north-weſt of Clingenberg.

ER'LENBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and county of Wertheim: ten miles north-north-eaſt of Wertheim.

ER'MELAND (biſhopric of), a country ſurrounded by Pruſſia, formerly ſubject only to the biſhop and chapter, but now become a province of Pruſſia. The principal towns are Frauenburg, Braunſburg, and Heilſburg.

ER'MELIN, *ſ.* [diminutive of ermin; *armelin*, Fr.] An ermine:

Silver ſkins,
Paſſing the hate ſpot *ermelins*. *Sidney.*

ER'MENAK, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Caramania: ſixty-three miles ſouth of Cogni.

ER'MIJA, a town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay: ſixteen miles eaſt ſouth eaſt of Bilbao.

ER'MIL, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Tamboy: forty-four miles ſouth of Tamboy.

ER'MINE, *ſ.* [*hermine*, Fr. from *armenius*, Lat.] The white ſtoat, a ſpecies of weeſel. See the article MUSTELA. The ermine is an emblem of purity; for it is ſaid that if a ring of mud or dirt be made round them, they will die rather than daub themſelves to eſcape:

A lady's honour may be touch'd;
Which, nice as *ermines*, will not bear a foil. *Dryden.*

ER'MINE, in heraldry, denotes a white field or fur, powdered or interſperſed with black ſpots, called *powdering*. See HERALDRY.

ER'MINE, *ſ.* an order of knights, inſtituted in 1450, by Francis I. duke of Bretagne, and formerly ſubſiſting in France. The collar of this order was of gold, compoſed of ears of corn in ſaltier; at the end of which hung the ermine, with this inſcription, *A ma vie*. The order expired when the dukedom of Bretagne was annexed to the crown of France.

ER'MINED, *adj.* Clothed with ermine, or fur of the white ſtoat:

Arcadia's counteſs, here in *ermin'd* pride,
Is there Paſtora by a fountain ſide. *Pope.*

ER'MINE-STREET, one of the noted Roman highways, in England, from St. David's to Southampton.

ERMS, a river of Germany, which runs into the Danube, four miles ſouth-weſt of Nurtlingen, in the circle of Swabia.

ERMSLE'BEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and principality of Halberſtadt: fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Halberſtadt.

ERNA'NI, a town of Spain, in the province of Guipuſcoa: five miles ſouth of Sebaſtian.

ERNA'TIA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia: ſixteen miles north-weſt of Satalia.

ER'NE, or ERON, do immediately flow from the Saxon eapn, eapn, a cottage, or place of retirement. *Gibſon*.

ER'NE, a river in Ireland, which riſes in the northern part of the county of Longford, croſſes the county of Cavan from north to ſouth, paſſes through Lough Erne, in the county of Fermanagh, and empties itſelf into the Bay of Donegal, three miles below Bally Shannon.

ERNE (Lough), a lake of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, or more properly two lakes connected.

ERNE'E, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Mayenne, on a river of the ſame name; containing about 2400 inhabitants: five leagues north-north-weſt of Laval, and four weſt of Mayenne.

ERNE'E, a river of France, which runs into the Mayenne, two miles north of Laval.

ERNES'TI (John Auguſtus), doctor of divinity, and firſt profeſſor of theology in the univerſity of Leipſic, born on the 4th of Auguſt, 1707, at Tennſtadt, where his father was ſuperintendant. He ſtudied at Pforta, where he ſoon gave proofs of his great talents; repaired afterwards to Wittenberg, and then to Leipſic, where he was made doctor and profeſſor of theology. Though engaged in laborious occupations, he attained, with a ſound conſtitution, to the great age of ſeventy; but after that period the infirmities of age gradually aſſailed him till the time of his death, which took place on the 11th of September, 1781. His works were received with ſo much approbation,

tion, that they were ſoon reprinted in Holland, England, and France. His editions of the claſſical authors, in particular, were in ſo much requeſt, that he was under the neceſſity of refuſing many offers made to him by foreign bookſellers.

ERNO'DEA, *ſ.* [from ερωδης, Gr. branched; ſo named by Swartz.] In botany, a genus of the claſs tetandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-parted, ſmall, ſuperior; ſegments erect, acute, equal, permanent. Corolla: one petalled, ſalver ſhaped: tube four-cornered, elongated; border four-parted; ſegments lanceolate, revolute. Stamina: filaments four, inſerted in the middle of the tube, awl-ſhaped, longer than the corolla; antheræ erect, acuminate. Piſtillum: germ four-cornered, inferior; ſtyle filiform, longer than the ſtamens; ſtigma obtuſe, emarginate. Pericarpium: berry roundiſh, crowned by the calyx, two-grooved, two-celled. Seeds: ſolitary, hemiſpherical, ſtriated.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx four-parted; corolla one-petalled, ſalver-ſhaped; berry two-celled; ſeeds ſolitary.

Ernodea littoralis, a ſingle ſpecies. It is a native of Jamaica, frequent near the ſhore in the pariſh of St. George, running three or four feet or more along the ground, throwing out a few ſpreading branches as it creeps along. The leaves are oblong, pointed and ſtiff; the flowers few, ſingle, at the axils of the upper leaves. Browne named this plant *Knoxia*, from Knox, who reſided many years in the iſland of Ceylon, and publiſhed an account of it.

ERN'SPACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia, and principality of Hohenlohe; ſix miles north of Ohringen.

ERN'STEIN, a town and caſtle of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Cologne: eight miles eaſt of Lintz.

ERN'THAL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and lordſhip of Schonberg: ſeven miles weſt of Chemnitz.

ERN'STHOFEN, a town of Germany in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Heſſe Darmſtadt: ten miles ſouth of Darmſtadt.

To ERO'DE, *v. a.* [*erodo*, Lat.] To canker, to eat away; to corrode.—The blood, being too ſharp or thin, *erodes* the veſſel. *Wiſeman.*

ERO'DENTS, *ſ.* [from *erodo*, Lat. to eat away.] Thoſe ſubſtances which eat away or deſtroy other bodies, by means of their proper menſtrua.

ERO'DIUM, *ſ.* [ερωδιος, Gr. is the name of the crane in Ariſtotle, whence this genus is ſo called on account of the long beak to the fruit.] In botany, a genus of the claſs monadelphia, order pentandria, natural order of gruinales, (gerania, *Juſſ.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved; leaflets ovate, acute, concave, permanent. Corolla: petals five, obcordate or ovate, ſpreading, large; nectary, five ſcales alternate with the filaments; and melliferous glands placed at the baſe of the ſtamens. Stamina: filaments five, awl-ſhaped, connected at the baſe with the ſcales into the ſhape of a pitcher, but ſpreading at top, ſhorter than the corolla; antheræ, oblong, verſatile. Piſtillum: germ five-cornered, beaked; ſtyle awl-ſhaped, longer than the ſtamens, permanent; ſtigmas five, reflex. Pericarpium: capſule five-grained, beaked, the cells opening inwards, each having a long tail fixed to it, which becomes ſpiral, and is hairy or bearded on the inſide. Seeds: ſolitary, (ſeldom two together,) ovate-oblong.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five-leaved; corolla five-petalled; nectary, five ſcales, alternate with the filaments, and glands at the baſe of the ſtamens; fruit five-grained, with a ſpiral beak, bearded on the inſide.

Species. I. Leaves compound or pinnatifid. 1. Erodium abſynthoides, or wormwood-leaved crane's-bill: cauleſcent; peduncles four-flowered or thereabouts; leaves interruptedly bipinnate laciniate, ſegments linear. The genus geranium was firſt ſeparated into three genera by monſieur l'Heritier. Of theſe this of erodium is one, pelargonium is a ſecond, and the third retains the old name of geranium. The diviſion is convenient on account of the prodigious number of ſpecies, but they muſt ſtill be conſidered as making only one natural genus. The firſt ſpecies ſeems to differ from the next in being cauleſcent, and in having the ſegments of the leaves linear and ſubvilloſe, not oblong and ſilky, as in that. Found in Armenia by Tournefort, and on mount Olympus by John Sibthorp, M. D.

2. Erodium chryſanthum, or golden-flowered crane's-bill: almoſt ſtemleſs; peduncles four-flowered; leaves decompoundly pinnate, laciniate, ſilky. This is very diſtinguiſhable by its yellow flowers. Found on mount Parnaſſus by Sibthorp.

3. Erodium trichomanifolium, or maidenhair-leaved crane's-bill: ſtemleſs; ſcapes leafleſs, four-flowered; leaves bipinnatifid hirſute. It may be doubted whether this be any thing more than a variety of the preceding. It differs, however, in having the flowers fleſh-coloured marked with lines, the leaves ſmaller and leſs cut, the ſcapes leafleſs and radical; whereas E. chryſanthum becomes branched when in flower. Found on mount Libanus by Billardiere.

4. Erodium pulverulentum, or hoary-leaved crane's-bill: cauleſcent; peduncles many-flowered; leaves decompoundedly laciniate, mealy, hoary. The plant is wholly covered with frequent ſhort villoſe hairs, whence it has the appearance of being duſty. It is certainly allied to the firſt and ſecond ſpecies, from which it differs in its duſty habit, in having the leaves decompoundedly laciniate, not interruptedly bipinnate, the flowers more numerous in the umbel, and the fruits only one-third of the length. Found by Louiche Desfontaines in the kingdom of Tunis.

5. Erodium craſſifolium, or upright crane's-bill: umbels many-flowered; leaves pinnatifid-laciniate thick; ſegments linear. In appearance this reſembles pelargonium myrrhifolium. It differs from the three next, in having thick leaves, pinnatifid not interruptedly pinnate, bractes larger, and roundiſh not lanceolate, the herb cauleſcent, and the root more ſlender not thick. Found in the iſland of Cyprus by Sibthorp; flowers in April and May.

6. Erodium fœtidum, or ſtinking crane's-bill: almoſt ſtemleſs; ſcapes radical, many-flowered; leaves interruptedly bipinnatifid, petals roundiſh. All the leaves are heaped about the root; they are hoary with hairs, the whole forming a triangle. Lobel reports it to be abominably fetid. L'Heritier ſays it is ſingular in having a very ſtrong nauſeous ſmell like ſome of the claſs Syngeneſia; and according to Gouan, it has a ſtrong ſmell, but neither nauſeous nor muſky. Native of the country about Montpellier. It ſeems to have been cultivated here in the time of Parkinſon.

7. Erodium macrademum, or Spaniſh crane's-bill: ſubcauleſcent; ſcapes radical, many-flowered; leaves interruptedly bipinnatifid, petals ovate. This is allied to the preceding; the herb is entirely the ſame. The leaves, which are very much alike, are more finely laciniated and more ſlender in this; this has alſo a turpentine or muſky ſmell. Native of Spain.

8. Erodium ſupracanum, or ſilky-leaved crane's bill: almoſt ſtemleſs; ſcapes radical, two-flowered or thereabouts; leaves interruptedly bipinnatifid, thickiſh, ſilk-hoary on the upper ſurface. This is very nearly allied to the two preceding, and to E. romanum. Found in Montſerrat in Catalonia by Brouſſonet, Sibthorp, and Pourrett.

9. Erodium petroſelinum, or parſley-leaved crane's-bill: peduncles two-flowered; leaves pinnate; leaflets pinnatifid; ſegments linear. This has the habit of the three laſt, from which, however, it differs in having pinnatifid leaves, not interruptedly ſo, and elongated ſtems. Found on the ſandy coaſts of Barbary by Poiret.

10. Erodium alpinum, or alpine crane's-bill: peduncles

cles many-flowered; leaves interruptedly pinnatifid-laciniate. Root perennial, running very deep into the ground; lower leaves ſmooth and on very long footſtalks; ſtems a foot and an half high, with leaves of the ſame form, but ſmaller and oppoſite; flowers purple, many together on very long peduncles; the calyx is awned; the petals are about twice as large, and entire. Native of Italy. The ſeeds were ſent to Mr. Miller by Micheli. It flowers here in June, but the ſeeds do not ripen in England.

11. Erodium Romanum, or Roman crane's-bill: ſtemleſs; ſcapes radical, many-flowered; leaves pinnate; leaflets pinnatifid. Native of Italy, about Rome, on the Pyrennees, alſo of Provence. It was cultivated in the botanic garden at Chelſea, in 1724.

12. Erodium cicutarium, or hemlock-leaved crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves pinnate; leaflets ſeſſile pinnatifid. This ſpecies varies extremely, from nearly ſmooth to very hairy, and from very large and branched, with many a flowered umbel, to ſmall and nearly ſimple, with few flowers.

β. Geranium pimpinellæ-folio of Dillenius is a remarkable variety; the petals irregular, the two upper ſhorter, rounder, and marked with a greeniſh ſpot at the baſe. The common ſort is found all over Europe, in Africa, Aſia, North America, and the iſland of Madeira. The laſt-mentioned varicty has been found in England near Hackney, and in ſeveral parts of Suffolk.

13. Erodium moſchatum, or muſk crane's bill: peduncles many-flowered; leave pinnate; leaflets ſubpetioled, unequally gaſhed. This is very like the preceding, but has an ambroſial or muſky ſcent; the whole plant is covered with hairs, which are glutinous, particularly thoſe of the calyx. All the parts are larger; the ſtem is ſwollen and crooked at the joints. The wings are fewer in the leaves, ovate, ſometimes only ſerrate or jagged, rarely pinnatifid; peduncles thickly ſet with fine white hairs, ending in pellucid globules, with from four to ten flowers, forming a roundiſh head; corolla red or purple; annual. Native of England, France, Switzerland, the Cape of Good Hope, Syria, Barbary, Peru. With us about Batterſea, Streatham, &c. near London, near Briſtol, Stourbridge; in Weſtmoreland and Yorkſhire.

14. Erodium tordylioides, or Algiers crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves bipinnatifid, unequally ſerrate, the outmoſt lobes confluent. This ſeems to differ from the preceding in having a perrennial root, and bipinnate leaves; but it is perhaps no more than a variety. Found on rocks near Algiers by Desfontaines.

15. Erodium gruinum, or broad-leaved annual crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves ternate, crenate-toothed, the outmoſt pinnatifid-lobed. This is an annual plant with very broad leaves, cut on their ſides regular and crenate. The ſtem is quite ſmooth, whereas in the next ſpecies it is rough with hairs, or ſtrigoſe. Native of Spain, Sicily, Candia, Cyprus, Syria.

16. Erodium ciconium, or long-beaked crane's-bill. This alſo is an annual plant, which has ſeveral proſtrate ſtems near a foot long; flowers pale blue; beaks of the fruit long, but by no means ſo long or large as thoſe of the preceding. Native of the ſouth of Europe, Barbary, Syria, Cyprus, Madeira. Cultivated in the botanic garden at Chelſea in 1724.

β. Geranium botrys, or hairy crane's-bill. In this variety the whole plant is rough with hairs. It is a native of Spain, Portugal, and Italy, on ſandy coaſts.

17. Erodium lacerum, or torn crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves doubly-pinnatifid; ſegments very remote, linear, quite entire. Stem grooved, branched, more than a foot high; fruit rufeſcent, with a beak two inches long. Native of Portugal.

18. Erodium diphyllum, or two-leaved crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; involucres two-leaved, round-diſh; lower leaves three-lobed, upper pinnatifid laciniate, gaſhed. The involucre is compoſed of two oppoſite, membranaceous, largiſh bractes, that are very conſpicuous, and give it the ſignificant trivial name. Native of Portugal, Gibraltar, Algiers, Tunis, Candia, and Cyprus; annual.

19. Erodium muticum, or beardleſs crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves ternatifid, gaſhed, toothed; calyxes awnleſs. Found by Desfontaines in the kingdom of Tunis.

20. Erodium hymenodes, or Barbary erodium: peduncles many-flowered; leaves ternate or ternatifid; ſegments roundiſh, lobed. Found by Desfontaines on rocks in Barbary.

21. Erodium incarnatum, or fleſh-coloured crane's-bill: peduncles few-flowered; leaves three-parted or ternate, trifid, rugged; ſtem ſomewhat ſhrubby. This has the habit of Potentilla, with a ſlender, ſmooth, hard ſtem, inclining to ſhrubbineſs. The leaves are on very long petioles, heart-ſhaped, roundiſh, undivided, ſmall; ſtipules lanceolate, very ſharp; flowers red, fleſh-coloured, or ſcarlet, with a paler diſk. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

II. Leaves lobed, or undivided. 22. Erodium malacoides, or mallow-leaved crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves heart-ſhaped, three-lobed; lobes lobed obtuſe, obſoletely-toothed. This is an annual plant, with the lower leaves heart-ſhaped and three-lobed; branches inclining to the ground, and ſpreading a foot and an half each way. The peduncles are placed on the ſide of theſe, and ſuſtain many bright-red flowers. The fruits have long beaks. Native of the South of Europe, Madeira, Barbary, Syria, the iſlands of the Archipelago and in Peru. The Geranium Chium is a variety, native of the iſland of Chio.

23. Erodium populifolium, or poplar-leaved erodium: peduncles many-flowered; leaves heart-ſhaped, ſublobed, obtuſe-toothed; ſtamens hirſute. This has the habit of the preceding; from which, however, it ſeems to differ in its ſtipulation, and in the hirſuteneſs of the filaments, which are ſmooth in *malacoides* and *chium*. Found in Barbary by Poiret.

24. Erodium nervuloſum, or nerved erodium: peduncles many-flowered; leaves heart-ſhaped, almoſt undivided, toothed, thick, nerved. Native of Sicily.

25. Erodium glaucophyllum, or glaucous crane's-bill: peduncles many-flowered; leaves oblong, obſoletely crenate, glaucous; beaks feathered. This is an annual plant, with leaves very like thoſe of E. malacoides, but ſmooth; ſtem extremely ſimple, very ſhort. Native of Egypt.

26. Erodium guttatum, or ſpotted crane's-bill: peduncles three-flowered; leaves heart-ſhaped, obſoletely lobed, tooth-ſerrate, aſh-coloured, the centre of a different colour. This is very nearly allied to the preceding, but the herb is ſilk and hoary, not naked and glaucous, as in that. The flowers are violet-coloured, with a very dark violet diſk, and are extremely ſweet-ſcented. Found by Shaw and Desfontaines in Barbary.

27. Erodium maritimum, or ſea crane's bill: peduncles three-flowered or thereabouts; leaves heart-ſhaped, gaſhed, crenate, rugged; ſtems depreſſed. Stems branched, lying cloſe to the ground; flowers one to three, pale red, ſmall; beaks of the fruit very ſmall, not exceeding half an inch in length. Native of England and Holland, on the coaſt; Norfolk and Cornwall; alſo on ſandy commons in Worceſterſhire.

28. Erodium chamædryoides, or dwarf crane's-bill: almoſt ſtemleſs; peduncles one-flowered; leaves heart-ſhaped, obtuſe, crenate. Native of Minorca and Corſica. It has been known many years to the nurſery-men by the name G. Reichardi, in compliment to a French gentleman, who firſt diſcovered it in the iſland of Minorca.

Propagation and Culture, ſee GERANIUM.

ERO'DIUS, *ſ.* in entomology, a genus belonging to the order of coleoptera; the generic characters of which are: antennæ moniliform; feelers four, filiform; body roundiſh, gibbous, immarginate; thorax tranſverſe; ſhells cloſely united, longer than the abdomen; jaw horny, bifid; lip horny, emarginate. There are only four ſpecies of this inſect at preſent known; and theſe, from their

ſhape,

ſhape, have been confounded with the coccinella and chryſomela. The thorax is widely emarginate before, for the reception of the head; the ſhells are very gibbous, ending in a kind of point. One ſpecies, the teſtudinarius, inhabits the Cape of Good Hope; two others, the gibbus and planus, are natives of Arabia; and the minutus is found in the Eaſt Indies. The ſhells of this ſpecies are black, glabrous, and cloſely united; with two impreſſed dots on the back of the thorax. See this inſect in the engraving of the plant *Epidendrum*.

EROGA'TION, *ſ.* [*erogatio*, Lat.] The act of giving or beſtowing; diſtribution.

EROPHEE'VO, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Irkutſch: ſixty miles north of Balaganſkoi.

E'ROS, a ſervant of whom Antony demanded a ſword to kill himſelf. Eros produced the inſtrument, but inſtead of giving it to his maſter, he killed himſelf in his preſence. *Plutarch.*—A ſon of Chronos, or Saturn, and god of love.

ERO'SION, *ſ.* [*eroſio*, Lat.] The act of eating away. The ſtate of being eaten away; canker; corroſion.—As ſea-ſalt is a ſharp ſolid body, in a conſtant diet of ſalt meat, it breaks the veſſels, produceth *eroſions* of the ſolid parts, and all the ſymptoms of the ſea-ſcurvy. *Arbuthnot.*

EROTE'UM, *ſ.* [ſo named by Swartz, perhaps from ερως, Gr. love.] In botany, a genus of the claſs polyandria, order monogynia. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved; leaflets ovate, concave, incumbent, permanent. Corolla: petals five, ovate-roundiſh, concave, entire, ſpreading. Stamina: filaments numerous (thirty), ſhorter than the petals, erect, filiform, placed on the receptacle; antheræ roundiſh; minute. Piſtillum: germ ovate, pubeſcent, ſuperior; ſtyle erect, generally longer than the ſtamens, awl-ſhaped, trifid at the tip, permanent; ſtigmas obtuſe, ſimple, reflex. Pericarpium: berry roundiſh, juiceleſs, acuminate with the permanent ſtyle, ſmooth, three-celled. Seeds: in threes or fours, oblong, compreſſed a little. It has the inflorescence, flower, and habit, of thea, but the fruit is of a different kind.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five-leaved; corolla five-petalled; ſtyle trifid; berry juiceleſs, three-celled, many-ſeeded.

Species. 1. Eroteum thæoides, or thæa eroteum: leaves ovate-lanceolate, ſerrate-toothed; flowers axillary, ſolitary. Native of Jamaica.

2. Eroteum undulatum, or waved eroteum: leaves elliptic-lanceolate, acuminate, ſerrate; flowers crowded, axillary. Native of Jamaica, St. Chriſtopher's, Montſerrat, Guadaloupe, &c.

ERO'TIA, a feſtival in honour of Eros the god of love. It was celebrated by the Theſpians every fifth year with ſports and games, when muſicians and others contended. If any quarrels or ſeditions had ariſen among the people, it was then uſual to offer ſacrifices and prayers to the god, that he would totally remove them.

ERO'TIC, *adj.* [ερωτικος, Gr.] Treating of love. This word is chiefly uſed in ſpeaking of Greek novels, and their authors.

EROTOMA'NIA, *ſ.* [from ερως, love, and μανια, Gr. madneſs.] That melancholy or derangement of the ſenſes which is the effect of love.

ERO'TYLUS, *ſ.* [from ερως, Gr. love.] A ſpecies of fungus reſembling the erotium; a ſtone ſo called becauſe it was formerly uſed in love charms and philtres.

ERPE'NIUS, or ERPEN (Thomas), a learned writer and oriental ſcholar, born at Gorcum in Holland, in 1584. He was ſent to the univerſity of Leyden, when eighteen years of age. After availing himſelf of the helps which the univerſity of Leyden afforded, he travelled for further improvement into England, France, Italy, and Germany. In England he became acquainted with the excellent Bedell, who was a conſiderable proficient in Hebrew, and rabbinical learning. After ſpending four years in foreign countries, he returned to Holland in 1612, where he was choſen profeſſor of the Arabic and other oriental tongues, in the univerſity of Leyden. In this ſituation Erpenius diſcharged the duties of his office with eminent ability and reputation; and ſoon after his appointment he ſet up, at a conſiderable expence, a preſs for the printing of works in oriental literature. He was the author of various works, publiſhed during his life-time, and after his death, which have deſervedly given him a high reputation among oriental ſcholars. The following is a liſt of his valuable publications: 1. *Annotationes ad Lexicon Arabicum Franciſci Raphelengii*, 1613, 4to. 2. *Grammatica Arabica*, 1613, 4to. 3. *Proverbiorum Arabicorum Centuriæ II. Arabicè & Latinè, cum Scholiis Joſephi Scaligeri & Thomæ Erpenii*, 1614, 4to. 4. *Lockmanni Fabulæ & ſelecta quædam Arabum adagia, cum Interpretatione Latina & Notis*, 1615, 8vo. 5. *Novum Teſtamentum Arabicè*, 1615, 4to. 6. *Giarumia grammatica de centum Regentibus, ſive Linguæ Arabiæ particulis, Arabicè & Latinè, cum Notis*, 1617, 4to. 7. *Hiſtoria Joſephi Patriarchæ ex Alcorano, Arabicè, cum Verſione Latina & Notis*, 1617, 4to. 8. *Canones de Literarum EVI apud Arabes Natura & Permutatione*, 1618, 4to. 9. *Rudimenta Linguæ Arabicæ*, 1620, 8vo. 10. *Verſio & Notæ ad Arabicum Paraphraſin in Evangelium Joannis*, 1620, 8vo. 11. *Grammatica Hebræa*, 1621, 8vo. 12. *Orationes tres de Linguarum Hebreæ atque Arabicæ Dignitate*, 1621, 8vo. 13. *Pentateuchus Moſis, Arabicè*, 1622, 4to. 14. *Arcanum punctationis revelatum, &c.* 1624, 4to. 15. *Elmacini Hiſtoriæ Saracenica, &c.* 1625, folio. 16. *Pſalmi Davidis, Syriacè, cum Verſione Latina*, 1625, 4to. 17. *De peregrinatione Gallicæ utiliter inſtituenda Tractatus*, 1631, 12mo. 18. *Precepta. de Lingua Græcorum Communi*, 1662, 8vo.

ER'PES, *ſ.* [from ερπω, Gr. to creep.] The ſhingles, named from their gradually increaſing till they creep as it were round the body.

To ERR, *v. n.* [*erro*, Lat.] To wander; to ramble:

The rains ariſe, and fires their warmth diſpenſe;
And fix'd and *erring* ſtars diſpoſe their influence. *Dryden.*

To miſs the right way; to ſtray.—We have *erred* and ſtrayed like loſt ſheep. *Common Prayer.*—To deviate from any purpoſe:

But *errs* not nature from this gracious end,
From burning ſuns when livid deaths deſcend? *Pope.*

To commit errors; to miſtake.—Do they not *err* that deviſe evil. *Prov.* xiv. 22.

The muſes' friend, unto himſelf ſevere,
With ſilent pity looks on all that *err.* *Waller.*

ER'RA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Eſtremadura, on a river of the ſame name: twenty-two miles ſouth-eaſt of Santarem.

ER'RA, a river which runs into the Latas, twelve miles eaſt of Salvaterra, in the province of Eſtremadura.

ERRABA'RI, a town of Egypt, ten miles north-weſt of Cairo.

ER'RABLE, *adj.* Liable to err; liable to miſtake.

ER'RABLENESS, *ſ.* Liableneſs to error; liableneſs to miſtake.—We may infer from the *errableneſs* of our nature, the reaſonableneſs of compaſſion to the ſeduced. *Decay of Piety.*

ERRAI'NE, a town of Egypt: two miles eaſt of Tahta.

ER'RAND, *ſ.* [ærenð, Sax. *arend*, Dan.] A meſſage; ſomething to be told or done by a meſſenger; a mandate; a commiſſion. It is generally uſed now only in familiar language.—When he came, behold the captains of the hoſt were ſitting, and he ſaid I have an *errand* to thee, O captain. *Kings.*

Nor doubt I, but the ſilver-footed dame,
Tripping from ſea, on ſuch an *errand* came. *Dryden.*

ERRAN'T, *adj.* [*errans*, Lat. *errant*, Fr.] Wandering; roving; rambling. Particularly applied to an order of knights much celebrated in romances, who roved about the world in ſearch of adventures:

Chief of domeſtic knights and *errant*,
Either for chartel or for warrant. *Hudibras.*

Vile; abandoned; completely bad. See ARRANT.

Thy company, if I ſlept not well
A-nights, would make me an *errant* fool. *Ben Jonſon.*

Deviating from a certain courſe:

Knots, by the conflux of meeting ſap,
Infect the ſound pine, and divert his grain,
Furtive and *errant*, from his courſe of growth. *Shakeſpeare.*

ER'RANTRY, *ſ.* An errant ſtate; the condition of a wanderer.—After a ſhort ſpace of *errantry* upon the ſeas, he got ſafe back to Dunkirk. *Addiſon.*—The employment of a knight errant.

ER'RATA, *ſ.* [Lat.] The faults of the printer inſerted in the beginning or end of the book.—If he meet with faults, beſides thoſe that the *errata* take notice of, he will conſider the weakneſs of the author's eyes. *Boyle.*

ERRA'TIC, *adj.* [*erraticus*, Lat.] Wandering; uncertain; keeping no certain order; holding no eſtabliſhed courſe. This term is commonly applied to the planets which are called *erratic* or wandering ſtars, in contradiſtinction to the fixed ſtars:

The earth, and each *erratic* world,
Around the ſun their proper centre whirl'd,
Compoſe but one extended vaſt machine. *Blackmore.*

Irregular; changeable.—They are incommoded with a ſlimy mattery cough, ſtink of breath, and an *erratic* fever. *Harvey.*

ERRA'TICALLY, *adv.* Without rule; without any eſtabliſhed method or order.—They come not forth in generations *erratically*, or different from each other, but in ſpecifical and regular ſhapes. *Brown.*

ERRA'TUM, *ſ.* The ſingular number of ERRATA.

ER'RHINES, *ſ.* [from ῥὶν, Gr. the noſe.] Medicines ſnuffed up the noſe to promote a diſcharge of the mucus.

ER'RIFF, a province of Africa, in the country of Fez.

ERRIP'SIS, *ſ.* [from ἐρείπτω, Gr. to caſt down.] A proſtration or loſs of ſtrength.

ER'ROAD, a town of India, in the country of Coimbetore: thirty-nine miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Damicotta, and forty-eight north-eaſt of Coimbetore.

ER'ROL, a town of the American ſtates, on lake Umbagog, in the north eaſternmoſt ſettled part of Grafton county, New-Hampſhire, incorporated in 1774.

ERROMAN'GO, an iſland in the Southern Pacific Ocean, and one of thoſe called the *New Hebrides*, about twenty-four leagues in circumference. Lat. 18. 47. S. lon. 169. 19. E. Greenwich.

ERRONA'N or TOOTOONA, an iſland in the South Pacific Ocean, and one of the moſt eaſtern of thoſe called the *New Hebrides*, about five leagues in circumference.

ERRO'NEOUS, *adj.* [from *erro*, Lat.] Wandering; unſettled.—This circle, by being placed here, ſtopped much of the *erroneous* light, which otherwiſe would have diſturbed the viſion. *Newton.*

Unblam'd abundance crown'd the royal board,
What time this dame rever'd her prudent lord;
Who now, ſo heav'n decrees, is doom'd to mourn,
Bitter conſtraint! *erroneous* and forlorn. *Pope.*

Irregular; wandering from the right road.—If the veſſels, inſtead of breaking, yield, it ſubjects the perſon to all the inconveniences of *erroneous* circulation; that is, when the blood ſtrays into the veſſels deſtined to carry ſerum or lymph. *Arbuthnot.*—Miſtaking; miſled by error.—Thou art far from deſtroying the innocent with the guilty, and the *erroneous* with the malicious. *King Charles.*—Miſtaken; not conformable to truth; phyſically falſe.—The phænomena of light have been hitherto explained, by ſuppoſing that they ariſe from new modifications of the rays, which is an *erroneous* ſuppoſition. *Newton.*

ERRO'NEOUSLY, *adv.* By miſtake; not rightly.—The minds of men are *erroneouſly* perſuaded, that it is the will of God to have thoſe things done which they fancy. *Hook.*

ERRO'NEOUSNESS, *ſ.* Phyſical falſehood; inconformity to truth.—The phænomena may be explained by his hypotheſis, whereof he demonſtrates the truth, together with the *erroneouſneſs* of ours. *Boyle.*

ER'ROR, *ſ.* [Lat.] Miſtake; involuntary deviation from truth.—*Error* is a miſtake of our judgment giving aſſent to that which is not true. *Locke.*

Oh, hateful *error*, melancholy's child!
Why do'ſt thou ſhew to the apt thoughts of men,
The things that are not? *Shakeſpeare.*

A blunder; an act or aſſertion in which a miſtake is committed:

In religion,
What damned *error*, but ſome ſober brow
Will bleſs it? *Shakeſpeare.*

Roving excurſion; irregular courſe:

What brought you living to the Stygian ſtate?
Driv'n by the winds and *errors* of the ſea,
Or did you Heav'n's ſuperior doom obey? *Dryden.*

[In theology.] Sin.—Blood he offered for himſelf, and for the *errors* of the people. *Heb.* ix. 7.

ER'ROR, in law, ſignifies ſomething wrong in pleading or proceſs; whereupon a writ is brought for remedy thereof, called a writ of error. This writ is a commiſſion to judges of a ſuperior court by which they are authoriſed to examine the record, upon which a judgment was given in an inferior court, and on ſuch examination to affirm or reverſe the ſame, according to law. *Jenk. Rep.* 25. There is alſo a writ of error to reverſe a fine, and which muſt be proſecuted within twenty years by 10 & 11 Wil. III. c. 14. A writ of error to ſome ſuperior court of appeal is the principal method of redreſs for erroneous judgments in the king's courts of record, having power to hold plea of debt or trepaſs above 40s. It lies for ſome ſuppoſed miſtake in the proceedings of ſuch court; for, to amend errors in a baſe court, not of record, a writ of falſe judgment lies. *Finch L.* 484. The writ of error only lies upon matter of law, ariſing on the face of the proceedings; ſo that no evidence is required to ſubſtantiate or ſupport it, there being no method of reverſing an error in the determination of facts, but by an attaint or a new trial, to correct the miſtakes of the former verdict. If a writ of error be brought to reverſe any judgment of an inferior court of record where the damages are leſs than 10l. or if it is brought to reverſe the judgment of any ſuperior court after verdict, he that brings the writ, or that is plaintiff in error, muſt (except in ſome peculiar caſes) find ſubſtantial bail; to prevent delays by frivolous pretences of appeal; and for ſecuring payment of coſts and damages. 3 *Jac.* I. c. 8. 13 *Ch.* II. c. 2. 16 & 17 *Ch.* II. c. 8. 19 *Geo.* III. c. 70.

A writ of error lies from the inferior courts of record in England into the king's bench, and not into the common pleas. *Finch L.* 480. And before 23 *Geo.* III. c. 28, it lay from the king's bench in Ireland to the king's bench in England. It likewiſe may be brought from the common pleas at Weſtminſter to the king's bench, and then from the king's bench the cauſe is removable to the houſe of lords. From proceedings on the law ſide of the exchequer, a writ of error lies into the court of exchequer-chamber, before the lord chancellor, lord treaſurer, and the judges of the courts of king's-bench and common-pleas; and from thence it lies to the houſe of peers. From proceedings in the king's-bench in debt, detinue, covenant, account, caſe, ejectment, or treſpaſs, originally begun there by bill (except where the king is a party), it lies to the exchequer-chamber, before the juſtices of the common-pleas and barons of the exchequer; and from thence alſo to the houſe of lords. 27 *Eliz.* c. 8. But where the proceedings in the king's-bench do not firſt commence therein by bill, but by original writ ſued out of chancery, this takes the caſe out of the general rule laid down by the ſtatute; ſo that the writ of error then lies without any intermediate ſtage of appeal directly to the houſe of lords, the dernier reſort for the ultimate deciſion of every civil action. *Carth.* 180. *Comb.* 295. Each court of appeal in their reſpective ſtages may, upon hearing the

matter of law in which the error is aſſigned, reverſe or affirm the judgment of the inferior courts; but none of them are final ſave only the houſe of peers, to whoſe judicial deciſion all other tribunals muſt therefore ſubmit and conform their own.

In criminal caſes alſo, judgments may be reverſed by writ of error; which lies from all inferior criminal juriſdictions to the court of king's-bench, and from king's-bench to the houſe of peers. It may be brought for notorious miſtakes in the judgment or other parts of the record: as where a man is found guilty of perjury and receives the judgment of felony; or for other leſs palpable errors, ſuch as any irregularity, omiſſion, or want of form, in the proceſs of outlawry or proclamations; the want of a proper addition to the defendant's name, according to the ſtatute; for not properly naming the ſheriff, or other officer of the court, or not duly deſcribing where his county court was held: for laying an offence committed in the time of the late king, to be done againſt the peace of the preſent; and for many other ſimilar cauſes, which (though allowed out of tenderneſs to life and liberty) are not much to the credit or advantage of national juſtice.

Theſe writs of error to reverſe judgments in caſes of miſdemeanors, are not to be allowed of courſe, but on ſufficient probable cauſe ſhewn to the attorney general; and then they are underſtood to be grantable of common right, *et ex debito juſtitiæ*. But writs of error to reverſe attainders in capital caſes are allowed only *ex gratiâ*; and not without expreſs warrant under the king's ſign manual, or at leaſt by the conſent of the attorney general. Thoſe therefore can rarely be brought by the party himſelf, eſpecially where he is attainted for an offence againſt the ſtate; but they may be brought by his heir or executor after his death. But the eaſier and more effectual way, is to reverſe ſuch attainder by act of parliament.

Error in the king's-bench is thus proſecuted: the curſtor of the county makes out the writ of error, from a præcipe or copy of the declaration left with him; which is to be allowed with the clerk of the errors, and a certificate of the allowance of the writ muſt be ſerved on the defendant's attorney in error; alſo the plaintiff's attorney in the action, is to procure an original to warrant his judgment; and warrants of attorney muſt be filed and bail put in, where required, &c. And then the proceedings are by *ſcire facias ad audiendum errores* againſt the plaintiff in the action, wherein judgment was obtained; and the writ of error being received by the ſheriff to whom directed, he is to give notice to the plaintiff in error to ſhew cauſe why execution ſhould not be on the judgment, and make a return to that purpoſe; then a rule is to be given with the clerk of the rules for the plaintiff in error to aſſign his errors by ſuch a day, which if he ſhall not do before the rule is out, the plaintiff in the original action may take out execution againſt him.

If you would bring a writ of error in parliament to reverſe a judgment in the king's-bench, there muſt be a petition to the king for his warrant, which petition has the allowance of the attorney-general, and then the king writes on the top of it *Fiat juſtitia*; whereupon a writ of error is made out by the clerk of the errors. And then the lord chief juſtice of the king's-bench carries the record, and a tranſcript thereof, up to the houſe of lords in full parliament, and after they are examined there, leaves the tranſcript with the lords, but brings back the record: and this being done, the attorney for the defendant in error gets ſome lord to move that the plaintiff in error may aſſign his errors; but if for the plaintiff, motion is to be made, that upon his aſſigning errors, the defendant may appear and make his defence, and counſel be heard on both ſides: then, after the judgment is either affirmed or reverſed, the clerk of the parliament remands the tranſcript of the record into the king's-bench with the affirmation or reverſal thereof, to be entered upon the record of the ſaid court, which court, if affirmed, awards execution, &c.

ERSE, *adj.* Old Scotch.—Have you ſeen the *Erſe* fragments, ſince they were printed? *Gray's Letters.*

ERSE, a river of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, which runs into the Fuhſe, eight miles ſouth of Zelle.

ER'SILTON, or ERLSTON, a town of Scotland, in the county of Berwick: ſeven miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of Lauder, and twenty-eight weſt of Berwick.

ERST, *adv.* [*erſt*, Germ. æpꝛta, Sax.] Firſt:

Sir knight, if knight thou be,
Abandon this foreſtalled place at *erſt*,
For fear of further harm, I counſel thee. *Spenſer.*

At firſt; in the beginning:

Fame that her high worth to raiſe,
Seem'd *erſt* ſo laviſh and profuſe,
We may juſtly now accuſe
Of detraction from her praiſe. *Milton.*

Once; when time was:

As ſignal now in low dejected ſtate
As *erſt* in higheſt. *Samſon Agoniſtes.*

Formerly; long ago:

The future few or more, howe'er they be,
Were deſtin'd *erſt*, nor can by fate's decree
Be now cut off. *Prior.*

Before; till then; till now.—The Rhodians, who *erſt* thought themſelves at great quiet, were now overtaken with a ſudden miſchief. *Knolles.*

Opener mine eyes,
Dim *erſt*; dilated ſpirits, ampler heart. *Milton.*

ER'STEIN, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, and chief place of a canton, in the diſtrict of Benfelden: three leagues ſouth of Straſburg.

ER'TO DEL FERRO, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Calabria Citra: ten miles weſt of Umbriatico.

ERUBES'CENCE, or ERUBESCENCY, *ſ.* [*erubeſcentia*, Lat.] The act of growing red; redneſs.

ERUBES'CENT, *adj.* [*erubeſcens*, Lat.] Reddiſh; ſomewhat red; inclining to redneſs.

ERU'CA, *ſ.* [from *erugo*, Lat. to make ſmooth.] A worm or caterpillar; ſo called becauſe in moving it extends and ſmooths the wrinkles in the ſkin. See ENTOMOLOGY, in this volume.

ERU'CA, *ſ.* in botany. See ARABIS, BRASSICA, BUNIAS, CHEIRANTHUS, ERYSIMUM, SINAPIS, and SISYMBRIUM.

ERUCA'GO, *ſ.* in botany. See BUNIAS and RESEDA.

ERUCAS'TRUM, *ſ.* in botany. See BRASSICA.

To ERU'CT, or ERUCTATE, *v. a.* [*eructo*, Lat.] To belch; to break wind from the ſtomach.

ERUCTA'TION, *ſ.* The act of belching.—Belch; the matter vented from the ſtomach.—The ſigns of the functions of the ſtomach being depraved, are *eructations*, either with the taſte of the aliment, acid, inodorous, or fetid. *Arbuthnot.*—Any ſudden burſt of wind or matter.—Thermæ, are hot ſprings, or fiery *eructations*; ſuch as burſt forth of the earth during earthquakes. *Woodward.*

E'RUDITE, *adj.* [*eruditus*, Lat.] Learned. It often conveys a ſneer.—Your Latin lecture is as good Latin as the *erudite* Germans ſpeak or write. *Cheſterfield.*

E'RUDITELY, *adj.* Learnedly. *Scott.*

ERUDI'TION, *ſ.* [*eruditio*, Lat.] Learning; knowledge obtained by ſtudy and inſtruction.—Some gentlemen, abounding in their univerſity *erudition*, fill their ſermons with philoſophical terms. *Swift.*

ERVEDEI'RA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Eſtremadura: twelve miles north-north-weſt of Leiria.

ERUGA'TION, *ſ.* [*e*, from, and *ruga*, Lat. wrinkles.] The act of clearing any thing from wrinkles. *Scott.*

ERU'GINOUS, *adj.* [*æruginoſus*, Lat.] Partaking of the ſubſtance and nature of copper.—Copperas is a rough and acrimonious kind of ſalt, drawn out of ferreous and

eruginous

eruginous earths, partaking chiefly of iron and copper; the blue of copper, the green of iron. *Browne.*

ER'VINE, a townſhip of the American States, in Ontario county.

ERUNCA'TION, *ſ.* A weeding or pulling up of weeds.

ERUP'TION, *ſ.* [*eruptio*, Lat.] The act of breaking or burſting forth from any confinement.—Finding themſelves pent in by the exterior earth, they preſſed with violence againſt that arch, to make it yield and give way to their dilatation and *eruption*. *Burnet.*—Burſt; emiſſion; ſomething forcing itſelf out ſuddenly.—In part of Media there are *eruptions* of flames out of plains. *Bacon.*—Sudden excurſion of an hoſtile kind:

Thither, if but to pry, ſhall be perhaps
Our firſt *eruption*, thither or elſewhere;
For this infernal pit ſhall never hold
Celeſtial ſpirits in bondage. *Milton.*

Violent exclamation.—To his ſecretary he would, in the abſence of all other ears and eyes, break out into bitter and paſſionate *eruptions*. *Wotton.*—Efflorence; puſtules.—Unripe fruits are apt to occaſion foul *eruptions* on the ſkin. *Arbuthnot.*

ERUP'TIVE, *adj.* [*eruptius*, Lat.] Burſting forth:

'Tis liſtening fear, and dumb amazement all,
When to the ſtartled eye the ſudden glance
Appears far ſouth *eruptive* through the cloud. *Thomſon.*

ERUPTU'RIENT, *adj.* Apt to break forth; ready to break forth. *Cole.*

ER'VUM, *ſ.* [of Pliny; from the Greek ορόβος, changing *β* into *υ*, as from *βια*, *vis*, from *βιω*, *vivo*, from *βοσκω*, *veſcor.*] The TARE, or LENTIL; in botany, a genus of the claſs diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminoſæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: five-parted, length of the corolla; diviſions linear, acuminate, nearly equal. Corolla: papilionaceous; ſtandard flat, ſlightly reflex, roundiſh, larger; wings obtuſe, ſhorter by half than the ſtandard; keel ſhorter than the wings, acuminate. Stamina: filaments diadelphous (ſimple and nine-cleft), riſing; antheræ ſimple. Piſtillum: germ oblong; ſtyle ſimple, riſing; ſtigma obtuſe, beardleſs. Pericarpium: legume oblong, obtuſe, columnar, knotty with the protuberant ſeeds. Seeds: four. This genus differs from Vicia in the ſtigma alone.—*Eſſential Character.* Calyx five-parted, the length of the corolla.

Species. 1. Ervum lens, or flat-ſeeded tare or common lentil: about two flowers on a peduncle, ſeeds compreſſed, convex. The lentil is an annual plant, and the leaſt of the pulſe kind which is cultivated. It riſes with weak ſtalks a foot and a half high, having pinnate leaves at each joint, compoſed of ſeveral pairs of narrow leaflets, terminated by a tendril, which ſupports it by faſtening about ſome other plant. The flowers come out on ſhort peduncles from the ſides of the branches; they are ſmall, of a pale purple colour, and three or four together. Legumes ſhort and flat, containing two or three flat, round, ſeeds, a little convex in the middle. The flowers appear in May, and the ſeeds ripen in July. Grows wild in the corn-fields of France and Germany, the paſtures of Carniola, and the vineyards of the Valais. It is cultivated either as fodder for cattle, or for the ſeeds, which are uſed in ſoups. Theſe are commonly eaten by the poorer ſort in ſome iſlands of the Archipelago, and other warm countries. The contempt, however, in which they are held is apparent from the proverbial expreſſions, *Dives factus jam deſiit gaudere lente*; and *mira de lente*. The cultivation of this pulſe does not ſeem to have been of very long ſtanding in England: for Gerarde ſays, "theſe pulſes (great and little lentils) do grow in my garden (1596); and it is reported unto me by thoſe of good credit, that about Watford in Middleſex (Hertfordſhire), and other places of England, the huſbandmen do ſow them for their cattle, even as others do tares."

2. Ervum tetraſpermum, or ſmooth tare: about two flowers on a peduncle; ſeeds globular, four in a legume. Root annual. Stems in open places ſlender, weak, and much branched; but among corn ſupporting themſelves by tendrils to a foot or more in height; two-edged and inclining to four-cornered. Legumes perfectly ſmooth, inclining to cylindric, and containing four ſeeds, nearly globular, browniſh mottled with black. According to Scopoli, there are ſometimes five ſeeds in a legume; and Mr. Woodward remarked a variety near Cambridge, in which the legumes contain, five, ſix, or ſeven, ſeeds, very rarely four. The ſtem was low and extremely branched. Theſe differences could not proceed from luxuriance of ſoil, as the ſpot where it grew was remarkably dry gravel. This ſpecies is found in moſt corn-fields, clinging to the corn, and if the ſeaſon favours its growth, ſometimes quite overcoming it.

3. Ervum hirſutum, or hairy tare: peduncles many-flowered; ſeeds globular, two in a legume. Annual. Stems weak, much branched, climbing, quadrangular, ſtreaked, from one to two feet high. Eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the foregoing; the leaves not being pointed as in that, but truncate; the ſtipules divided into many more ſegments; the flowers, and conſequently the legumes, growing in a kind of cluſter. It is deſtructive to corn, being ſtronger and more prolific. In wet ſeaſons whole crops are overpowered by this plant. Yet this and the preceding may be eaſily deſtroyed, if they are cut up when they begin to flower.

4. Ervum ſolonienſe, or ſpring tare: about two flowers on a peduncle awned, petioles acuminate, leaflets obtuſe. Flower ſmall, reddiſh. Legumes ſlender, an inch in length, with three or four minute hexaedral ſeeds in each. It is diſtinguiſhed by its earlineſs, the tenuity of its parts, and the ſhape of its ſeeds. It appears at the cloſe of winter, in neglected paſtures, in France. Linnæus thinks that it is allied to Lathyrus angulatus. Cultivated in Chelſea garden in 1739; it flowers in April and May.

5. Ervum monanthos, or one-flowered tare or lentil: peduncles one-flowered. Larger than lentil, climbing by means of bifid or trifid tendrils. It is annual; and, according to Linnæus, the leaflets convolute. Native of Ruſſia, and the county of Nice. Near Herborn in Germany, among lentils. It flowers from May to July.

6. Ervum ervilia, or officinal tare: germs naked and plaited, leaves unequally pinnate. This is an annual plant, riſing with angular weak ſtalks, having at each joint one pinnate leaf, compoſed of fourteen or fifteen pair of leaflets, like thoſe of the vetch, but narrower. The flowers come out, in June, from the ſides of the ſtalk, on peduncles an inch long, each ſuſtaining two pale-coloured flowers, which are ſucceeded by ſhort pods a little compreſſed, each containing three or four ſeeds. Native of France, Italy, and the Levant.

Propagation and Culture. The ſeeds of lentils are commonly ſown in March, where the land is dry, but in moiſt ground April is the beſt time. The uſual quantity of ſeed allowed to an acre is from a buſhel and a half to two buſhels. If theſe are ſown in drills in the ſame manner as peaſe, they will ſucceed better than when they are ſown broad caſt: the drills ſhould be a foot and a half aſunder, to allow room for the hoe to clean the ground between them; for if weeds be permitted to grow, they will ſoon ſtarve the lentils. See SOPHORA.

ER'VY, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Aube: ſeventeen miles ſouth of Troyes, and twelve north of Tonnerre.

ER'WASH, a river of England, which riſes in the county of Nottingham, and almoſt in its whole courſe ſeparates that county from Derbyſhire, and falls into the Trent, four miles ſouth-weſt of Nottingham.

ER'WITE, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and duchy of Weſtphalia: five miles ſouth of Lippſtadt.

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The leaf in this Volume containing pages 227 and 228, and in which the article ECHINORYNCHUS is omitted, must be cancelled, and the annexed leaf, comprising that article, substituted in its place.

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